

# Multivariate Calculus

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# Function of Many Variables

We introduce functions that map a point/vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to another point in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , and generalize the notions of the derivative etc. to such functions. For a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , we denote the  $i$ th component of function by  $f_i(\mathbf{x})$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$ .

Most function used in Economics have more than one variable in them. The first such function you will see is a utility function  $u : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , which represents an individual's preference over the consumption of  $n$  goods.

Here are some other functions:

- **Production Function:**  $F(K, L)$ , where  $K$  is capital and  $L$  is labor.
- **Demand Function:**  $x(p, w)$ ,  $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a price vector and  $w$  is wealth.
- **Cost/Expenditure Function:**  $e(p, u)$  is the minimum amount of expenditure to achieve utility  $u$  when the price vector is  $p$ .

# Special Functions

The following special functions are especially important.

- **Linear Function:**  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i$  is a linear function, which maps a point in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- **Quadratic Function:** The function of the form  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_i x_j$  is called **quadratic function**. We can represent this using  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  as  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x}$ , where  $a_{ij}$  is the  $ij$  element of  $A$ . This is a generalization of quadratic function with single variable:  $ax^2$ .

# Sequence, Convergence and Limit

We extend some definitions regarding sequences and convergence to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and review some basic facts.

- A **sequence** of vectors  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is denoted by  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}_n$ .
- A sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}_n$  is **bounded** if there exists a number  $K \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\|\mathbf{x}_n\| \leq K$  for every  $n$ .
- A sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}_n$  **converges to**  $\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$  if, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N$  such that  $\|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}^*\| < \epsilon$  for every  $n \geq N$ . We write this as  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{x}^*$  or  $\mathbf{x}_n \rightarrow \mathbf{x}^*$  and call  $\mathbf{x}^*$  the **limit** of  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}_n$ .

## Some Useful Properties

- A sequence of vectors  $\mathbf{x}_n$  converges to  $\mathbf{x}^*$  if and only if  $x_{i,n}$  converges to  $x_i^*$  for every  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .
- A convergent sequence has only one limit.
- A convergent sequence is bounded.
- If  $\|\mathbf{x}_n\| \leq K$  for every  $n$  for a convergent sequence, then  $\|\mathbf{x}^*\| \leq K$ .
- Every subsequence of a convergent sequence has the same limit.
- Every bounded sequence has a convergent subsequence (Weierstrass Theorem).

# Open Set and Closed Set

In  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we use open sets and closed sets instead of open/closed intervals.

- A set  $X$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is **open** if, for any  $\mathbf{x} \in X$ , there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $B_\epsilon(\mathbf{x}) \subset X$  ( $B_\epsilon(\mathbf{x}) = \{\mathbf{x}' \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x}\| < \epsilon\}$  is  $\epsilon$ -**ball** around  $\mathbf{x}$ ).
- A set  $X$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is **closed** if every convergent sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}_n$  in  $X$  has its limit in  $X$ .
- A set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is closed if and only if its complement is open.

# Compact Set

A set  $X \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is **compact** if it is closed and bounded.

We will use compactness to establish the existence of maximum and minimum of continuous functions on compact sets.

# Exercises

- ① Is  $\mathbb{R}^n$  an open set? Is it a closed set?
- ② Let  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}_n$  be a convergent sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the limit  $\mathbf{x}^*$ . Is  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}_n$  a compact set? How about if  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is added to  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}_n$ ?



# Continuous Function

Given all the generalized definitions about convergence, the definition of continuity is the same.

## Continuous Function

Function  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is continuous at  $\mathbf{x} \in X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  if, for any sequence  $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}_n$  in  $X$  that converges to  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f(\mathbf{x}_n)$  converges to  $f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .  $f$  is continuous if it is continuous at every  $x$  in its domain  $X$ .

# Monotonic Function

Let's also define monotonicity in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

## Monotonic Function

Function  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is **increasing (strictly increasing)** if  $f(x') \geq (>)f(x)$  for any  $x' \geq (>)x$ , **decreasing (strictly decreasing)** if  $f(x') \leq (<)f(x)$  for any  $x' \geq (>)x$ .

# Partial Derivative

Let  $f$  be a function from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . Fix  $\mathbf{x}$  except for  $x_j$  and regard it as a function of  $x_j$ , which we denote by  $f(x_j, \mathbf{x}_{-j})$ . Since it is a function of single variable, we can define the derivative with respect to  $x_j$  given  $\mathbf{x}_{-j}$  as usual.

This derivative, which is the limit of  $\frac{f(x_j + \Delta x_j, \mathbf{x}_{-j}) - f(x_j, \mathbf{x}_{-j})}{\Delta x_j}$  as  $\Delta x_j \rightarrow 0$ , is called the **partial derivative** of  $f$  with respect to  $x_j$  at  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and denoted by  $D_j f$ . We denote the row vector of partial derivatives  $(D_1 f, \dots, D_n f)$  by  $Df$ .

For function from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , let  $D_j f_i$  be the partial derivative of the  $i$ th component function  $f_i$  with respect to  $x_j$ .  $DF$  is the  $m \times n$  matrix of partial derivatives, where the  $i$ th row is given by the row vector  $Df_i$ .

# Higher Derivatives

We say that  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is a  $\mathcal{C}_1$  function if  $D_j f_i$  exists and continuous for every  $i, j$ .

$f$  is a  $\mathcal{C}_2$  function if  $D_j f_i$  is  $\mathcal{C}_1$  function for every  $i, j$ . More generally,  $f$  is a  $\mathcal{C}_k$  function if  $D_j f_i$  is  $\mathcal{C}_{k-1}$  function for every  $i, j$

The important special case is  $\mathcal{C}_2$  function with  $m = 1$ . For such functions, there are  $n \times n$  second order partial derivatives. Let  $D^2 f$  be the  $n \times n$  matrix whose  $ij$  element is  $D_j D_i f$ . For this class of functions,  $D_i D_j f = D_j D_i f$  holds for any  $i, j$  (Young's Theorem). Hence  $D^2 f$  is a symmetric matrix.

## Examples

- **Linear Function:**  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i$ .
  - ▶  $Df = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$  and  $D^2f$  is a  $n \times n$  matrix with all elements = 0.
- **Quadratic Function:**  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_i x_j = \mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x}$ .
  - ▶  $Df(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j$  and  $D^2f(\mathbf{x}) = A$ .

# Total Derivative

Remember that the derivative of a single variable function is the slope of its linear approximation. Here we generalize this idea to define **total derivative** for functions from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

First consider a function  $f$  with  $m = 1$  as a special case. We use a linear function to approximate  $f$ , so the linear approximation around point  $\mathbf{x}^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  would look like  $f(\mathbf{x}^0) + \sum_{j=1}^n a_j(x_j - x_j^0) = A(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^0)$ . We say that a row vector  $A = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$  is the **total derivative** of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}^0$  if  $\frac{|f(\mathbf{x}^0 + \Delta \mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}^0) - A\Delta \mathbf{x}|}{\|\Delta \mathbf{x}\|}$  converges to 0 as  $\Delta \mathbf{x} \rightarrow 0$ .

# Total Derivative

Now define the total derivative for  $f$  with  $m \geq 1$ .

## Differentiable Function and Derivative

A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is **differentiable** at  $\mathbf{x}^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  if there exists a  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  such that  $\frac{|f(\mathbf{x}^0 + \Delta \mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}^0) - A\Delta \mathbf{x}|}{\|\Delta \mathbf{x}\|}$  converges to 0 as  $\Delta \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  converges to 0.  $A$  is the **derivative** of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}$ .  $f$  is differentiable if it is differentiable at every  $\mathbf{x}$ .

## Remark on Total Derivative and Partial Derivative:

- If the total derivative of  $f$  exists, then all the partial derivatives exist.  
However, even if all the partial derivatives exist, the total derivative may not exist.
- If all the partial derivatives exist and continuous (i.e.  $f$  is a  $\mathcal{C}_1$  function), then the total derivative of  $f$  exists and is actually given by  $Df$ .
- If  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a  $\mathcal{C}_2$  function, then there exist the second total derivative and it is given by  $n \times n$  matrix  $D^2f$ .



## Some Useful Rules

**Chain Rule:** For two functions  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ , let  $h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  by  $h(\mathbf{x}) = g(f(\mathbf{x}))$  be their **composite function**. If  $f$  and  $g$  are  $\mathcal{C}_1$  functions,  $h$  is a  $\mathcal{C}_1$  function as well and its derivative at  $\mathbf{x}$  is given by the  $k \times n$  matrix  $Dg(f(\mathbf{x}))Df(\mathbf{x})$ .

**Product Rule:** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$  be  $\mathcal{C}_1$  functions. Then  $h = f \cdot g = f^\top g$  is a  $\mathcal{C}_1$  function from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^1$  (regard the value of  $f$  and  $g$  as column vectors). Its derivative is given by  $Dh = g^\top Df + f^\top Dg$ .

# First/Second Order Approximation

Here we provide a version of Taylor's theorem that evaluates the first/second order approximation for functions with many variables.

Take any  $\mathcal{C}_1$  single variable function  $f$  and pick some point  $x_0$  and  $x > x_0$ . Since  $f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(t)(x - x_0)$  for some  $t \in (x_0, x)$  by the mean value theorem, the difference between  $f(x)$  and the first order Taylor polynomial is

$(f'(t) - f'(x_0))(x - x_0)$ . This term converges to 0 faster than  $x - x_0$  as  $f'(t) \rightarrow f'(x_0)$  as  $x \rightarrow x_0$ . This means  $f(x_0 + \Delta x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)\Delta x + o(\Delta x)$

Similarly, let  $f$  be a  $\mathcal{C}_2$  single variable function. Then the difference between  $f(x)$  and the second order Taylor polynomial is  $\frac{f''(t) - f''(x_0)}{2}(x - x_0)^2$ . So we have  $f(x_0 + \Delta x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)\Delta x + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2}(\Delta x)^2 + o((\Delta x)^2)$ .

These approximation results generalize to functions of many variables. Let  $f$  be a function from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

- If  $f$  is a  $\mathcal{C}_1$  function, then  $f(\mathbf{x}^0 + \Delta\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}^0) + Df(\mathbf{x}^0)\Delta\mathbf{x} + o(\|\Delta\mathbf{x}\|)$  at any  $\mathbf{x}^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

- If  $f$  is a  $\mathcal{C}_2$  function, then

$$f(\mathbf{x}^0 + \Delta\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}^0) + Df(\mathbf{x}^0)\Delta\mathbf{x} + \frac{(\Delta\mathbf{x})^\top D^2 f(\mathbf{x}^0) \Delta\mathbf{x}}{2} + o(\|\Delta\mathbf{x}\|^2) \text{ at any } \mathbf{x}^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

where  $o(\mathbf{h}) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\mathbf{h} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

# Exercises

- ① Find the partial derivative of the following functions with respect to  $x$ .

▶  $f(x, y) = \left(x^{\frac{1}{\rho}} + y^{\frac{1}{\rho}}\right)^{\rho} \quad (\rho \neq 0).$

▶  $f(x, y) = x^{\alpha} g(x, y)^{(1-\alpha)}.$

- ② Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a  $C_2$  function.

- ▶ Write down the first order approximation of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}^0$ .
- ▶ We can use the above approximation to do a high dimensional version of Newton's method. Show why the updating formula is given by
- $$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \mathbf{x}_t - (D_2 f(\mathbf{x}_t))^{-1} Df(\mathbf{x}_t).$$

- ③ Let  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^{\top} A \mathbf{x}$  be a quadratic function. Suppose that  $Df(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$  at  $\mathbf{x}^*$  and  $A$  is negative definite. Explain why  $\mathbf{x}^*$  achieves a maximum

# Implicit Function Theorem

Consider a circle in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  defined by  $f(x, a) = x^2 + a^2 = 1$  and the point  $(1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2})$  on the circle.  $x$  is a function of  $a$  in the neighborhood of  $(1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2})$ . Denote this function by  $x(a)$ . What is  $Dx(a)$  at  $a = 1/\sqrt{2}$ ?

One way to obtain this value is to derive  $x(a)$  explicitly and compute the derivative. But this is not always an easy thing to do.

- **Implicit function theorem** allows us to compute this value without deriving  $x(a)$  explicitly.
- For this example, just differentiate  $f(x(a), a) = 0$  with respect to  $a$ . Then you get  $x'(a) = -\frac{D_a f(x, a)}{D_x f(x, a)}$  by the chain rule. Hence

$$Dx(a)|_{a=1/\sqrt{2}} = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2}} = -1.$$

- This would not work if  $D_x f(x, a) = 0$  (at  $(a, x) = (1, 0)$  for example).

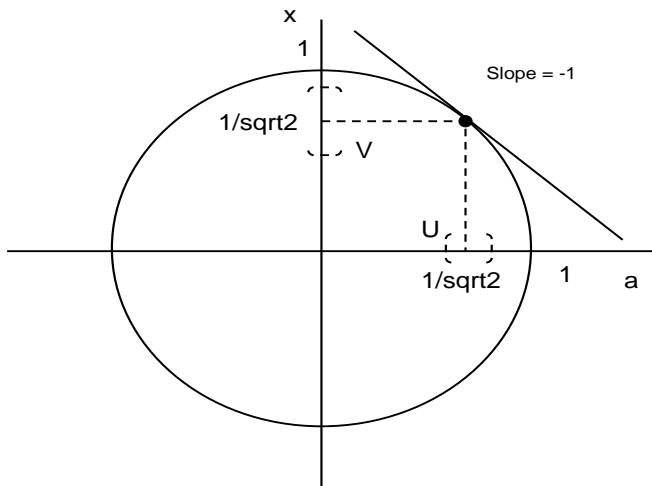
# Implicit Function Theorem

- This result generalizes. Let  $F : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a  $C^1$  function.

## Implicit Function Theorem

If  $\text{Rank } D_x F(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{a}') = n$  at  $(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{a}') \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m$ , then there exist open neighborhoods  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  of  $\mathbf{x}'$ ,  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  of  $\mathbf{a}'$ , and a  $C^1$  function  $f : U \rightarrow V$  such that

- 1  $x = f(a)$  if and only if  $F(x, a) = 0$  on  $V \times U$ , and
- 2  $Df(\mathbf{a}') = -D_x F(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{a}')^{-1} D_a F(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{a}')$ .





# Exercises

- ① Consider a consumer with a utility function  $u(x, y)$  for two goods.

This consumer's **indifference curve** is implicitly defined by

$u(x, y) = \underline{u}$ , where  $\underline{u}$  is the level of utility.

- ▶ Apply the implicit function theorem to find the **marginal rate of substitution** between  $x$  and  $y$  ( $\frac{dy}{dx}$ ).
- ▶ Find the linear approximation of the indifference curve at  $(x_0, y_0)$  and show that it can be expressed by the hyperplane

$$D_x u(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + D_y u(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) = 0.$$

- ▶ Find the marginal rate of substitution at  $(x_0, y_0)$  for

$$u(x, y) = \left(x^{\frac{1}{2}} + y^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)^2. \text{ What is the **elasticity of substitution**: } \frac{x}{y} \frac{dy}{dx}?$$