

Notes on the transition from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R}^n

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These notes are a summary of the material used for the Mathematical Programming course for the Bachelor program in Computer Engineering²

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Recalls on \mathbb{R}

- **Open spherical neighborhood** of $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$B(x_0, \rho) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - x_0| < \rho\}, \quad \rho > 0$$

$$B(x_0, \rho) = (x_0 - \rho, x_0 + \rho) \text{ (open interval centered at } x_0)$$

$$B(3, 2) = ?$$

- **Open neighborhood** of $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$I(x_0) = (a, b)$$

any open interval containing $B(x_0, \rho)$ for some $\rho > 0$.

An open neighborhood of 3?

Derived set and isolated points

Given $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^*$

- **Derived set** of A ,

$$\mathcal{D}A = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^* : x \text{ accumulation point of } A\}$$

- $x \in A$ is **isolated** in A when

$$x \in A \setminus \mathcal{D}A$$

- $x \in A$ is **non-isolated** in A when

$$x \in A \cap \mathcal{D}A$$

$$A = (1, 7] \quad \mathcal{D}A?$$

$$A = (1, 7] \cup \{0\} \quad \mathcal{D}A?$$

$$A = [1, 7] \cup \{0\} \quad \mathcal{D}A?$$

\mathbb{R}^n

$$\mathbb{R}^n \triangleq \underbrace{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}}_{n \text{ times}} = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

- \mathbb{R}^n is the Cartesian product of **totally ordered** sets (\mathbb{R})
- \mathbb{R}^n is **ordered**, that is it is possible to define on \mathbb{R}^n an order relation (reflexive, antisymmetric, transitive). **Which one?**
- Is \mathbb{R}^n totally ordered?

Operations on \mathbb{R}^n

- **sum** of two elements $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$x + y = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_n + y_n)$$

- **scalar-vector product** $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\alpha x = (\alpha x_1, \alpha x_2, \dots, \alpha x_n)$$

\mathbb{R}^n is **closed** with respect to the two operations above

\mathbb{R}^n with the operations of addition and scalar multiplication is a **vector space**

Operations on \mathbb{R}^n

- product between vectors? given two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 - 1 **Hadamard product** returns a vector
 - 2 **inner or scalar product** returns a number

Hadamard product

$$x \circ y = (x_1 y_1, x_2 y_2, \dots, x_n y_n)$$

The following properties hold:

- 1 *commutative* property: given $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x \circ y = y \circ x$;
- 2 *associative* property: given $x, y, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x \circ y \circ v = (x \circ y) \circ v = x \circ (y \circ v)$;
- 3 *distributive* property with respect to addition: given $x, y, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$,
 $x \circ (y + v) = (x \circ y) + (x \circ v)$;
- 4 *homogeneity* property: given $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, $\alpha(x \circ y) = (\alpha x) \circ y$;
- 5 *existence of the identity element*: the vector $\mathbf{1} = \underbrace{(1, 1, \dots, 1)}_{n \text{ times}}$ is such that, for every

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

$$\mathbf{1} \circ x = x \circ \mathbf{1} = x$$

- 6 *existence of the zero element*: the origin of \mathbb{R}^n is such that, for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\mathbf{0} \circ x = x \circ \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}.$$

Scalar (or inner) product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = x^T y = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \cdots + x_n y_n$$

enjoys the properties

- 1 *commutative* property: given $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$: $x^T y = y^T x$;
- 2 *distributive* property with respect to addition: if $x, y, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$: $x^T (y + v) = (x^T y) + (x^T v)$
- 3 *homogeneity* property: given $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, $\alpha(x^T y) = (\alpha x)^T y$;
- 4 *existence of the zero element*: the origin of \mathbb{R}^n is such that, for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\mathbf{0}^T x = x^T \mathbf{0} = 0.$$

- 5 moreover:

$$\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0, \quad \langle x, x \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = \mathbf{0}.$$

Vector space \mathbb{R}^n

Let \mathbb{R}^n be the set of real n -tuples, or vectors with n real components

A vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ will **always** be for us a **column vector** with n components

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

or alternatively

$$x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^T$$

Distances in \mathbb{R}

On the real line, given $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|x| \equiv \text{distance of } x \text{ from the origin}$$

The function $|x|$ satisfies the following

- i) $|x| \geq 0$, that is the absolute value of any real number is a positive number, at most zero;
- ii) $|x| = 0$ if and only if $x = 0$, that is the origin has zero absolute value, and the only real number whose absolute value is zero is the origin;
- iii) $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$, that is the absolute value of the sum of two numbers is always less than, or at most equal to, the sum of their absolute values;
- iv) $|\alpha x| = |\alpha| \cdot |x|$, that is the absolute value of the product of two real numbers equals the product of their absolute values.

Distances in \mathbb{R}^2

In the Cartesian plane \mathbb{R}^2 , given $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$\|(x, y)\| \triangleq \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

Do the properties of $|\cdot|$ hold?

- i) $\|(x, y)\| \geq 0$?
- ii) $\|(x, y)\| = 0$ if and only if $(x, y) = (0, 0)$?
- iii) $\|(x, y) + (v, w)\| \leq \|(x, y)\| + \|(v, w)\|$?
- iv) $\|\alpha(x, y)\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|(x, y)\|$?

... in \mathbb{R}^3

In Cartesian space \mathbb{R}^3 , given $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$

$$\|(x, y, z)\| \triangleq ?$$

Do the properties of $|\cdot|$ hold?

- i) $\|(x, y, z)\| \geq 0$?
- ii) $\|(x, y, z)\| = 0$ if and only if $(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0)$?
- iii) $\|(x, y, z) + (v, w, u)\| \leq \|(x, y, z)\| + \|(v, w, u)\|$?
- iv) $\|\alpha(x, y, z)\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|(x, y, z)\|$?

... in \mathbb{R}^n

What if we wanted to extend the concept of $|x|$ in \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R}^n ?

$(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ point in the plane with respect to an orthogonal Cartesian reference frame.

$$\|(x, y)\| \equiv \text{distance of } (x, y) \text{ from the origin} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

More generally, in \mathbb{R}^n , given $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\|x\| \equiv \text{distance of } x \text{ from the origin} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}$$

N.B. it satisfies properties (i)–(iv) of the absolute value in \mathbb{R}

Norm in \mathbb{R}^n

Definition (Norm)

A “norm” on \mathbb{R}^n is a function that associates to each point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ a number $\|x\|$ enjoying the properties

- i) $\|x\| \geq 0$;
- ii) $\|x\| = 0$ if and only if $x = \mathbf{0}$;
- iii) $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$;
- iv) $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|x\|$.

For example, for $p \geq 1$, $p \in \mathbb{N}$, the following is a norm

$$\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

Property

Considering a norm $\|\cdot\|$ and two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\|x - y\| \geq \left| \|x\| - \|y\| \right|$$

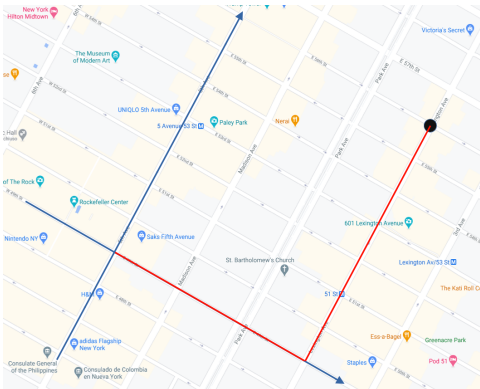
Other norms

The Euclidean norm (or **2-norm** or ℓ_2 norm) is not the only norm that can be defined on \mathbb{R}^n ; there are many others

The most common ones

- 1-norm or ℓ_1 , also known as the Manhattan or Taxicab norm

$$\|x\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| + \cdots + |x_n|$$



Other norms

The Euclidean norm (or **2-norm** or ℓ_2 norm) is not the only norm that can be defined on \mathbb{R}^n ; there are many others

The most common ones

- 1-norm or ℓ_1 , also known as the Manhattan or Taxicab norm

$$\|x\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| + \cdots + |x_n|$$

- ∞ -norm or ℓ_∞ , also known as the Chebyshev norm

$$\|x\|_\infty = \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|\}$$

- Euclidean norm

- 3-norm or ℓ_3

$$\|x\|_3 = \sqrt[3]{|x_1|^3 + |x_2|^3 + \cdots + |x_n|^3}$$

- ...

- p -norm or ℓ_p

$$\|x\|_p = \sqrt[p]{|x_1|^p + |x_2|^p + \cdots + |x_n|^p}$$

Neighborhoods, interior, exterior, and boundary points

Definition

Given $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and a scalar $\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+$ ($\epsilon > 0$), the **open spherical neighborhood** of center x and radius ϵ is the set

$$B_\epsilon(x) = B(x; \epsilon) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : d(x, y) < \epsilon\} = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|y - x\| < \epsilon\}$$

Given $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

- ① there exists $\epsilon > 0$:

$$B_\epsilon(x) \subseteq E \implies \text{interior point of } E$$

- ② there exists $\epsilon > 0$:

$$B_\epsilon(x) \subseteq \text{co}(E) \implies \text{exterior point of } E$$

- ③ for every $\epsilon > 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} B_\epsilon(x) \cap E \neq \emptyset \\ B_\epsilon(x) \cap \text{co}(E) \neq \emptyset \end{aligned} \implies \text{boundary point of } E \text{ and } \text{co}(E)$$

Interior, boundary, and closure of a set

Definition (Interior of E)

The **interior** of E is the set of all interior points of E

$$\overset{\circ}{E} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x \text{ is interior to } E\}$$

Definition (Boundary of E)

The **boundary** of E is the set of all boundary points of E

$$\partial E = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x \text{ is a boundary point of } E\}$$

Therefore, by definition, $\partial E = \partial \text{Co}(E)$

Definition (Closure of E)

The **closure** of E is the set $\bar{E} = E \cup \partial E$

Remarks

For every $x \in E$, either $x \in \overset{\circ}{E}$ or $x \in \partial E$. Moreover, $\overset{\circ}{E} \cap \partial E = \emptyset$

Therefore (it can be shown)

- $\overset{\circ}{E} \cap \partial E = \emptyset$
- $\overset{\circ}{E} \subseteq E \subseteq \bar{E}$
- $\bar{E} = \overset{\circ}{E} \cup \partial E$
- $\partial E = \bar{E} \setminus \overset{\circ}{E}$

Bounded set

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$

Definition

E is called **bounded** if there exists a number $r > 0$ such that

$$E \subseteq B_r(\mathbf{0})$$

Equivalently, E is bounded if there exists $r > 0$ such that $\|x\| < r$ for every $x \in E$

The Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

Theorem

*If E is a **bounded and infinite** subset of \mathbb{R}^n , then there exists at least one accumulation point x for E in \mathbb{R}^n*

Open sets, interior, boundary

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ interior	$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ exterior	$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ boundary
$\exists \epsilon > 0 : B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq E$	$\exists \epsilon > 0 : B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq \text{co}(E)$	$\forall \epsilon > 0 : \begin{matrix} B(x, \epsilon) \cap E \neq \emptyset \\ B(x, \epsilon) \cap \text{co}(E) \neq \emptyset \end{matrix}$

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ accumulation point of E	$x \in E$ isolated in E
$\forall \epsilon > 0 : (B(x, \epsilon) \cap E) \setminus \{x\} \neq \emptyset$	$\exists \epsilon > 0 : (B(x, \epsilon) \cap E) \setminus \{x\} = \emptyset$

E **open** (by definition) when $\forall x \in E, x$ is interior to E

E **closed** (by definition) when $\text{co}(E)$ is open

E closed $\Leftrightarrow \partial E \subseteq E \Leftrightarrow E$ contains all its accumulation points

E neither closed nor open $\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \exists x \in \partial E \cap E \text{ at least one point is not interior} \\ \exists x \in \partial E \setminus E \text{ at least one boundary point of } \partial E \text{ is not in } E \end{cases}$

Topological properties of points in \mathbb{R}^n

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$

- 1 $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is **interior** to E when $\exists \epsilon > 0 : B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq E$
 - **interior** of E , $int(E) = \overset{\circ}{E}$, set of all interior points of E
 - E is **open** when $E = \overset{\circ}{E}$
 - E is **closed** when $co(E)$ is open
- 2 $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is **exterior** to E when $\exists \epsilon > 0 : B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq co(E)$
- 3 $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ that is neither interior nor exterior is a **boundary point** of E
 - that is when $\forall \epsilon > 0 : B(x, \epsilon) \cap E \neq \emptyset$ and $B(x, \epsilon) \cap co(E) \neq \emptyset$
 - **boundary** of E , ∂E , set of all boundary points of E
 - by definition it follows that $\partial E = \partial co(E)$

NB given $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, either x is interior to E , or x is exterior to E , or x is a boundary point of E , i.e., exactly one of the following holds

- 1 $x \in \overset{\circ}{E}$, or
- 2 $x \in int(co(E))$, or
- 3 $x \in \partial E$

therefore $\mathbb{R}^n = \overset{\circ}{E} \cup int(co(E)) \cup \partial E$

Properties of open and closed sets

- 1 \mathbb{R}^n and \emptyset are both open and closed, and they are the only sets with this property
- 2 the union of a finite or infinite number of open sets is always open
- 3 the intersection of a finite number of open sets is open
- 4 the intersection of an infinite number of open sets may fail to be open
- 5 the intersection of a finite or infinite number of closed sets is always closed
- 6 the union of a finite number of closed sets is closed
- 7 the union of an infinite number of closed sets may fail to be closed

Limits in \mathbb{R}

Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^*$ be an accumulation point of D . When do we say that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \ell \in \mathbb{R}^*$$

Definition

Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^*$ be an accumulation point of D .

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \ell \in \mathbb{R}^*$$

when **for every neighborhood $\mathcal{U}(\ell)$ there exists a neighborhood $\mathcal{N}(x_0)$ such that**

$$x \in (\mathcal{N}(x_0) \cap D) \setminus \{x_0\} \Rightarrow f(x) \in \mathcal{U}(\ell)$$

Limits in \mathbb{R}^n

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}_*^n$ be an accumulation point of E , $\ell \in \mathbb{R}^*$

Definition (Limit)

We say that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \ell$$

when **for every neighborhood $\mathcal{U}(\ell)$ there exists a neighborhood $\mathcal{N}(x_0)$ such that**

$$x \in (\mathcal{N}(x_0) \cap D) \setminus \{x_0\} \Rightarrow f(x) \in \mathcal{U}(\ell)$$

Limits of vector-valued functions

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, that is

$$f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x) \\ f_2(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $x \in \mathbb{R}_*^n$ ($x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ or $x_0 = \infty$) be an accumulation point of D

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \ell \in \mathbb{R}_*^m \quad (\ell \in \mathbb{R}^m \text{ or } \ell = \infty)$$

when (by definition) **for every** neighborhood $\mathcal{U}(\ell)$ **there exists a** neighborhood $\mathcal{N}(x_0)$ such that

$$x \in (\mathcal{N}(x_0) \cap D) \setminus \{x_0\} \Rightarrow f(x) \in \mathcal{U}(\ell)$$

that is

$$\text{if } x \in (\mathcal{N}(x_0) \cap D) \setminus \{x_0\} \text{ then } f(x) \in \mathcal{U}(\ell)$$

Limits for $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ – properties

Proposition

Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}_*^n$ be an accumulation point of D , and $\ell \in \mathbb{R}^m$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \ell \iff \begin{cases} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_1(x) = \ell_1 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_2(x) = \ell_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_m(x) = \ell_m \end{cases}$$

Properties of limits

Definition

Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}_*^n$ be an accumulation point of D . We say that f has a certain property \mathcal{P} **eventually** as x tends to x_0 when:
 there exists a neighborhood $\mathcal{U}(x_0)$ such that f has property \mathcal{P} for every point $x \in (\mathcal{U}(x_0) \cap D) \setminus \{x_0\}$

- 1 **uniqueness of the limit:** if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = l_1$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = l_2$ then $l_1 = l_2$
- 2 **sign-preservation:** if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = l > 0$ then $f(x) > 0$ eventually as $x \rightarrow x_0$

Limit operations

Let $f: A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g: B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and let x_0 be an accumulation point of $A \cap B$, with $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \ell_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = \ell_2 \in \mathbb{R}$

- 3 $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} cf(x) = c\ell_1, \forall c \in \mathbb{R}$
- 4 $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) + g(x) = \ell_1 + \ell_2$
- 5 $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)g(x) = \ell_1\ell_2$
- 6 $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} 1/g(x) = 1/\ell_2$ if $\ell_2 \neq 0$
- 7 $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)/g(x) = \ell_1/\ell_2$ if $\ell_2 \neq 0$

- 8 if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = +\infty$ and $g(x)$ is eventually bounded below as $x \rightarrow x_0$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) + g(x) = +\infty$
- 9 if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = +\infty$ and $g(x) > \ell > 0$ eventually as $x \rightarrow x_0$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)g(x) = +\infty$
- 10 if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = 0$ and $g(x)$ is eventually bounded as $x \rightarrow x_0$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)g(x) = 0$
- 11 if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = 0^+$ then $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} 1/f(x) = +\infty$
- 12 if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = +\infty$ then $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} 1/f(x) = 0^+$

Properties of limits

Let $f: A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g: B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $h: C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}_*^n$ be an accumulation point of $A \cap B \cap C$

- 13 squeeze theorem** (or sandwich theorem): if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = \ell$ and $f(x) \leq h(x) \leq g(x)$ eventually as $x \rightarrow x_0$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} h(x) = \ell$

Let $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $g: Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$, with X and Y such that $f(x) \in Y$ for every $x \in X$, and let $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}_*^n$ and $\ell \in \mathbb{R}_*^m$ be accumulation points of X and Y .

- 14 limit of a composite function**: if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = y_0$ and $\lim_{y \rightarrow y_0} g(y) = \ell$ and $f(x) \neq y_0$ eventually as $x \rightarrow x_0$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(f(x)) = \ell$

Sequences in \mathbb{R}

Definition

A sequence of numbers, or in \mathbb{R} , is a function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (or $f: \{k \in \mathbb{N} : k \geq \bar{k}\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$) that assigns to every non-negative integer $k \in \mathbb{N}$ a number

$$f(k) = x(k) = x_k \in \mathbb{R}$$

A sequence in \mathbb{R} is denoted $\{x_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$, $\{x_k\}_{\mathbb{N}}$, or $\{x_k\}$

Example

$\{1/k\}$, $\{k^2/(k+1)\}$

Sequences in \mathbb{R}^n

Definition

A sequence of **vectors**, or in \mathbb{R}^n , is a function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ (or $f: \{k \in \mathbb{N} : k \geq \bar{k}\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$) that assigns to every non-negative integer $k \in \mathbb{N}$ a vector

$$f(k) = x(k) = x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

A sequence in \mathbb{R}^n is denoted $\{x_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$, $\{x_k\}_{\mathbb{N}}$, or $\{x_k\}$

Example

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} k \\ k+3 \end{pmatrix} \right\}, \quad \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{k} \\ 1 + \sin k \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Sequences in \mathbb{R}^n

1 $\{x_k\}$ is **convergent** if there exists $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

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

2 $\{x_k\}$ is **divergent** if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = \infty \in \mathbb{R}_*^n$$

3 $\{x_k\}$ is **irregular** if it is neither convergent nor divergent

4 A sequence in \mathbb{R}^n , $\{x_k\}$, is **bounded** if there exists a constant $M > 0$ such that

$$\|x_k\| \leq M, \quad \forall k$$

Proposition

A sequence $\{x_k\}$ is bounded if and only if the sequences defined by each individual component are bounded

Subsequences in \mathbb{R}^n

Let $\{x_k\}$ be a sequence. The sequence obtained from $\{x_k\}$ by selecting the elements x_k corresponding to an infinite set of indices K is a subsequence

Example

Let $\{x_k\}$ be defined as

$$x_k = \begin{pmatrix} 1/k \\ (-1)^k \end{pmatrix}$$

The sequence obtained by selecting elements corresponding to even values of the index k is a subsequence

Subsequences in \mathbb{R}^n

Formally

Definition

Given a sequence $\{x_k\}$ and a strictly increasing sequence of integers $i_k \in \mathbb{N}$, the sequence $\{y_k\}$ defined as

$$y_k = x_{i_k}$$

is a subsequence of $\{x_k\}$

The set $K = \{i_k, k \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is an infinite subset of \mathbb{N} . A subsequence is very often denoted as

$$\{x_k, k \in K \subseteq \mathbb{N}\}$$

$$\{x_k\}_{k \in K}$$

$$\{x_k\}_K$$

Sequences in \mathbb{R}^n

- 1 $\{x_k\}$ is **convergent** if there exists $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

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

- 2 $\{x_k\}$ is **divergent** if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = \infty \in \mathbb{R}_*^n$$

- 3 $\{x_k\}$ is **irregular** if it is neither convergent nor divergent

- 4 A sequence in \mathbb{R}^n , $\{x_k\}$, is **bounded** if there exists a constant $M > 0$ such that

$$\|x_k\| \leq M, \quad \forall k$$

- 5 $\{x_k\}$ is **unbounded** if there exists a set of indices $K \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that the subsequence $\{x_k\}_{k \in K}$ is divergent.

Recursive sequences

Example in \mathbb{R} : Given $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we want to find a point x^* such that $f(x^*) = 0$

Suppose

- ① that f is differentiable on \mathbb{R} ;
- ② that we have x_0 such that $f(x_0) \neq 0$, $f'(x_0) \neq 0$

equation of the tangent line to the graph of f at $(x_0, f(x_0))$

$$y - f(x_0) = f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

we find the point where the line crosses the horizontal axis

$$x = x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}$$

Recursive sequences

In general we can define a recursive sequence as follows. Given m vectors $a_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $i = 0, \dots, m - 1$, and a function $f: \underbrace{\mathbb{R}}_{\rightarrow k} \times \underbrace{\mathbb{R}^n \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}^n}_{m \text{ times}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$,

we define

$$x_k = \begin{cases} a_k, & \text{if } k < m, \\ f(k, x_{k-1}, \dots, x_{k-m}), & \text{if } k \geq m. \end{cases}$$

The first elements of the sequence are:

$$a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{m-1}, \underbrace{x_m}_{f(m, a_{m-1}, \dots, a_0)}, \underbrace{x_{m+1}}_{f(m+1, x_m, a_{m-1}, \dots, a_1)}, \dots$$

Classification of sequences

- 1 $\{x_k\}$ **convergent** when (by def.) there exists $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$: $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = \bar{x}$
- 2 $\{x_k\}$ **divergent** when (by def.) $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = \infty$, i.e. $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|x_k\| = +\infty$
- 3 $\{x_k\}$ **irregular** when (by def.) it is neither convergent nor divergent
- 4 $\{x_k\}$ **bounded** when (by def.) there exists $M > 0$: $\|x_k\| < M$ for every k
- 5 $\{x_k\}$ **unbounded** when (by def.) there exists $K \subseteq \mathbb{N}$: $\{x_k\}_K$ is divergent

Properties of sequences

- 1 $\{x_k\}$ **convergent** \Rightarrow $\{x_k\}$ **bounded**
- 2 $\{x_k\}$ **bounded** \Rightarrow there exists K : $\{x_k\}_K$ **convergent**
- 3 $\{x_k\}$ **convergent** \Leftrightarrow for every K , $\{x_k\}_K$ **convergent**

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = \bar{x} \Leftrightarrow \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty, k \in K} x_k = \bar{x}, \quad \forall K \subseteq \mathbb{N}$$

- 4 $\{x_k\} \subseteq C$, C **compact** \Rightarrow there exists K : $\{x_k\}_K$ **convergent**
- 5 (Bridge theorem) $f: X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, x_0 accumulation point of X

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \ell \Leftrightarrow \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_k) = \ell$$

for every $\{x_k\} \subseteq X \setminus \{x_0\}$: $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k = x_0$

Definition

Definition

Let $f: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. f is continuous at $x_0 \in E$ when

- x_0 is an **isolated point** of E , or
- x_0 is an **accumulation point** of E and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0).$$

that is

- 1 the limit exists
- 2 the limit equals $f(x_0)$

Definition

f is continuous on $X \subseteq E$ when it is continuous at every point of X

What does it mean?

Being able to say that a function $f: D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at an accumulation point $x_0 \in D$ of D means that

*f takes values **arbitrarily** close to $f(x_0)$ (i.e., as close as we wish) for points x that are **sufficiently** close to x_0*

Operations that preserve continuity

Let $f: X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n, g: Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous at $x_0 \in X \cap Y$. Then the following are also continuous at x_0

- 1 the function $f \pm g$
- 2 the function $\alpha f, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$
- 3 the function $f \cdot g$
- 4 the function f/g if $g(x_0) \neq 0$
- 5 the function $|f|$

Let $f: X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous at $x_0 \in X$ and $g: Y \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous at $y = f(x_0) \in Y$. Then

- 6 the composite function $f(g(x))$ is continuous at x_0

Linear function

Definition

A function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called **linear** when

- 1 for every $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$
- 2 for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, $f(\alpha x) = \alpha f(x)$

A function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is linear \Leftrightarrow there exist $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$f(x) = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + \dots + c_n x_n = c^\top x$$

Definition

A function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called **affine** when there exist $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $d \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$f(x) = c^\top x + d$$

Quadratic forms

- A quadratic form in one variable is a homogeneous polynomial of degree two: $q(x) = ax^2$
- A quadratic form in two variables is a homogeneous polynomial of degree two in two variables: $q(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$

$$\begin{aligned}q(x, y) &= (ax + by)x + (0x + cy)y = (ax + by, 0x + cy) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \\&= (x, y) \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = (x, y) \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \\&= (x, y) \begin{pmatrix} a & \frac{b}{2} \\ \frac{b}{2} & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Quadratic functions

Definition

A quadratic function is (by def.) the sum of a quadratic form and an affine function

$$q(x) = \underbrace{x^T Q x}_{\text{quadratic form}} + \underbrace{c^T x + d}_{\text{affine function}}$$

with Q not identically zero

N.B. one can always assume Q to be a symmetric matrix. If it were not, we can replace Q with $(Q + Q^T)/2$, since

$$x^T Q x = x^T \left(\frac{1}{2}(Q + Q^T) \right) x$$

CAUTION in general $Q \neq (Q + Q^T)/2$

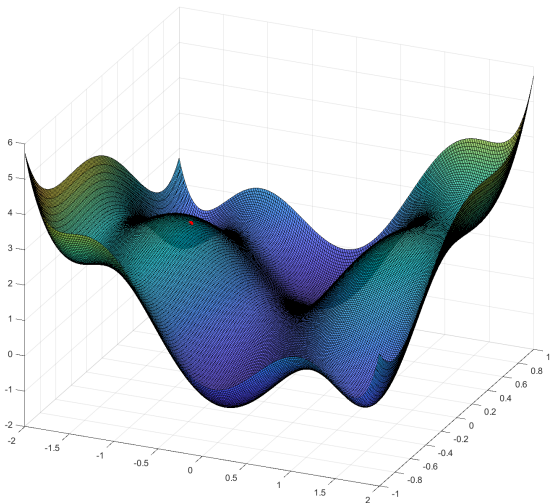
Restrictions of f

Given the function

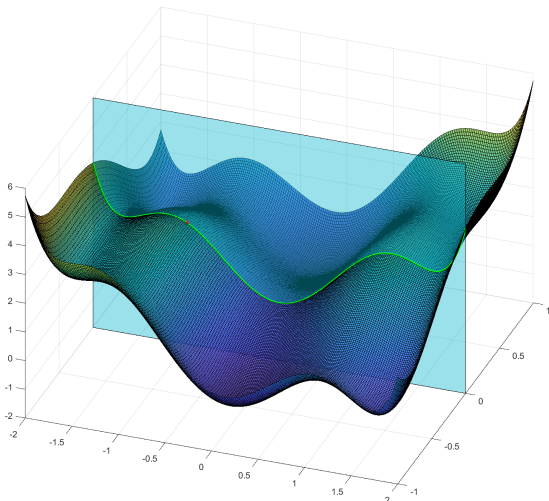
$$f(x, y) = (4 - 2.1x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^4)x^2 + xy + (-4 + 4y^2)y^2$$

- Determine whether and why it is continuous on \mathbb{R}^2
- write the expression of the restriction of f to the set $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y = 0\}$
- write the expression of the restriction of f to the set $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x = -1\}$
- write the expression of the restriction of f to the set $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x = -1 + 2t, y = t\}$

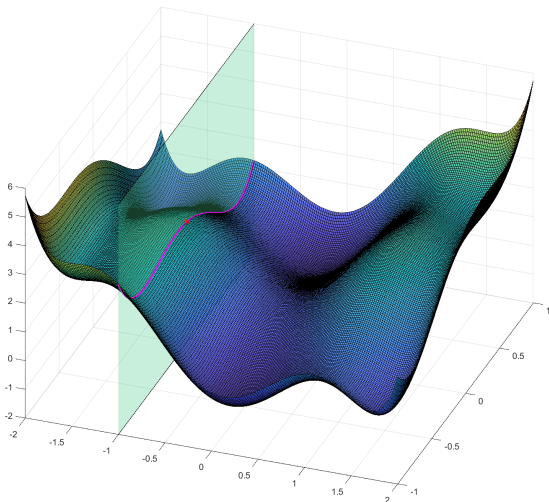
Graph of f



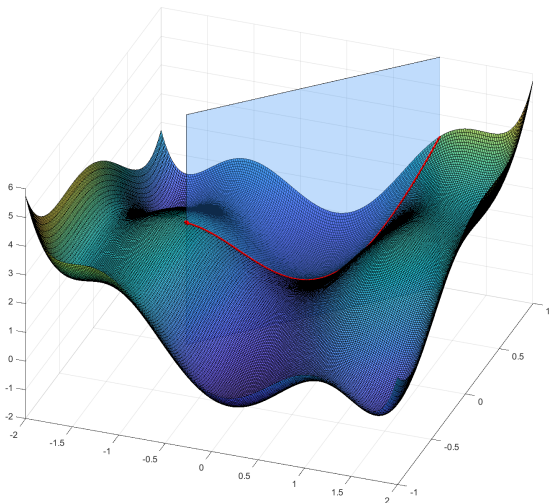
Restriction of f to $y = 0$



Restriction of f to $x = -1$



Restriction of f to $x = -1 + 2t, y = t$



Differentiable function and derivative

Given $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$

Definition

f is differentiable at x_0 if the following limit exists and is finite

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = \ell$$

the value of the limit (if it exists and is finite) is called the derivative of f at x_0 , $f'(x_0)$

Differentiable function

Given $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$

Definition

f is differentiable at x_0 when there exists a constant $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that, as $x \rightarrow x_0$

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + a(x - x_0) + o(x - x_0)$$

where

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{o(x - x_0)}{x - x_0} = 0$$

N.B. we can approximate f with the linear function $f(x_0) + a(x - x_0)$ to arbitrary precision, provided that x is sufficiently close to x_0

Equivalence in \mathbb{R}

Theorem

Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. f is differentiable at x_0 **if and only if** f is (Fréchet) differentiable at x_0

Differentiable function

$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ differentiable at x_0 .

The graph of the linear function $f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$ is the set

$$G_t = \{(x, y) : y = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)\}$$

and is called the **tangent line** to the graph of f at the point $(x_0, f(x_0))$

The vector $(-f'(x_0), 1)$ is the **normal vector to the tangent** (and to the graph of f) at x_0

What does it mean?

Suppose we have a function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ differentiable at a point x_0 . What do we know about f ?

- 1 f is continuous at x_0
- 2 f can be approximated “near” x_0 by a linear function
- 3 the tangent to the graph of f at $(x_0, f(x_0))$ exists, i.e., the graph is “smooth” at x_0
 - it certainly has no jumps (because f is continuous)
 - it has no “corners” where the tangent would not be defined

Example

In \mathbb{R}^2 consider the function

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

and

$$P_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad P_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad d_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad d_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- $A = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x = x(t) = P_1 + td_1, t \geq 0\}$
- $B = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x = x(t) = P_2 + td_2, t \geq 0\}$

$$f|_A(x) = \phi_1(t), \quad f|_B(x) = \phi_2(t)$$

Compute:

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\phi_1(t) - \phi_1(0)}{t}, \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\phi_2(t) - \phi_2(0)}{t}$$

Directional derivative

Congratulations — you have just computed your first directional derivative of a function of two variables!!!

Definition

Given $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we say that f admits a **directional derivative** at $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ along $d \in \mathbb{R}^n$ when the following difference quotient limit exists and is finite

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(x + td) - f(x)}{t} = Df(x, d)$$

Example

Consider the function $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1^2 + 3x_1x_3 + x_2x_3^2$$

Given $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$, consider the set

$$A = \{(y_1, y_2, y_3) : y_1 = x_1, y_2 = x_2, y_3 = x_3 + h\}$$

Compute

$$f|_A(x) = \phi(h), \quad \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\phi(h) - \phi(0)}{h}$$

Partial derivative

Definition

Given $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we say that f admits a **partial derivative** at $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with respect to the variable x_i when the following difference quotient limit exists and is finite

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i + h, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) - f(x)}{h} = \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_i}$$

The vector $\nabla f(x)$

Definition

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. f is **differentiable** at x when it admits partial derivatives with respect to all variables.

If f is differentiable at x , the column vector of partial derivatives is denoted by $\nabla f(x)$

$$\nabla f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

Connection between directional derivative and partial derivative

Note that, given $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $e_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have

$$x + he_i = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_i \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} + h \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_i + h \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

therefore, since $f(x_1, \dots, x_i + h, \dots, x_n) = f(x + he_i)$, if $\partial f(x)/\partial x_i$ exists

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + he_i) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(x + te_i) - f(x)}{t} = Df(x, e_i)$$

Example 1

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } xy \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } xy = 0 \end{cases}$$

- 1 f is **differentiable** at $(0, 0)$, however
- 2 f is NOT continuous at $(0, 0)$, the limit

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y)$$

does NOT exist

- 3 f cannot be approximated by a linear function “near” the origin

Time to bring out the heavy artillery

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } xy \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } xy = 0 \end{cases}$$

Does f admit directional derivatives at $(0, 0)$? **NO**

Try choosing $d \neq \pm e_i$ and computing

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(0 + td) - f(0)}{t}$$

Example 2

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x^2 < y < 2x^2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Let $d \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $d_2 > 0$, $d_1 \neq 0$. Consider the half-line

$$r^+ = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x = td_1, y = td_2, t \geq 0\}$$

$$r^+ \cap G_{2x^2} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x = td_1, y = td_2, td_2 = 2t^2 d_1^2\} = \left\{ (0, 0), \left(\frac{d_2}{2d_1}, \frac{d_2^2}{2d_1^2} \right) \right\}$$

$td_2 > 2t^2 d_1^2$ for $t > 0$, when $t \in (0, d_2/2d_1^2)$. Therefore, if we consider the set $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x = td_1, y = td_2, t \in (0, d_2/2d_1^2)\}$

$$f|_A = 0$$

Then $Df(0, d) = 0$.

In conclusion...

- the existence of partial derivatives at a point, and
 - the existence of directional derivatives at a point along every direction
- are NOT sufficient to say that f is “linearizable” in a neighborhood of that point

So what then?

Definition

$f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **differentiable** (in the strong sense) at x_0 when there exists a vector $g(x_0) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$\lim_{\|d\| \rightarrow 0} \frac{|f(x_0 + d) - f(x_0) - g^\top d|}{\|d\|} = 0$$

the vector $g(x_0)$ is called the **gradient** of f at x_0

Properties

$f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ **differentiable** at x_0

- 1 if and only if for every $d \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $d \neq 0$

$$f(x_0 + d) = f(x_0) + g(x_0)^\top d + o(\|d\|) \quad \text{when } \|d\| \rightarrow 0$$

- 2 f is continuous at x_0 , that is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$$

- 3 $f(x_0 + td) - f(x_0) = tg^\top d + o(|t|\|d\|)$, therefore

$$Df(x_0, d) = g^\top d$$

- 4 $Df(x_0, e_i) = g_i$, $Df(x_0, -e_i) = -g_i$, hence f is differentiable at x_0 and $\nabla f(x_0) = g$

Tangent hyperplane

Suppose $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **differentiable** at x_0

Definition

The **tangent hyperplane** to the graph of f at the point $(x_0, f(x_0))$ exists and is

$$T(x_0) = \{(x, y) : y = f(x_0) + \nabla f(x_0)^\top (x - x_0)\}$$

The vector $v = (-\nabla f(x_0)^\top, 1)^\top$ is the **normal vector** to the tangent hyperplane and to the graph of f

A function that is continuous and differentiable but not (strongly) differentiable

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as:

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 y}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Show that f is NOT differentiable at $(0, 0)^\top$

How to determine whether f is differentiable at x_0

Do we always have to resort to the definition to determine whether a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at x_0 ?

The answer is **NO**, not always

We have two tools

- 1 operations that **preserve** differentiability
- 2 the **total differential** theorem

Sum and product of functions

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable at x_0

① $h(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ is differentiable at x_0 and

$$\nabla h(x_0) = \nabla f(x_0) + \nabla g(x_0)$$

② $h(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x)$ is differentiable at x_0 and

$$\nabla h(x_0) = g(x_0)\nabla f(x_0) + f(x_0)\nabla g(x_0)$$

Composite function

Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Let g be differentiable at x_0 and f be differentiable at $g(x_0)$

3 $h(x) = f(g(x))$ is differentiable at x_0 and

$$\nabla h(x_0) = f'(g(x_0))\nabla g(x_0)$$

Reciprocal and quotient

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable at x_0 and such that $g(x_0) \neq 0$

④ $h(x) = 1/g(x)$ is differentiable at x_0 and

$$\nabla h(x_0) = -\frac{1}{g(x_0)^2} \nabla g(x_0)$$

⑤ $h(x) = f(x)/g(x)$ is differentiable at x_0 and

$$\nabla h(x_0) = \frac{g(x_0)\nabla f(x_0) - f(x_0)\nabla g(x_0)}{g(x_0)^2}$$

Total differential

Theorem

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then:

- ① If f is differentiable at x **then** f is continuous and differentiable at x (the vector $\nabla f(x)$ exists and coincides with the gradient of f at x)
- ② if f is differentiable at x and $\nabla f(x)$ is continuous **then** f is (strongly) differentiable at x

Jacobian matrix

Let $g: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a vector of functions

Suppose all functions $g_i(x)$ are differentiable, i.e., the following exist

$$\nabla g_1(x), \dots, \nabla g_m(x)$$

it is possible to organize all these partial derivatives into a single **Jacobian matrix**

Definition (Jacobian matrix)

Let $g: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. If the first-order partial derivatives $\partial g_i(x)/\partial x_j$ exist for $i = 1 \dots, m$ and $j = 1 \dots n$ at x , we define the Jacobian matrix of g at x as the $m \times n$ matrix

$$J(x) := \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial g_1(x)}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial g_1(x)}{\partial x_n} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \frac{\partial g_m(x)}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial g_m(x)}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \nabla g_1(x)^\top \\ \nabla g_2(x)^\top \\ \vdots \\ \nabla g_m(x)^\top \end{pmatrix} = \nabla g(x)^\top$$

Recall

For functions $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

- 1 if f is differentiable: $\nabla f(x)$ is the vector of partial derivatives
- 2 if f is (strongly) differentiable: gradient $g(x)$ such that

$$\lim_{\|d\| \rightarrow 0} \frac{|f(x+d) - f(x) - g(x)^\top d|}{\|d\|} = 0$$

Differentiability of a vector of functions

Definition (First derivative of a vector of functions)

Let $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$. We say that g is differentiable at the point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if there exists a matrix $J(x)$ such that, for every d ,

$$\lim_{\|d\| \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|g(x+d) - g(x) - J(x)d\|}{\|d\|} = 0.$$

The linear operator $J(x) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is called the derivative of g at x .

N.B. the mere existence of the Jacobian matrix at x does not imply differentiability

Differentiability of a vector of functions

The following holds (analogously to the case $m = 1$)

Proposition

Let $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

- (i) if g is differentiable at x , then g is continuous at x , the Jacobian matrix $J(x)$ exists, and $J(x)$ coincides with the derivative of g at x
- (ii) if the Jacobian matrix $J(x)$ of g at x exists and J is continuous with respect to x , then g is differentiable at x , and the derivative of g at x coincides with $J(x)$.

Chain rule

Let

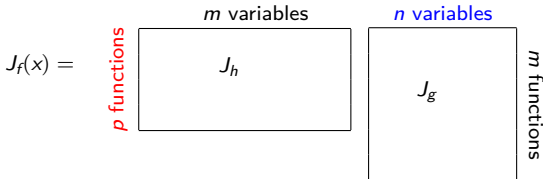
- $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be differentiable at x
- $h : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ be differentiable at $g(x)$

Then $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ defined by $f(x) = h(g(x))$ is differentiable at x and

$$\nabla f(x) = \nabla g(x) \nabla h(y)|_{y=g(x)}$$

N.B. recalling that $\nabla f(x) = J_f(x)^\top$, we have

$$J_f(x) = J_h(y)|_{y=g(x)} J_g(x)$$



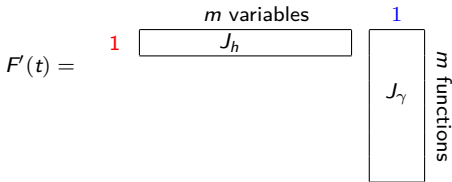
Special case: $n = 1, p = 1$

Let

- $\gamma : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be differentiable at $t_0 \in (a, b)$
- $h : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable at $\gamma(t_0) \in \mathbb{R}^m$

Then $F : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $F(t) = h(\gamma(t))$ is differentiable at t_0 and

$$F'(t) = \nabla \gamma(t) \nabla h(y)|_{y=\gamma(t)} = J_h(\gamma(t)) J_\gamma(t)$$



Differentiability criterion

A sufficient condition for $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ to be differentiable at x is that

- f is **differentiable** (in the weak sense) at x
- $\nabla f(x)$ is **continuous** at x

① a function f **continuous** at every $x \in X$ is said to be of **class 0** on X , $f \in C^0(X)$

② a function f that satisfies the **sufficient condition for differentiability** at every $x \in X$ is said to be of **class 1** on X , $f \in C^1(X)$