Study Notes for Basic Mathematics

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Chapter 1

Function properties

1.1 Convex Functions

In this section, we need to discuss different kinds of convexity and the relationship between them.

1.1.1 Convex set

Definition 1 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, S is convex set if for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$, $\lambda x^1 + (1 - \lambda)x^2 \in S$ for $\forall \lambda \in [0, 1]$.

Theorem 2 S is convex if when two points are in the set, then the line segment joining them is also in the set.

Theorem 3 If S is convex, then S = H(S).

Theorem 4 Let E and F be nonempty convex sets $in\mathbb{R}^n$.

1. E + F is convex set;

- 2. rE is convex set, for $\forall r \in R$;
- 3. $E \cap F$ is convex set;
- 4. H(E), convex hull of E, is convex set.

Definition 5 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, the convex hull of S, H(S) or Conv(S), is the set of all convex combination of points in S.

Theorem 6 H(S) is the smallest convex set containing S.

1.1.2 Convex Function and Equivalence

Definition 7 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and S is convex set, f is a **convex function** on S, if, for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$, we have $f(\lambda x^1 + (1 - \lambda)x^2) \leq \lambda f(x^1) + (1 - \lambda)f(x^2)$, for $\forall \lambda \in [0, 1]$. (This means f lies below every chord.)

Definition 8 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and S is convex set, f is a strict convex function on S, if, for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$, we have $f(\lambda x^1 + (1-\lambda)x^2) < \lambda f(x^1) + (1-\lambda)f(x^2)$, for $\forall \lambda \in (0,1)$. (This means f lies below every chord.)

Definition 9 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $S \neq \phi$, and S is convex; let $f : S \to \mathbb{R}^1$, then the **level set** is defined as $S_{\alpha} = \{x \in S | f(x) \leq \alpha\}$

Theorem 10 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $S \neq \phi$, and S is convex; let $f : s \to \mathbb{R}^1$. If f is convex function on S, then the S_{α} for $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^1$ is a convex set. (If S_{α} for $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^1$ is a convex set, then f is quasi-convex)

Definition 11 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $S \neq \phi$, and S is convex; let $f : s \to \mathbb{R}^1$, then epigraph of f is defined as $epi(f) = \{(x, y) | x \in S, y \in \mathbb{R}^1, y \ge f(x)\}.$

Theorem 12 (Equivalence of proving convex function) Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $S \neq \phi$, and S is convex; let $f : s \to \mathbb{R}$. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. f is convex function on S;
- 2. for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$, we have $f(\lambda x^1 + (1-\lambda)x^2) \leq \lambda f(x^1) + (1-\lambda)f(x^2)$, for $\forall \lambda \in [0,1]$
- 3. epi(f) is a convex set;
- 4. for each $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x) \ge f(\bar{x}) + (x \bar{x})^t \nabla f(\bar{x})$ for $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (given f is differentiable);
- 5. $(\nabla f(x_2) \nabla f(x_1))^t (x_2 x_1) \ge 0$ for $\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (given f is differentiable);

6. for H(x) is PSD $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (given f is twice differentiable); (For how to show H is PSD, refer to Theorem 17)

- 7.-f is concave function on S;
- 8. f^{-1} is concave function (given f is invertible)

Theorem 13 (Equivalence of proving strict convex function) Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $S \neq \phi$, and S is convex; let $f: s \to \mathbb{R}$. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. f is strict convex function on S;
- 2. for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$, we have $f(\lambda x^1 + (1-\lambda)x^2) < \lambda f(x^1) + (1-\lambda)f(x^2)$, for $\forall \lambda \in (0,1)$.
- 3. for each $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x) > f(\bar{x}) + (x \bar{x})^t \nabla f(\bar{x})$ for $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $x \neq \bar{x}$. (given f is differentiable);
- 4. $(\nabla f(x_2) \nabla f(x_1))^t (x_2 x_1) > 0$ for $\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $x \neq \bar{x}$ (given f is differentiable);
- 5. -f is strict concave function on S;

6. f^{-1} is strict concave function (given f is invertible)

Theorem 14 If f is convex, than $f(x) + f(x+a) \ge f(x+\lambda a) + f(x+(1-\lambda)a)$ for $\lambda \in [0,1]$. (From Scarf 1959: bayes solutions of the statistical inventory problem, page 498 before equation 25)

Theorem 15 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $S \neq \phi$, and S is open and convex; let $f : s \to \mathbb{R}^1$ and f is twice differentiable, then if H(x) is $PD \ \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then f is strict convex function. (PS: f is strict convex function only infer H(x) is $PSD \ \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$).

Theorem 16 (From Wiki) The convexity property is preserved under

1. Non-negative weighted maximum: $f = \max\{w_1f_1, ..., w_nf_n\}$ is convex, where $f_1, ..., f_n$ are convex; $w_1, ..., w_n$ are non-negative;

2. Summation: if f and g are convex, then f + g is convex;

3. Positive Linear Combination: $f = w_1 f_1 + w_2 f_2 + ... + w_n f_n$ is convex, where $f_1, ..., f_n$ are convex; $w_1, ..., w_n$ are non-negative; (so convexity is preserved under expectation and integration)

4. Composition with a non-decreasing function: let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex, $h : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex and non-decreasing, then $h \circ f$ is convex¹

5. Under affine maps: if f(x) is convex with $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then g(y) = f(Ay + b) is convex, where $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n*m}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

6. Maximization: Let $f(x,y) : X \times Y \to R$. If Y is non-empty and X is convex set, $f(\cdot,y)$ is convex function on a convex set X for each $y \in Y$. Then $g(x) = \sup_{y \in Y} f(x,y)$ in convex on X. (Heyman and Sobel,

1984:525)

7. Minimization: Let $f(x, y) : X \times Y(x) \to R$. If Y(x) is a nonempty set for every $x \in X$, X is convex set, and (X, Y(x)) is convex set, f(x, y) is convex function on (X, Y(x)), $g(x) > -\infty$ for $\forall x \in X$. Then $g(x) = \inf_{y \in C} f(x, y)$ in convex on X. (Heyman and Sobel, 1984:525)

8. Under perspective function transformation: if f(x) is convex, then its perspective function g(x,t) = tf(x/t) ic convex.

9. Limitation operation: if f^n are convex, then $\lim f^n$ is convex;

¹The analogous claim for concave function is odd: let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is concave, $h: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is concave and non-decreasing, then $h \circ f$ is concave. If f is strict concave and h is strictly increasing and concave then $h \circ f$ is strict concave

Convexity and Hessian Matrix

Theorem 17 Let one of the following assumptions hold for the Hessian matrix H:

- 1. All its eigenvalues are positive; (Necessary and Efficient condition)
- 2. the determinant of every principal minor is nonnegative; (Necessary and Efficient condition)
- 3. has positive diagonal elements and is diagonally dominant; (Sufficient condition)
- 4. $H = A^T A$: Hessian matrix H can be decomposite to product of A^T and A
- 5. If $H = B^T A B$, where A is $n \times n$ and positive definite and B is $n \times m$ with rank m, and $m \leq n$;

6. H^{-1} is positive definite

Then, Hessian matrix H is positive semidefinite.

Theorem 18 (Young, 1971:14) The number λ is an eigenvalue of $A_{n \times n}$ iff λ is a root of the characteristic equation

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

where $det(\cdot)$ is the determinant and I is the identity matrix

Theorem 19 (Young, 1971:14) The eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_n$ satisfy

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} = \det(A) \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i} = trace(A)$$

where $trace(\cdot)$ is the sum of diagonal elements of the squared matrix.

(2 by 2 matirx's eigenvalues can be found by this way very efficiently)

Theorem 20 (Ostrowski, 1960) The eigenvalues of a matrix are continuous functions of its elements.

Theorem 21 (Young, 1971:16) All eigenvalues of a symmetric matrix are eral.

Theorem 22 (Gerschgorin Bounds on Eigenvalues) Let δ_i denote the sum of the absolute values of the offdiagonal elements in row i. That is: $\delta_i = \sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}|$. All eigenvalues of A lie in the union of the following sets:

$$\{\lambda \mid |\lambda - a_{ii}| \le \delta_i\} \text{ for } 1 \le i \le n$$

Definition 23 A matrix is **diagonally dominant** if the absolute value of each diagonal element exceeds the sum of the absolute values of the off-diagonal elements in its row:

$$|a_{ii}| \ge \sum_{j \ne i} |a_{ij}|$$
 for all i

It is strictly diagonally dominant if the inequality holds strictly for the above equation.

Theorem 24 If a symmetric matrix has positive diagonal elements and is diagonally dominant / strictly diagonally dominant. Then it is positive semidefinite / definite.

Theorem 25 (Heyman and Sobel, 1984:537) Any matrix of the form $A^T A$ is positive semidefinite.

Theorem 26 (Heyman and Sobel, 1984:537) If A is positive definite, then A is nonsigular and A^{-1} is positive definite.

Theorem 27 (Heyman and Sobel, 1984:537) If A is $n \times n$ and positive definite and B is $n \times m$ with rank m, and $m \leq n$, then $B^T A B$ is positive definite.

1.1.3 K-Convex Function

K-convexity is only defined for functions of a single real variable, while convexity is defined for functions of many real variables.

In general, K-convex function is defined for dynamic inventory with fixed order cost model. Also, there are quasi-K-convexity, quasi-K-convexity with changeover, and nontrivially quasi-K-convex definied needed for more general (s, S) invenotry models, for reference, please check chapter 9 of Porteus

Definition 28 (Equivalence of K-convex function) Let $f : R \to R$, and $K \ge 0$. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. f is K-convex;
- 2. For each $x \leq y$, $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$, $f(\theta x + (1 \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 \theta)[K + f(y)]$.

3. $K + f(x+a) \ge f(x) + \frac{a}{b} [f(x) - f(x-b)]$, for all $x \in R$, $a \ge 0$, and b > 0. 4. $K + f(y) \ge f(x) + f'(x)(y-x)$ for all $x \le y$. (f is C^1)

- **Theorem 29** K-convex function can NOT have a positive jump at a discontinuity. (A negative jump cannot be too large)
- **Theorem 30** If f is convex, then f is K-convex for any $K \ge 0$. (However, if f is K-convex, it is not necessary f is convex or quasi-convex.)
- **Theorem 31** (Scarf, 1960) The K-convexity property is preserved under
 - 1. scalar multiply: if f is K-convex and s is a positive scalar, then sf is k-convex for all $k \ge sK$.
 - 2. Summation: if f is K-convex and g is k-convex, then f + g is (k + K)-convex.

Theorem 32 If v is K-convex, ϕ is the probability density of a positive random variable, and $G(y) := E[v(y-D)] = \int_0^\infty v(y-\xi)\phi(\xi)d\xi$. Then G is K-convex.

Theorem 33 If f is K-convex, x < y, and f(x) = K + f(y). Then $f(z) \le K + f(y)$ for all $z \in [x, y]$. (K-convex function f can cross the value K + f(y) at most once on $(-\infty, y)$ for each real y.)

1.1.4 Quasi-Convex Function

Definition 34 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and S is convex set, f is a quasi-convex function on S, if, for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$, we have $f(\lambda x^1 + (1 - \lambda)x^2) \leq \max\{f(x^1), f(x^2)\}$, for $\forall \lambda \in [0, 1]$.

Remark 35 For quasi-convex function, it can have sadder point / point of inflection, flat spot, and discontinuity.

Theorem 36 (Equivalence of proving quasi-convex function) Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $S \neq \phi$, and S is convex; let $f: s \to \mathbb{R}$. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. f is quasi-convex function on S;
- 2. for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$, we have $f(\lambda x^1 + (1 \lambda)x^2) \le \max\{f(x^1), f(x^2)\}$, for $\forall \lambda \in [0, 1]$.
- 3. the S_{α} for $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^1$ is a convex set.[?]
- 4. for all $x', x \in S$, $\nabla f(x)(x'-x) \ge 0$ whenever $f(x') \ge f(x)$ (given f is differentiable);[?]
- 5. for all $x', x \in S$, f(x') > f(x) whenever $\nabla f(x)(x'-x) > 0$ whenever (given f is differentiable); [?]

6. for each $x \in S$, the Hessian matrix $D^2 f(x)$ is negative semidefinite in the subspace $\{z \in \mathbb{R}^N : \nabla f(x) \cdot z = 0\}$, that is, if and only if $z \cdot D^2 f(x) \cdot z \ge 0$ whenever $\nabla f(x) \cdot z = 0$ (given f is twice differentiable); [?]

Theorem 37 A bivariate function g(x, y) is jointly quasiconcave in two variables if and only if every vertical slice of the function is quasiconcave, or more formally, if and only if g(x, y) is quasiconcave given mx + y = k for any real values m and k. (Lemma 1 of Zhao and Atkins. 2008. Nesvendors under simultaneous price and inventory competition. MSOM. 10(3).)

Theorem 38 If f is quasi-convex function on S. Let $g: S \to R$ be an non-decreasing function. Then $g \circ f$ is quasiconcave function.

Theorem 39 If f is quasi-convex function on S and k > 0, then kf is quasiconcave function.

Definition 40 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and S is convex set, f is a strictly quasi-convex function² on S, if, for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$ with $f(x^1) \neq f(x^2)$, we have $f(\lambda x^1 + (1 - \lambda)x^2) < \max\{f(x^1), f(x^2)\}$, for $\forall \lambda \in (0, 1)$.

Remark 41 For strictly quasi-convex function, it can have sadder point / point of inflection, flat spot at the botton, and discontinuity. (So, strictly quasi-convex eliminate flat spot except at the botton from quasi-convex function)

Remark 42 Strictly quasi-convex function generally NOT infer quasi-convex function unless we add continuity condition.

Definition 43 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and S is convex set, f is a strongly quasi-convex function³ on S, if, for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$ and $x^1 \neq x^2$, we have $f(\lambda x^1 + (1 - \lambda)x^2) < \max\{f(x^1), f(x^2)\}$, for $\forall \lambda \in (0, 1)$.

Remark 44 For strongly quasi-convex function, it can have sadder point / point of inflection and discontinuity. (So, strong quasi-convex eliminate all flat spot from quasi-convex function)

Theorem 45 (Equivalence of proving strongly quasi-convex function⁴) Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $S \neq \phi$, and S is convex; let $f: s \to \mathbb{R}$. Then the following are equivalent:

1. f is strong quasi-convex function on S;

2. for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$ and $x^1 \neq x^2$, we have $f(\lambda x^1 + (1 - \lambda)x^2) < \max\{f(x^1), f(x^2)\}$, for $\forall \lambda \in (0, 1)$.

3. for all $x', x \in S$ and $\nabla f(x) \neq 0$, $\nabla f(x)(x'-x) > 0$ whenever $f(x') \geq f(x)$ and $x^1 \neq x^2$ (given f is differentiable);

4. for each $x \in S$, the Hessian matrix $D^2 f(x)$ is negative definite in the subspace $\{z \in \mathbb{R}^N : \nabla f(x) \cdot z = 0\}$, that is, if and only if $z \cdot D^2 f(x) \cdot z > 0$ whenever $\nabla f(x) \cdot z = 0$ (given f is twice differentiable);/?

Theorem 46 If f is strongly quasi-convex function on S. Let $g: S \to R$ be an increasing function. Then $g \circ f$ is strongly quasiconcave function.

Theorem 47 If f is strongly quasi-convex function on S and k > 0, then kf is strongly quasiconcave function.

Theorem 48 (From Wiki) The quasiconvexity property is preserved under

1. Non-negative weighted maximum: $f = \max\{w_1f_1, ..., w_nf_n\}$ where $f_1, ..., f_n$ are quasi-convex; $w_1, ..., w_n$ are non-negative;

2. Composition with a non-decreasing function: let $g : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is quasiconvex, $h : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is nondecreasing, then $f = h \circ g$ is quasiconvex⁵

3. Maximization: If Y is a nenempty set and $f(\cdot, y)$ is a quasi-convex function on a convex set X for every $y \in Y$. Then $g(x) = \sup_{y \in Y} f(x, y)$ is a quasi-convex function on X.

4. Minimization: Let $f(x, y) : X \times Y(x) \to R$. If Y(x) is a nonempty set for every $x \in X$, X is convex set, and (X, Y(x)) is convex set, f(x, y) is quasi-convex function on (X, Y(x)), $g(x) > -\infty$ for $\forall x \in X$. Then $g(x) = \inf_{y \in C} f(x, y)$ in convex on X.

(However, sum of quasiconvex function can be not quasiconvex.)

²Some textbook and notes, e.g. MWG P933 and John Nachbar's Finite Dimensional Optimization II, use strongly quasiconvex as definition for strictly quasi-convex function

³Some textbook and notes use strongly quasi-convex as definition for strictly quasi-convex function

⁴Some textbook and notes use strongly quasi-convex as definition for strictly quasi-convex function

⁵Different from convex case, here, we only require h be non-decreasing.

1.1.5 Psedo-convex Function

Definition 49 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, S is convex set, and f is differentiable. f is a **pseudo-convex function** on S, if, for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$, we have if $\nabla f(x^1)(x^2 - x^1) \ge 0$, then $f(x^2) \ge f(x^1)$.

Remark 50 For pseudo-convex function, it can have flat spot at the botton. (So, pseudo-convex function eliminate flat spot except at the botton, eliminate sadder point / point of inflection, and assume continuity from quasi-convex function)

Theorem 51 If f is not quasi-convex, then f is not pseudo-convex.

Definition 52 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, S is convex set, and f is differentiable. f is a strictly pseudo-convex function on S, if, for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$ and $x^1 \neq x^2$, we have if $\nabla f(x^1)(x^2 - x^1) \ge 0$, then $f(x^2) > f(x^1)$.

Theorem 53 Equivalently, f is a strictly pseudo-convex function on S, if, for each $x^1, x^2 \in S$ and $x^1 \neq x^2$, we have if $f(x^2) \leq f(x^1)$, then $\nabla f(x^1)(x^2 - x^1) < 0$.

Remark 54 For strictly pseudo-convex function, it can have NO flat spots, points of inflection, and discontinuity. (So, strictly quasi-convex eliminate flat spot, eliminate sadder point / point of inflection, and assume continuity from quasi-convex function)

Theorem 55 If f is strictly pseudo-convex function, then f is strong quasi-convex function.

1.1.6 Relationship between Convex functions

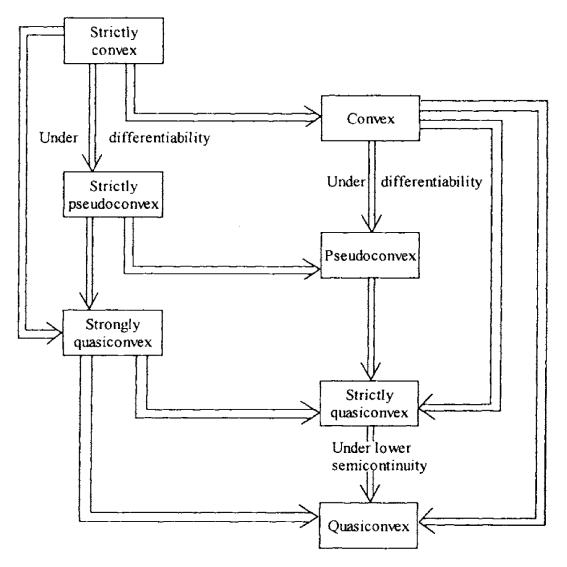


Figure 3.13 Relationship among various types of convexity.

1.1.7 Convexity of functional of convex functions

Definition 56 A real-valued function ϕ defined on a set $T \subset \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^k$ is said to be *increasing-decreasing* on T if and only if for every $(y^1, z^1) \in T$ and $(y^2, z^2) \in T$:

$$y^2 \ge y^1 \text{ and } z^2 \le z^1 \text{ imply } \phi(y^2, z^2) \ge \phi(y^1, z^1)$$

Lemma 57 Let ϕ be a real-valued differentiable function on an open convex set $T \subset \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^k$. Then ϕ is increasing-decreasing on T iff, for every $(y, z) \in T$

$$abla_y \phi(y, z) \ge 0 \qquad ; \qquad \nabla_z \phi(y, z) \le 0$$

Theorem 58 (M. Aveiel, NLP: analysis & Methods, Theorem 6.9) Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a convex set, let $f(x) = (f_1(x), ..., f_m(x))$ and $g(x) = (g_1(x), ..., g_k(x))$ be defined on X, and let ϕ be a real-valued function on $\mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^k$. Define

$$\Phi(x) = \phi(f(x), g(x))$$

and let any one of the following assumptions hold:

- i). f is convex, g is concave, ϕ is increasing-decreasing;
- *ii).* f is linear, g is linear;
- iii). f is convex, g is linear, ϕ is y-increasing;
- iv). f is concave, g is linear, ϕ is y-decreasing;

Then

- a). If ϕ is convex, then Φ is convex.
- b). If X is open, f and g are differentiable on X, and ϕ is pseudoconvex, then Φ is pseudoconvex.
- c). If ϕ is quasiconvex then Φ is quasiconvex.

1.1.8 Properties under optimization

Theorem 59 Non-negative weighted maximum: $f = \max\{w_1 f_1, ..., w_n f_n\}$ where $f_1, ..., f_n$ are convex; $w_1, ..., w_n$ are non-negative. Then f is convex.

Theorem 60 Non-negative weighted maximum: $f = \max\{w_1 f_1, ..., w_n f_n\}$ where $f_1, ..., f_n$ are quasi-convex; $w_1, ..., w_n$ are non-negative. Then f is quasi-convex.

Theorem 61 If Y is a nenempty set and $f(\cdot, y)$ is a quasi-convex function on a convex set X for every $y \in Y$. Then $g(x) = \sup_{y \in Y} f(x, y)$ is a quasi-convex function on X.

Theorem 62 Let $f(x, y) : X \times Y(x) \to R$. If Y(x) is a nonempty set for every $x \in X$, X is convex set, and (X, Y(x)) is convex set, f(x, y) is quasi-convex function on (X, Y(x)), $g(x) > -\infty$ for $\forall x \in X$. Then $g(x) = \inf_{y \in C} f(x, y)$ in convex on X. (In Heyman and Sobel, 1984:525, it state the same result with more strong condition by requiring f(x, y) be convex)

Theorem 63 (Heyman and Sobel, 1984:525) Let $f(x, y) : X \times Y \to R$. If Y is non-empty and X is convex set, $f(\cdot, y)$ is convex function on a convex set X for each $y \in Y$. Then $g(x) = \sup_{x \in Y} f(x, y)$ in convex on X.

Chapter 2

Calculus

Continuity $\mathbf{2.1}$

Theorem 64 Intermediate value theorem

Theorem 65 Extreme value theorem

Remark 66 1. The sequence of continuous function does not necessarily pointwise converge to a continuous function; if the sequence converges uniformly, then by uniformly convergence theorem, its limit function is continuous.

Theorem 67 1. Sum, product, difference, and quotient (if the denominator is not zero) of continuous functions is continuous.

2. Composition of continuous functions is continuous.

$\mathbf{2.2}$ Limits

Theorem 68 (Algebraic limit theorem) If the limits of f(x) and g(x) exist, then

- 1. $\lim_{x \to p} (f(x) + g(x)) = \lim_{x \to p} f(x) + \lim_{x \to p} g(x)$ 2. $\lim_{x \to p} (f(x) g(x)) = \lim_{x \to p} f(x) \lim_{x \to p} g(x)$ 3. $\lim_{x \to p} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = \lim_{x \to p} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \to p} g(x)$
- 4. $\lim_{x \to p} (f(x)/g(x)) = \lim_{x \to p} f(x)/\lim_{x \to p} g(x)$
- 5. $\lim_{x \to p} s \cdot f(x) = s \cdot \lim_{x \to p} f(x), \text{ where } s \text{ is scalar multiplier;}$ 6. $\lim_{x \to p} s^{f(x)} = s^{\lim_{x \to p} f(x)}, \text{ where } s \text{ is a positive real number;}$

Proposition 69 (Limits of Extra Interest) The following results hold:

 $1. \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$ 2. $\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x} = 0$

Theorem 70 (L'Hopital's Rule) If $\lim_{x \to p} (\frac{f(x)}{g(x)})$ has the form of $\frac{0}{0}$ or $\frac{\pm \infty}{\pm \infty}$, then $\lim_{x \to p} (\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}) = \lim_{x \to p} (\frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)})$

$\mathbf{2.3}$ **Derivative and Integral:**

2.3.1Mean Value Theorem

Theorem 71 (Mean Value Theorem) Let $f:[a,b] \to R$ be a continuous function on the closed interval [a,b], and differentiable on the open interval (a,b), where a < b. Then there exists some c in (a,b) such that $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}.$

Theorem 72 (Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem) Let $f : [a,b] \to R$ and $g : [a,b] \to R$ be a continuous function on the closed interval [a, b], and differentiable on the open interval (a, b), where a < b. Then there exists some c in (a, b) such that $\frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}$.

Theorem 73 (The First Mean Value Theorem for Integration) Let $f: [a,b] \to R$ be a continuous function on the closed interval [a,b], and let $g:[a,b] \to [0,\infty)$ be a integrable function, where a < b. Then there exists some c in [a, b] such that $\int_a^b f(t)g(t)dt = f(c)\int_a^b g(t)dt$. (If g(t) = 1, then $\int_a^b f(t)dt = f(c)(b-a)$)

Theorem 74 (The Second Mean Value Theorem for Integration) Let $f:[a,b] \to R$ be a positive monotonically decreasing function on the closed interval [a, b], and let $g: [a, b] \to R$ be a integrable function, where a < b. Then there exists some c in (a, b] such that $\int_a^b f(t)g(t)dt = f(a)\int_a^c g(t)dt$.

Theorem 75 (The Second Mean Value Theorem for Integration by Hiroshi Okamura) Let $f : [a, b] \to R$ be a monotonic function (not necessarily positive and decreasing) on the closed interval [a, b], and let g: $[a,b] \to R$ be a integrable function, where a < b. Then there exists some c in (a,b) such that $\int_a^b f(t)g(t)dt = \int_a^b f(t)g(t)dt$ $f(a) \int_a^c g(t)dt + f(b) \int_c^b g(t)dt.$

2.3.2**Fundamental Theorem of Calculus**

Theorem 76 (The First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus) A real-valued function F is defined on a closed interval [a, b] by setting, for $\forall x \in [a, b]$,

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t)dt$$

where f is a real-valued function continuous on [a, b]. Then, F is

1. continuous on [a, b],

2. differentiable on the open interval (a, b),

3. F'(x) = f(x).

(For more general case: if f is any Lebesgue integrable function on [a, b] and x_0 is a number in [a, b] such that f is continuous at x_0 , then $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is differentiable for $x = x_0$ with $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$

Theorem 77 (The Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus) Let f be a real-valued function defined on a closed interval [a, b] that admits an antiderivative F on [a, b]. That is, f and F are functions such that for $\forall x \in [a,b], f(x) = F'(x).$ If f is integrable on [a,b] then $\int_a^b f(t)dt = F(b) - F(a)$

(Notice: if f is continuous, then f is integrable. However, not all integrable f are continuous)

(For more general case: if a real function F on [a,b] admits a derivative f(x) at every point x of [a,b]and if this derivative f is Lebesgue integrable on [a, b], then $\int_a^b f(t)dt = F(b) - F(a)$

Theorem 78 (Differentiation under Integral) Let $F(x) = \int_{a(x)}^{b(x)} f(x,t) dt$, then:

$$\frac{d}{dx}F(x) = \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial b}\right)\frac{db}{dx} + \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial a}\right)\frac{da}{dx} + \int_{a(x)}^{b(x)}\frac{\partial f(x,t)}{\partial x}dt$$
$$= f(x,b(x))\frac{db(x)}{dx} - f(x,a(x))\frac{da(x)}{dx} + \int_{a(x)}^{b(x)}\frac{\partial f(x,t)}{\partial x}dt$$

2.3.3 Derivative

Theorem 79 Differentiation rules:

- Sum rule: (af + bg)' = af' + bg'
- Product Rule: (fg)' = f'g + fg'
- Quotient Rule: if $g \neq 0$, then $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)' = \frac{f'g fg'}{g^2}$
- Chain Rule: if f(x) = h(g(x)), then $f(x) = h'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$,
- Power Rule: $(f^{g})' = f^{g}(g' \ln f + \frac{g}{f}f')$
- Inverse Function Rule: $(f^{-1})' = (f')^{-1}$ (or, equivalently, $Df^{-1}(y) = [Df(x)]^{-1}$)
- Implicity Function Rule: if implicit function y(x) is defined as F(x, y(x)) = 0, then $y'_x = -\frac{F'_x}{F'_y} = -\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}/\frac{\partial F}{\partial y}$ (or, equivalently, $D_x y = -[D_y F(x, y)]^{-1} D_x F(x, y)$)

Definition 80 Let $f : \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}^M$ be differentiable, then the **Jacobian of** f at x^* denoted by $Jf(x^*)$, is the $M \times N$ matrix of partial derivatives of f at x^*

$$Jf(x^*) = \begin{bmatrix} D_1 f_1(x^*) & \dots & D_N f_1(x^*) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ D_1 f_M(x^*) & \dots & D_N f_M(x^*) \end{bmatrix}$$

Definition 81 Let $f : \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$ be twice differentiable, then the **Hessian of** f at x^* , denoted by $Hf(x^*)$, is the twice differential matrix of f at x^*

$$Hf(x^*) = \begin{bmatrix} D_{11}^2 f(x^*) & \dots & D_{1N}^2 f(x^*) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ D_{N1}^2 f(x^*) & \dots & D_{NN}^2 f(x^*) \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 82 (Young's Theorem) Let $f : \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$ be \mathbb{C}^2 . Then the Hessian of f is symmetric: $D_{ij}^2 f(x^*) = D_{ii}^2 f(x^*)$ for $\forall i, j$.

Theorem 83 (Taylor's Theorem) If $n \ge 0$ is an integer and f is a function which is n times continuously differentiable on the closed interval [a, x], and (n + 1) times differentiable on the open interval (a, x), then

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f^{(1)}(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + R_n(x)$$

where $R_n(x)$ is reminder term, which can be expressed by either one of the following terms:

- Lagrange Form: $R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!}(x-a)^{n+1}$ where $\xi \in [a,x]$
- Cauchy Form: $R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{n!}(x-\xi)^n(x-a)$ where $\xi \in [a,x]$

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• Generated Cauchy Form: $R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{n!} (x-\xi)^n \frac{G(x)-G(a)}{G'(\xi)}$ where $\xi \in [a,x]$ and G(t) is a continuous function on [a,x] with non-vanishing derivative on (a,x)

Definition 84 The directional derivative of f in the direction of v at the point x is the limit

$$D_v f(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+hv) - f(x)}{h}$$

Theorem 85 If all the partial derivatives of f exist and are continuous at x, then they determine the directional derivative of f in the direction v by the formula:

$$D_v f(x) = v \cdot \nabla f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n v_j \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} = \cos \theta \|\nabla f(x)\| \|v\|$$

 $(If ||v|| = 1, then D_v f(x) = v \cdot \nabla f(x) = \cos \theta ||\nabla f(x)||, where \theta is the angle between \nabla f(x) and v.)$

2.3.4 Integral

Theorem 86 Integral Rules:

- Reversing Limits of Integration: $\int_a^b f(x)dx = -\int_b^a f(x)dx$
- Integrals over intervals of length zero: $\int_a^a f(x)dx = 0$
- Linearity: $\int_a^b (\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)) dx = \alpha \int_a^b f(x) dx + \beta \int_a^b g(x) dx$
- Additivity: $\int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_a^c f(x)dx + \int_c^b f(x)dx$
- Integral by Parts: $\int u dv = u \cdot v \int v du$
- Integral by substitution: $\int_a^b f(g(x))dg(x) = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(x)dx$

Theorem 87 In equalities for Integrals:

• Upper and Lower bounds: if $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ for $\forall x \in [a, b]$, then

$$m(b-a) \le \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \le M(b-a)$$

• Inequalities between functions: if $f(x) \leq g(x)$ for $\forall x \in [a, b]$, then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \le \int_{a}^{b} g(x)dx$$

• Subintervals: if [c, d] is subinterval of [a, b] and f(x) is non-negative for $\forall x$, then

$$\int_{c}^{d} f(x)dx \le \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$$

• Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

$$\left(\int_{a}^{b} f(x)g(x)dx\right)^{2} \leq \left(\int_{a}^{b} \left(f(x)\right)^{2} dx\right) \left(\int_{a}^{b} \left(g(x)\right)^{2} dx\right)$$

• Holder's Inequality: if p and q are two real numbers: $1 \le p, q \le \infty$ with $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$, then

$$\left|\int f(x)g(x)dx\right| \le \left(\int \left|f(x)\right|^p dx\right)^{1/p} \left(\int \left|g(x)\right|^q dx\right)^{1/q}$$

• Minkowski Inequality: If $p \ge 1$ is a real number, then

$$\left(\int |f(x) + g(x)|^p \, dx\right)^{1/p} \le \left(\int |f(x)|^p \, dx\right)^{1/p} + \left(\int |g(x)|^p \, dx\right)^{1/p}$$

2.3.5 Multivariate Differentiation

2.4 Inverse Function Theorem

Theorem 88 (Inverse Function Theorem) Fix $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$, let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be C^r , where r is a positive integer, let $y^* = f(x^*)$, and suppose $Df(x^*)$ is invertible. Then there are open sets $U, V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, with $x^* \in U$ and $y^* \in V$, such that Df(x) has full rank for all $x \in U$, f maps U 1-1 onto V, and hence has an inverse $f^{-1} : V \to U$. furthermore, f^{-1} is C^r .

In the result, "Then there are open sets $U, V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, with $x^* \in U$ and $y^* \in V$, such that Df(x) has full rank for all $x \in U$, f maps U 1-1 onto V" are inherited from the assumption "Fix $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$, let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be C^r , where r is a positive integer, let $y^* = f(x^*)$, and suppose $Df(x^*)$ is invertible". The importance of inverse function theorem is the last sentence "and hence has an inverse $f^{-1}: V \to U$. furthermore, f^{-1} is C^r .", which point out the existence of inverse and the continuous of the inverse.

Use Inverse function theorem, we can use chain rule to computer $Df^{-1}(x)$ even if we can not derive f^{-1} explicitly. For example, if $Df(x^*)$ is invertible, $f^{-1}(x)$ is well defined by inverse function theorem. So let $h(x) = f^{-1}(f(x))$, because $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$, we have $Dh(x) = Df^{-1}(f(x)) = Df^{-1}(y)Df(x) = I$. Hence, $Df^{-1}(y) = [Df(x)]^{-1}$.

 $Df(x^*)$ of being full rank is not necessary condition for existence of an inverse function, $f^{-1}(x^*)$. However, $Df(x^*)$ of being full rank is necessary and sufficient condition for $f^{-1}(x^*)$ being differntiable.

2.5 Implicit Function Theorem

Theorem 89 (Implicit Function Theorem) Let O be a nonempty open subset of \mathbb{R}^{L+M} . Let $f: O \to \mathbb{R}^N$ be C^r , where r is a positive integer. Fix $x^* \in O$ and let $f(x^*) = y^*$. If $Df(x^*)$ has full rank of M (if M = 1, then the condition becomes $Df(x^*) \neq 0$), then there is an open set W in \mathbb{R}^{L+M} such that the restriction of the level set $f^{-1}(y^*)$ to W is the graph of a C^r function.

In particular, suppose, for concreteness and simplicity of notation, that the last M columns of $Df(x^*)$ (the x_{μ} columns) are linearly independent, hence has full rank of M. Then there are open sets $U \subseteq R^L$ and $W \subseteq R^{L+M}$, and a C^r function $\psi: U \to R^M$ such that, $D_{\mu}f(x)$ has full rank for all $x \in U$, and

- 1. $x_{\lambda}^* \in U, x^* \in W,$
- 2. $\psi(x_{\lambda}^*) = x_{\lambda}^*$,
- 3. For any $x \in W, x_{\lambda} \in U$,
- 4. For any x_λ ∈ U, ψ(x_λ) is the unique x_μ such that, letting x = (x_λ, x_μ),
 a). x ∈ W,
 b). f(x) = y*.

The implicity function theorem established the existance of implicity function ψ and the differentiability of ψ , which is C^r . The Implicity Function Theorem thus states that if f is continuously differentiable and the last M columns of $Df(x^*)$ has full rank, then the level set of f through x^* is, near x^* , an L-dimensional suface in R^{L+M} . Hence, we can express f function in terms of L-demension instead of original L+Mdemension. Also, by using ψ , we can write the last M variables of x as the a function of the first L variables of $\psi(\cdot): x_L \to x_M$, where $\psi(\cdot)$ is C^r . Hence, the original variable $x = (x_L, x_M) = (x_L, \psi(x_L))$.

Use Implicity function theorem, we can use the chain rule to calculate the implicit function, $\psi : \mathbb{R}^L \to \mathbb{R}^M$, even if we can not derive the implicit function, ψ , explicitly. $D\psi(x_L) = -[D_M f(x)]^{-1} D_L f(x)$.