

## Maximum and Minimum values of univariate functions

Let  $f$  be a function with domain  $\mathcal{D}$ . Then  $f$  has an *absolute maximum* (or global maximum) value at point  $c \in \mathcal{D}$  if

$$f(x) \leq f(c), \forall x \in \mathcal{D}$$

and an *absolute minimum* (or global minimum) value at  $c \in \mathcal{D}$  if

$$f(x) \geq f(c), \forall x \in \mathcal{D}$$

If there is an open interval  $\mathcal{I}$  containing  $c$  in which  $f(c) \geq f(x), \forall x \in \mathcal{I}$ , then we say that  $f(c)$  is a *local maximum value* of  $f$ . On the other hand, if there is an open interval  $\mathcal{I}$  containing  $c$  in which  $f(c) \leq f(x), \forall x \in \mathcal{I}$ , then we say that  $f(c)$  is a *local minimum value* of  $f$ . If  $f(c)$  is either a local maximum or local minimum value of  $f$  in an open interval  $\mathcal{I}$  with  $c \in \mathcal{I}$ , the  $f(c)$  is called a *local extreme value* of  $f$ .

**Theorem 39** If  $f(c)$  is a local extreme value and if  $f$  is differentiable at  $x = c$ , then  $f'(c) = 0$ .

→ If all p.ds of  $f$  exist at  $x = c \in \mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$   
 & If  $f(c)$  is local extreme,  $\nabla f(c) = 0$

**Theorem 40** A continuous function  $f(x)$  on a closed and bounded interval  $[a, b]$  attains a minimum value  $f(c)$  for some  $c \in [a, b]$  and a maximum value  $f(d)$  for some  $d \in [a, b]$ . That is, a continuous function on a closed, bounded interval attains a minimum and a maximum value.

Note:  $[a, \infty)$  is closed but NOT bounded

So both conditions are needed

← replace with sets for  $\mathbb{R}^n$

FOR  $\mathbb{R}^n$

**Theorem 60** If  $f(\mathbf{x})$  defined on a domain  $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  has a local maximum or minimum at  $\mathbf{x}^*$  and if the first-order partial derivatives exist at  $\mathbf{x}^*$ , then  $f_{x_i}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

$$\text{i.e. } \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$$

**Definition 27 [Critical point]:** A point  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is called a critical point of a function  $f(\mathbf{x})$  defined on  $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  if

1. If  $f_{x_i}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$ , for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .
2. OR  $f_{x_i}(\mathbf{x}^*)$  fails to exist for any  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

A procedure for computing all critical points of a function  $f$  is:

1. Compute  $f_{x_i}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .
2. Determine if there are any points where any one of  $f_{x_i}$  fails to exist. Add such points (if any) to the list of critical points.
3. Solve the system of equations  $f_{x_i} = 0$  simultaneously. Add the solution points to the list of saddle points.

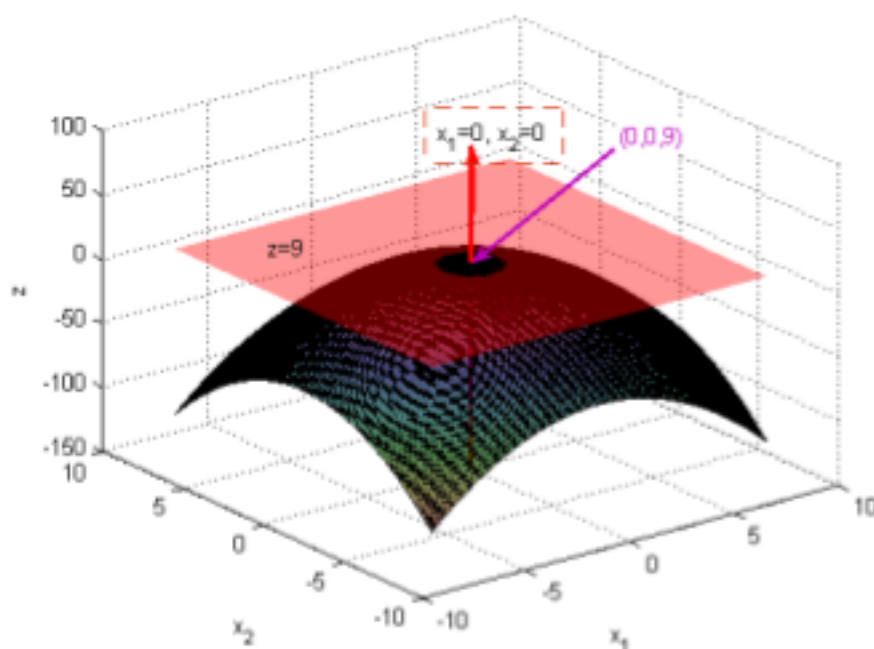


Figure 4.17: The paraboloid  $f(x_1, x_2) = 9 - x_1^2 - x_2^2$  attains its maximum at  $(0, 0)$ . The tangent plane to the surface at  $(0, 0, f(0, 0))$  is also shown, and so is

$|x_1|$

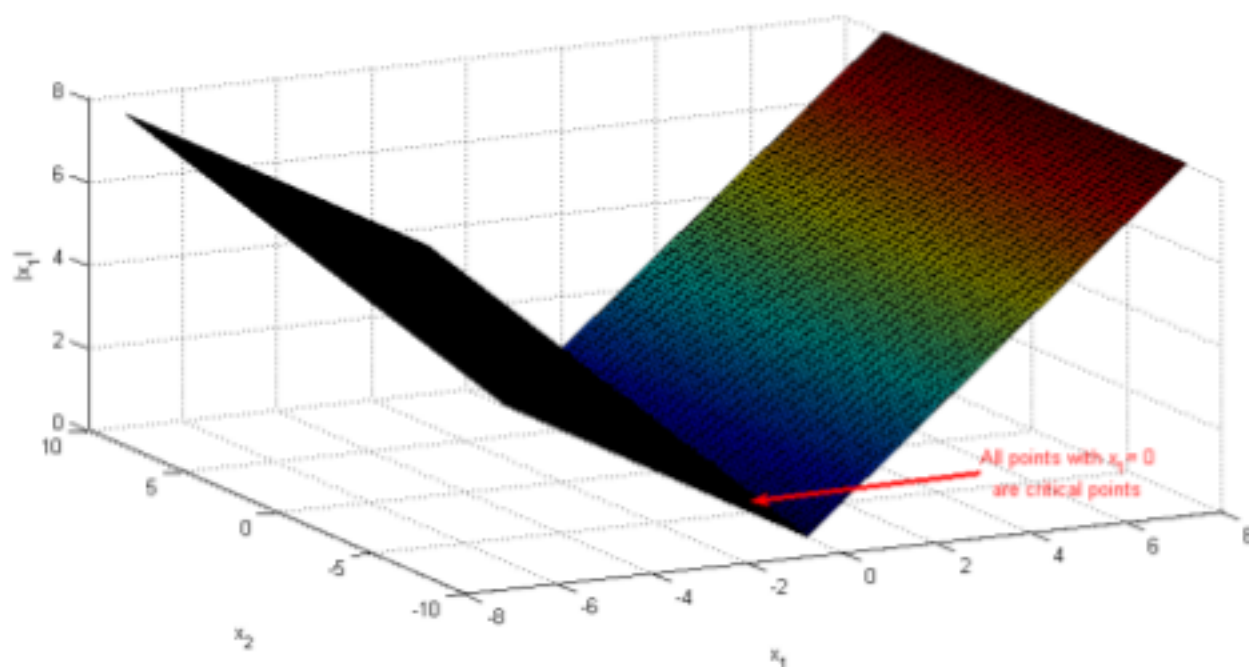


Figure 4.18: Plot illustrating critical points where derivative fails to exist.

**Definition 28 [Saddle point]:** A point  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is called a saddle point of a function  $f(\mathbf{x})$  defined on  $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  if  $\mathbf{x}^*$  is a critical point of  $f$  but  $\mathbf{x}^*$  does not correspond to a local maximum or minimum of the function.

$x_1^2 - x_2^2 \rightarrow$

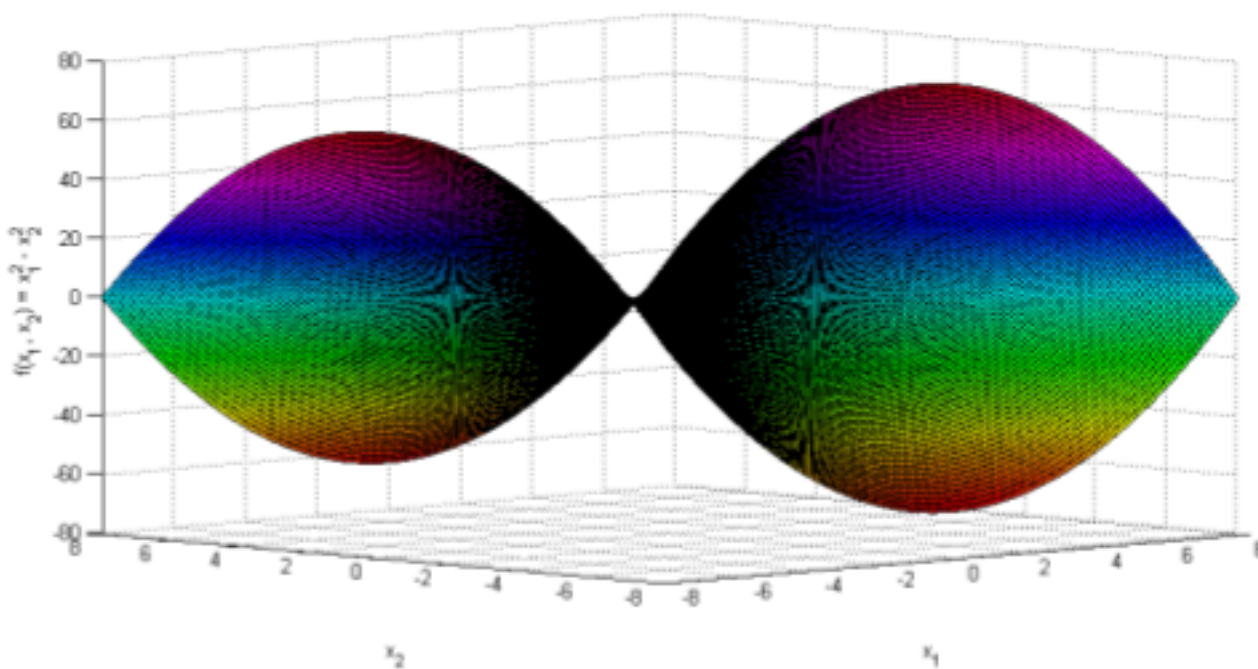


Figure 4.19: The hyperbolic paraboloid  $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - x_2^2$ , which has a saddle point at  $(0, 0)$ .

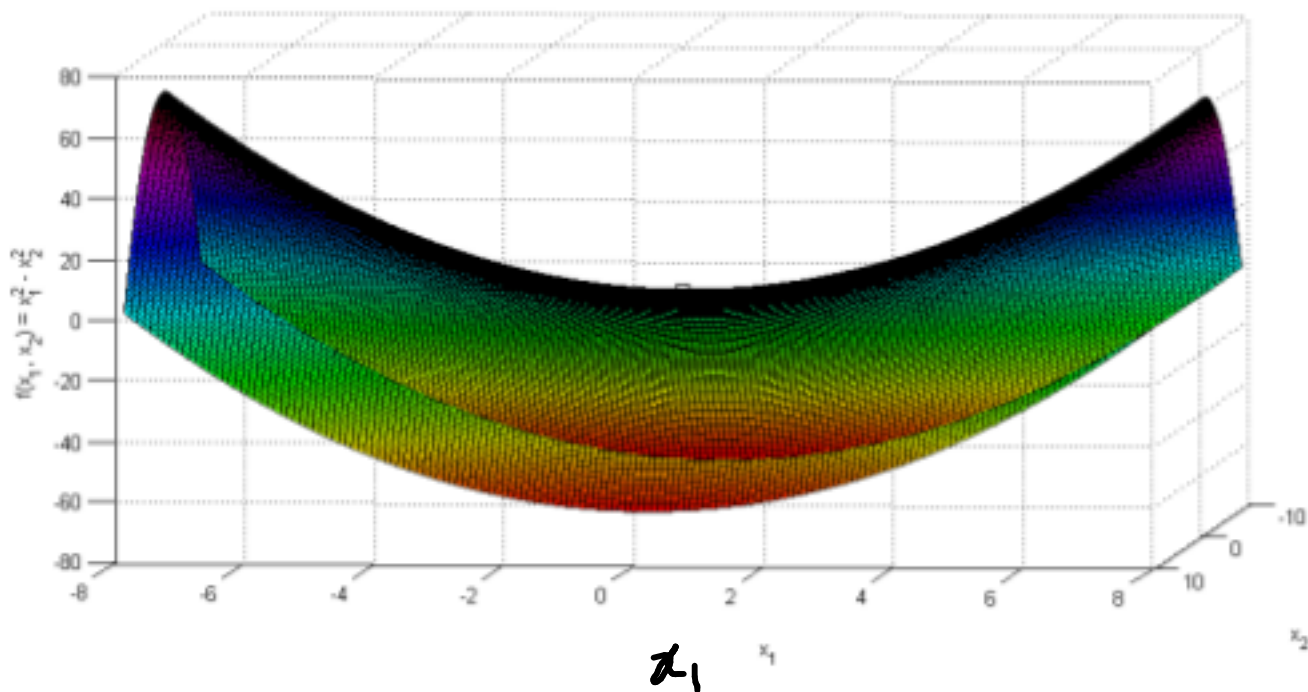


Figure 4.20: The hyperbolic paraboloid  $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - x_2^2$ , when viewed from the  $x_1$  axis is concave up.

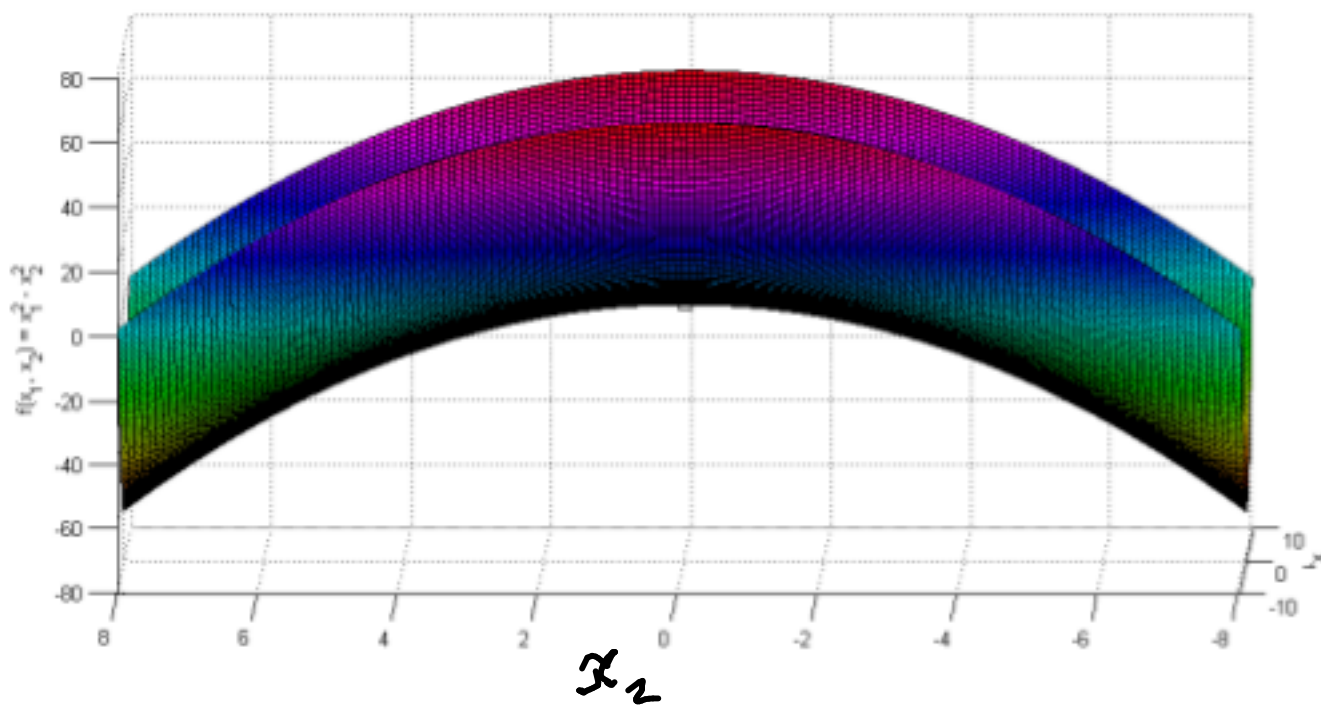
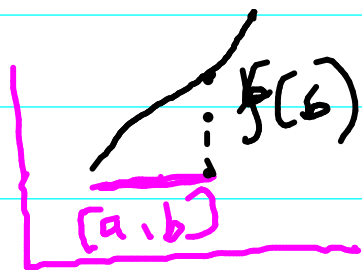


Figure 4.21: The hyperbolic paraboloid  $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - x_2^2$ , when viewed from the  $x_2$  axis is concave down.



Note: For LP's,  $Ax \geq b$  is closed and bounded  $D$  &  $f(x) = c^T x$  attains

global max/min on bdy of  $D$ . ∴ This thm <sup>not applicable</sup>

**Theorem 41** A continuous function  $f(x)$  on a closed and bounded interval  $[a, b]$  attains a minimum value  $f(c)$  for some  $c \in [a, b]$  and a maximum value  $f(d)$  for some  $d \in [a, b]$ . If  $a < c < b$  and  $f'(c)$  exists, then  $f'(c) = 0$ . If  $a < d < b$  and  $f'(d)$  exists, then  $f'(d) = 0$ .

∴ If  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is closed & bounded &  $f$  is cts on  $D$  & if global max/min is attained at  $c \in \text{Int}(D)$  &  $f$  is differentiable at  $c$  then  $\nabla f(c) = 0$

**Theorem 42** If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable at all  $x \in (a, b)$  and if  $f(a) = f(b)$ , then  $f'(c) = 0$  for some  $c \in (a, b)$ .

Figure 4.1 illustrates Rolle's theorem with an example function  $f(x) = 9 - x^2$  on the interval  $[-3, +3]$ .

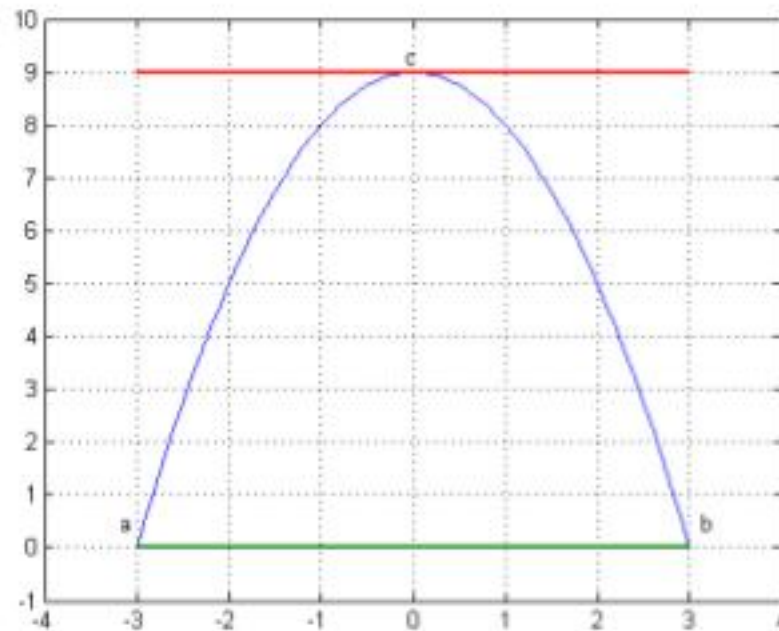


Figure 4.1: Illustration of Rolle's theorem with  $f(x) = 9 - x^2$  on the interval  $[-3, +3]$ . We see that  $f'(0) = 0$ .

Q: What is a more general version of Rolle's thm?

Ans. Mean value thm

**Theorem 43** If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable at all  $x \in (a, b)$ , then there is some  $c \in (a, b)$  such that,  $f'(c) = \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a}$ .

If  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is closed & bounded &  $f$  is cts on  $D$  & diff on  $\text{int}(D)$  then: ?  
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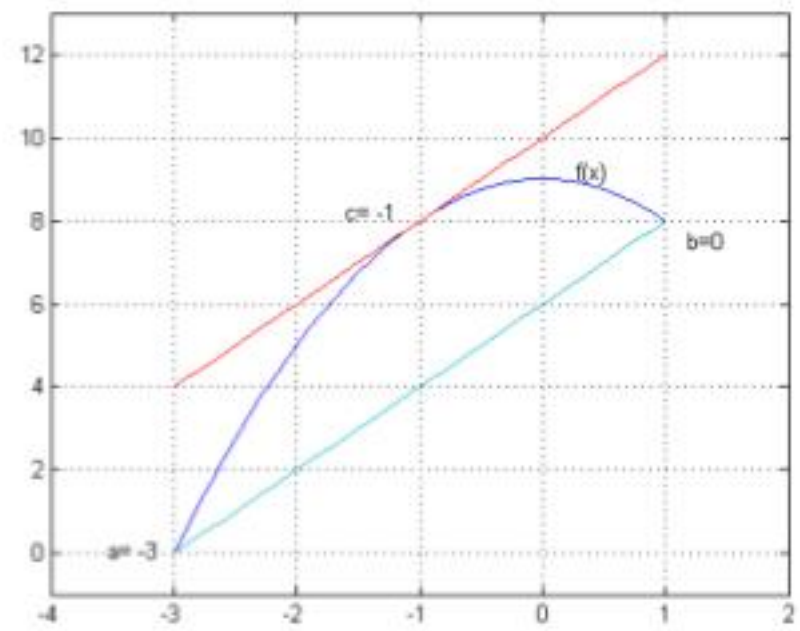


Figure 4.2: Illustration of mean value theorem with  $f(x) = 9 - x^2$  on the interval  $[-3, 1]$ . We see that  $f'(-1) = \frac{f(1)-f(-3)}{4}$ .

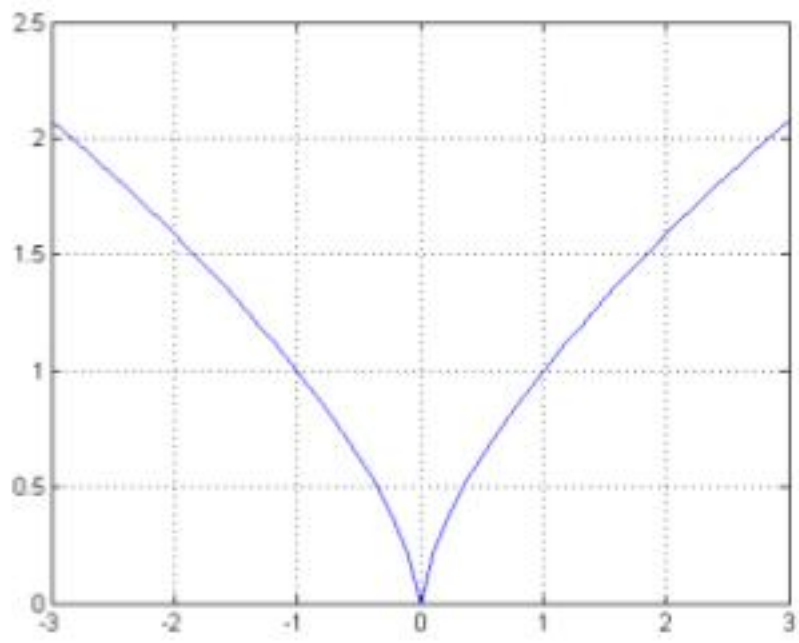


Figure 4.4: The mean value theorem can be violated if  $f(x)$  is not differentiable at even a single point of the interval. Illustration on  $f(x) = x^{2/3}$  with the

The mean value theorem in one variable generalizes to several variables by applying the theorem in one variable via parametrization. Let  $G$  be an open subset of  $\mathbf{R}^n$ , and let  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a differentiable function. Fix points  $x, y \in G$  such that the interval  $x y$  lies in  $G$ , and define  $g(t) = f((1-t)x + ty)$ . Since  $g$  is a differentiable function in one variable, the mean value theorem gives:

$$g(1) - g(0) = g'(c)$$

for some  $c$  between 0 and 1. But since  $g(1) = f(y)$  and  $g(0) = f(x)$ , computing  $g'(c)$  explicitly we have:

$$f(y) - f(x) = \nabla f((1-c)x + cy) \cdot (y - x)$$

Convexity of the domain is fundamental

since  $\forall t \in [0, 1], \boxed{x(1-t) + ty \in \text{Domain}}$

That is, we require convexity of set in some sense

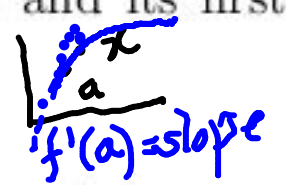
**Corollary 44** Let  $f$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$  with  $m \leq f'(x) \leq M, \forall x \in (a, b)$ . Then,  $m(x-t) \leq f(x) - f(t) \leq M(x-t)$ , if  $a \leq t \leq x \leq b$ .

Applying mean-value thm & substituting inequality

Let  $\mathcal{D}$  be the domain of function  $f$ . We define

1. the **linear approximation** of a differentiable function  $f(x)$  as  $L_a(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a)$  for some  $a \in \mathcal{D}$ . We note that  $L_a(x)$  and its first derivative at  $a$  agree with  $f(a)$  and  $f'(a)$  respectively.

$f(a) + f'(a)(x-a)$  for  $(x-a)$  vs MVT

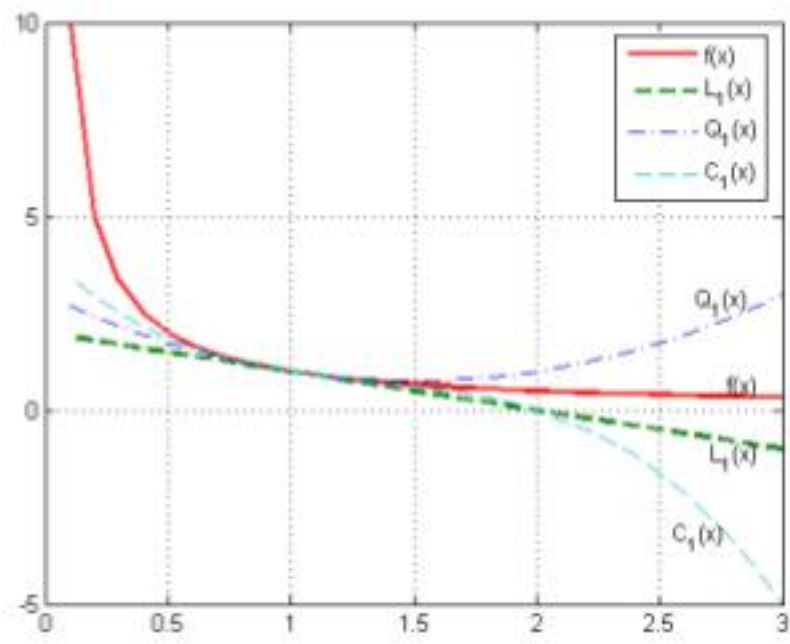


2. the **quadratic approximation** of a twice differentiable function  $f(x)$  as the parabola  $Q_a(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{1}{2}f''(a)(x-a)^2$ . We note that  $Q_a(x)$  and its first and second derivatives at  $a$  agree with  $f(a), f'(a)$  and  $f''(a)$  respectively.

$P_a(x) = c_1 + c_2x + c_3x^2$  s.t.  $P_a(a) = f(a)$   $P'_a(a) = f'(a)$   $P''_a(a) = f''(a)$

3. the **cubic approximation** of a thrice differentiable function  $f(x)$  is  $C_a(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{1}{2}f''(a)(x-a)^2 + \frac{1}{6}f'''(a)(x-a)^3$ .  $C_a(x)$  and its first, second and third derivatives at  $a$  agree with  $f(a), f'(a), f''(a)$  and  $f'''(a)$  respectively.

$R_a(x) = c_1 + c_2x + c_3x^2 + c_4x^3$  s.t.  $R_a(a) = f(a)$   $R'_a(a) = f'(a)$   $R''_a(a) = f''(a)$   $R'''_a(a) = f'''(a)$



$R''(a) = f''(a)$   
 $R'''(a) = f'''(a)$

Figure 4.3: Plot of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ , and its linear, quadratic and cubic approximations.



can be thought of as general  $n^{\text{th}}$  order representation of  $f(b)$

**Theorem 45** The Taylor's theorem states that if  $f$  and its first  $n$  derivatives  $f', f'', \dots, f^{(n)}$  are continuous on the closed interval  $[a, b]$ , and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , then there exists a number  $c \in (a, b)$  such that

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{1}{2!} f''(a)(b-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(a)(b-a)^n + \frac{1}{(n+1)!} f^{(n+1)}(c)(b-a)^{n+1}$$

MVT is special case

MVT:  $\exists c \in (a, b)$  s.t.  $f(b) = f(a) + f'(c)(b-a)$

To prove use MVT successively on  $f(\cdot), f'(\cdot), \dots, f^n(\cdot)$  No  $c$  in the approximations

Consider the function  $\phi(t) = f(x + th)$  considered in theorem 71, defined on the domain  $\mathcal{D}_\phi = [0, 1]$ . Using the chain rule,

$$\phi'(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n f_{x_i}(x + th) \frac{dx_i}{dt} = \mathbf{h}^T \cdot \nabla f(x + th)$$

Since  $f$  has partial and mixed partial derivatives,  $\phi'$  is a differentiable function of  $t$  on  $\mathcal{D}_\phi$  and

$$\phi''(t) = \mathbf{h}^T \nabla^2 f(x + th) \mathbf{h}$$

Since  $\phi$  and  $\phi'$  are continuous on  $\mathcal{D}_\phi$  and  $\phi'$  is differentiable on  $\text{int}(\mathcal{D}_\phi)$ , we can make use of the Taylor's theorem (45) with  $n = 3$  to obtain:

$$\phi(t) = \phi(0) + t \cdot \phi'(0) + t^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \phi''(0) + O(t^3)$$

Writing this equation in terms of  $f$  gives

$$f(x + th) = f(x) + th^T \nabla f(x) + t^2 \frac{1}{2} h^T \nabla^2 f(x) h + O(t^3)$$

is neglected for second order approx

For 2nd order Taylor expansion replace  $\nabla f(x)$  by  $\nabla f(x+ch)$  for  $c \in (0, t)$

We discussed in class, derivation of the second order Taylor expression.

We also discussed that the matrix  $\nabla^2 f$  of mixed partial derivatives is symmetric if  $f$  has continuous mixed partial derivatives

We will introduce some definitions at this point:

- A function  $f$  is said to be *increasing* on an interval  $\mathcal{I}$  in its domain  $\mathcal{D}$  if  $f(t) < f(x)$  whenever  $t < x$ .
- The function  $f$  is said to be *decreasing* on an interval  $\mathcal{I} \in \mathcal{D}$  if  $f(t) > f(x)$  whenever  $t < x$ .

These definitions help us derive the following theorem: