# Analysis II HS21

by Paolo Laffranchi

# 2 ODE (ordinary differential equation)

### Theorem 2.1.6

Let  $F: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable. Let  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then the ODE y' = F(x, y) has a **unique solution** f defined on a "largest" open interval I containing  $x_0$  such that  $f(x_0) = y_0$ .

#### Definition 2.2.1

Let  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  be an open interval and  $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . An **homogeneous linear ODE of order** k on I is of the form  $y^{(k)} + a_{k-1}y^{(k-1)} + \cdots + a_1y' + a_0y = 0$  where the coefficients  $a_0, \ldots, a_{k-1}$  are complex-valued functions on I, and the unknown is a function  $I \to \mathbb{C}$  that is k-times differentiable on I. An equation of the form  $y^{(k)} + a_{k-1}y^{(k-1)} + \cdots + a_1y' + a_0y = b$ , where  $b: I \to \mathbb{C}$  is another function, is called an **inhomogeneous linear ODE**.

### Recognize a linear ODE

- 1. no coefficients before the highest derivative
- 2. all coefficients are continuous
- 3. no products of y or their derivatives
- 4. no powers of y or their derivatives
- 5. no functions depending on y or their derivatives

# Proposition 2.3.1

Any solution of y' + ay = 0 is of the form  $f(x) = z \exp(-A(x))$  where A is a primitive of a. The unique solution with  $f(x_0) = y_0$  is  $f(x) = y_0 \exp(A(x_0) - A(x))$ .

# Solving inhomogeneous equations

Case 1: Make a guess. For example  $y' = y + x^2$  guess  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ , and solve the equation.

**Case 2:** Use the variation of the constant. Assume  $f_p = z(x) \exp(-A(x))$  for  $z: I \to \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $z'(x) = b(x) \exp(A(x)) \Longrightarrow k(x) = \int b(x) \exp(A(x)) dx$ .

# Definition Linear differential equations with constant coefficients

Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ ,  $a_0, ..., a_{k-1} \in \mathbb{C}$  fixed and b a general continuous function, then  $y^{(k)} + a_{k-1}y^{(k-1)} + \cdots + a_1y' + a_0y = b$  is such equation.

### Solution of hom. diff. eq. with constant coefficients

Look for solutions of the form  $f(x) = e^{\alpha x}$  for  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then we have  $f^{(j)}(x) = \alpha^j e^{\alpha x}$  for all  $j \ge 0$  and for all x, which means that

$$f^{(k)}(x) + a_{k-1}f^{(k-1)}(x) + \dots + a_1f'(x) + a_0f(x)$$
  
=  $e^{\alpha x} \left( \alpha^k + a_{k-1}\alpha^{k-1} + \dots + a_1\alpha + a_0 \right)$ .

This translates into finding the zeros  $(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k \in \mathbb{C})$  of the characteristic polynomial:

$$P(X) = X^{k} + a_{k-1}X^{k} + \dots + a_{1}X + a_{0}$$
  
=  $(X - \alpha_{1}) \cdots (X - \alpha_{k}) = 0$ 

### Imaginary roots

If a root is not real i.e.  $\alpha = \beta + i\gamma$ , the solution  $f(x) = e^{\alpha x}$  does not take real values, but  $\overline{\alpha} = \beta - i\gamma$  is also a root, hence we can write  $\widetilde{f}_1(x) = e^{\beta x} \cos(\gamma x)$ ,  $\widetilde{f}_2(x) = e^{\beta x} \sin(\gamma x)$  instead of  $f_1(x) = e^{\alpha x}$ ,  $f_2(x) = e^{\overline{\alpha}x}$ 

# Multiple roots

Case 1: no multiple roots. Any solution of the equation is of the form  $f(x) = z_1 e^{a_1 x} + \cdots + z_k e^{a_k x}$ .

Case 2: multiple roots. Suppose that  $\alpha$  is a multiple root of order j with  $2 \leq j \leq k$ . Then the k functions  $f_{\alpha,0}(x) = e^{\alpha x}$ ,  $f_{\alpha,1}(x) = xe^{\alpha x}$ ,  $\cdots$ ,  $f_{\alpha,j-1}(x) = x^{j-1}e^{\alpha x}$  are linearly independent solutions. Taking the union of the functions  $f_{\alpha,j}$  for all roots of P, each with its multiplicity, gives a basis of the space of solutions.

# 3 Differential calculus in $\mathbb{R}^n$

### Definition 3.2.1.

Let  $(x_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$  where  $x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Write  $x_k = (x_{k,1}, \ldots, x_{k,n})$ . Let  $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . The sequence  $(x_k)$  converges to  $(\to)$  y as  $k \to +\infty$  if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists N \geqslant 1$  s.t.  $\forall k \geqslant N$ , we have  $||x_k - y|| < \varepsilon$ .

#### Lemma 3.2.2.

 $(x_k) \to y$  as  $k \to +\infty \iff$  either:

(1)  $\forall i, 1 \leq i \leq n$ , the sequence of real numbers  $(x_{k,i}) \to y_i$ .

(2) The sequence of real numbers  $||x_k - y|| \to 0$  as  $k \to +\infty$ .

### Definition 3.2.3.

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$ . (1) Let  $x_0 \in X$ . f is **continuous at**  $x_0$  if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0 \ \text{s.t.} \ \|x - x_0\| < \delta \implies \|f(x) - f(x_0)\| < \varepsilon, \ \forall x \in X$ . (2) f is **continuous** on X if it is continuous at  $x_0 \ \forall x_0 \in X$ .

#### Proposition 3.2.4

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$ . Let  $x_0 \in X$ . The function f is continuous at  $x_0 \iff \forall (x_k)_k \geqslant 1$  in X s.t.  $x_k \to x_0$  as  $k \to +\infty$ , the sequence  $(f(x_k))_k \geqslant 1$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  converges to f(x).

#### Definition 3.2.5.

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$ . Let  $x_0 \in X$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . We say that f has the **limit** y as  $x \to x_0$  with  $x \neq x_0$  if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$ , s.t.  $\forall x \in X, x \neq x_0$ , s.t.  $||x - x_0|| < \delta$ , we have  $||f(x) - y|| < \varepsilon$ . We then write  $\lim_{\substack{x \to x_0 \\ x \neq x_0}} f(x) = y$ .

#### Proposition 3.2.7

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$ . Let  $x_0 \in X$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . We have  $\lim_{\substack{x \to x_0 \\ x \neq x_0}} f(x) = y \iff \forall (x_k) \in X \text{ s.t. } x_k \to x \text{ as } k \to +\infty$ , and  $x_k \neq x_0$ , the sequence  $(f(x_k))$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  converges to y.

#### Proposition 3.2.9

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n, Y \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $p \geqslant 1$  an integer. Let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to \mathbb{R}^p$  be continuous functions. Then the composite  $g \circ f$  is continuous

#### Definition 3.2.11.

- (1) A subset  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is **bounded** if the set of ||x|| for  $x \in X$  is bounded in  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- (2) A subset  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is **closed** if for every sequence  $(x_k)$  in X that converges in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to some vector  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have  $y \in X$ .
- (3) A subset  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is **compact** if it is bounded and closed.

# Proposition 3.2.13

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a continuous map. For any closed set  $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $f^{-1}(Y) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(x) \in Y\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \text{ is closed.}$ 

### Theorem 3.2.15.

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a non-empty compact set and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  a continuous function. Then f is bounded and achieves its max and min. I.e.  $\exists x_+, x_- \in X \text{ s.t. } f(x_+) = \sup_{x \in X} f(x), f(x_-) = \inf_{x \in X} f(x).$ 

### Definition 3.3.1.

A subset  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is **open** if, for any  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in X$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  s.t. the set

$$\{y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x_i - y_i| < \delta \text{ for all } i\}$$

is contained in X. In other words: any point of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  obtained by changing any coordinate of x by at most  $\delta$  is still in X.

#### Proposition 3.3.2

A set  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is open if and only if the complement  $Y = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x \notin X\}$  is closed.

### Corollary 3.3.3.

If  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  is continuous and  $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  is open, then  $f^{-1}(Y)$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

### Definition 3.3.5

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set. Let  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a function. Let  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . We say that f has a **partial derivative** on X with respect to the i-th variable, or coordinate, if for all  $x_0 = (x_{0,1}, \ldots, x_{0,n}) \in X$ , the function defined by

$$g(t) = f(x_{0,1}, \dots, x_{0,i-1}, t, x_{0,i+1}, \dots, x_{0,n})$$

on the set  $I = \{t \in \mathbb{R} : (x_{0,1}, \dots, x_{0,i-1}, t, x_{0,i+1}, \dots, x_{0,n}) \in X\}$  is differentiable at  $t = x_{0,i}$ . Its **derivative**  $g'(x_{0,i})$  at  $x_{0,i}$  is denoted

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x_0), \quad \partial_{x_i} f(x_0), \quad \partial_i f(x_0)$$

## Proposition 3.3.7

Consider  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open and f, g functions from X to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . Let  $1 \leqslant i \leqslant n$ .

(1) If f and g have partial derivatives with respect to the i-th coordinate on X, then f + g also does, and

$$\partial_{x_i}(f+g) = \partial_{x_i}(f) + \partial_{x_i}(g).$$

(2) If m = 1, and if f and g have partial derivatives with respect to the i-th coordinate on X, then fg also does and

$$\partial_{x_i}(fg) = \partial_{x_i}(f)g + f\partial_{x_i}(g).$$

Furthermore, if  $g(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in X$ , then f/g has a partial derivative with respect to the *i*-th coordinate on X, with

$$\partial_{x_i}(f/g) = (\partial_{x_i}(f)g - f\partial_{x_i}(g))/g^2.$$

### Definition 3.3.9. (Jacobi matrix)

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  a function with partial derivatives on X. Write

$$f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x)).$$

For any  $x \in X$ , the matrix

$$J_f(x) = \left(\partial_{x_j} f_i(x)\right)_{\substack{1 \leqslant i \leqslant m \\ 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n}}$$

with m rows and n columns is called the **Jacobi matrix** of f at x.

## Definition 3.3.11 (Gradient, Divergence)

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open. (1) Let  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function. If all partial derivatives of f exist at  $x_0 \in X$ , then the column vector

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \partial_{x_1} f\left(x_0\right) \\ \cdots \\ \partial_{x_n} f\left(x_0\right) \end{array}\right)$$

is called the **gradient** at  $x_0$ , and is denoted  $\nabla f(x_0)$ . (2) Let  $f = (f_1, \ldots, f_n) : X \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a function with values in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  s.t. all partial derivatives of all coordinates  $f_i$  of f exist at  $x_0 \in X$ . Then the real number

$$\operatorname{Tr}\left(J_{f}\left(x_{0}\right)\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \partial_{x_{i}} f_{i}\left(x_{0}\right),$$

the trace of the Jacobi matrix, is called the **divergence** of f at  $x_0$ , and is denoted  $\operatorname{div}(f)(x_0)$ .

#### Definition 3.4.2.

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a function. Let u be a linear map  $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $x_0 \in X$ . We say that f is differentiable at  $x_0$  with differential u if

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{1}{\|x - x_0\|} \left( f(x) - f(x_0) - u(x - x_0) \right) = 0$$

where the limit is in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . We then denote  $df(x_0) = u$ . If f is differentiable at every  $x_0 \in X$ , then we say that f is differentiable on X.

### Proposition 3.4.4.

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a function that is differentiable on X. (1) The function f is continuous on X. (2) The function f admits partial derivatives on X with respect to each variable. (3) Assume that m = 1. Let  $x_0 \in X$ , and let  $u(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n$  be the differential of f at  $x_0$ . We then have  $\partial_{x_i} f(x_0) = a_i$  for  $1 \le i \le n$ .

### Proposition 3.4.6.

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $g: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  differentiable functions on X.

- (1) The function f + g is differentiable with differential d(f + g) = df + dg, and if m = 1, then fg is differentiable.
- (2) If m = 1 and if  $g(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in X$ , then f/g is differentiable.

### Proposition 3.4.7

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  a function on X. If f has all partial derivatives on X, and if the partial derivatives of f are continuous on X, then f is differentiable on X, with differential determined by its partial derivatives, in the sense that the matrix of the differential  $df(x_0)$ , with respect to the canonical basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , is the Jacobi matrix of f at  $x_0$ .

## Proposition 3.4.9 (Chain rule)

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open,  $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  be open, and let  $f: X \to Y$  and  $g: Y \to \mathbb{R}^p$  be differentiable functions. Then  $g \circ f: X \to \mathbb{R}^p$  is differentiable on X, and for any  $x \in X$ , its differential is given by the composition

$$d(g \circ f)(x_0) = dg(f(x_0)) \circ df(x_0).$$

In particular, the Jacobi matrix satisfies

$$J_{g \circ f}(x_0) = J_g(f(x_0)) J_f(x_0)$$

where the right-hand side is a matrix product.

# From Example 3.4.10, 2.36L

Referring to the propostion above (3.4.9)

(2) let p = 1, then it holds that

$$\partial_j(g \circ f)(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m \partial_i g(f(x)) \cdot \partial_j f_i(x)$$

(3) let p = 1 and  $X \subset \mathbb{R}$ , than it holds that

$$(g \circ f)'(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\partial_{i}g) (f(t)) \cdot f'_{i}(t)$$
$$= \langle \nabla g(f(t)), f'(t) \rangle.$$

### Definition 3.4.11.

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  a function that is differentiable. Let  $x_0 \in X$  and  $u = df(x_0)$  be the differential of f at  $x_0$ . The graph of the affine linear approximation

$$g(x) = f(x_0) + u(x - x_0)$$

from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , or in other words the set

$$\{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m : y = f(x_0) + u(x - x_0)$$

is called the **tangent space** at  $x_0$  to the graph of f.

#### Definition 3.4.13.

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set and let  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a function. Let  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be a non-zero vector and  $x_0 \in X$ . We say that f has **directional** derivative  $w \in \mathbb{R}^m$  in the direction v, if the function g defined on the set

$$I = \{ t \in \mathbb{R} : x_0 + tv \in X \}$$

by

$$g(t) = f\left(x_0 + tv\right)$$

has a derivative at t=0, and this is equal to w. In other words, this means that the limit

$$\lim_{\substack{t \to 0 \\ t \neq 0}} \frac{f\left(x_0 + tv\right) - f\left(x_0\right)}{t}$$

exists and is equal to w.

#### Proposition 3.4.15

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set and let  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a differentiable function. Then for any  $x \in X$  and non-zero  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the function f has a directional derivative at  $x_0$  in the direction v, equal to  $df(x_0)(v)$ .

#### Definition 3.5.1.

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$ . We say that f is of class  $C^1$  if f is differentiable on X and all its partial derivatives are continuous. The set of functions of class  $C^1$  from X to  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is denoted  $C^1(X; \mathbb{R}^m)$ . Let  $k \geq 2$ . We say, by induction, that f is of class  $C^k$  if it is differentiable and each partial derivative  $\partial_{x_i} f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  is of class  $C^{k-1}$ . The set of

functions of class  $C^k$  from X to  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is denoted  $C^k(X;\mathbb{R}^m)$ . If  $f \in C^k(X;\mathbb{R}^m)$  for all  $k \ge 1$ , then we say that f is of class  $C^\infty$ . The set of such functions is denoted  $C^\infty(X;\mathbb{R}^m)$ .

### Proposition 3.5.4 (Mixed derivatives commute)

 $k \ge 2$ . Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and let  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a function of class  $C^k$ . Then the partial derivatives of order k are independent of the order in which the partial derivatives are taken: for any variables x and y, we have  $\partial_{x,y} f = \partial_{y,x} f$  and for any variables x, y, z, we have

$$\partial_{x,y,z}f = \partial_{x,z,y}f = \partial_{y,z,x}f = \partial_{z,x,y}f = \cdots$$

### Definition 3.5.9 (Hessian).

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  a  $C^2$  function. For  $x \in X$ , the **Hessian matrix** of f at x is the symmetric square matrix

$$\operatorname{Hess}_f(x) = (\partial_{x_i, x_j} f)_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}.$$

We also sometimes write simply  $H_f(x)$ .

### Definition 3.7.1 (Taylor polynomials).

Let  $k \ge 1$  be an integer. Let  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function of class  $C^k$  on X, and fix  $x_0 \in X$ . The k-th Taylor polynomial of f at the point  $x_0$  is the polynomial in n variables of degree  $\le k$  given by

$$T_{k}f(y;x_{0}) = f(x_{0}) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}(x_{0}) y_{i} + \cdots + \sum_{m_{1}+\dots+m_{n}=k} \frac{1}{m_{1}! \cdots m_{n}!} \frac{\partial^{k} f}{\partial x_{1}^{m_{1}} \cdots \partial x_{n}^{m_{n}}}(x_{0}) y_{1}^{m_{1}} \cdots y_{n}^{m_{n}}$$

where the last sum ranges over the tuples of n non-negative integers s.t. the sum is k.

# Corollary $T_2f$ (L)

With  $x, x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $x_0$  fixed.

$$T_{2}f\left(x;x_{0}\right) = f\left(x_{0}\right) + \left\langle \nabla f\left(x_{0}\right),x\right\rangle + \frac{1}{2}x^{\top} \cdot \operatorname{Hesse}_{f}\left(x_{0}\right) \cdot x$$

# Proposition 3.7.3 (Taylor approximation

Let  $k \ge 1$  be an integer. Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function of class  $C^k$ . For  $x_0$  in X, if we define  $E_k f(x; x_0)$  by

$$f(x) = T_k f(x - x_0; x_0) + E_k f(x; x_0)$$

then we have

$$\lim_{\substack{x \to x_0 \\ x \neq x_0}} \frac{E_k f(x; x_0)}{\|x - x_0\|^k} = 0$$

### Proposition 3.8.1. (Maximum, minimum and derivative)

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  a differentiable function. If  $x_0 \in X$  is s.t.

 $f(y) \leq f(x_0)$  for all y close enough to  $x_0$  (local maximum at  $x_0$ )

 $f(y) \ge f(x_0)$  for all y close enough to  $x_0$  (local minimum at  $x_0$ ).

Then we have  $df(x_0) = 0$ , or in other words  $\nabla f(x_0) = 0$ , or equivalently  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_0}(x_0) = 0$  for  $1 \le i \le n$ .

### Definition 3.8.2 (Critical point)

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  a differentiable function. A point  $x_0 \in X$  s.t.  $\nabla f(x_0) = 0$  is called a **critical point** of the function f.

### Definition 3.8.6 (Non-degenerate critical point)

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^n$  a function of class  $C^2$ . A critical point  $x_0 \in X$  of f is called **non-degenerate** if the Hessian matrix has non-zero determinant.

# Definition Positive definite (linalg)

Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be a symmetric matrix. We say A is positive definite if  $\langle x, Ax \rangle > 0$ .

# Proposition Definite matrix and eigenvalues (linalg)

If a matrix is positive definite, all its eigen values are positive.

# Definition Leading principal minor (linalg)

The k-th leading principal minor of a matrix M is the determinant of its upper-left  $k \times k$  sub-matrix.

# Proposition Leading principal minor and definite matrix (linalg)

A matrix is positive definite  $\iff$  all its leading principal minors (1 to n) are positive.

### Corollary 3.8

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  a function of class  $C^2$ . Let  $x_0$  be a non-degenerate critical point of f. Let p and q be the number of positive and negative eigenvalues of Hess  $f(x_0)$ .

- (1) If p = n, equivalently if q = 0, the function f has a local minimum at  $x_0$ .
- (2) If q = n, equivalently if p = 0, the function f has a local maximum at  $x_0$ .
- (3) Otherwise, equivalently if  $pq \neq 0$ , the function f does not have a local extremum at  $x_0$ . One then says that f has a saddle point at  $x_0$ .

### Proposition 3.9.2

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and let  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $g: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be functions of class  $C^1$ . If  $x_0 \in X$  is a local extremum of the function f restricted to the set  $Y = \{x \in X : g(x) = 0\}$  then either  $\nabla g(x_0) = 0$ , or there exists  $\lambda_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t.

$$\begin{cases} \nabla f(x_0) = \lambda \nabla g(x_0) \\ g(x_0) = 0 \end{cases}$$

or in other words, there exists  $\lambda$  s.t.  $(x_0, \lambda)$  is a critical point of the differentiable function  $h: X \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $h(x, \lambda) = f(x) - \lambda g(x)$ . Such a value  $\lambda$  is called a Lagrange multiplier at  $x_0$ .

# Definition 3.10.1 (Change of variable)

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be differentiable. Let  $x_0 \in X$ . We say that f is a **change of variable** around  $x_0$  if there is a radius r > 0 s.t. the restriction of f to the ball

$$B = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||x - x_0|| < r \}$$

of radius r around  $x_0$  has the property that the image Y = f(B) is open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and if there is a differentiable map  $g: Y \to B$  s.t.  $f \circ g = \operatorname{Id}_Y$  and  $g \circ f = \operatorname{Id}_B$ .

# Theorem 3.10.2 (Inverse funtion theorem)

(Inverse function theorem). Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be open and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^n$  differentiable. If  $x_0 \in X$  is s.t.  $\det(J_f(x_0)) \neq 0$ , i.e., s.t. the Jacobian trix of f at  $x_0$  is invertible, then f is a change of variable around  $x_0$ . Moreover, the Jacobian of g at  $x_0$  is determined by

$$J_g\left(f\left(x_0\right)\right) = J_f\left(x_0\right)^{-1}$$

In addition, if f is of class  $C^k$ , then g is of class  $C^k$ .

### Theorem 3.10.4 (Implicit Function Theorem).

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  be open and let  $g: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be of class  $C^k$  with  $k \ge 1$ . Let  $(x_0, y_0) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$  be s.t.  $g(x_0, y_0) = 0$ . Assume that

$$\partial_y g(x_0, y_0) \neq 0$$

Then there exists an open set  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  containing  $x_0$ , an open interval  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  containing  $y_0$ , and a function  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$  of class  $C^k$  s.t. the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} g(x,y) = 0 \\ x \in U, \quad y \in I \end{cases}$$

is equivalent with y = f(x). In particular,  $f(x_0) = y_0$ . Moreover, the gradient of f at  $x_0$  is given by

$$\nabla f(x_0) = -\frac{1}{(\partial_y g)(x_0, y_0)} \nabla_x g(x_0, y_0)$$

where  $\nabla_x g = (\partial_{x_1} g, \dots, \partial_{x_n} g)$ 

# $oxed{4} \quad ext{Integration in } \mathbb{R}^n$

### Definition 4.1.1. (parameterized curve, line integral)

(1) Let I = [a, b] be a closed and bounded interval in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $f(t) = (f_1(t), \dots, f_n(t))$  be a continuous function from I to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , i.e.,  $f_i$  is continuous for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Then we define

$$\int_a^b f(t)dt = \left(\int_a^b f_1(t), \dots, \int_a^b f_n(t)dt\right) \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

(2) A **parameterized curve** in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a continuous map  $\gamma : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}^n$  that is piecewise  $C^1$ , i.e., there exists  $k \ge 1$  and a partition

$$a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_{k-1} < t_k = b$$

such that the restriction of f to  $]t_{j-1}, t_j[$  is  $C^1$  for  $1 \leq j \leq k$ . We say that  $\gamma$  is a parameterized curve, or a path x, between  $\gamma(a)$  and  $\gamma(b)$ .

(3) Let  $\gamma:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^n$  be a parameterized curve. Let  $X\subset\mathbb{R}^n$  be a subset containing the image of  $\gamma$ , and let  $f:X\to\mathbb{R}^n$  be a continuous function. The integral

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(\gamma(t)) \cdot \gamma'(t) dt \in \mathbb{R}$$

is called the **line integral of** f **along**  $\gamma$ . It is denoted

$$\int_{\gamma} f(s) \cdot ds$$
, or  $\int_{\gamma} f(s) \cdot d\vec{s}$ .

### Definition 4.1.4

Let  $\gamma:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^n$  be a parameterized curve. An **oriented reparameterization** of  $\gamma$  is a parameterized curve  $\sigma:[c,d]\to\mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\sigma=\gamma\circ\varphi$ , where  $\varphi:[c,d]\to[a,b]$  is a continuous map, differentiable on ]a,b[, that is strictly increasing and satisfies  $\varphi(a)=c$  and  $\varphi(b)=d$ .

# Proposition 4.1.5

Let  $\gamma$  be a parameterized curve in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\sigma$  an oriented reparameterization of  $\gamma$ . Let X be a set containing the image of  $\gamma$ , or equivalently the image of  $\sigma$ , and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^n$  a continuous function. Then we have

$$\int_{\gamma} f(s) \cdot d\vec{s} = \int_{\sigma} f(s) \cdot d\vec{s}.$$

### Definition 4.1.8

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^n$  a continuous vector field. If, for any  $x_1, x_2$  in X, the line integral  $\int_{\gamma} f(s) \cdot d\vec{s}$  is independent of the choice of a parameterized curve  $\gamma$  in X from  $x_1$  to  $x_2$ , then we say that the vector field is conservative.

### Lemma 3.14L)

A vectorfield  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is conservative  $\iff$  for each parameterized curved  $\gamma$  contained in X it holds that  $\int_{\gamma} f(s) d\vec{s} = 0$ .

#### Theorem 4.1.10

Let X be an open set and f a conservative vector field. Then there exists a  $C^1$  function g on X such that  $f = \nabla g$ .

If any two points of X can be joined by a parameterized curve, then g is unique up to addition of a constant: if  $\nabla g_1 = f$ , then  $g - g_1$  is constant on X.

## Definition 3.16L (path-connected space, potential)

- (1) An open set  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is **path-connected** if for each pair of points in X are the endpoints of a parameterized curve.
- (2) A function  $g: X \to \mathbb{R}$  s.t.  $\nabla g = f$  is called **potential** of f.

### Proposition 4.1.13

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^n$  a vector field of class  $C^1$ Write  $f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_n(x))$ . If f is conservative, then we have

$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} = \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_i}$$

for any integers with  $1 \leq i \neq j \leq n$ .

# Definition 4.1.15 (star shaped)

A subset  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is **star shaped** if there exists  $x_0 \in X$  such that, for alla  $x \in X$ , the line segment joining  $x_0$  to x is contained in X. We then also say that X is **star-shaped around**  $x_0$ 

#### Theorem 4.1.17

Let X be a star-shaped open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let f be a  $C^1$  vector field s.t.  $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} = \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_i}$  on X for all  $i \neq j$  between 1 and n. Then the vector field f is conservative.

# Definition 4.1.20 (curl)

Definition 4.1.20. Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  be an open set and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^3$  a  $C^1$  vector field. Then the curl of f, denoted  $\operatorname{curl}(f)$ , is the continuous vector field on X defined by

$$\operatorname{curl}(f) = \begin{pmatrix} \partial_y f_3 - \partial_z f_2 \\ \partial_z f_1 - \partial_x f_3 \\ \partial_x f_2 - \partial_y f_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $f(x, y, z) = (f_1(x, y, z), f_2(x, y, z), f_3(x, y, z))$ 

### Definition Integral on a rectangle

Let  $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$  a compact rectangle in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Let  $f : R \to \mathbb{R}$  be bounded, s.t.  $\exists M \geqslant 0, \forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}, |f(x, y)| \leqslant M$ . For each partition  $P_x$  with  $x_0 = a < x_1 < \cdots < x_n = b$  of [a, b] and  $P_y$  with  $y_0 = c < y_1 < \cdots < y_n = d$  of [c, d], we can subdivide R into rectangles  $R_{ij} = [x_{i-1}, x_i] \times [y_{j-1}, y_j]$  with area  $\mu(R_{ij}) = (x_i - x_{i-1})(y_j - y_{j-1})$ . Let

$$f_{ij} = \inf_{I_{ij}} f(x, y), \ F_{ij} = \sup_{I_{ij}} f(x, y)$$

We can then define an upper and a lower sum, respectively:

$$s(P_x \times P_y) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} f_{ij} \mu(I_{ij})$$

$$S(P_x \times P_y) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} F_{ij} \mu(I_{ij})$$

## Definition Riemann integrable in $\mathbb{R}^2$

Let  $f: R \to \mathbb{R}$  bounded. Then is f integrable on R if

$$\sup_{(P_x,P_y)} s(P_x \times P_y) = \inf_{(P_x,P_y)} S(P_x \times P_y).$$

This value is defined as

$$\int_R f(x,y)d(x,y) \text{ or } \int\int\limits_R f(x,y)d(x,y).$$

# Definition Riemann integrable and characteristical function

f is on A integrable if  $f \cdot \mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}$  is integrable on R, where  $\mathcal{X}_{\mathcal{A}}$  is the characteristical polynomial of f. We then write  $\int_{A} f(x,y)d(x,y)$  for  $\int_{R} f(x,y)\mathcal{X}_{A}(x,y)d(x,y)$ .

# Riemann integral's properties

- (1) Linearity
- (2) **Positivity** Let  $f, g: A \to \mathbb{R}$  integrable with  $f \leq g$ . Then it follows

$$\int_A f(x,y)d(x,y) \leqslant \int_A g(x,y)d(x,y).$$

Furthermore, if  $f \geqslant 0$ ,  $B \subset A$  and f on B integrable:

$$\int_{B} f(x,y)d(x,y) \leqslant \int_{A} f(x,y)d(x,y).$$

(3) **Triangular inequality** Let  $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$  integrable (in particular, bounded), then is |f| integrable and

$$\left| \int_A f(x,y) d(x,y) \right| \leqslant \int_A |f(x,y)| \, d(x,y)$$

- (4) Volume Let  $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$ , then  $\int_R d(x, y) = (b a)(d c)$ .
- (5) **(O. Stolz 1886)** Let  $f: R \to \mathbb{R}$  on  $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$  integrable. We assume that  $y \mapsto f(x, y) \ \forall x \in [a, b]$  is integrable on [c, d]. This implies that

$$x \mapsto \int_{c}^{d} f(x, y) dy$$

is integrable on [a, b], and

$$\int_{R} f(x,y)d(x,y) = \int_{a}^{b} \left( \int_{c}^{d} f(x,y)dy \right) dx$$

### Proposition 3.30L

Let  $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$  be a compact rectangle and  $f : R \to \mathbb{R}$  continuous. Then is f on R integrable.

## Proposition 3.31I

Let  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  a compact subset and  $f: K \to \mathbb{R}$  continuous. Then is f uniformly continuous.

# Definition 3.32L (null set)

Let  $X \subset R \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then X is a null set (in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ) if  $\forall \epsilon > 0$  there are finite many rectangles  $R_k = [a_k, b_k] \times [c_k, d_k]$  with  $1 \leq k \leq n$ , s.t.

$$X \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^{n} R_k, \quad \sum_{k=1}^{n} \mu(R_k) < \epsilon$$

### Lemma 3.33L

Let  $\varphi:[0,1]\to\mathbb{R}^2$  a Lipschitz curve, so that

$$\|\varphi(s) - \varphi(t)\| \leq M \cdot |s - t| \quad \forall s, t \in [0, 1]$$

Then is the image  $\varphi([0,1]) \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  a null set.

# Proposition 3.35L

Let  $f: R \to \mathbb{R}$  bounded. Let

$$X = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} : f \text{ is in } (x, y) \text{ not continuous}\}$$

If X is a null set, then f is not integrable on R.

# Proposition 3.36L

Let  $\varphi_1, \varphi_2 : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  continuous with  $\varphi_1 \leqslant \varphi_2 \ \forall x \in [a, b]$ . Let  $A = \{(x, y) : a \leqslant x \leqslant b, \varphi_1(x) \leqslant y \leqslant \varphi_2(x)\}$ . Let  $f : A \to \mathbb{R}$  continuous. Then is f on A integrable and it holds:

$$\int_A f(x,y)d(x,y) = \int_a^b dx \int_{\varphi_1(x)}^{\varphi_2(x)} f(x,y)dy.$$

### Lemma 3.37L

Let  $\varphi:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  continuous. Then is the  $graph(\varphi)=\{(x,\varphi(x),x\in[a,b]\}\subset\mathbb{R}^2 \text{ a null set.}$ 

### Definition Border (Rand)

Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^2$  the **border** (Rand in German) is defined as

$$\partial A = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \forall \delta > 0 \ C_{\delta}(x,y) \cap A \neq \emptyset \land C_{\delta}(x,y) \cap (\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus A) \neq \emptyset \}$$

where  $C_{\delta}(x,y) = ]x - \delta, x + \delta[\times]y - \delta, y + \delta[.$ 

# Theorem 4.4.2 (Change of variable formula).

Let  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  be compact subsets. Let  $\varphi : U \to \mathbb{R}^2$  be a continuous map in  $C^1$  and  $f : A \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  a continuous function. Furthermore  $B \subset U$ . We assume

- (1)  $\varphi(B) = A$ ; A, B compact;  $\partial A, \partial B$  null sets.
- (2)  $\varphi: B \setminus N \to A$  is injective, where  $N \subset B$  is a null set.

Then it follows:

$$\int_A f(x,y)d(x,y) = \int_B f(\varphi(u,v)) \left| \det \left( J_{\varphi}(u,v) \right) \right| d(u,v).$$

# Example, polar coordinates (L)

Let  $\phi: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ ;  $(r, \varphi) \mapsto (r \cos \varphi, r \sin \varphi)$ . Then we can convert the integral in cartesian coordinates to polar coordinates in the following manner:

$$\int_{x^2+y^2\leqslant R^2} f(x,y)d(x,y) = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R f(r\cos\varphi,r\sin\varphi)rd(r,\varphi)$$

### Definition 3.39L Jordan curve, orientation

A parameterized Jordan curve is a parameterized curve  $\gamma:[a,b]\to \mathbb{R}^2$  with the following properties

- (1)  $\gamma(a) = \gamma(b)$
- (2)  $\gamma: ]a,b] \to \mathbb{R}^2$  is injective
- (3) A Jordan curve in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is the image of a parameterized Jordan curve.

Let  $e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ . A base  $(b_1, b_2)$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is positive oriented if for the distinct matrix  $g \in M_{2,2}(\mathbb{R})$  with  $g(e_1) = b_1$  and  $g(e_2) = b_2$ ,  $\det(g) > 0$ . It is negative oriented if  $\det(g) < 0$ .

### Definition 3.40 reguläres Gebiet (L)

A reguläres Gebiet is a open bounded subset  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  whose border  $\partial A$  is a finite union of disjoint Jordan curves. Each of this curve is called a border component of A.

Let  $\gamma:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^2$  a parameterized Jordan curve so that  $\gamma([a,b])$  is a border component of A. Then  $\gamma$  is positive oriented relative to A if  $(n(t), \gamma'(t))$  is a positive oriented basis of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , where n(t) is the unitary vector orthogonal to  $\gamma'(t)$  and pointing outwards (not to A).

## Theorem 4.6.3 (3.41L) Green's formula

Let  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  be a reguläres Gebiet and  $F: U \to \mathbb{R}^2$ ;  $(x,y) \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x,y) \\ f_2(x,y) \end{pmatrix}$  a  $C^1$  vector field, where  $A \cup \partial A \subset U \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then it holds

$$\int_A \left( \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y} \right) d(x, y) = \int_{\partial A} F(s) ds := \sum_{i=1}^k \int_{\gamma_i} f \cdot d\vec{s}$$

# 5 Extra

# Vector field example

A vector field often discussed in the series and seen in some lecture's examples:

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\} \to \mathbb{R}^2; f(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-y}{x^2 + y^2} \\ \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

This vector field is **not** conservative, even if  $\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y}$ . For example, the line integral over the parameterized curve of a "clockwise" closed circle of radius 1 doesn't give 0 as expected, but  $\pi/2$  instead.

We can though define the potentials:

- $g_1: \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}; (x,y) \mapsto \arctan(y/x)$
- $g_2: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^+; (x,y) \mapsto \arctan(-x/y) = \arctan(y/x) \pi/2$
- $g_3: \mathbb{R}^- \times \mathbb{R}; (x,y) \mapsto \arctan(y/x)$
- $g_4: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^-; (x,y) \mapsto \arctan(-x/y) = \arctan(y/x) \pi/2$