

MATH 2010 Chapter 10

10.1 Taylor Series Expansion

Recall

Taylor expansion for 1-variable function $g(t)$ at $t = 0$ up to order k .

$$g(t) = g(0) + g'(0)t + \frac{1}{2!}g''(0)t^2 + \cdots + \frac{1}{k!}g^{(k)}(0)t^k + \text{remainder} \quad \textcircled{*}$$

We want a similar formula for a multi-variable function $f(x)$ defined near a , where $x = (x_1, \cdots, x_n)$, $a = (a_1, \cdots, a_n)$.

Let $g(t) = f(a + t(x - a))$

If $\|x - a\|$ is small, then for $|t| \leq 1$,

$$\|t(x - a)\| = |t|\|x - a\| \leq \|x - a\| \text{ is small}$$

and $g(t)$ is defined.

By $\textcircled{*}$,

$$f(a + t(x - a)) = g(0) + g'(0)t + \frac{1}{2!}g''(0)t^2 + \cdots + \frac{1}{k!}g^{(k)}(0)t^k + \text{remainder}$$

Put $t = 1$,

$$f(x) = g(0) + g'(0) + \frac{1}{2!}g''(0) + \cdots + \frac{1}{k!}g^{(k)}(0) + \text{remainder}$$

Next, express $g^{(k)}(0)$ in terms of f :

$$g(0) = f(a + t(x - a)) = f(a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} g'(t) &= \nabla f(a + t(x - a)) \cdot \frac{d}{dt}(a + t(x - a)) \\ &= \nabla f(a + t(x - a)) \cdot (x - a) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a + t(x - a))(x_i - a_i) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow g'(0) &= \nabla f(a) \cdot (x - a) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)(x_i - a_i)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}g''(t) &= \frac{d}{dt}g'(t) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a + t(x - a))(x_i - a_i) \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}(a + t(x - a))(x_j - a_j)(x_i - a_i) \\ g''(0) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}(a)(x_j - a_j)(x_i - a_i)\end{aligned}$$

Hence, Taylor Expansion at a up to order 2 is

$$f(x) = f(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)(x_i - a_i) + \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(a)(x_i - a_i)(x_j - a_j) + \text{remainder}$$

Similarly, the general term is

$$g^{(k)}(0) = \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_k=1}^n \frac{\partial^k f}{\partial x_{i_1} \dots \partial x_{i_k}}(a)(x_{i_1} - a_{i_1}) \dots (x_{i_k} - a_{i_k})$$

Example 10.1. If $n = 2$, i.e. $f = f(x, y)$, $a = (x_0, y_0)$ f is C^2 (so $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$), then

$$\begin{aligned}f(x, y) &= f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} [f_{xx}(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0)^2 + 2f_{xy}(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0)(y - y_0) + f_{yy}(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)^2] \\ &\quad + \text{remainder}\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 10.2 (Taylor's Theorem). Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be open, $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^k .

Then for any $x, a \in \Omega$,

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= f(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)(x_i - a_i) + \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(a)(x_i - a_i)(x_j - a_j) + \dots \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_k=1}^n \frac{\partial^k f}{\partial x_{i_1} \dots \partial x_{i_k}}(a)(x_{i_1} - a_{i_1}) \dots (x_{i_k} - a_{i_k}) + \varepsilon_k(x, a),\end{aligned}$$

with:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\varepsilon_k(x, a)}{\|x - a\|^k} = 0$$

Definition 10.3.

$$p_k(x) = f(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)(x_i - a_i) + \dots + \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_k=1}^n \frac{\partial^k f}{\partial x_{i_1} \dots \partial x_{i_k}}(a)(x_{i_1} - a_{i_1}) \dots (x_{i_k} - a_{i_k})$$

is called the **k -th order Taylor polynomial** of f at a .

Remark. • $p_1(x) = L(x) =$ Linearization of f at a

- p_k and f have equal partial derivatives up to order k at a .

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Example 10.4. $f(x, y) = e^x \cos y$ Find the 2^{nd} order Taylor polynomial at $a = (0, 0)$

Solution.

$$\begin{array}{ll} f_x = e^x \cos y & f_y = -e^x \sin y \\ f_{xx} = e^x \cos y & f_{yx} = -e^x \sin y \\ f_{xy} = -e^x \sin y & f_{yy} = -e^x \cos y \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow f(0, 0) = 1,$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} f_x(0, 0) = 1 & f_y(0, 0) = 0 \\ f_{xx}(0, 0) = 1 & f_{yy}(0, 0) = -1 \\ f_{xy}(0, 0) = f_{yx}(0, 0) = 0 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_2(x, y) &= f(0, 0) + f_x(0, 0)x + f_y(0, 0)y + \frac{1}{2!}(f_{xx}(0, 0)x^2 + 2f_{xy}(0, 0)xy + f_{yy}(0, 0)y^2) \\ &= 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2}y^2 \end{aligned}$$

How about $p_3(x, y)$ at $(0, 0)$?

$$p_3(x, y) = p_2(x, y) + \underbrace{\frac{1}{3!}g^{(3)}(0)}_{3^{rd} \text{ order terms}}$$

$$f_{xxx} = e^x \cos y$$

$$f_{xxy} = f_{xyx} = f_{yxx} = -e^x \sin y$$

$$f_{yyy} = e^x \sin y$$

$$f_{xyy} = f_{yxy} = f_{yyx} = -e^x \cos y$$

$$\Rightarrow f_{xxx}(0, 0) = 1$$

$$f_{xxy}(0, 0) = 0$$

$$f_{yyy}(0, 0) = -1$$

$$f_{yyy}(0, 0) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} g^{(3)}(0) &= f_{xxx}(0, 0)x^3 + 3f_{xxy}(0, 0)x^2y + 3f_{xyy}(0, 0)xy^2 + f_{yyy}(0, 0)y^3 \\ &= x^3 - 3xy^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_3(x, y) &= p_2(x, y) + \frac{1}{3!}(x^3 - 3xy^2) \\ &= 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2}y^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 - \frac{1}{2}xy^2 \end{aligned}$$

Question If $f = f(x, y, z)$ is C^6 , then coefficient of xy^2z^3 in $p_6(x, y, z)$ at $(0, 0, 0)$ is $\alpha f_{xyyzzz}(0, 0, 0)$, $\alpha = ?$

10.1.1 Matrix form for 2nd order Taylor Polynomial

Definition 10.5. Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be open, $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be C^2 .

Then the **Hessian matrix** of f at $a \in \Omega$ is:

$$Hf(a) = \begin{bmatrix} f_{x_1x_1}(a) & \cdots & f_{x_1x_n}(a) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ f_{x_nx_1}(a) & \cdots & f_{x_nx_n}(a) \end{bmatrix}$$

Remark. • $Hf(a)$ is a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix by the mixed derivatives theorem.

- In Thomas' Calculus, Hessian of f is defined to be the determinant of our Hessian matrix.

With the Hessian matrix, the 2nd order Taylor polynomial of f at a can be written as:

$$p_2(x) = \underset{1 \times 1}{f(a)} + \underset{1 \times 1}{\nabla f(a)} \underset{1 \times n}{(x-a)} + \frac{1}{2} \underset{1 \times n}{(x-a)^\top} \underset{n \times n}{Hf(a)} \underset{n \times 1}{(x-a)}$$

where $x, a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are written as column vectors:

$$\begin{aligned} (x-a)^\top &= \text{Transpose of } x-a \\ &= [x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n] \end{aligned}$$

Remark.

$$\begin{aligned} &(x-a)^\top Hf(a)(x-a) \\ &= [x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n] \begin{bmatrix} f_{x_1 x_1}(a) & \cdots & f_{x_1 x_n}(a) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ f_{x_n x_1}(a) & \cdots & f_{x_n x_n}(a) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - a_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n - a_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= [x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n] \begin{bmatrix} f_{x_1 x_1}(a)(x_1 - a_1) + \cdots + f_{x_1 x_n}(a)(x_n - a_n) \\ \vdots \\ f_{x_n x_1}(a)(x_1 - a_1) + \cdots + f_{x_n x_n}(a)(x_n - a_n) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= f_{x_1 x_1}(a)(x_1 - a_1)(x_1 - a_1) + \cdots + f_{x_1 x_n}(a)(x_1 - a_1)(x_n - a_n) \\ &\quad + \cdots \\ &\quad \vdots \\ &\quad + f_{x_n x_1}(a)(x_1 - a_1)(x_n - a_n) + \cdots + f_{x_n x_n}(a)(x_n - a_n)(x_n - a_n) \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^n f_{x_i x_j}(a)(x_i - a_i)(x_j - a_j) \\ &= g^{(2)}(0) \end{aligned}$$

Example 10.6.

$$f(x, y) = e^x \cos y$$

Find $p_2(x, y)$ at $a = (0, 0)$ using matrix form.

Solution.

$$f(0, 0) = 1$$

$$\nabla f(0, 0) = (1, 0)$$

$$Hf(0,0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_2(x,y) &= f(0,0) + \nabla f(0,0) \begin{bmatrix} x-0 \\ y-0 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} [x-0 \quad y-0] Hf(0,0) \begin{bmatrix} x-0 \\ y-0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 1 + [1 \quad 0] \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} [x \quad y] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2}y^2 \end{aligned}$$

Example 10.7.

$$g(x,y) = \frac{\ln x}{1-y}$$

Find $p_2(x,y)$ at $(1,0)$.

Solution.

$$g(1,0) = 0$$

$$\nabla g = [g_x, g_y] = \left[\frac{1}{x(1-y)}, \frac{\ln x}{(1-y)^2} \right]$$

$$Hg = \begin{bmatrix} g_{xx} & g_{xy} \\ g_{yx} & g_{yy} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{x^2(1-y)} & \frac{1}{x(1-y)^2} \\ \frac{1}{x(1-y)^2} & \frac{2\ln x}{(1-y)^3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\nabla g(1,0) = [1 \quad 0] \quad Hg(1,0) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_2(x,y) &= g(0,0) + \nabla g(0,0) \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ y \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} [x-1 \quad y] Hg(1,0) \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ y \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 0 + [1 \quad 0] \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ y \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} [x-1 \quad y] \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x-1 \\ y \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (x-1) - \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^2 + (x-1)y \end{aligned}$$

10.1.2 Application to local maximum / minimum

Suppose $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is C^2 , and a is a critical point of f .

Then, $\nabla f(a) = \vec{0}$. For x near a ,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &\approx p_2(x) \\ &= f(a) + \nabla f(a)(x - a) + \frac{1}{2}(x - a)^\top Hf(a)(x - a) \\ &= f(a) + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(x - a)^\top Hf(a)(x - a)}_{\text{This term determines whether } f(x) > f(a) \text{ or } f(x) < f(a)} \end{aligned}$$

For $n = 1$, i.e. f is 1-variable.

$$\frac{1}{2}(x - a)^\top Hf(a)(x - a) = \frac{1}{2}f''(a)(x - a)^2$$

Recall: Second Derivative Test

This may be viewed as a consequence of Taylor's Theorem. That is, if $f'(a) = 0$, then near $x = a$, we have:

$$f(x) \approx f(a) + \underbrace{f'(a)(x - a)}_{=0} + \frac{1}{2}f''(a)(x - a)^2$$

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The sign of the second derivative at $x = a$ essentially tells us whether locally the graph of the function looks like an upward or downward parabola.

For $n = 2$, the 2nd order term is:

$$\frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} x - x_0 & y - y_0 \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) & f_{xy}(x_0, y_0) \\ f_{yx}(x_0, y_0) & f_{yy}(x_0, y_0) \end{bmatrix}}_{f \text{ is } C^2 \Rightarrow \text{Symmetric}} \begin{bmatrix} x - x_0 \\ y - y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

To understand the nature of critical points, we study **quadratic forms** of 2 variables.

$$\begin{aligned} q(x, y) &= \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \\ &= Ax^2 + 2Bxy + Cy^2 \end{aligned}$$

Does $q(x, y)$ have a definite sign (always positive or always negative) for $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$?

We can determine it by completing square.

Example 10.8.

$$q(x, y) = 2xy \left(= [x \ y] \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

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Note $q(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(x + y)^2 - \frac{1}{2}(x - y)^2$ Along $x + y = 0$, i.e. $y = -x$,

$$q(x, -x) = -2x^2 < 0 \text{ for } x \neq 0$$

Along $x - y = 0$, i.e. $y = x$

$$q(x, x) = 2x^2 > 0 \text{ for } x \neq 0$$

Hence, q has no definite sign, i.e. indefinite.

Clearly $(0, 0)$ is a critical point of $q(x, y)$ but neither local maximum nor minimum.

Such a critical point is called a **saddle point**.

Example 10.9.

$$q(x, y) = 17x^2 - 12xy + 8y^2 \left(= [x \ y] \begin{bmatrix} 17 & -6 \\ -6 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

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Does $q(x, y)$ have a definite sign?

Solution.

$$\begin{aligned} q(x, y) &= 17\left[x^2 - \frac{2 \cdot 6}{17}xy + \left(\frac{6}{17}\right)^2y^2\right] + \left(8 - \frac{36}{17}\right)y^2 \\ &= 17\left(x - \frac{6}{17}y\right)^2 + 10y^2 \quad \textcircled{*} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $q(x, y) > 0 = q(0, 0)$ for $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ Hence, The critical point $(0, 0)$ is a local minimum. Also global minimum of $q(x, y)$.

Remark. Expression like $\textcircled{*}$ is called diagonalization of quadratic form. It is not unique!

For example $q(x, y) = 5\left(\frac{x+2y}{\sqrt{5}}\right)^2 + 20\left(\frac{2x-y}{\sqrt{5}}\right)^2$ is another diagonalization.

$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \uparrow$
 "Orthogonal" change of coordinates

10.1.3 Higher dimension example

Example 10.10.

$$q(x, y, z) = xy + yz + zx$$

Definite sign for $(x, y, z) \neq (0, 0, 0)$?

Solution.

$$q = \frac{1}{4}(x+y)^2 - \frac{1}{4}(x-y)^2 + z(x+y)$$

Let $u = \frac{x+y}{2}$ $v = \frac{x-y}{2}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} q &= u^2 - v^2 + 2uz \\ &= (u^2 + 2uz + z^2) - v^2 - z^2 \\ &= (u+z)^2 - v^2 - z^2 \\ &= \left(\frac{x+y}{2} + z\right)^2 - \left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right)^2 - z^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{4} (x+y+2z)^2 - \frac{1}{4} (x-y)^2 - z^2 \\ &\quad \begin{array}{ccc} \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \text{positive} & & \text{negative} \end{array} \end{aligned}$$

On the plane $x + y + 2z = 0$, i.e. $z = -\frac{x+y}{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} q &= q\left(x, y, -\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{4}(x-y)^2 - \frac{1}{4}(x+y)^2 < 0 \text{ for } (x, y, z) \neq (0, 0, 0) \end{aligned}$$

Along the line $x - y = z = 0$, i.e. $y = x, z = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} q(x, y, z) &= q(x, x, 0) \\ &= x^2 > 0 \text{ for } x \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the critical point $(0, 0, 0)$ is a saddle point. For general theory, need linear algebra:

Diagonalization of quadratic form, eigenvalues . . .

Definition 10.11. Let A be a $n \times n$ symmetric matrix.

Then A is said to be

- **positive definite** if $x^T Ax > 0$ for all column vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\vec{0}\}$

- **negative definite** if $x^\top Ax < 0$ for all column vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\vec{0}\}$
- **indefinite** if \exists column vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\vec{0}\}$ such that $x^\top Ax > 0$ and $y^\top Ay < 0$

Remark. These are not all the possible cases:

There are symmetric matrix which is not positive definite, negative definite nor indefinite.

Example 10.12.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = x^2 + 4y^2 > 0 \quad \text{for all } \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{\vec{0}\}$$

Hence, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ is positive definite.

Example 10.13.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = -x^2 - 4y^2 < 0 \quad \text{for all } \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{\vec{0}\}$$

Hence, $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$ is negative definite.

Example 10.14.

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} &= -x^2 + 4y^2 \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} &= -1 < 0 \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} &= 4 > 0 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ is indefinite.

Example 10.15.

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} &= x^2 \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} &= 0 \Rightarrow \text{not positive definite} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is neither positive/negative definite nor indefinite.

Example 10.16.

$$\begin{aligned} & [x \ y] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \\ &= x^2 + 4xy + 5y^2 \\ &= (x^2 + 4xy + 4y^2) + y^2 \\ &= (x + 2y)^2 + y^2 > 0 \quad \text{for all } \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{\vec{0}\} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ is positive definite.