

# The Hessian, Taylor's Theorem, Extrema, Lagrange Multipliers and Quadratic Forms\*

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An online version of these notes is posted on my website at <http://math.stanford.edu/~jlee/math51/>.

## Differentials and Taylor's Theorem

- given a  $k$ -times differentiable function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , we can define its  $k$ -th order *Taylor polynomial* at the point  $p$  to be

$$p_k(x) = \sum_{i=0}^k \frac{f^{(i)}(p)}{i!} \cdot (x - p)^i$$

- *Taylor's theorem* provides us an error estimate: if  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a  $(k + 1)$ -times differentiable function, then there exists some number  $\xi$  between  $p$  and  $x$  such that

$$R_k(x, a) = f(x) - p_k(x) = \frac{f^{(k+1)}(\xi)}{(k + 1)!} \cdot (x - a)^{k+1}$$

- given a differentiable function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , we can define its first-order *Taylor polynomial* at the point  $p = (p_1, \dots, p_n)$  to be

$$\begin{aligned} p_1(x) &= f(p) + Df(p) \cdot (x - p) \\ &= f(p) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(p) \cdot (x_i - p_i); \end{aligned}$$

note that this gives the equation for the tangent plane at the point  $p$ , which is used to compute *linear approximations*

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\*Alternatively, *All you ever wanted to know about vector calculus*

- similarly, if  $f$  is twice-differentiable, we can define its second-order *Taylor polynomial* at the point  $p$  to be

$$\begin{aligned} p_2(x) &= f(p) + Df(p) \cdot (x - p) + \frac{1}{2} [(x - p)^T \cdot Hf(p) \cdot (x - p)] \\ &= f(p) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(p) \cdot (x_i - p_i) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(p) \cdot (x_i - p_i)(x_j - p_j), \end{aligned}$$

where for notational sanity, we define the *Hessian matrix* to be the  $n \times n$  matrix whose  $(i, j)$ -th entry is  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$

- find the first- and second-order Taylor polynomials for

the function	at the point
$f(x, y) = 1/(x^2 + y^2 + 1)$	$a = (0, 0)$
$f(x, y) = 1/(x^2 + y^2 + 1)$	$a = (1, -1)$
$f(x, y) = e^{2x} \cos(3y)$	$a = (0, \pi)$

- as before, *Taylor's theorem* provides an error estimate; the same formula holds, with the change that  $\xi$  is taken to be a point on the line segment connecting  $p$  and  $x$

## Quadratic Forms

- given an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix, we can define a *quadratic form*  $Q : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $x \mapsto x^T Ax$ ; this occurs as the quadratic term in the second-order Taylor polynomials described above
- a quadratic form is defined to be *positive definite*, *positive semi-definite*, *negative definite*, or *negative semi-definite* if the values it takes are positive, non-negative, negative or non-positive, respectively; if none of these holds, the form is defined to be *indefinite*
- *Remark:* by definition, if a quadratic form is positive definite, then it is also positive semi-definite
- *Proposition:* given a quadratic form  $Q : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $x \mapsto x^T Ax$ , we can recognize its type according to the following table (to remember it, use the fact that similar matrices have the same determinant and trace, and assume all matrices are diagonalizable):

type of quadratic form $Q$	eigenvalues of $A$	$A$ 's determinant	$A$ 's trace
positive definite	all positive	positive	positive
positive semi-definite	all non-negative	zero	positive
negative definite	all negative	positive	negative
negative semi-definite	all non-positive	zero	negative
indefinite	one positive, one negative	negative	irrelevant
degenerate	both zero	zero	zero

## Extrema of Functions

- given a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , know what its *extrema*, both *global* and *local*, are defined to be; this (and the following) works analogously to the single-variable case
- define a point  $p$  to be a *critical point* of a differentiable function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  if  $Df(p) = 0$
- *Theorem:* local extrema of differentiable functions must be critical points
- *Theorem:* let  $p$  be a  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a twice-differentiable function; then

if $Hf(p)$ is	then $p$ is a ... of $f$
positive definite	local minimum
negative definite	local maximum
neither of the above but still invertible	saddle point

- find the point on the plane  $3x - 4y - z = 24$  closest to the origin
- determine the absolute extrema of

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + y^2 - 6y$$

on the rectangle given by  $x \in [-3, 3]$  and  $y \in [0, 5]$

- determine the absolute extrema of

$$f(x, y, z) = \exp(1 - x^2 - y^2 + 2y - z^2 - 4z)$$

on the ball

$$\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : x^2 + y^2 - 2y + z^2 + 4z \leq 0\}$$

- by Heine-Borel, say that a subset  $X$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is *compact* if it is closed and bounded
- *Extreme Value Theorem:* any continuous  $\mathbb{R}$ -valued function on a compact topological space attains global minima and maxima

## Lagrange Multipliers

- supposing that we have a continuously differentiable function  $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined to be the set of solutions to  $g_1 = g_2 = \dots = g_k = 0$  for some continuously differentiable functions  $g_1, \dots, g_k : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then we can determine the critical points of  $f$  by:

- solving the system of linear equations (in the variables  $x, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ )

$$Df(x) = \lambda_1 Dg_1(x) + \dots + \lambda_k Dg_k(x) \quad \text{and} \quad g_1(x) = g_2(x) = \dots = g_k(x) = 0$$

using elimination, cross-multiplication or other convenient methods; each solution  $x$  will be a critical point of  $f$

- determining the points  $x$  where the functions  $Dg_1, \dots, Dg_k$  are linearly dependent, which in the case  $k = 1$  (and  $Dg = Dg_1$ ) amounts simply to finding those  $x$  such that  $Dg(x) = 0$ ; only some of these points will be critical points and thus they all need to be inspected individually
- as a result, we now have three methods for determining the critical points of a continuously differentiable function  $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , for some specified set  $S$ :
  - if  $S$  is a curve (which has dimension 1), a surface (which has dimension 2), or in general, some subset of dimension  $n$ , then attempt to parametrize  $S$  by a function  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow S$  and subsequently compute the critical points of  $f \circ g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  — this method can quite often be unnecessarily brutal, requiring many error-prone calculations, which you may illustrate to yourself by finding the closest point on a line to a given point
  - find some geometric interpretation of the problem, draw some picture making it clear where the extrema should occur, and be creative computing the coordinates of such extrema — for example, in the case of finding the closest point on a given plane to a given point, this amounts to determining the intersection of the plane with the unique line perpendicular to the plane that crosses the specified point
  - use Lagrange multipliers
- good, wholesome, enriching entertainment:
  - find the largest possible sphere, centered around the origin, that can be inscribed inside the ellipsoid  $3x^2 + 2y^2 + z^2 = 6$
  - the intersection of the planes  $x - 2y + 3z = 8$  and  $2z - y = 3$  forms a line; find the point on this line closest to the point  $(2, 5, -1)$
  - the intersection of the paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$  with the plane  $x + y + 2z = 2$  forms an ellipse; determine the highest and lowest (with respect to the  $z$ -coordinate) points on it