

## Math 350 Problem Set 2 (Part I) Solutions

### 1. Mean Value Theorems:

- (a) (10pts) Use the Mean Value Theorem from single variable calculus to prove the Mean Value Theorem below for scalar functions of several variables. A **convex set**  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is a set such that, for any two points in  $A$ , the line segment between them is also in  $A$ :

$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in A \implies \{(1-t)\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{y} \mid 0 \leq t \leq 1\} \subset A$$

**Theorem (MVT).** *If  $f : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable on a convex set  $A$ , for any pair of points  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in A$ , we have*

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{y}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{z}) \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{z})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$$

for some  $\mathbf{z} \in \{(1-t)\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{y} \mid 0 \leq t \leq 1\} \subset A$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{c} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be the curve  $t \mapsto (1-t)\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} + t(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})$ , so the composition  $f \circ \mathbf{c} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a single variable function given by

$$t \mapsto f((1-t)\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{y}).$$

By the Mean Value Theorem in single variable calculus,

$$(f \circ \mathbf{c})(0) - (f \circ \mathbf{c})(1) = \frac{d(f \circ \mathbf{c})}{dt}(t')(0-1), \quad \text{for some } t' \in [0, 1].$$

However, evaluating this expression and using the chain rule, we have

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{D}f((\mathbf{c}(t'))) \mathbf{D}\mathbf{c}(t')(0-1) = -\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{z})\mathbf{c}'(t') = -\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{z})(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{z})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$$

where  $\mathbf{z} = (1-t')\mathbf{x} + t'\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{c}(t')$ . □

(Sorry about the minus signs. It would have been clearer to write the line between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  as  $\{t\mathbf{x} + (1-t)\mathbf{y} \mid 0 \leq t \leq 1\}$ ).

- (b) (10pts) Why is the analogous statement (using the  $\mathbf{D}f$  form of the right hand side) false in general for a vector valued function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  when  $m > 1$ ?

Since  $f(\mathbf{x}) = (f_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_m(\mathbf{x}))$ , where the  $f_i(\mathbf{x})$  are scalar functions, we know from part (a) that there exist points  $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_m$  on the line segment between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  such that

$$f_i(\mathbf{x}) - f_i(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{D}f_i(\mathbf{z}_i)(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}),$$

and certainly we have that

$$f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{y}) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(\mathbf{x}) - f_1(\mathbf{y}) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(\mathbf{x}) - f_m(\mathbf{y}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{D}f_1(\mathbf{z}_1) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{D}f_m(\mathbf{z}_m) \end{bmatrix} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$$

where the  $\mathbf{D}f_i(\mathbf{z}_i)$  (which are  $1 \times n$  matrices) provide the rows for a  $m \times n$  matrix. However, we cannot guarantee that  $\mathbf{z}_1 = \mathbf{z}_2 = \dots = \mathbf{z}_m$  in general, so this matrix is not generally equal to  $\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{z})$  for any  $\mathbf{z}$ .

2. (5pts) What is the derivative of a constant function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , (so  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto (f_1, \dots, f_m)$ , where each  $f_i \in \mathbb{R}$  is independent of  $\mathbf{x}$ )? Prove your answer using the definition of the derivative; i.e. that the derivative is the unique linear function  $\mathbf{T} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  such that

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} \frac{\|f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}_0) - \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)\|}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|} = 0$$

The derivative of such a function is identically 0 for all  $\mathbf{x}$ ; that is,

$$\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$$

where  $\mathbf{0} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is the linear function  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto (0, \dots, 0)$  for all  $x$ , which is represented by the zero matrix

$$\mathbf{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Indeed, we have

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} \frac{\|f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}_0) - \mathbf{0}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)\|}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|} = \lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} \frac{\|0 - \mathbf{0}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)\|}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|} = \lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} \frac{\|0 - 0\|}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|} = 0.$$

3. (5pts) What is the derivative of a linear function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , (so  $f(a\mathbf{x} + b\mathbf{y}) = af(\mathbf{x}) + bf(\mathbf{y})$  for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ )? Prove your answer using the definition of the derivative.

The derivative of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}$  is supposed to be the “best linear approximation to  $f$ ” at  $\mathbf{x}$ . Since  $f$  is already linear, it is best approximated by  $f$  itself. Thus,  $\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}) = f$  for all  $\mathbf{x}$ . Indeed,

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} \frac{\|f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}_0) - f(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)\|}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|} = \lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_0} \frac{\|f(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) - f(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)\|}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|} = 0$$

using the property of linearity that  $f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}_0) = f(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)$ .

4. (10pts) A function  $f : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow B \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be **invertible** if there exists a function (called the inverse)  $f^{-1} : B \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$f^{-1} \circ f = \text{Id} : A \rightarrow A \quad \text{and} \quad f \circ f^{-1} = \text{Id} : B \rightarrow B,$$

where  $\text{Id}$  is the **identity function** which maps each point to itself,

$$\text{Id} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{x}.$$

(Note that the dimension of the domain and range must be the same, and note that  $f^{-1}(\mathbf{x})$  does not mean  $1/f(\mathbf{x})$  unless  $n = 1$ , since division does not make sense for  $n > 1$ .)

Show that if  $f : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow B \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is invertible, and if  $f$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in A$ , then  $f^{-1}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{y}_0 = f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  with derivative

$$\mathbf{D}(f^{-1})(\mathbf{y}_0) = (\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}_0))^{-1}.$$

(Hint: use the chain rule and your result from problem 3).

Since  $(f^{-1} \circ f) = \text{Id}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ , it follows that  $f^{-1}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{y}_0$ . (It's OK if you did not make this argument, but rather assumed that  $f^{-1}$  was differentiable at  $\mathbf{y}_0$ ). What's left is to show that  $\mathbf{D}(f^{-1})(\mathbf{y}_0)$  is an inverse to  $\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}_0)$ , i.e. that

$$A \mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}_0) = \text{Id}, \quad \mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}_0) A = \text{Id},$$

where  $A = \mathbf{D}(f^{-1})(\mathbf{y}_0)$ .

But using the fact that  $\text{Id}$  is linear, so  $\mathbf{D}(\text{Id})(\mathbf{x}) = \text{Id}$ , and the chain rule, we have

$$\text{Id} = \mathbf{D}(\text{Id})(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{D}(f^{-1} \circ f)(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{D}(f^{-1})(\mathbf{y}_0) \mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}_0)$$

and

$$\text{Id} = \mathbf{D}(\text{Id})(\mathbf{y}_0) = \mathbf{D}(f \circ f^{-1})(\mathbf{y}_0) = \mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}_0) \mathbf{D}(f^{-1})(\mathbf{y}_0),$$

so by definition of invertibility, we have

$$\mathbf{D}(f^{-1})(\mathbf{y}_0) = (\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}_0))^{-1}.$$

5. (10pts) In class (and in Ch. 2.6 in the book), we discussed the product rule

$$\mathbf{D}(fg)(\mathbf{x}_0) = g(\mathbf{x}_0)\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}_0) + f(\mathbf{x}_0)\mathbf{D}g(\mathbf{x}_0)$$

for scalar functions  $f, g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where the product  $fg : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \mapsto f(\mathbf{x})g(\mathbf{x})$  is ordinary multiplication in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

For vector valued functions  $f, g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , we can form the dot product function (note that it is scalar valued!)

$$f \cdot g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \mathbf{x} \mapsto f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(\mathbf{x})g_i(\mathbf{x})$$

where the product is the dot product in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . Formulate and prove a product rule for the dot product. You may use the scalar version of the product rule in your proof, and any other properties of derivatives discussed in class. (Hint: in formulating your result in a concise manner, you may be interested in the **transpose** operation on matrices  $A \mapsto A^T$ . If  $A$  is an  $r \times s$  matrix,  $A^T$  is a  $s \times r$  matrix with  $(A^T)_{ij} = A_{ji}$ , that is, the rows and columns are swapped with one another.)

Since  $f \cdot g$  is a function from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ , we expect  $\mathbf{D}(f \cdot g)(\mathbf{x})$  to be a linear map from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ , that is, a  $1 \times n$  matrix. Using the sum and product rules, we have

$$\mathbf{D}(f \cdot g)(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{D}\left(\sum_{i=1}^m f_i(\mathbf{x})g_i(\mathbf{x})\right) = \sum_{i=1}^m (f_i(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{D}g_i(\mathbf{x}) + g_i(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{D}f_i(\mathbf{x})).$$

Each term in the sum is a scalar, such as  $f_i(\mathbf{x})$ , times a  $1 \times n$  matrix, such as  $\mathbf{D}g_i(\mathbf{x})$ , so the result is indeed a  $1 \times n$  matrix. We can write this more economically by noting that

$$[\mathbf{D}g_i(\mathbf{x})]_{1j} = [\mathbf{D}g(\mathbf{x})]_{ij}$$

that is, the entry in the  $j$ th column of the  $1 \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{D}g_i(\mathbf{x})$  (which is  $\frac{\partial g_i(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j}$ ), is equal to the entry in the  $i$ th row,  $j$ th column entry of the  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{D}g(\mathbf{x})$ .

Thus, using the formula  $[AB]_{ik} = \sum_j A_{ij}B_{jk}$  for matrix multiplication, we have

$$[\mathbf{D}(f \cdot g)(\mathbf{x})]_{1j} = \sum_{i=1}^m \left( f_i(\mathbf{x}) [\mathbf{D}g(\mathbf{x})]_{ij} + g_i(\mathbf{x}) [\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x})]_{ij} \right) = [f(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{D}g(\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x})]_{1j},$$

for the entry in each column, and so

$$\mathbf{D}(f \cdot g)(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{D}g(\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x})$$

Note that  $f^T(\mathbf{x})$  is a  $1 \times m$  matrix and  $\mathbf{D}g(\mathbf{x})$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix, (similarly for  $g^T(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x})$ ) so the result is a  $1 \times n$  matrix, as expected.

This can equivalently be written as

$$\mathbf{D}(f \cdot g)(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{D}g(\mathbf{x}))^T f(\mathbf{x}) + (\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}))^T g(\mathbf{x}).$$