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# MATH 247 FINAL EXAM GUIDE

CALCULUS 3 (ADVANCED)

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### Abstract

These notes are intended as a resource for myself; past, present, or future students of this course, and anyone interested in the material. The goal is to provide an end-to-end resource that covers all material discussed in the course displayed in an organized manner. These notes are my interpretation and transcription of the content covered in lectures. The instructor has not verified or confirmed the accuracy of these notes, and any discrepancies, misunderstandings, typos, etc. as these notes relate to course's content is not the responsibility of the instructor. If you spot any errors or would like to contribute, please contact me directly.

## 1 Topology

**Theorem 1.1** (Cauchy-Schwarz inequality).

$$\|x \cdot y\| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$$

**Definition 1.1** (Open ball). Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $r > 0$ . The **open ball** at radius  $r$  centred at  $x$  is denoted

$$B_r(x) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x - y\| < r\}$$

**Definition 1.2** (Closed ball). Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $r > 0$ . The **closed ball** of radius  $r > 0$  centred at  $x$  is denoted

$$\overline{B_r(x)} = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x - y\| \leq r\}$$

**Definition 1.3** (Open sets). A subset  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is called an **open set** (or open) *iff*  $\forall x \in U, \exists r > 0$  ( $r$  depends on  $x$ ) such that  $B_r(x) \subseteq U$ .

1. Let  $U_\alpha \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be open  $\forall \alpha \in A$  (countably or uncountably many), then  $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha$  is open.
2. Let  $U_1, \dots, U_k$  be open (**must be finite** number of sets). Then  $\bigcap_{j=1}^k U_j$  is open.

**Definition 1.4** (Closed sets). A subset  $F \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is called **closed** if  $F^c = \mathbb{R} \setminus F$  is open.

1. If  $F_1, \dots, F_k$  is closed, then  $\bigcup_{j=1}^k F_j$  is closed.
2. If  $F_\alpha$  is closed  $\forall \alpha \in A$ , then  $\bigcap_{\alpha \in A} F_\alpha$  is closed.

**Definition 1.5** (Interior). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  (could be  $\emptyset$ ). The interior of  $A$  or  $\text{int}(A)$  is

$$\bigcup_{\substack{V \subseteq A \\ V \text{ open in } \mathbb{R}^n}} V$$

It is the union of **all** open subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that are contained in  $A$ .

1.  $A^\circ$  is open.
2.  $A$  is open *iff*  $A^\circ = A$ .

**Definition 1.6** (Closure). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  (could be  $\emptyset$ ). The interior of  $\overline{A}$  or  $\text{cl}(A)$  is

$$\bigcap_{\substack{F \supseteq A \\ F \text{ closed in } \mathbb{R}^n}} F$$

It is the intersection of **all** closed subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that contains  $A$ .

1.  $\overline{A}$  is closed.
2.  $A$  is closed *iff*  $\overline{A} = A$ .

The closure of the open ball  $B_\epsilon(x)$  is the closed ball  $\overline{B_\epsilon(x)}$ .

**Definition 1.7** (Boundary). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . We define the **boundary** of  $A$  denoted  $\partial A = \text{bd}(A)$  to be

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid B_\epsilon(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset, B_\epsilon(x) \cap A^c \neq \emptyset \quad \forall \epsilon > 0\}$$

That is,  $x \in \partial A$  *iff* every open ball centred at  $x$  contains a point in  $A$  **and** a point in  $A^c$ .

Note that

$$\partial B_\epsilon(x) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|y - x\| = \epsilon\} = \partial(\overline{B_\epsilon(x)})$$

(this is **not** true in general for all sets).

**Proposition 1.1** (Characterization of boundary). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$$\partial A = \overline{A} \setminus A^\circ$$

This follows from the two claims:

1.

$$x \in \overline{A} \iff B_\epsilon(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset \quad \forall \epsilon > 0$$

2.

$$x \notin A^\circ \iff B_\epsilon(x) \cap A^c \neq \emptyset \quad \forall \epsilon > 0$$

**Definition 1.8** (Sequential characterization of limits). Let  $(x_k)$  be a sequence of points in  $\mathbb{R}^n, k \in \mathbb{N}$ . We say  $(x_k)$  **converges** to a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  *iff* for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  ( $N$  depends on  $\epsilon$  in general)

$$k \geq N \Rightarrow \|x_k - x\| < \epsilon$$

If  $(x_k)$  converges to  $x$ , we denote

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = x$$

where  $x$  is **the limit** of  $x_k$ .

The limit of a convergent sequence is **unique**.

**Definition 1.9** (Neighbourhood). Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . A subset  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is called a **neighbourhood** of  $x$  if  $\exists \epsilon_0 > 0$  such that  $B_{\epsilon_0}(x) \subseteq U$ .

**Proposition 1.2** (Convergent sequences and closed sets).  $x \in \overline{A}$  *iff*  $\exists (x_k) \in A$  such that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = x$ .

**Definition 1.10** (Bounded sequences). A sequence  $(x_k)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called **bounded** if  $\exists M > 0$  such that

$$\|x_k\| \leq M \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$$

**Definition 1.11** (Cauchy sequences). A sequence  $(x_k)$  is called **Cauchy** if for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$k, l \geq N \Rightarrow \|x_k - x_l\| < \epsilon$$

**Proposition 1.3** (Convergent is Cauchy).  $(x_k)$  is a convergent sequence *iff* it is Cauchy.

**Lemma 1.1** (Convergence implies bounded). Every convergent sequence is bounded.

**Definition 1.12** (Subsequences). Let  $(x_k)$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $1 \leq k_1 < k_2 < \dots < k_e < k_{e+1} < \dots$  be a sequence of  $1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$ . Then the corresponding sequence  $(y_l)$  (or  $(x_{k_l})$ ) in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  given by  $y_l = x_{k_l}$  is called a **subsequence** of  $(x_k)$ .

**Proposition 1.4** (Subsequences converges to same limit). Suppose  $(x_k) \rightarrow x$ . Then any subsequence  $(x_{k_l})$  of  $(x_k)$  also converges to the same limit  $x$ .

**Theorem 1.2** (Bolzano-Weierstrass). In  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , every **bounded** sequence has a **convergent subsequence**. This convergent subsequence is **not** unique.

**Definition 1.13** (Connected sets). Let  $E$  be a non-empty subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

We say  $E$  is **disconnected** if there exists a **separation** for  $E$ . A separation of  $E$  is a pair  $U, V$  open sets in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that

1.  $E \cap U \neq \emptyset$
2.  $E \cap V \neq \emptyset$
3.  $E \cap U \cap V = \emptyset$
4.  $E \subseteq U \cup V$

$E$  is **connected** if  $\nexists$  any separation of  $E$ .

**Theorem 1.3** ( $[0, 1]$  closed interval is connected). Let  $E = [0, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $E$  is connected.

**Definition 1.14** (Convex sets). A **non-empty** subset  $E$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called **convex** if for any  $x, y \in E$  then

$$tx + (1 - t)y \in E \quad \forall t \in [0, 1]$$

i.e. the line segment between any 2 points in  $E$  is contained in  $E$ .

**Corollary 1.1** (Convex implies connected). Any convex subset  $E$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is connected.

This implies that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is connected.

**Definition 1.15** (Open cover). Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . An **open cover** of  $E$  is a collection of open subsets  $U_\alpha$ ,  $\alpha \in A$ , of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$E \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha$$

(finite or infinite union of open subsets).

**Definition 1.16** (Compact sets). The subset  $E$  is called **compact** iff every open cover of  $E$  admits a **finite subcover**.

That is, if  $\bigcup U_\alpha$ ,  $\alpha \in A$ , is an open cover of  $E$ , then  $\exists$  a finite subset  $A_0$  of  $A$  such that

$$E \subseteq \bigcup_{\alpha \in A_0} U_\alpha$$

**Theorem 1.4** (Heine-Borel). Let  $E$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .  $E$  is **compact** iff  $E$  is both **closed and bounded**.

## 2 Limits and continuity

**Definition 2.1** (Limits of functions). Let  $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be an *open set* with  $x_0 \in V$ . Let  $f : V \setminus \{x_0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  for some  $m$  (i.e.  $f$  is defined at all points of  $V$  except *possibly* at  $x_0$ ).

We say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$  exists and equals  $L \in \mathbb{R}^m$  **iff**  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$  such that

$$0 < \|x - x_0\| < \delta \Rightarrow \|f(x) - L\| < \epsilon$$

(note that  $B_\delta(x_0) \subseteq V$  must hold).

**Example 2.1** (Showing limit does not exist). **Key idea:** find some path (towards  $x$ ) that does not have a constant limit.

Suppose we wish to find

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (2,3)} \frac{(x-2)^2}{(x-2)^2 + (y-3)^2}$$

where  $f(x, y)$  defined everywhere except  $(2, 3)$ .

Suppose we have paths/lines with slope  $m$  where  $(y-3) = m(x-2)$ . Along this line we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= \frac{(x-2)^2}{(x-2)^2 + (y-3)^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{1+m^2} \end{aligned}$$

So  $f$  is a constant function which depends on the slope of the line/path.

**Example 2.2** (Showing limit does exist). **Key idea:** use the definition and reduce  $\|f(x) - L\|$  to  $\|x - a\| < \delta$ .

Suppose we wish to find

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^4}{x^2 + y^2}$$

We *expect the limit to converge* since the degree of the numerator is  $>$  degree of denominator, thus numerator  $\rightarrow 0$  “much faster” than the denominator so the quotient should go to zero.

Observe that

$$\frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2} \leq 1 \quad (x, y) \neq (0, 0)$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{x^4}{x^2 + y^2} \right| &= \frac{x^4}{x^2 + y^2} = x^2 \left( \frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2} \right) \\ &\leq x^2 \\ &\leq x^2 + y^2 \\ &< \delta^2 = \epsilon \end{aligned} \qquad \frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2} \leq 1$$

Thus we can take  $\delta = \sqrt{\epsilon}$ .

**Proposition 2.1** (Sequential characterization of limits of functions). For  $f : V \setminus \{x_0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$  *iff* the sequence  $f(x_k)$  converges to  $L$  for every sequence  $(x_k)$  in  $V \setminus \{x_0\}$  converging to  $x_0$ .

**Example 2.3** (Solving limits with sequential characterization). Suppose we want to solve

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \cos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}\right)$$

By sequential characterization of limits

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} h(x,y) = 0 \iff \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} h(x_k, y_k) = 0$$

for all sequences  $(x_k, y_k) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  converging to  $(0, 0)$ .

Thus consider  $(x_k, y_k) = (\frac{(-1)^k}{k\pi}, 0)$ , so we have

$$\begin{aligned} h(x_k, y_k) &= \frac{(-1)^k \frac{1}{k\pi}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{k^2\pi^2}}} \cos\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{k^2\pi^2}}}\right) \\ &= (-1)^k \cos(k\pi) \\ &= 1 \quad \forall k \end{aligned}$$

Similarly when  $(x_k, y_k) = (\frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k\pi}, 0)$ , we have the limit approaching to  $-1$ . Since they have different limits, then the limit DNE so  $f_x$  is not continuous at  $(0, 0)$ .

**Proposition 2.2** (Properties of limits). Let  $f, g : V \setminus \{x_0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and suppose

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = M$$

then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M \quad (\text{additive})$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} cf(x) = cL \quad (\text{scalar multiplicative})$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{M} \quad \text{if } m = 1, M \neq 0$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f(x)g(x)) = LM \quad \text{if } m = 1$$

**Definition 2.2** (Component functions). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $U$  is open. Then for  $x \in U$

$$f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x)) \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$f_i : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq m$  are the **component functions** of  $f$  (real-valued).

**Lemma 2.1** (Convergence of components).  $x_0 \in V$  open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $f : V \setminus \{x_0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L = (L_1, \dots, L_m)$  **iff**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_i(x) = L_i \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

**Theorem 2.1** (Squeeze theorem). Suppose  $f, g, h : V \setminus \{x_0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  ( $m = 1$ !). If  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x) \quad \forall x \in V \setminus \{x_0\}$  (this only needs to hold in a neighbourhood of  $x_0$ ) and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} h(x) = L \in \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = L$$

**Proposition 2.3** (Norm of limits). Suppose  $f : V \setminus \{x_0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$  then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \|f(x)\| = \left\| \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) \right\| = \|L\|$$

**Definition 2.3** (Continuity (at a point)).  $f$  is **continuous** at  $x_0$  iff  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$  such that

$$\|x - x_0\| < \delta \Rightarrow \|f(x) - f(x_0)\| < \epsilon$$

i.e.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0}$  exists and equals  $f(x_0)$ .

**Definition 2.4** (Sequential characterization of continuity). By the sequential characterization of limits,  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$  iff whenever  $(x_k)$  is a sequence in  $U$  converging to  $x_0$ , then  $f(x_k)$  is a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  converging to  $f(x_0)$ .

**Definition 2.5** (Continuity (on a set)).  $f$  is **continuous on**  $U$  (an open set) if it is continuous at every  $x \in U$ .

**Proposition 2.4** (Continuity of components). If  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0 \in U$  iff  $f_i : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous at  $x_0$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, m$ .

**Proposition 2.5** (Composition is continuous). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be continuous on  $U$ . Let  $g : V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  be continuous on  $V$ . Suppose  $f(U) = \{f(x) \mid x \in U\} \subseteq V$  so the composition

$$h = g \circ f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$$

is defined  $g(f(x))$ . Then  $h = g \circ f$  is continuous on  $U$ .

**Proposition 2.6** (Dot product is continuous). Suppose  $f, g : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ . Define  $f \cdot g : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x) = f_1(x)g_1(x) + f_2(x)g_2(x) + \dots + f_m(x)g_m(x)$$

If  $f, g$  continuous at  $x_0$ , then  $f \cdot g$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .

**Definition 2.6** (Inverse image). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $U$  is open. Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ . The **inverse image** of  $A$  under  $f$  is denoted  $f^{-1}(A)$  and is defined to be

$$f^{-1}(A) = \{x \in U \mid f(x) \in A\}$$

**Proposition 2.7** (Continuous iff inverse image of open/closed is open/closed).  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $U$  is open. Then  $f$  is continuous on  $U$  iff  $f^{-1}(V)$  is **open** in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  whenever  $V$  is **open** in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

Similarly,  $f$  is continuous iff  $f^{-1}(V)$  is closed whenever  $V$  is closed.

**Remark 2.1** (Continuity and open/closed domain). From above, note it is **not true** that if  $U$  is open, then  $f(U)$  is open for a continuous  $f$  on  $U$ . Consider  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $U = (-1, 1) \Rightarrow f(U) = [0, 1]$ . Similarly for closed.

**Proposition 2.8** (Continuous iff image of compact is compact). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $U$  is open. Let  $K \subseteq U$  be **compact**. Then  $f(K) = \{f(x) \mid x \in K\}$  is **compact** in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

**Proposition 2.9** (Continuous iff image of connected is connected). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  continuous on  $U$  which is open.

Let  $E \subseteq U$  be **connected** on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $f(E)$  is **connected**

**Theorem 2.2** (Extreme value theorem). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $U$  is open ( $m = 1!$ ) and  $f$  is **continuous** on  $U$ . Let  $K \subseteq U$  be **compact**. Then  $\exists x_1, x_2$  in  $K$

$$f(x_1) \leq f(x) \leq f(x_2) \quad \forall x \in K$$

and  $x_1, x_2$  need not be unique.

**Theorem 2.3** (Intermediate value theorem). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where  $U$  open ( $m = 1!$ ). Suppose  $f$  is **continuous** on  $U$  and let  $E \subseteq U$  be connected. Let  $x, y \in E$  such that  $f(x) < f(y)$ . Then for **each**  $w \in (f(x), f(y))$ ,  $\exists z \in E$  such that  $f(z) = w$ .

**Definition 2.7** (Uniform continuity). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $U$  is open, and let  $D \subseteq U$ . We say that  $f$  is **uniformly continuous on  $D$**  iff  $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0$  such that

$$\forall x, y \in D \quad \|x - y\| < \delta \Rightarrow \|f(x) - f(y)\| < \epsilon$$

**Theorem 2.4** (Uniform continuity and compact sets). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be continuous on  $U$  open. Let  $K \subseteq U$  be **compact**.

Then  $f$  is unif continuous on  $K$ .

### 3 Differentiability

**Definition 3.1** (Single variable differentiability). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $U$  open, and  $a \in U$ . We say  $f$  is **differentiable at  $a$**  iff

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

exists. If so, we call the limit the **derivative** of  $f$  at  $a$  and we denote it

$$f'(a) = \frac{df(a)}{dx} = (Df)_a$$

**Remark 3.1** (Single variable differentiability implies continuity). If  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at  $a$  then  $f$  is continuous at  $a$ .

**Definition 3.2** (Partial derivative). Let  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ . The **partial derivative** of  $f$  in the  $x_i$ -direction at the point  $a$  is defined to be

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + he_i) - f(a)}{h}$$

if it exists.

**Definition 3.3** (Directional derivative). Consider the rate of change of  $f$  at  $a$  in the direction of *any* unit vector  $u$  (i.e. in between the standard vectors  $e_i$ ).

This is called the **directional derivative** of  $f$  at  $a$  in the  $u$ -direction and is denoted

$$(D_u f)_a = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + hu) - f(a)}{h}$$

(for  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ).

**Definition 3.4** (Class of continuous functions). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $U$  open. We say  $f$  is in  $C^0(U)$  if  $f$  is continuous on  $U$ .

In general, for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f$  is in  $C^k(U)$  if  $f$  is in  $C^{k-1}(U)$  and all  $\frac{\partial^k f}{\partial x_{i_k} \dots \partial x_{i_1}}$  exist and are continuous on  $U$ .



**Theorem 3.1** (Mean value theorem). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  ( $m = n = 1!$ ),  $U$  open, be continuous on  $[a, b] \in U$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . There  $\exists c \in (a, b)$  such that

$$f(b) - f(a) = f'(c)(b - a)$$

**Theorem 3.2** (Commutativity of mixed partial derivatives). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $U$  open. Let  $a \in U$ . Suppose  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}$  exist and are continuous ( $j \neq k, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ ) on a neighbourhood of  $a$ .

Furthermore, suppose that  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_k}$  exists in a neighbourhood of  $a$  and is continuous on  $a$ .

Then  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_j}$  exists at  $a$  and

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_j}(a) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_k}(a)$$

**Definition 3.5** (Differentiability). For  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $U$  open, let  $x_0 \in U$ .

We say  $f$  is **differentiable** at  $x_0$  if  $\exists$  a linear map  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  such that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0) - T(h)\|}{\|h\|} = 0$$

**Proposition 3.1** (Differentiability implies continuity). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $U$  open, and  $a \in U$ . Suppose  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$ . Then  $f$  is **continuous** at  $a$ .

**Theorem 3.3** (Differentiable map is matrix of partial derivatives). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $a \in U$ . Suppose  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$ .

We have

$$f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^m = (f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x))$$

where  $f_j : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are the component functions of  $f$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq m$ .

Then all the partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$  exists at  $a$  for  $1 \leq i \leq m$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . Moreover,

$$T = (Df)_a = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(a) & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(a) \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1}(a) & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n}(a) \end{bmatrix}$$

is the  $m \times n$  matrix whose  $(i, j)$ -entry is  $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(a)$ . This shows  $(Df)_a$  is unique if it exists.

**Definition 3.6** (Gradient). For  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (note  $m = 1!$ ),  $a \in U$ , and  $f$  differentiable at  $a$ , then  $(Df)_a$  is a  $1 \times n$  matrix also called the **gradient** denoted

$$(\nabla f)(a) = (Df)_a = \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(a) \quad \dots \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(a) \right]$$

**Lemma 3.1** (Differentiability of components). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $a \in U$ . Then  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$  iff each component function  $f_i : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at  $a \forall i = 1, \dots, m$ .

**Proposition 3.2** (Linear combinations are differentiable). Let  $f, g : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ . Suppose  $f, g$  both differentiable at  $a \in U$ . Let  $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\lambda f + \mu g : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  or

$$(\lambda f + \mu g)(x) = \lambda f(x) + \mu g(x)$$

is differentiable at  $a$  and

$$(D(\lambda f + \mu g))_a = \lambda(Df)_a + \mu(Dg)_a$$

**Theorem 3.4** (Partials exist and continuous implies differentiability). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $a \in U$ . Suppose all  $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$  exists on a neighbourhood of  $a$  and are continuous at  $a$ .

Then  $f$  is **differentiable** at  $a$ .

(The premises are sufficient but not necessary).

**Remark 3.2** (Checking for differentiability). To check if  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is differentiable at  $a \in U$

1. If  $f$  is **not continuous** at  $a$ , then  $f$  is **not differentiable** at  $a$
2. If any of  $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$  do not exist at  $a$ ,  $f$  is **not differentiable** at  $a$
3. Let  $(Df)_a$  be the  $m \times n$  matrix whose  $i, j$  entry is  $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(a)$ . Then  $f$  is differentiable at  $a \iff$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0) - T(h)\|}{\|h\|} = 0$$

4. We can avoid step 3 if we know all  $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$  exist on a n'h'd of  $a$  and are continuous at  $a$  (this implies  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$  by theorem 3.4).

**Proposition 3.3** (Product rule for differentiability). Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f, g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $a \in U$ .

Suppose  $f, g$  are both differentiable at  $a$ . Then we claim  $f \cdot g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where  $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x)$  is differentiable at  $a$  and

$$D(f \cdot g)_a = f(a)^T (Dg)_a + g(a)^T (Df)_a \quad (3.1)$$

**Theorem 3.5** (Chain rule). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be differentiable at  $a \in U$ . Let  $g : V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  be differentiable at  $b = f(a) \in V$ . Assume  $f(U) \subseteq V$ .

Then  $g \circ f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  is differentiable at  $a$  and

$$D(g \circ f)_a = (Dg)_{f(a)}(Df)_a$$

**Proposition 3.4** (Linearization using derivative). Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$f(x) - f(x_0) = (Df)_{x_0}(x - x_0) + R_{x_0}(h)$$

where  $h = x - x_0$  for some remainder term  $R_{x_0}(h)$ .

We say  $f$  is **differentiable** at  $x_0$  iff  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{R_{x_0}(h)}{\|h\|} = 0$ .

**Definition 3.7** (Graph of function). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . The **graph** of  $f$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_f &= \{(x_1, \dots, x_n, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)\} \\ &= \{(x_1, \dots, x_n, f(x_1, \dots, x_n)) \mid (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in U\} \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 3.6** (Rolle's theorem). Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . If  $f(a) = f(b)$ , then there exists at least one  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ .

**Theorem 3.7** (Single variable Taylor's theorem). Let  $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be an interval, let  $p$  be a non-negative integer. Let  $h : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be  $(p+1)$ -times differentiable on  $I$ . Let  $t_0 \neq t \in I$ . Then  $\exists \theta$  between  $t_0$  and  $t$  (exclusively) such that

$$h(t) = \sum_{k=0}^p \frac{h^{(k)}(t_0)}{k!} (t - t_0)^k + \frac{h^{(p+1)}(\theta)}{(p+1)!} (t - t_0)^{p+1}$$

where  $\theta$  may not be unique.

**Theorem 3.8** (Taylor's theorem). We denote

$$(D^{(k)}f)_a(\xi) = \sum_{j_1, \dots, j_k=1}^n \frac{\partial^k f}{\partial x_{j_1} \dots \partial x_{j_k}}(a) \xi_1 \dots \xi_k$$

for  $k \geq 1$  and  $(D^{(0)}f)_a = f(a)$ .

Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  open,  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be in  $C^{p+1}(U)$ . Let  $a \in U$ ,  $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\{a + t\xi \mid t \in [0, 1]\} \subseteq U$ .

Then  $\exists \theta \in (0, 1)$  such that

$$f(a + \xi) = \sum_{k=0}^p \frac{(D^{(k)}f)_a(\xi)}{k!} + \frac{1}{(p+1)!} (D^{(p+1)}f)_{a+\theta\xi}(\xi)$$

**Proposition 3.5** (Lipschitz function). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose  $f \in C^1(U)$ . Let  $K$  be a **compact** subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $K \subseteq U$ . If  $E \subseteq K$  is **convex**,  $\exists$  a constant  $M > 0$  (depending on  $f$  and on  $K$  but not on  $E$ ) such that

$$\|f(x) - f(y)\| \leq M\|x - y\| \quad \forall x, y \in E$$

This says the *restriction* of  $f$  on  $E$  is **Lipschitz**: in particular any Lipschitz function on a set  $E$  is **uniformly continuous** on  $E$  (for any  $\epsilon$ , choose  $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{M}$ ). Note however that uniform continuity *does not imply* Lipschitz.

**Theorem 3.9** (More general Taylor's theorem).  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  ( $U$  open, as always). Suppose  $f \in C^p(U)$  (previously had  $C^{p+1}(U)$ ). Let  $a \in U$ ,  $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\{a + t\xi, t \in [0, 1]\} \subseteq U$ . Then

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^p \frac{D^{(k)}f)_a(\xi)}{k!} + R_{a,p}(x)$$

where  $x = a + \xi$  and where

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{R_{a,p}(x)}{\|x - a\|^p} = 0$$

### 3.1 Optimization

Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  *real-valued* be differentiable on  $U$ .

**Definition 3.8** (Local minimum). Let  $a \in U$ . We say  $f$  has a **local minimum** at  $a$  if  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that

$$f(x) \geq f(a) \quad \forall x \in B_\epsilon(a)$$

**Definition 3.9** (Local maximum). We say  $f$  has a **local maximum** at  $a$  if  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that

$$f(x) \leq f(a) \quad \forall x \in B_\epsilon(a)$$

**Definition 3.10** (Critical points). A point  $a \in U$  such that  $(\nabla f)(\vec{a}) = 0$  is called a **critical point** of  $f$ .

**Definition 3.11** (Saddle point). A critical point  $a \in U$  of  $f$  is called a **saddle point** if  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that  $\forall \epsilon' \in (0, \epsilon)$ ,  $\exists x, y \in B_{\epsilon'}(a)$

$$f(x) < f(a) < f(y)$$

**Definition 3.12** (Bilinear symmetric forms).  $H$  is **bilinear** on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  i.e.  $H : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$H(av + bw, u) = aH(v, u) + bH(w, u)$$

$$H(v, aw + bu) = aH(v, w) + bH(v, u)$$

where  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $u, v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

We have for  $x = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i$  and  $y = \sum_{j=1}^n y_j e_j$

$$H(x, y) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n H(e_i, e_j) x_i y_j$$

Denote  $H_{ij} = H(e_i, e_j)$  where  $H$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix.  $H$  is **symmetric** if  $H(x, y) = H(y, x)$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  i.e. iff  $H_{ij} = H_{ji}$ .

**Definition 3.13** (Quadratic form). We define the **quadratic form**  $Q$  associated to the symmetric bilinear form  $H$  to be the map  $Q : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by

$$Q(x) = H(x, x) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n H_{ij} x_i x_j$$

Notice  $Q(0) = 0$  **always**.

1. We say  $Q$  is **positive definite** if  $Q(x) > 0 \forall x \neq \vec{0}$ .
2. We say  $Q$  is **positive semi-definite** if  $Q(x) \geq 0 \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
3. We say  $Q$  is **negative definite** if  $Q(x) < 0 \forall x \neq \vec{0}$ .
4. We say  $Q$  is **negative semi-definite** if  $Q(x) \leq 0 \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
5. We say  $Q$  is **indefinite** if  $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $Q(x) > 0, Q(y) < 0$ .

For indefinite, *non-degenerate* means no  $z \neq \vec{0} \Rightarrow Q(z) = 0$ . *Degenerate* if there is such a  $z$ .

**Lemma 3.2** (Bounds on quadratic forms). Let  $Q$  be a quadratic form associated to symmetric bilinear form of  $H$ .

1. If  $Q$  is positive definite,  $\exists M > 0$  such that  $Q(x) \geq M\|x\|^2 \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
2. If  $Q$  is negative definite,  $\exists M > 0$  such that  $Q(x) \leq -M\|x\|^2 \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition 3.14** (Hessian). The **Hessian** of  $f$  at  $a \in U$  is the  $n \times n$  **symmetric** matrix  $(\text{Hess } f)_a$  whose  $i, j$  entry is

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(a)$$

**Theorem 3.10** (Second derivative test). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f \in C^2(U)$ . Let  $a$  be a critical point for  $f$  ( $(\nabla f)(a) = \vec{0}$ ).

Let  $H_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(a)$  and  $H$  be the Hessian of  $f$  at  $a$  with quadratic form  $Q$ .

1. If  $Q$  is **positive definite**, then  $f$  has a **local min** at  $a$ .
2. If  $Q$  is **negative definite**, then  $f$  has a **local max** at  $a$ .
3. If  $Q$  is **indefinite**, then  $a$  is a **saddle point** of  $f$ .

(otherwise test fails and *any of the 3* can happen).

**Example 3.1** (Second derivative test fails). Consider

$$f(x, y) = x^4 + y^2 \quad g(x, y) = -x^4 - y^2 \quad h(x, y) = x^3 + y^2$$

which all have one critical point at  $(0, 0)$ . Note their Hessians at  $(0, 0)$  are

$$(\text{Hess } f)_{(0,0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{Hess } g)_{(0,0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{Hess } h)_{(0,0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that  $\exists x \neq \vec{0}$  where  $x^T H x = 0$  (so not definite). Furthermore, they all map to either positive or negative values so they are not indefinite.

**Definition 3.15** (Matrix norm). Define the **norm** on  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  by taking the usual *Euclidean norm* on  $\mathbb{R}^{n^2}$

$$\|A\|^2 = \sum_{i,j=1}^n A_{ij}^2$$

Note that

$$\|Ax\| \leq \|A\| \|x\| \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

**Theorem 3.11** (Inverse function theorem). Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be in  $C^k(U)$  for some  $k \geq 1$ .

Let  $V = f(U)$ , let  $a \in U$  such that  $(Df)_a$  is *invertible* (note that  $n = m$  since we require square matrices for invertibility).

Then  $\exists$  open set  $\tilde{U} \subseteq U$  containing  $a$ , an open set  $\tilde{V} \subseteq V$  contain  $f(a)$ , and a map  $g : \tilde{V} \rightarrow \tilde{U}$  (with  $g(\tilde{V}) = \tilde{U}$ ) such that  $g(f(x)) = x \quad \forall x \in \tilde{U}$  and  $f(g(y)) = y \quad \forall y \in \tilde{V}$ .

Moreover,  $g \in C^k(\tilde{V})$  for the *same*  $k$  **and if**  $b \in \tilde{V}$  then

$$(Dg)_b = [(Df)_{f^{-1}(b)}]^{-1}$$

Also

$$f \Big|_{\tilde{U}} : \tilde{U} \rightarrow \tilde{V}$$

is a bijection.

**Example 3.2** (Applying inverse function theorem). Let  $(x, y) = f(u, v) = (uv, u^2 + v^2)$  where  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ . Note that  $f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2)$  since  $f_i$  are polynomials.

We want to prove  $f^{-1}$  exists and is  $C^\infty$  in some nonempty open set containing  $(2, 5)$ .

For  $f(a, b) = (2, 5)$ , find all points  $(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $f(u, v) = (2, 5)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} uv = 2 &\Rightarrow v = \frac{2}{u} \\ u^2 + v^2 = 5 &\Rightarrow u^2 + \frac{4}{u^2} = 5 \\ &\Rightarrow u^4 - 5u^2 + 4 = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow (u^2 - 1)(u^2 - 4) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

So  $(u, v) = \{(1, 2), (-1, -2), (2, 1), (-2, -1)\}$ .

Note that

$$(Df)_{(u,v)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v & u \\ 2u & 2v \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus  $\det((Df)_{(u,v)}) = 2v^2 - 2u^2 = 2(v^2 - u^2) \neq 0$  for any of our points.

So by the inverse function theorem, for any of these 4 points  $(a, b)$  there is an open n'h'd  $\tilde{U}$  of  $(a, b)$  and an open n'h'd of  $\tilde{V}$  of  $(2, 5)$  such that  $f : \tilde{U} \rightarrow \tilde{V}$  is invertible and  $f^{-1} \in C^\infty(\tilde{V})$ .

**Theorem 3.12** (Implicit function theorem). Let  $f : W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be in  $C^k(W)$  for  $k \geq 1$ . Suppose  $f(y_0, x_0) = 0$  for some  $(y_0, x_0) \in W$ .

Let  $A$  be the  $n \times n$  matrix where  $A_{ij} = \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_j}(y_0, x_0)$ .

If  $\det(A) \neq 0$  (i.e.  $A$  invertible) then  $\exists W' \subseteq W$  open n'h'd of  $(y_0, x_0)$  and an open n'h'd  $U$  of  $x_0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and a function  $h : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $h \in C^k(U)$  for the same  $k$  such that

$$\{(y, x) \in W' \mid f(y, x) = 0\} = \{(h(x), x), x \in U\}$$

i.e. on  $W'$ , the points where  $f = 0$  can be expressed as  $y$  as a function of  $x$ .

**Example 3.3** (Applying implicit function theorem). Given  $x_0, y_0, u_0, v_0, s_0, t_0$  **nonzero** real numbers that satisfy the simultaneous equations

$$u^2 + sx + ty = 0 \quad v^2 + tx + sy = 0 \quad 2s^2x + 2t^2y - 1 = 0 \quad s^2x - t^2y = 0$$

(this is almost impossible to solve explicitly: we may only want to know it exists).

Show that  $\exists$  smooth ( $C^\infty$ ) functions  $u(x, y), v(x, y), s(x, y), t(x, y)$  defined on an open n'h'd of  $(x_0, y_0)$  such that  $u, v, s, t$  satisfy the equations and

$$u(x_0, y_0) = u_0 \quad v(x_0, y_0) = v_0 \quad s(x_0, y_0) = s_0 \quad t(x_0, y_0) = t_0$$

We'll apply the implicit function theorem. Define  $f : \mathbb{R}^6 = \mathbb{R}^{4+2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$  where

$$f(u, v, s, t, x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} u^2 + sx + ty \\ v^2 + tx + sy \\ 2s^2x + 2t^2y - 1 \\ s^2x - t^2y \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^4$$

By hypothesis,  $f(u_0, v_0, s_0, t_0, x_0, y_0) = 0$ . Also

$$Df = \begin{bmatrix} 2u & 0 & x & y & \dots \\ 0 & 2v & y & x & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 4sx & 4ty & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 2sx & -2ty & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

So we have

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2u_0 & 0 & x_0 & y_0 \\ 0 & 2v_0 & y_0 & x_0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4s_0x_0 & 4t_0y_0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2s_0x_0 & -2t_0y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\det(A) = (2u_0)(2v_0)(-8s_0x_0t_0y_0 - 8s_0x_0t_0y_0) = 64u_0v_0s_0t_0x_0y_0 \neq 0$  since they're all non-zero.

So  $u, v, s, t$  exist by the implicit function theorem in a n'h'd of  $(x_0, y_0)$  and are in  $C^\infty$  (since  $f$  is in  $C^\infty$ , polynomials).

**Theorem 3.13** (Methods of Lagrange multipliers). Let  $1 \leq k \leq n$ . Let  $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  (open). Let  $f : W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  (component functions  $g_1, \dots, g_k$  are the constraint functions).

Let  $S = \{w \in W \mid g(w) = 0\}$  (the "constraint" set). Let  $a \in S$ .

Suppose

1.  $f$  has a local extrema at  $a$  subject to the constraints  $g(x) = 0$  (i.e.  $f$  restricted to  $S$  has a local extrema at  $a$ ).
2.  $\text{rank}((Dg)_a) = k$  (where  $(Dg)_a$  is  $k \times n$  thus maximal rank).

Then  $\exists \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^k$  such that

$$(Df)_a + \lambda(Dg)_a = \vec{0}$$

**Example 3.4** (Applying Lagrange multipliers). Find all extrema of  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  subject to the 2 constraints:  $x - y = 1$  and  $y^2 - z^2 = 1$ .

There exists points on constraint set with arbitrary large distance from origin (no global max).

We know there **will exist** a global min (which will also be a local min). We expect 2 local minima since  $y^2 - z^2 = 1$  cuts twice into the other constraint plane.

We have

$$g_1(x, y, z) = x - y - 1 = 0 \quad g_2(x, y, z) = y^2 - z^2 - 1 = 0$$

and from Lagrange multipliers we know  $\nabla f + \lambda \nabla g_1 + \mu \nabla g_2 = 0$ , thus

$$2x + \lambda = 0$$

$$2y - \lambda + 2\mu y = 0$$

$$2z - 2\mu z = 0 \Rightarrow z(1 - \mu) = 0$$

From the last constraint, either  $\mu = 1$  or  $z = 0$ :

$\mu = 1$  Then the second equation becomes  $4y = \lambda$  and the first equation becomes  $2x + 4y = 0$  so  $x = -2y$ .

From our original constraint equations, we have from  $g_1 - 3y = 1 \Rightarrow y = \frac{-1}{3}$  and from  $g_2 \frac{1}{9} - z^2 = 1 \Rightarrow z^2 = \frac{-8}{9}$  which is a **contradiction** since squares are always positive.

$z = 0$  From  $g_2$  we have  $y = \pm 1$  and from  $g_1$  we have  $x = y + 1$ .

Thus we have two solutions  $(2, 1, 0)$  and  $(0, -1, 0)$  (which satisfy all the other equations too).

Thus we have  $f(2, 1, 0) = 5$  (some local min) and  $f(0, -1, 0) = 1$  (global min).