

# Concave and convex functions

## 1 Concave and convex functions

### 1.1 Definition

▷  $f: S \rightarrow \Re$  is **concave** if for every  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2$  in  $S$

$$f(\alpha \mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{x}_2) \geq \alpha f(\mathbf{x}_1) + (1 - \alpha) f(\mathbf{x}_2) \text{ for every } 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$$

It is **strictly concave** if the inequality is strict, and **convex** if the inequality is reversed.

▷ Equivalently, a function  $f: S \rightarrow \Re$  is concave if and only if

- hypo  $f = \{(\mathbf{x}, y) \in S \times \Re : y \leq f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x} \in S\}$  is convex (Proposition 3.7, Exercise 3.125)
- $f(\mathbf{x}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)$  for every  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0 \in S$  (Exercise 4.67)

▷  $f: X \rightarrow \Re$  is **locally concave** at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  if there exists a convex neighborhood  $S$  of  $\mathbf{x}_0$  such that for every  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in S$

$$f(\alpha \mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{x}_2) \geq \alpha f(\mathbf{x}_1) + (1 - \alpha) f(\mathbf{x}_2) \text{ for every } 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$$

$f$  is concave if and only if it is locally concave at every  $\mathbf{x} \in X$ .

### 1.2 Examples

▷  $x^2, e^x$  are convex.

▷  $-x^2, \log x$  are concave.

▷ Cobb-Douglas  $f(\mathbf{x}) = x_1^{a_1} x_2^{a_2} \dots x_n^{a_n}$  is concave if  $\sum a_i \leq 1$ .

▷ CES  $f(\mathbf{x}) = (\alpha_1 x_1^\rho + \alpha_2 x_2^\rho + \dots + \alpha_n x_n^\rho)^{1/\rho}$  is concave if  $\rho \leq 1$  and convex otherwise

▷ The profit function  $\Pi(\mathbf{p}) = \max_{\mathbf{y} \in Y} \sum_i p_i y_i$  is convex.

▷ The cost function  $c(\mathbf{w}, y) = \min_{\mathbf{x} \in V(y)} \sum_i w_i x_i$  is concave in  $\mathbf{w}$

### 1.3 Properties

*If  $f$  and  $g$  are concave then*

- ▷  $-f$  is convex (Exercise 3.124)
- ▷  $1/f$  is convex if  $f > 0$  (Exercise 3.135)
- ▷  $1/f$  is concave if  $f < 0$  (Exercise 3.135)
- ▷  $f^{-1}$  is convex (Example 3.45)
- ▷  $f + g$  is concave (Exercise 3.131)
- ▷  $\alpha f$  is concave for every  $\alpha \geq 0$  (Exercise 3.131)
- ▷  $g \circ f$  is concave if  $g$  is increasing (Exercise 3.133)
- ▷  $\log f$  concave (Example 3.51)
- ▷  $f$  is continuous on the interior of its domain<sup>†</sup> (Corollary 3.8.1)
- ▷  $f$  is differentiable almost everywhere<sup>†</sup> (Remark 4.14)

### 1.4 Identification

- ▷ Plotting the function (e.g. *Mathematica*)
- ▷ Apply properties to combinations of known functions (Examples 3.73 and 3.74)
- ▷ Hessian matrix (Proposition 4.1)

$$f \text{ is locally } \begin{cases} \text{convex} \\ \text{concave} \end{cases} \text{ at } \mathbf{x} \iff H_f(\mathbf{x}) \text{ is } \begin{cases} \text{nonnegative} \\ \text{nonpositive} \end{cases} \text{ definite}$$
$$f \text{ is strictly locally } \begin{cases} \text{convex} \\ \text{concave} \end{cases} \text{ at } \mathbf{x} \text{ if } H_f(\mathbf{x}) \text{ is } \begin{cases} \text{positive} \\ \text{negative} \end{cases} \text{ definite.}$$

The definiteness of the Hessian can be assessed by

- eigenvalues (Exercise 3.96)
- determinantal tests (Simon & Blume 381-386, Varian 475-477)

## 2 Quasiconcavity

### 2.1 Definition

▷  $f$  is **quasiconcave** if

$$f(\alpha \mathbf{x}_1 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{x}_2) \geq \min\{f(\mathbf{x}_1), f(\mathbf{x}_2)\} \text{ for every } \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in S \text{ and } 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$$

$f$  is **quasiconvex** if

$$f(\alpha \mathbf{x}_1 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{x}_2) \leq \max\{f(\mathbf{x}_1), f(\mathbf{x}_2)\} \text{ for every } \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in S \text{ and } 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$$

▷ Equivalently,  $f$  is quasiconcave if and only if every upper contour set is convex, that is  $\succeq_f(c) = \{\mathbf{x} \in X : f(\mathbf{x}) \geq c\}$  is convex for every  $c \in \mathfrak{R}$ . Similarly,  $f$  is quasiconvex if and only if every lower contour set is convex, that is  $\preceq_f(c) = \{\mathbf{x} \in X : f(\mathbf{x}) \leq c\}$  is convex for every  $c \in \mathfrak{R}$ .

### 2.2 Examples

- ▷ Every concave function is quasiconcave.
- ▷  $x^3$  is quasiconcave and quasiconvex.
- ▷ Cobb-Douglas  $f(\mathbf{x}) = x_1^{a_1} x_2^{a_2} \dots x_n^{a_n}$  is quasiconcave
- ▷ CES  $(\alpha_1 x_1^\rho + \alpha_2 x_2^\rho + \dots + \alpha_n x_n^\rho)^{1/\rho}$  is quasiconcave if  $\rho \leq 1$
- ▷ The utility function  $u(\mathbf{x})$  is quasiconcave if preferences are convex.
- ▷ The indirect utility function  $v(\mathbf{p}, m) = \max_{\mathbf{x}} u(\mathbf{x})$  is quasiconvex in  $\mathbf{p}$ .

### 2.3 Properties

If  $f$  is quasiconcave then

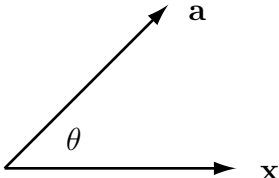
- ▷  $-f$  is quasiconvex (Exercise 3.143)
- ▷  $g \circ f$  is quasiconcave if  $g$  is increasing (Exercise 3.148)
- ▷  $f g$  is quasiconcave if  $g$  is quasiconcave (Exercise 3.153)
- ▷  $f + g$  is ????? (Example 3.57)
- ▷  $f$  is concave if  $f > 0$  and homogenous of degree  $k \leq 1$  (Proposition 3.12)

## 2.4 Identification

- ▷ Plot contours
- ▷ Apply properties to combinations of known functions (Exercises 3.148 and 3.151 to 3.153)
- ▷ Bordered Hessian matrix (Simon & Blume 386-393)

## 3 Inner product

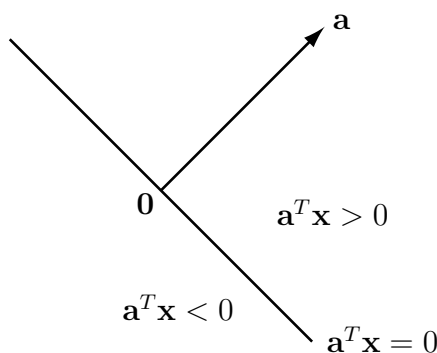
Given two vectors  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ , the angle between them is given by

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{x}\|}$$


where

$$\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x} = a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \cdots + a_n x_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i \text{ and } \|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}}$$

The orthogonal hyperplane  $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x} = 0$  divides the space into two half-spaces, containing respectively those vectors that make acute and obtuse angles with  $\mathbf{a}$ .



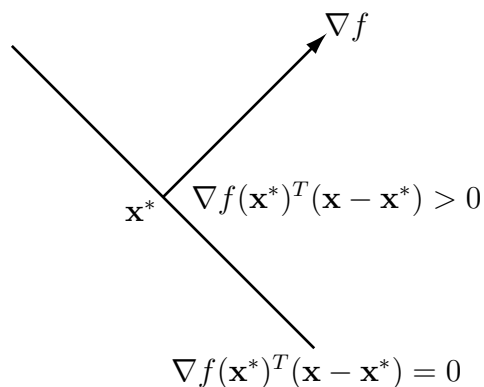
The gradient of a functional  $f: \mathfrak{R}^n \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  at  $\mathbf{x}^*$

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \right)$$

points in the direction of steepest ascent. For any  $\mathbf{x}$ , the inner product

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*)^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{x}^*)(x_i - x_i^*)$$

measures the angle between  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*)$  and  $(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*)$ , and the orthogonal hyperplane divides the space accordingly.



## 4 Pseudoconcavity

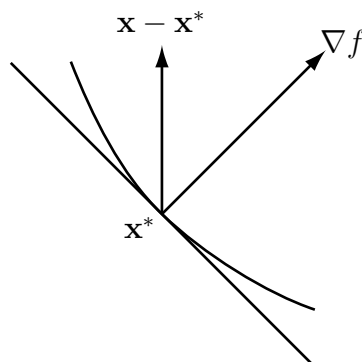
### 4.1 Definition

▷  $f$  is **quasiconcave** if and only if

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \geq f(\mathbf{x}^*) \implies \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*)^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*) \geq 0$$

▷  $f$  is **pseudoconcave** if

$$f(\mathbf{x}) > f(\mathbf{x}^*) \implies \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*)^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*) > 0$$



## 4.2 Examples

- ▷  $f(x) = x^3$  is strictly quasiconcave but not pseudoconcave
  - $f(1) > f(0)$  but  $\nabla f(0)(1 - 0) = 0$
- ▷ Cobb-Douglas is pseudoconcave
- ▷ The utility function  $u(\mathbf{x})$  is pseudoconcave if preferences are convex **and** nonsatiated

## 4.3 Properties

- ▷ concave  $\implies$  pseudoconcave  $\implies$  quasiconcave
- ▷ Every regular quasiconcave function is pseudoconcave
- ▷ A pseudoconcave function is locally concave at every stationary point

## 5 Linear and quadratic approximation (Taylor's theorem)

For smooth functions

$$f(\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \mathbf{x} \quad \left( + \eta(\mathbf{x}) \|\mathbf{x}\|, \quad \eta(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \right)$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T H_f(\mathbf{x}_0) \mathbf{x} \quad \left( + \eta_2(\mathbf{x}) \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \right)$$

where

- $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n D_{x_i} f[\mathbf{x}_0] x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f[\mathbf{x}_0]}{\partial x_i} x_i$
- $\mathbf{x}^T H_f(\mathbf{x}_0) \mathbf{x} = \sum_i \sum_j D_{x_i x_j}^2 f[\mathbf{x}_0] x_i x_j = \sum_i \sum_j \frac{\partial^2 f[\mathbf{x}_0]}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} x_i x_j$

See Section 4.4, especially Theorem 4.3, Corollary 4.3.1. and Example 4.33.

Note:  $Df[\mathbf{x}_0]$  denotes the derivative of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{x}_0$  (a linear function),  $Df[\mathbf{x}_0](\mathbf{x})$  denotes its value at  $\mathbf{x}$ .  $D_{x_i} f[\mathbf{x}_0]$  denotes the partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $x_i$  ( $= \partial f / \partial x_i$ ) and  $D_{x_i x_j}^2 f[\mathbf{x}_0]$  denotes the second partial derivative evaluated at  $\mathbf{x}_0$ . (See Remark 4.3, p.8 and Remark 4.7. p.15).

## 6 Quadratic forms

Given a square, symmetric matrix  $A$ , the function

$$q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2) \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = a_{11}x_1^2 + 2a_{12}x_1x_2 + a_{22}x_2^2$$

is called a **quadratic form**.

$$q \text{ is } \begin{cases} \text{positive} \\ \text{negative} \end{cases} \text{ definite if } \begin{cases} q(\mathbf{x}) > 0 \\ q(\mathbf{x}) < 0 \end{cases} \text{ for every } \mathbf{x} \neq 0$$

Similarly, we say that the matrix  $A$  is positive (negative) definite if its quadratic form is positive (negative) definite.

“Completing the square”,  $q$  can be rewritten as

$$q(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} = a_{11} \left(x_1 + \frac{a_{12}}{a_{11}} x_2\right)^2 + \left(\frac{a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}^2}{a_{11}}\right) x_2^2$$

From this, we can deduce that

$$q \text{ is } \begin{cases} \text{positive} \\ \text{negative} \end{cases} \text{ definite if } \begin{cases} a_{11} > 0 \\ a_{11} < 0 \end{cases} \text{ and } a_{11}a_{22} > a_{12}^2$$

Similarly

$$q \text{ is } \begin{cases} \text{nonnegative} \\ \text{nonpositive} \end{cases} \text{ definite if } \begin{cases} a_{11}, a_{22} \geq 0 \\ a_{11}, a_{22} \leq 0 \end{cases} \text{ and } a_{11}a_{22} \geq a_{12}^2$$

The Hessian  $H$  of a  $C^2$  function  $f$  is a square, symmetric matrix

$$H(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} f_{11} & f_{12} \\ f_{12} & f_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$H$  is nonpositive definite if and only if

$$f_{11} \leq 0, \quad f_{22} \leq 0, \quad \text{and } f_{11}f_{22} \geq f_{12}^2$$

For the Cobb-Douglas function

$$f = x_1^{a_1} x_2^{a_2}$$

$$f_{11} = a_1(a_1 - 1)x_1^{a_1-2} x_2^{a_2}$$

$$f_{22} = a_2(a_2 - 1)x_1^{a_1} x_2^{a_2-2}$$

$$f_{12} = a_1 a_2 x_1^{a_1-1} x_2^{a_2-1}$$

Given  $x_1, x_2 \geq 0$

$$f_{11} \leq 0 \quad \text{if and only if } 0 \leq a_1 \leq 1$$

$$f_{22} \leq 0 \quad \text{if and only if } 0 \leq a_2 \leq 1$$

Under these preceding conditions

$$\begin{aligned} f_{11}f_{22} - f_{12}^2 &= (a_1 a_2 (a_1 - 1)(a_2 - 1) - (a_1 a_2)^2) x_1^{2a_1-2} x_2^{2a_2-2} \\ &= (a_1 a_2 (a_1 a_2 - a_1 - a_2 + 1 - a_1 a_2)) x_1^{2a_1-2} x_2^{2a_2-2} \\ &= a_1 a_2 (1 - a_1 - a_2) x_1^{2a_1-2} x_2^{2a_2-2} \\ &\geq 0 \text{ provided } a_1 + a_2 \leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

## 7 Homework

1. Show that the cost function  $c(\mathbf{w}, y)$  of a competitive firm (Example 2.31) is concave in input prices  $\mathbf{w}$ .
2. Show that the indirect utility function is quasiconvex in  $\mathbf{p}$ . [Hint: Show that the lower contour sets  $\lesssim_v(c) = \{\mathbf{p} : v(\mathbf{p}, m) \leq c\}$  are convex for every  $c$ . ]
3. Is the CES function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = (\alpha_1 x_1^\rho + \alpha_2 x_2^\rho + \dots + \alpha_n x_n^\rho)^{1/\rho}$  pseudoconcave?
4. Show
  - (a) Every differentiable concave function is pseudoconcave.
  - (b) Every pseudoconcave function is quasiconcave
  - (c) Every regular quasiconcave function is pseudoconcave.



## Solutions: Concave and convex functions

**1** Suppose that  $\mathbf{x}^1$  minimizes the cost of producing  $y$  at input prices  $\mathbf{w}^1$  while  $\mathbf{x}^2$  minimizes cost at  $\mathbf{w}^2$ . For some  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ , let  $\bar{\mathbf{w}}$  be the weighted average price, that is

$$\bar{\mathbf{w}} = \alpha \mathbf{w}^1 + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{w}^2$$

and suppose that  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$  minimizes cost at  $\bar{\mathbf{w}}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} c(\bar{\mathbf{w}}, y) &= \bar{\mathbf{w}} \bar{\mathbf{x}} \\ &= (\alpha \mathbf{w}^1 + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{w}^2) \bar{\mathbf{x}} \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{w}^1 \bar{\mathbf{x}} + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{w}^2 \bar{\mathbf{x}} \end{aligned}$$

But since  $\mathbf{x}^1$  and  $\mathbf{x}^2$  minimize cost at  $\mathbf{w}^1$  and  $\mathbf{w}^2$  respectively

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \mathbf{w}^1 \bar{\mathbf{x}} &\geq \alpha \mathbf{w}^1 \mathbf{x}^1 = \alpha c(\mathbf{w}^1, y) \\ (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{w}^2 \bar{\mathbf{x}} &\geq (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{w}^2 \mathbf{x}^2 = (1 - \alpha) c(\mathbf{w}^2, y) \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$c(\bar{\mathbf{w}}, y) = c(\alpha \mathbf{w}^1 + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{w}^2, y) = \alpha \mathbf{w}^1 \bar{\mathbf{x}} + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{w}^2 \bar{\mathbf{x}} \geq \alpha c(\mathbf{w}^1, y) + (1 - \alpha) c(\mathbf{w}^2, y)$$

This establishes that the cost function  $c$  is concave in  $\mathbf{w}$ .

**2** For given  $c$  and  $m$ , choose any  $\mathbf{p}_1$  and  $\mathbf{p}_2$  in  $\lesssim_v(c)$ . For any  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ , let  $\bar{\mathbf{p}} = \alpha \mathbf{p}_1 + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{p}_2$ . The key step is to show that any commodity bundle  $\mathbf{x}$  which is affordable at  $\bar{\mathbf{p}}$  is also affordable at either  $\mathbf{p}_1$  or  $\mathbf{p}_2$ . Assume that  $\mathbf{x}$  is affordable at  $\bar{\mathbf{p}}$ , that is  $\mathbf{x}$  is in the budget set

$$\mathbf{x} \in X(\bar{\mathbf{p}}, m) = \{ \mathbf{x} : \bar{\mathbf{p}} \mathbf{x} \leq m \}$$

To show that  $\mathbf{x}$  is affordable at either  $\mathbf{p}_1$  or  $\mathbf{p}_2$ , that is

$$\mathbf{x} \in X(\mathbf{p}_1, m) \text{ or } \mathbf{x} \in X(\mathbf{p}_2, m)$$

assume to the contrary that

$$\mathbf{x} \notin X(\mathbf{p}_1, m) \text{ and } \mathbf{x} \notin X(\mathbf{p}_2, m)$$

This implies that

$$\mathbf{p}_1 \mathbf{x} > m \text{ and } \mathbf{p}_2 \mathbf{x} > m$$

so that

$$\alpha \mathbf{p}_1 \mathbf{x} > \alpha m \text{ and } (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{p}_2 \mathbf{x} > (1 - \alpha) m$$

Summing these two inequalities

$$\bar{\mathbf{p}}\mathbf{x} = (\alpha\mathbf{p}_1 + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{p}_2)\mathbf{x} > m$$

contradicting the assumption that  $\mathbf{x} \in X(\bar{\mathbf{p}}, m)$ . We conclude that

$$X(\bar{\mathbf{p}}, m) \subseteq X(\mathbf{p}_1, m) \cup X(\mathbf{p}_2, m)$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} v(\bar{\mathbf{p}}, m) &= \sup\{ u(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbf{x} \in X(\bar{\mathbf{p}}, m) \} \\ &\leq \sup\{ u(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbf{x} \in X(\mathbf{p}_1, m) \cup X(\mathbf{p}_2, m) \} \\ &\leq c \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $\bar{\mathbf{p}} \in \lesssim_v(c)$  for every  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ . Thus,  $\lesssim_v(c)$  is convex and so  $v$  is quasiconvex (Exercise 3.146).

**3** The CES function is quasiconcave provided  $\rho \leq 1$  (Exercise 3.58). Since  $D_{x_i}f(\mathbf{x}) > 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}_{++}^n$ , the CES function with  $\rho \leq 1$  is pseudoconcave on  $\mathfrak{R}_{++}^n$ .

**4** (a) If  $f \in F[S]$  is concave (and differentiable)

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)$$

for every  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0 \in S$ . Therefore

$$f(\mathbf{x}) > f(\mathbf{x}_0) \implies \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) > 0$$

$f$  is pseudoconcave.

(b) Assume to the contrary that  $f$  is pseudoconcave but not quasiconcave. Then, there exists points  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2$  and  $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \alpha\mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{x}_2$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in S$  such that

$$f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) < \min\{f(\mathbf{x}_1), f(\mathbf{x}_2)\} \tag{1}$$

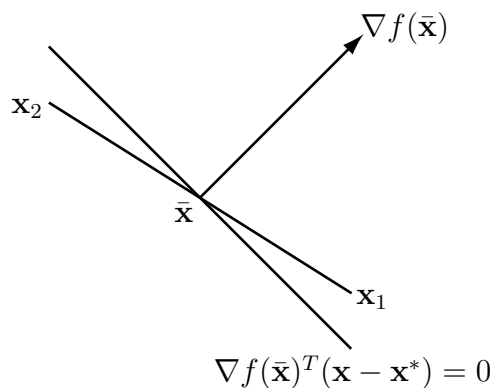
Pseudoconcavity implies

$$\nabla f(\bar{\mathbf{x}})^T(\mathbf{x}_1 - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) > 0 \tag{2}$$

that is  $\mathbf{x}_1$  lies on the positive side of the orthogonal hyperplane  $\nabla f(\bar{\mathbf{x}})^T(\mathbf{x} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) = 0$ . Therefore,  $\mathbf{x}_2$  must lie on the negative side, that is

$$\nabla f(\bar{\mathbf{x}})^T(\mathbf{x}_2 - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) < 0$$

contradicting the pseudoconcavity of  $f$ .



More precisely, since  $\alpha \mathbf{x}_1 = \bar{\mathbf{x}} - (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{x}_2$

$$\alpha(\mathbf{x}_1 - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) = (1 - \alpha)(\bar{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}_2)$$

and therefore

$$\mathbf{x}_1 - \bar{\mathbf{x}} = -\frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha}(\mathbf{x}_2 - \bar{\mathbf{x}})$$

Substituting in (2) gives

$$\frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} \nabla f(\bar{\mathbf{x}})^T(\mathbf{x}_2 - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) < 0$$

which by pseudoconcavity implies  $f(\mathbf{x}_2) \leq f(\bar{\mathbf{x}})$  contradicting our assumption (1).

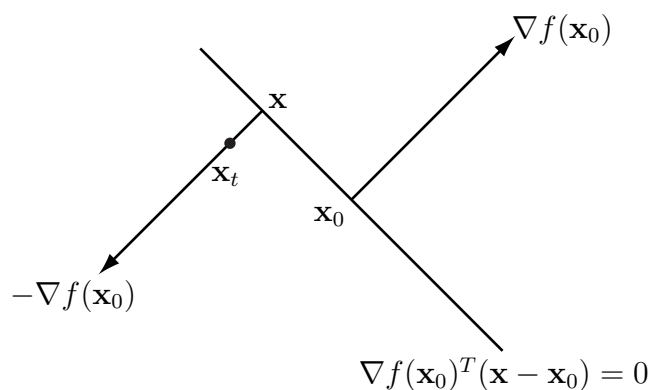
- (c) Suppose to the contrary that  $f$  is regular and quasiconcave but not pseudoconcave, so that there exists  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0$  such that

$$f(\mathbf{x}) > f(\mathbf{x}_0) \text{ and } \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) \leq 0$$

Since  $f$  is regular,  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) \neq 0$  and we can move a small distance from  $\mathbf{x}$  in the direction opposite to  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  to find a point  $\mathbf{x}'$  at which

$$f(\mathbf{x}') > f(\mathbf{x}_0) \text{ and } \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T(\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x}_0) < 0$$

contradicting the assumed quasiconcavity of  $f$ .



To make this precise, for every  $t \in \mathfrak{R}_+$ , let

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{x} - t\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T(\mathbf{x}_t - \mathbf{x}_0) &= \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T(\mathbf{x} - t\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) - \mathbf{x}_0) \\ &= \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) - t\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) \\ &\leq -t\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)\|^2 < 0 \end{aligned}$$

for every  $t \in \mathfrak{R}_+$  since  $f$  is regular. Since  $f(\mathbf{x}) > f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  and  $f$  is continuous, there exists  $t > 0$  such that

$$f(\mathbf{x}_t) > f(\mathbf{x}_0) \text{ and } \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T(\mathbf{x}_t - \mathbf{x}_0) < 0$$

contradicting the quasiconcavity of  $f$ .