

## Chapter 6. Higher Order Derivatives

**6.1 Theorem:** (*Iterated Limits*) Let  $I$  and  $J$  be open intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$  with  $a \in I$  and  $b \in J$ , let  $U = (I \times J) \setminus \{(a, b)\}$ , and let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose that  $\lim_{y \rightarrow b} f(x, y)$  exists for every  $x \in I$  and that  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)} f(x, y) = u \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \lim_{t \rightarrow b} f(x, y) = u$ .

Proof: Define  $g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $g(x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow b} f(x, y)$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)} f(x, y) = u$  we can choose  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $(x, y) \in U$  with  $0 < |(x, y) - (a, b)| \leq 2\delta$  we have  $|f(x, y) - u| \leq \epsilon$ . Let  $x \in I$  with  $0 < |x - a| \leq \delta$ . For all  $y \in J$  with  $0 < |y - b| \leq \delta$  we have  $0 < |(x, y) - (a, b)| \leq |x - a| + |y - b| \leq 2\delta$  and so  $|f(x, y) - u| \leq \epsilon$  and hence

$$|g(x) - u| \leq |g(x) - f(x, y)| + |f(x, y) - u| \leq |g(x) - f(x, y)| + \epsilon.$$

Take the limit as  $y \rightarrow b$  on both sides to get  $|g(x) - u| \leq \epsilon$ . Thus  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = u$ , as required.

**6.2 Theorem:** (*Mixed Partial Commute*) Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $U$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $a \in U$ , and let  $k, \ell \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ . Suppose  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell}(x)$  exists in  $U$  and is continuous at  $a$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}(x)$  exists and is continuous in  $U$ , and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_\ell \partial x_k}(a)$  exists. Then  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_\ell \partial x_k}(a) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell}(a)$ .

Proof: When  $k = \ell$  there is nothing to prove, so suppose that  $k \neq \ell$ . Choose  $r > 0$  so that  $B(a, 2r) \subseteq U$ . For  $|x| < r$  and  $|y| < r$  note that the points  $a$ ,  $a + xe_k$ ,  $a + ye_\ell$  and  $a + xe_k + ye_\ell$  all lie in  $B(a, 2r)$ . For  $|X| < r$  and  $|y| < r$ , define

$$g(x, y) = f(a + xe_k + ye_\ell) - f(a + xe_k) - f(a + ye_\ell) + f(a).$$

By the Mean Value Theorem, applied to the function  $f(a + xe_k + ye_\ell) - f(a + ye_\ell)$  as a function of  $y$ , we can choose  $t$  between 0 and  $y$  such that

$$y \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_\ell}(a + xe_k + te_\ell) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_\ell}(a + te_\ell) \right) = g(x, y).$$

By the Mean Value Theorem, applied to the function  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_\ell}(a + xe_k + te_\ell)$  as a function of  $x$ , we can choose  $s$  between 0 and  $x$  such that

$$x \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell}(a + se_k + te_\ell) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_\ell}(a + xe_k + te_\ell) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_\ell}(a + te_\ell).$$

Also by the Mean Value Theorem, applied to the function  $f(a + xe_k + ye_\ell) - f(a + xe_k)$  as a function of  $x$ , we can choose  $r$  between 0 and  $x$  such that

$$x \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}(a + re_k + ye_\ell) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}(a + re_k) \right) = g(x, y).$$

Then for  $|x| < r$  and  $0 < |y| < r$  we have

$$\frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}(a + re_k + ye_\ell) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}(a + re_k)}{y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell}(a + se_k + te_\ell).$$

Since  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell}$  is continuous, the limit on the right as  $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$  is equal to  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell}(a)$ , and since  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}$  is continuous, the limit as  $y \rightarrow 0$  of the limit as  $x \rightarrow 0$  on the left is equal to  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_\ell \partial x_k}(a)$ , so the desired result follows from the above lemma.

**6.3 Corollary:** If  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is open and  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is  $\mathcal{C}^2$  in  $U$  then we have  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_\ell \partial x_k}(x) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell}(x)$  for all  $x \in U$  and for all  $k, \ell$ .

**6.4 Exercise:** Verify that for  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2}$  we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} f(x, y) \neq \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x, y)$ .

**6.5 Exercise:** Let  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy(x^2 - y^2)}{x^2 + y^2}, & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$ . Verify that the mixed partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(0, 0)$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}(0, 0)$  both exist, but they are not equal.

**6.6 Definition:** for  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where  $U$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $a \in U$ , we define  $D^0 f(a) = f(a)$  and for  $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  we define the  $\ell^{\text{th}}$  **total differential** of  $f$  at  $a$  to be the map  $D^\ell f(a) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by

$$D^\ell f(a)(u) = \sum_{k_1=1}^n \sum_{k_2=1}^n \cdots \sum_{k_\ell=1}^n \frac{\partial^\ell f}{\partial x_{k_1} \partial x_{k_2} \cdots \partial x_{k_\ell}}(a) u_{k_1} u_{k_2} \cdots u_{k_\ell}$$

provided that all of the  $\ell^{\text{th}}$  order partial derivatives exist at  $a$ .

**6.7 Example:** When  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is  $\mathcal{C}^2$  (so the mixed partial derivatives commute) we have

$$\begin{aligned} D^0 f(u, v) &= f(a, b) \\ D^1 f(a, b)(u, v) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a, b) u + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b) v \\ D^2 f(a, b)(u, v) &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a, b) u^2 + 2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(a, b) uv + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(a, b) v^2. \end{aligned}$$

**6.8 Theorem:** (Taylor's Theorem) Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $U$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Suppose that the  $m^{\text{th}}$  order partial derivatives of  $f$  all exist in  $U$ . Then for all  $a, x \in U$  such that  $[a, x] \subseteq U$  there exists  $c \in [a, x]$  such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{\ell!} D^\ell f(a)(x-a) + \frac{1}{m!} D^m f(c)(x-a).$$

Proof: Let  $a, x \in U$  with  $[a, x] \subseteq U$ . Let  $\alpha(t) = a + t(x-a)$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  and note that  $\alpha(t) \in U$  for  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ . Since  $U$  is open and  $\alpha$  is continuous, we can choose  $\delta > 0$  so that  $\alpha(t) \in U$  for all  $t \in I = (-\delta, 1+\delta)$ . Define  $g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $g(t) = f(\alpha(t))$ . By the Chain Rule, we have

$$g'(t) = Df(\alpha(t))\alpha'(t) = Df(\alpha(t))(x-a) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\alpha(t))(x_i - a_i) = D^1 f(\alpha(t))(x-a).$$

By the Chain Rule again, we have

$$g''(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}(\alpha(t))(x_j - a_j) \right) (x_i - a_i) = D^2 f(\alpha(t))(x-a).$$

An induction argument shows that

$$g^{(\ell)}(t) = D^\ell f(\alpha(t))(x-a).$$

By Taylor's Theorem, applied to the function  $g(t)$  on the interval  $[0, 1]$ , we can choose

$s \in [0, 1]$  such that  $g(1) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{\ell!} g^{(\ell)}(0) + \frac{1}{m!} g^{(m)}(s)$ , that is

$$f(x) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{m-1} \frac{1}{\ell!} D^\ell f(a)(x-a) + \frac{1}{m!} D^m f(\alpha(s))(x-a).$$

Thus we can choose  $c = \alpha(s) \in [a, x]$ .

**6.9 Definition:** For  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where  $U$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $a \in U$ , we define the  $m^{\text{th}}$  **Taylor polynomial** of  $f$  at  $a$  to be the polynomial

$$T^m f(a)(x) = \sum_{\ell=0}^m \frac{1}{\ell!} D^\ell f(a)(x-a)$$

provided that all the  $m^{\text{th}}$  order partial derivatives exist at  $a$ . When  $f$  is  $\mathcal{C}^2$  in  $U$  (so that the mixed partial derivatives commute) we have

$$T^2 f(a)(x) = f(a) + Df(a)(x-a) + \frac{1}{2} (x-a)^T Hf(a) (x-a)$$

where  $Hf(a) \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$  is the symmetric matrix with entries  $Hf(a)_{k,\ell} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_\ell}(a)$ . The matrix  $Hf(a)$  is called the **Hessian matrix** of  $f$  at  $a$ .

**6.10 Definition:** Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  be a symmetric matrix. We say that

- (1)  $A$  is **positive-definite** when  $u^T A u > 0$  for all  $0 \neq u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,
- (2)  $A$  is **negative-definite** when  $u^T A u < 0$  for all  $0 \neq u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and
- (3)  $A$  is **indefinite** when there exist  $0 \neq u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $u^T A u > 0$  and  $v^T A v < 0$ .

**6.11 Theorem:** (*Characterization of Positive-Definiteness by Eigenvalues*) Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  be symmetric. Then

- (1)  $A$  is positive-definite if and only if all of the eigenvalues of  $A$  are positive,
- (2)  $A$  is negative-definite if and only if all of the eigenvalues of  $A$  are negative, and
- (3)  $A$  is indefinite if and only if  $A$  has a positive eigenvalue and a negative eigenvalue.

Proof: Suppose that  $A$  is positive definite. Let  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue of  $A$  and let  $u$  be a unit eigenvector for  $\lambda$ . Then  $\lambda = \lambda|u|^2 = \lambda(u \cdot u) = \lambda u \cdot u = Au \cdot u = u^T A u > 0$ . Conversely, suppose that all of the eigenvalues of  $A$  are positive. Since  $A$  is symmetric, we can orthogonally diagonalize  $A$ . Choose a matrix  $P \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  with  $P^T = P$  so that  $P^T A P = D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ . Given  $0 \neq u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , let  $v = P^T u$ . Note that  $v \neq 0$  since  $P^T$  is invertible. Thus  $u^T A u = u^T P D P^T u = v^T D v = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i v_i^2 > 0$  since every  $\lambda_i > 0$  and some  $v_i \neq 0$ . This proves Part (1). The proofs of Parts (2) and (3) are fairly similar.

**6.12 Theorem:** (*Characterization of Positive-Definiteness by Determinant*) Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  be symmetric. For each  $k$  with  $1 \leq k \leq n$ , let  $A^{(k)}$  denote the upper-left  $k \times k$  sub matrix of  $A$ . Then

- (1)  $A$  is positive-definite if and only if  $\det(A^{(k)}) > 0$  for all  $k$  with  $1 \leq k \leq n$ , and
- (2)  $A$  is negative-definite if and only if  $(-1)^k \det(A^{(k)}) > 0$  for all  $k$  with  $1 \leq k \leq n$ .

Proof: Part (2) follows easily from Part (1) by noting that  $A$  is negative-definite if and only if  $-A$  is positive-definite. We shall prove one direction of Part (1). Suppose that  $A$  is positive-definite. Let  $1 \leq k \leq n$ . Since  $u^T A u > 0$  for all  $0 \neq u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have  $(u^T \ 0) A \begin{pmatrix} u \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0$ , or equivalently  $u^T A^{(k)} u > 0$ , for all  $0 \neq u \in \mathbb{R}^k$ . This shows that  $A^{(k)}$  is positive definite. By the previous theorem, all of the eigenvalues of  $A^{(k)}$  are positive. Since  $\det(A^{(k)})$  is equal to the product of its eigenvalues, we see that  $\det(A^{(k)}) > 0$ .

The proof of the other direction of Part (1) is more difficult. We shall omit the proof. It is often proven in a linear algebra course.

**6.13 Exercise:** Let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$ . Determine whether  $A$  is positive-definite.

**6.14 Definition:** Let  $f : A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and let  $a \in A$ . We say that  $f$  has a **local maximum value** at  $a$  when there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $f(a) \geq f(x)$  for all  $x \in B_A(a, r)$ . We say that  $f$  has a **local minimum value** at  $a$  when there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $f(a) \leq f(x)$  for all  $x \in B_A(a, r)$ .

**6.15 Exercise:** Show that when  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $U$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $a \in U$ , if  $f$  has a local maximum or minimum value at  $a$  then either  $Df(a) = 0$  or  $Df(a)$  does not exist (that is one of the partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}(a)$  does not exist).

**6.16 Definition:** Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $U$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . For  $a \in U$ , we say that  $a$  is a **critical point** of  $f$  when either  $Df(a) = 0$  or  $Df(a)$  does not exist. When  $a \in U$  is a critical point of  $f$  but  $f$  does not have a local maximum or minimum value at  $a$ , we say that  $a$  is a **saddle point** of  $f$ .

**6.17 Theorem:** (*The Second Derivative Test*) Let  $f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $U$  open in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $a \in U$ . Suppose that  $f$  is  $\mathcal{C}^2$  in  $U$  with  $Df(a) = 0$ . Then

- (1) if  $Hf(a)$  is positive definite then  $f$  has a local minimum value at  $a$ ,
- (2) if  $Hf(a)$  is negative definite then  $f$  has a local maximum value at  $a$ , and
- (3) if  $Hf(a)$  is indefinite then  $f$  has a saddle point at  $a$ .

Proof: Suppose that  $Hf(a)$  is positive-definite. Then  $\det(Hf(a)^{(k)}) > 0$  for  $1 \leq k \leq n$ . Since each determinant function  $\det(A^{(k)})$  is continuous as a function in the entries of the matrix  $A$ , the set  $V = \{x \in U \mid Hf(x)^{(k)} > 0 \text{ for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$  is open. Choose  $r > 0$  so that  $B(a, r) \subseteq V$ . Then we have  $u^T Hf(c) u > 0$  for all  $0 \neq u \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and all  $c \in B(a, r)$ . Let  $x \in B(a, r)$  with  $x \neq a$ . By Taylor's Theorem, we have

$$f(x) - f(a) - Df(a)(x - a) = (x - a)^T Hf(c)(x - a)$$

for some  $c \in [a, x]$ . Since  $Df(a) = 0$  and  $Hf(c)$  is positive-definite, we have  $f(x) - f(a) > 0$ . Thus  $f$  has a local minimum value at  $a$ . This proves Part (1) and Part (2) is similar.

Let us prove Part (3). Suppose there exists  $0 \neq u \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $u^T Hf(a) u > 0$ . Let  $r > 0$  with  $B(a, r) \subseteq U$  and scale the vector  $u$  if necessary so that  $[a, u] \subseteq B(a, r)$ . Let  $\alpha(t) = a + tu$  and let  $g(t) = f(\alpha(t))$  for  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ . As in the proof of Taylor's Theorem, we have

$$g'(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\alpha(t)) u_i = Df(\alpha(t)) u, \text{ and}$$

$$g''(t) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(\alpha(t)) u_i u_j = u^T Hf(\alpha(t)) u.$$

Since  $g(0) = f(a)$ ,  $g'(0) = Df(a) u = 0$  and  $g''(0) = u^T Hf(a) u > 0$ , it follows from single-variable calculus that we can choose  $t_0$  with  $0 < t_0 < 1$  so that  $g(t_0) > g(0)$ . When  $x = \alpha(t_0)$  we have  $x \in B(a, r)$  and  $f(x) = f(\alpha(t_0)) = g(t_0) > g(0) = f(a)$ , and so  $f$  does not have a local maximum value at  $a$ . Similarly, if there exists  $0 \neq v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $v^T Hf(a) v < 0$  then  $f$  does not have a local minimum value at  $a$ . Thus when  $Hf(a)$  is indefinite,  $f$  has a saddle point at  $a$ .

**6.18 Exercise:** Find and classify the critical points of the following functions  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

(a)  $f(x, y) = x^3 + 2xy + y^2$       (b)  $f(x, y) = x^3 + 3x^2y - 6y^2$       (c)  $f(x, y) = x^2y e^{-x^2 - 2y^2}$