

Math 600 Day 1: Review of advanced Calculus

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Outline

1 Differentiation

- Chain Rule
- Partial Derivatives
- Critical Points
- Inverse Function Theorem
- The Implicit Function Theorem

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Definition

A function $f : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be *differentiable at the point* $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$ if there is a linear map $A : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{|f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0) - A(h)|}{|h|} = 0$$

The linear map A is called the derivative of f at x_0 and written as either $f'(x_0)$ or as df_{x_0} .

Theorem

(Chain Rule) Let

$$\mathbb{R}^m - f \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n - g \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$$

with $x_0 - f \rightarrow y_0 - g \rightarrow z_0$.

Suppose f is differentiable at x_0 with derivative $f'(x_0)$ and that g is differentiable at y_0 with derivative $g'(y_0)$.

Then the composition $g \circ f$ is differentiable at x_0 with derivative

$$(g \circ f)'(x_0) = g'(y_0)f'(x_0)$$

.

Proof of the Chain Rule.

In an intuitively taught calculus course, the truth of the chain rule is sometimes suggested by multiplying "fractions":

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy} \frac{dy}{dx}.$$

This argument comes to grief when nonzero changes in x produce zero changes in y .

The simple finesse is to avoid fractions, as follows.

Without loss of generality, and for ease of notation, we will assume that the points $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^p$ are all located at their respective origins.

We let $L = f'(x_0)$ and $M = g'(y_0)$.

Then differentiability of f and g at these points means that

$$\frac{(f(x) - L(x))}{|x|} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow 0, \text{ and}$$

$$\frac{(g(y) - M(y))}{|y|} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } y \rightarrow 0.$$

We must show that

$$\frac{(g \circ f(x) - M \circ L(x))}{|x|} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow 0.$$

Using the differentiability of f and g at their origins, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} & |gf(x) - ML(x)| \\ &= |gf(x) - Mf(x) + Mf(x) - ML(x)| \\ &\leq |gf(x) - Mf(x)| + |M||f(x) - L(x)| \\ &< \varepsilon|f(x)| + |M|\varepsilon|x| \end{aligned}$$

for $|x|$ sufficiently small.

Then dividing by $|x|$, we get

$$\frac{|gf(x) - ML(x)|}{|x|} < \varepsilon \frac{|f(x)|}{|x|} + |M|\varepsilon$$

We must show that this is small when $|x|$ is small, and the issue is clearly to show that $\frac{|f(x)|}{|x|}$ remains bounded.

But,

$$\frac{|f(x)|}{|x|} \leq \frac{|L(x)|}{|x|} + \frac{|f(x) - L(x)|}{|x|},$$

and the first term on the right is bounded by $|L|$ while the second term goes to $\rightarrow 0$ as $|x| \rightarrow 0$.

It follows that $\frac{|f(x)|}{|x|}$ remains bounded as $|x| \rightarrow 0$, and this completes the proof of the chain rule. \square

Partial Derivatives

Suppose $f : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. Then we can write

$$f(x) = (f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m), f_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m), \dots, f_n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)),$$

and consider the usual partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$.

If f is differentiable at x_0 , then all of the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$ exist at x_0 , and the derivative $f'(x_0)$ is the linear map corresponding to the $n \times m$ matrix of partial derivatives.

The converse is false, that is, the existence of partial derivatives at a point does not imply that the function is differentiable there.

Definition

Let $L(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^n)$ denote the set of all linear maps of \mathbb{R}^m into \mathbb{R}^n . This set is a vector space of dimension mn whose elements can be represented by $n \times m$ matrices.

Definition

Let U be an open set in \mathbb{R}^m and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ a differentiable map. Since the derivative $f'(x)$ at each point x of U is a linear map of $\mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, we can think of f' as a map $f' : U \rightarrow L(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^n)$. We call f' the derivative of f .

Definition

Let U be an open subset of \mathbb{R}^m . If $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is differentiable and $f' : U \rightarrow L(\mathbb{R}^m, \mathbb{R}^n)$ is continuous, then we say that f is continuously differentiable, and write $f \in C^1$.

Theorem

Let U be an open set in \mathbb{R}^m and let $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. Then f is continuously differentiable if and only if all of the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$ exist and are continuous on U .

Simple Fact: Let f be a differentiable real-valued function defined on an open set U in \mathbb{R}^m . Suppose that f has a local maximum or local minimum at a point x_0 in U . Then $f'(x_0) = 0$.

Simple Fact: Let U be a connected open set in \mathbb{R}^m and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ a differentiable map such that $f'(x) = 0$ for every $x \in U$. Then f is constant on U .

Theorem

Let U be an open set in \mathbb{R}^m and let $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function such that all partial derivatives of orders one and two exist and are continuous on U .

Then

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}$$

for all $1 \leq i, j \leq m$. In other words, the order of differentiation in mixed partials is irrelevant.

Remark

If all partial derivatives of orders $\leq n$ are continuous, then the order of differentiation in them is irrelevant.

Functions with Preassigned Partial Derivatives

Let U be an open set in \mathbb{R}^m and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a function of class C^2 (remember this means that all partial derivatives of orders one and two exist and are continuous). We know that

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}$$

for all $1 \leq i, j \leq m$.

Now we run this story in reverse, and imagine that we are seeking a function $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of class C^2 , where U is, for simplicity, an open set in the plane \mathbb{R}^2 .

We are given two functions r and $s : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of class C^1 such that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = r \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = s.$$

If f exists, then

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial r}{\partial y}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial s}{\partial x}$$

hence by equality of mixed partials, we'll have

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial s}{\partial x}.$$

So if we want to find f , we'd better make sure that

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial s}{\partial x}.$$

But is this enough to guarantee that f exists?

Surprisingly, the answer is,

“Sometimes yes and sometimes no.”

We will see that it depends on the topology of the domain U on which these functions are defined.

This influence of the topology of a domain on the behavior of functions defined there is a theme that will be repeated throughout the course.

Theorem

Let r and $s : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^1 functions such that $\frac{\partial r}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial s}{\partial x}$. Then there exists a C^2 function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = r$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = s$.

Remark

If two such functions f_1 and f_2 exist, then their difference $f_1 - f_2$ is a constant, as an immediate consequence of the mean value theorem.

Example

Let $U = \mathbb{R}^2 - (0, 0)$. Let $r(x, y) = \frac{-y}{x^2+y^2}$ and $s(x, y) = \frac{x}{x^2+y^2}$. Then $\frac{\partial r}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial s}{\partial x}$, yet there is no function $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = r$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = s$.

Differentiating under the integral sign

The following lemma will be used in proving the theorem.

Lemma

Suppose $f(x, t)$ is C^1 for $x \in \mathbb{R}^1$ and $t \in [0, 1]$. Define $F(x) = \int_{t=0}^1 f(x, t) dt$.

Then F is of class C^1 and $F'(x) = \int_{t=0}^1 \frac{\partial f(x, t)}{\partial x} dt$.

The proof is an application of the mean value theorem.

There are various generalizations of this lemma, all proven similarly. For example, we can replace $x \in \mathbb{R}^1$ by $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, define $F(x, y) = \int_0^1 f(x, y, t) dt$ and conclude that

$$\frac{\partial F(x, y)}{\partial x} = \int_{t=0}^1 \frac{\partial f(x, y, t)}{\partial x} dt.$$

We are ready to prove our theorem, and restate it for convenience.

Theorem

Let $r, s : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^1 functions such that $\frac{\partial r}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial s}{\partial x}$. Then there exists a C^2 function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = r$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = s$.

Proof: First suppose we are given $f(x, y)$ with $f(0, 0) = 0$. Define $g(t) = f(tx, ty)$, and note that, by the chain rule,

$$g'(t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(tx, ty)x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(tx, ty)y.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= g(1) = \int_{t=0}^1 g'(t) dt \\ &= \int_{t=0}^1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(tx, ty)x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(tx, ty)y dt. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, to find a function $f(x, y)$ such that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = r$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = s$, we should define f by

$$f(x, y) = \int_{t=0}^1 r(tx, ty)x + s(tx, ty)y dt,$$

and aim to show that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = r$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = s$.

Given

$$f(x, y) = \int_{t=0}^1 r(tx, ty)x + s(tx, ty)ydt,$$

we differentiate under the integral sign, using our lemma:

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} = \int_{t=0}^1 r(tx, ty) + \frac{\partial r}{\partial x}(tx, ty)tx + \frac{\partial s}{\partial x}(tx, ty)tydt,$$

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} = \int_{t=0}^1 r(tx, ty) + \frac{\partial r}{\partial y}(tx, ty)ty + \frac{\partial s}{\partial y}(tx, ty)tydt.$$

Now define $h(t) = r(tx, ty)$ and note that

$$h'(t) = \frac{\partial r}{\partial x}(tx, ty)x + \frac{\partial r}{\partial y}(tx, ty)y.$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} &= \int_{t=0}^1 h(t) + th'(t) dt \\ &= \int_{t=0}^1 (th(t))' dt \\ h(1) &= r(x, y).\end{aligned}$$

Likewise, $\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} = s(x, y)$, and our theorem is proved. \square

Critical points

Let U be an open set in the plane \mathbb{R}^2 , and let $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a real valued function on U , all of whose first and second partial derivatives exist and are continuous on U . In such a case, we say that f is of class C^2 on U .

We know that if f has a local maximum or minimum at a point (x_0, y_0) of U , then the first partials $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ are both zero at (x_0, y_0) .

Searching for such points, we call (x_0, y_0) a critical point of f if $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ are both zero at (x_0, y_0) , and want to learn whether (x_0, y_0) is a local maximum or minimum point, a saddle point, or perhaps something more exotic.

Models:

$f(x, y) = -x^2 - y^2$ has a local maximum at $(0, 0)$

$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ has a local minimum at $(0, 0)$

$f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$ has a saddle point at $(0, 0)$.

The issue hinges upon consideration of the Hessian matrix of second partial derivatives at the point (x_0, y_0) :

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

We know from equality of mixed partials that this matrix is symmetric.

Theorem

Suppose that (x_0, y_0) is a critical point of f , and let H denote the Hessian of f at (x_0, y_0) .

- 1 If $\det(H) > 0$ and both diagonal terms are > 0 , then f has a local minimum at (x_0, y_0) .
- 2 If $\det(H) > 0$ and both diagonal terms are < 0 , then f has a local maximum at (x_0, y_0) .
- 3 If $\det(H) < 0$, then (x_0, y_0) is a saddle point of f .
- 4 If $\det(H) = 0$, the test is inconclusive.
- 5 If f has a local minimum or local maximum at f , then $\det(H) \leq 0$.

Definition

Let U be an open set in \mathbb{R}^2 and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a real valued function on U of class C^2 . Let (x_0, y_0) be a critical point of f , and let H be the Hessian matrix of second partials of f , evaluated at (x_0, y_0) . Then (x_0, y_0) is called a nondegenerate critical point if $\det(H) \neq 0$, and a degenerate critical point if $\det(H) = 0$.

Inverse Function Theorem

Theorem

(Inverse Function Theorem) Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be continuously differentiable on an open set containing a , with nonsingular derivative df_a . Then there exists an open set V containing a and an open set W containing $f(a)$, such that $f : V \rightarrow W$ is one-one and onto, and its inverse $f^{-1} : W \rightarrow V$ is also differentiable.

Furthermore, $d(f^{-1})f(a) = (df_a)^{-1}$.

Example

The mapping $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ given by $f(x, y) = (e^x \cos(y), e^x \sin(y))$ shows that in \mathbb{R}^2 , unlike \mathbb{R}^1 , the derivative of f can be nonsingular at each point without f being a diffeomorphism on all of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Proof of the Inverse Function Theorem.

Following the map $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ by the linear transformation $(df_a)^{-1}$ makes the derivative at a the identity, so we assume this from the start: $df_a = I$.

Since

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{|f(a+h) - f(a) - df_a(h)|}{|h|} = 0,$$

with $df_a(h) = h$, we can not have $f(a+h) = f(a)$ for nonzero h arbitrarily close to 0.

Hence, there is a closed rectangle U centered at a with

(1) $f(x) \neq f(a)$ if $x \in U$ and $x \neq a$.

Since f is C^1 on an open set containing a , we can assume

(2) df_x is nonsingular for $x \in U$,

(3) $|\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(x) - \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(a)| < \frac{1}{2n^2}$ for all $x \in U$ and all i, j .

Condition (3) will force f to be one-to-one on U . To that end, we first state and prove

Lemma

Let A be a rectangle in \mathbb{R}^n , and $g : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ of class C^1 . Suppose that $|\frac{\partial g_i}{\partial x_j}| \leq M$ at all points of A . Then $|g(x) - g(u)| \leq n^2 M |x - u|$ for all $x, u \in A$.

Proof of Lemma.

Going from u to x by changing one coordinate at a time, and applying the MVT at each step, we get

$$|g_i(x) - g_i(u)| \leq \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j - u_j| M \leq nM|x - u|.$$

Hence,

$$|g(x) - g(u)| \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |g_i(x) - g_i(u)| \leq n^2 M|x - u|,$$

as claimed.

Now apply this lemma to the function $g(x) = f(x) - x$, and use

$$(3) \left| \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(x) - \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(a) \right| < \frac{1}{2n^2} \text{ for all } x \in U \text{ and all } i, j,$$

which implies that $\left| \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial x_j}(x) - \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial x_j}(a) \right| < \frac{1}{2n^2}$.

Now $\frac{\partial g_i}{\partial x_j}(a) = 0$, and hence by the Lemma we get

$$|g(x) - g(u)| \leq n^2 \left(\frac{1}{2n^2} |x - u| \right) = \frac{1}{2} |x - u|.$$

Thus, $|(f(x) - x) - (f(u) - u)| \leq \frac{1}{2} |x - u|$.

Hence, using the triangle inequality, we get

$$|x - u| - |f(x) - f(u)| \leq |(f(x) - x) - (f(u) - u)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|x - u|.$$

So,

$$(4) |f(x) - f(u)| \geq \frac{1}{2}|x - u|,$$

for all $x, u \in U$, implying that f is one-to-one on U , as claimed earlier.

Now $f(\partial U)$ is a compact set which does not contain $f(a)$, since f is one-to-one on U .

Let $d = \text{distance from } f(a) \text{ to } f(\partial U)$.

Let $W = \{y : |y - f(a)| < \frac{d}{2}\} = \text{open neighborhood of } f(a)$.

Thus, if $y \in W$ and $x \in \partial U$, we have

$$(5) \quad |y - f(a)| < |y - f(x)|.$$

CLAIM. For any $y \in W$, there is a unique $x \in U$ with $f(x) = y$.

Proof. Fix $y \in W$ and consider the real-valued function $g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$g(x) = |y - f(x)|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - f_i(x))^2.$$

Since g is continuous, it has a minimum value on U .

By (5) above, this min can not occur on ∂U . Say it occurs at $x \in \text{int}(U)$. Then $\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j}(x) = 0$ for all j . That is,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n 2(y_i - f_i(x)) \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(x) \right) = 0$$

for all j .

But the matrix $\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(x) \right)$ is invertible. Hence $y_i - f_i(x) = 0$ for all i , that is, $y = f(x)$. This x is unique, since f is one-to-one on U .

Now let $V = \text{int}(U) \cap f^{-1}(W)$.

By the previous claim, $f : V \rightarrow W$ is one-to-one and onto.

Let $f^{-1} : W \rightarrow V$ be its inverse. Then we rewrite (4) as

$$(6) |f^{-1}(y) - f^{-1}(y')| \leq 2|y - y'|,$$

showing that f^{-1} is continuous. It remains to show that f^{-1} is differentiable.

Proof that $f^{-1} : W \rightarrow V$ is differentiable.

Let $x \in V$, and let $y = f(x)$.

Let $L = df_x$, which we already know is nonsingular.

We will show f^{-1} is differentiable at y with $d(f^{-1})_y = L^{-1}$.

Write $f(x') = f(x) + L(x' - x) + \phi(x' - x)$, with $\lim_{x' \rightarrow x} \frac{|\phi(x' - x)|}{|x' - x|} = 0$.

Then $L^{-1}(f(x') - f(x)) = (x' - x) + L^{-1}\phi(x' - x)$, which we rewrite as

$L^{-1}(y' - y) = f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y) + L^{-1}\phi(f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y))$, or

$f^{-1}(y') = f^{-1}(y) + L^{-1}(y' - y) - L^{-1}\phi(f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y))$.

To show that f^{-1} is differentiable at y with $d(f^{-1})_y = L^{-1}$, we must show that

$$\lim_{y' \rightarrow y} \frac{|L^{-1}\phi(f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y))|}{|y' - y|} = 0.$$

Since L^{-1} is linear, it is sufficient to show that

$$\lim_{y' \rightarrow y} \frac{|\phi(f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y))|}{|y' - y|} = 0.$$

Now write the fraction $\frac{|\phi(f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y))|}{|y' - y|}$ as the product of the two fractions $\frac{|\phi(f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y))|}{|(f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y))|}$ and $\frac{|(f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y))|}{|y' - y|}$.

We must show that the product of these two fractions goes to zero as $y' \rightarrow y$.

Since f^{-1} is continuous, $y' \rightarrow y$ implies $x' = f^{-1}(y') \rightarrow x = f^{-1}(y)$. The first fraction $\frac{|\phi(f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y))|}{|(f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y))|}$ can be rewritten as $\frac{|\phi(x' - x)|}{|x' - x|}$, and this $\rightarrow 0$ as $x' \rightarrow x$ since f is differentiable at x .

By (6), the second fraction $\frac{|(f^{-1}(y') - f^{-1}(y))|}{|y' - y|} \leq 2$. Hence the product of the two fractions $\rightarrow 0$ as $y' \rightarrow y$, completing the proof that f^{-1} is differentiable at y with derivative $d(f^{-1})_y = L^{-1} = (df_x)^{-1}$, and with it the proof of the Inverse Function Theorem.

The Implicit Function Theorem

In calculus, we learn that the equation $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 = 1$ can be regarded as implicitly defining y as a function of x ,

$$y = \sqrt{1 - x^2} \text{ or } y = -\sqrt{1 - x^2}$$

. We also learn that we can compute the derivative $\frac{dy}{dx}$ without actually solving for y . Just regard y as a function of x , write $y = y(x)$, and then the equation

$$f(x, y(x)) = 1$$

can be differentiated with respect to x by the chain rule.

Doing this, we get

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right) = 0,$$

and hence

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}}{\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}} = -\frac{2x}{2y}.$$

There are some subtleties: we can not solve for y as a function of x near the points $(1, 0)$ and $(-1, 0)$. The implicit function theorem handles these subtleties, and we begin with the simplest case.

Theorem

(Implicit function theorem) Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a C^1 function defined on a neighborhood of (a, b) , with $f(a, b) = c$. Suppose that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) \neq 0$. Then there is a C^1 function $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined on a neighborhood of a such that $g(a) = b$ and such that $f(x, g(x)) = c$ for all x in that neighborhood.

Proof. Define a C^1 function $F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ on the given neighborhood of (a, b) by $F(x, y) = (x, f(x, y))$. The derivative $F'(a, b)$ is nonsingular because it is represented by a 2×2 matrix with determinant $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b)$. Hence, by the Inverse Function Theorem, F is a C^1 function with C^1 inverse from a neighborhood U of (a, b) to a neighborhood V of $F(a, b) = (a, c)$.

Let $H : V \rightarrow U$ be the inverse C^1 map. Since $F(x, y) = (x, f(x, y))$, we have $H(x, z) = (x, h(x, z))$. If we define $g(x) = h(x, c)$ on a neighborhood of x , then

$$F(x, g(x)) = F(x, h(x, c)) = FH(x, c) = (x, c)$$

, so

$$f(x, g(x)) = c,$$

as desired. \square

The general case is no more difficult to prove, and we style the notation so that its statement looks almost the same as the statement of its prototype above:

$$x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$z = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

and the (i, j) entry of the $n \times n$ matrix $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b)$ is the partial derivative $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial y_j}(a, b)$.

Theorem (Implicit function theorem (general case))

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be a C^1 function defined on a neighborhood of (a, b) , with $f(a, b) = c$. Suppose that the $n \times n$ matrix $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b)$ is nonsingular. Then there is a C^1 function $g : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ defined on a neighborhood of a such that $g(a) = b$ and such that $f(x, g(x)) = c$ for all x in that neighborhood.