

Multivariable Calculus Winter Notes

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1 Classifying Critical Points

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Note: Theorem numbers come from the order they are presented in lecture, and do not correspond to any textbook or written course material.

Week 1

Classifying Critical Points

Theorem 1.1 2nd Derivative Test

Let $f \in C^2(\Omega)$ and let $a \in \Omega (\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n)$ be a critical point of f .

1. If $H_f(a)$ is positive definite then f has a local minimum at a .
2. If $H_f(a)$ is negative definite then f has a local maximum at a .
3. If $H_f(a)$ is indefinite then f has a saddle point at a .

Recall: Any symmetric $n \times n$ matrix A can be diagonalized, i.e., \exists an orthonormal basis u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n in \mathbb{R}^n and real numbers $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ such that $Au_i = \lambda_i u_i \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Proposition 1.2

Let Q be the quadratic form associated with an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix A . Then:

1. Q is positive \iff all the eigenvalues of A are positive,
2. Q is negative \iff all the eigenvalues of A are negative,
3. Q is indefinite $\iff A$ has both positive and negative eigenvalues.

Corollary 1.3

Let a be a critical point of a C^2 function $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. If $\det H_f(a) \neq 0$, then f has either a local minimum or a local maximum or a saddle point at a .

Definition of degenerate critical points:

A critical point a of a C^2 function f is called non-degenerate if $\det H_f(a) \neq 0$ and degenerate otherwise.

Example of a degenerate critical point:

When $f(x, y) = x^3$ then $(0, 0)$ is a degenerate critical point of f , and f has neither a local extremum at $(0, 0)$ nor a saddle point.

Definition of the principal minors of a matrix:

Let $A = (a_{ij})_{i,j=1}^n$ be an $n \times n$ matrix. Given $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$, we will denote by A_k the $k \times k$ submatrix $A_k = (a_{ij})_{i,j=1}^k$.

The determinants $\det A_k$ are called the **principal minors of A**.

Proposition 1.4

Let A be a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix with $\det A \neq 0$. Then:

1. A is positive definite $\iff \det A_k > 0 \forall k = 1, 2, \dots, n$.
2. A is negative definite $\iff (-1)^k \det A_k > 0 \forall k = 1, 2, \dots, n$.
3. A is indefinite $\iff A$ is neither positive definite nor negative definite.

Corollary 1.5

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \beta & \gamma \end{bmatrix}$. Then:

1. A is positive definite $\iff \alpha > 0$ and $\alpha\gamma - \beta^2 > 0$
2. A is negative definite $\iff \alpha < 0$ and $\alpha\gamma - \beta^2 > 0$
3. A is indefinite $\iff \alpha\gamma - \beta^2 < 0$

Example of classifying a critical point:

We found that the function $f(x, y) = xye^{-x^2-y^2}$ has 5 critical points: $\left(\pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$, $\left(\pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \mp \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$, and $(0, 0)$, with an absolute maximum at $\left(\pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$ and an absolute minimum at $\left(\pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \mp \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$.

Investigate the nature of $(0, 0)$,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [y(1 - 2x^2)e^{-x^2-y^2}] = -4xye^{-x^2-y^2} - 2xy(1 - 2x^2)e^{-x^2-y^2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} [x(1 - 2y^2)e^{-x^2-y^2}] = -4xye^{-x^2-y^2} - 2xy(1 - 2y^2)e^{-x^2-y^2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} &= (1 - 2y^2)e^{-x^2-y^2} - 2x^2(1 - 2y^2)e^{-x^2-y^2}\end{aligned}$$

So $H_f(0, 0) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is indefinite $\implies f$ has a saddle point at $(0, 0)$.

Example of non-degenerate critical points:

Find and classify the critical points of $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $f(x, y, z) = x^3 - y^3 + 3xy + z^2 - 2z$.

$\nabla f = (3x^2 + 3y, -3y^2 + 3x, 2z - 2) = 0 \implies x^2 = -y, y^2 = x, z = 1 \implies x^2 = -y, x^4 = x, z = 1 \implies x^2 = -y, x = 0 \text{ or } x = 1, z = 1 \implies (x, y, z) = (0, 0, 1), (1, -1, 1)$.

So $(0, 0, 1)$ and $(1, -1, 1)$ are the critical points. We have $H_f(x, y, z) = \begin{bmatrix} 6x & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & -6y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$,

so $H_f(0, 0, 1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ is clearly indefinite since the first principal minor is

0 and $H_f(1, -1, 1) = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 3 & 0 \\ 3 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ is positive definite.

So we have non-degenerate critical points (as $\det H_f \neq 0$). Hence, $(0, 0, 1)$ is a saddle point; $(1, -1, 1)$ is a local minimum.

But f has no global extrema because $f(x, 0, 0) = x^3$ can take arbitrarily positive and negative values.

Example of a degenerate critical point:

Let $f(x, y) = x^4 + y^4$ (with $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$).

$\nabla f = (4x^3, 4y^3) = 0 \iff (x, y) = (0, 0)$.

$H_f(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} 12x^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 12y^2 \end{bmatrix}$, $H_f(0, 0) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

So $(0, 0)$ is a degenerate critical point and the 2nd derivative test does not apply. However, f has a global minimum at $(0, 0)$.

Theorem 1.6 The inverse function theorem

Th. A. Let $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be an interval and $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous injective function. Then:

1. f is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing.
2. $f(I)$ is an interval containing the same number of endpoints as I .
3. f is a homeomorphism of I onto $f(I)$.

Proof. 1. Let us first consider the case that $I = [a, b]$ ($a < b$). Since f is injective, either $f(a) < f(b)$ or $f(b) < f(a)$. Assume that $f(a) < f(b)$ (the other case can be done symmetrically). Let's show that f is strictly increasing on $[a, b]$, i.e., $f(x) < f(y)$ whenever $a \leq x < y \leq b$. We argue by contradiction, supposing that $f(x) > f(y)$ for some $a \leq x < y \leq b$.

Note that $f(y) > f(a)$, for otherwise $f(y) < f(a) < f(b)$ and by the Intermediate Value Theorem (IVT), $\exists \alpha \in (y, b)$ such that $f(\alpha) = f(a)$, contradicting the injectivity of f . Therefore $f(a) < f(y) < f(x)$ and so, again, by the IVT $\exists y' \in (a, x)$ such that $f(y') = f(y)$, again contradicting the injectivity of f .

Next, let I be any interval. Pick up any $a, b \in I$ with $a < b$. Suppose that $f(a) < f(b)$ (the case $f(a) > f(b)$ can be done symmetrically). By the previous paragraph, we know that f is strictly increasing on $[a, b]$. Now, if $x, y \in I$ and $x < y$, then with $\alpha = \min\{a, x\}$, $\beta = \max\{y, b\}$, we have $[a, b], [x, y] \subseteq [\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Since f is strictly increasing on $[a, b]$, we must have (using the 1st paragraph again) $f(\alpha) < f(\beta)$ and f is strictly increasing on $[\alpha, \beta]$. Hence, we conclude that f is strictly increasing on I .

2. Since f is continuous, $J = f(I)$ is an interval. Suppose that f is strictly increasing. Note that the inverse function f^{-1} is then also strictly increasing.

Now, if I contains its left endpoint a , then $\forall x \in I$, $f(a) \leq f(x)$, so $f(a)$ is a left endpoint of J . Similarly, if I contains its right endpoint b , then $f(b)$ is the right endpoint of J . Applying the same argument with f^{-1} in place of f , we conclude if I contains its left (respectively, right) endpoint c , then $f^{-1}(c)$ is the left (respectively, right) endpoint of I . It follows that I and J contain the same number of endpoints.

3. If $I = [a, b]$, then f is a homeomorphism of I onto $f(I)$ because of our general result about continuous injective functions on compact sets.

Otherwise, it follows that $f|_{[a, b]}$ is a homeomorphism onto $f([a, b])$ for any $a, b \in I$ with $a \leq b$. This implies that $f^{-1} : f(I) \rightarrow I$ is continuous (at any $y \in f(I)$).

Indeed, let $y \in f(I)$ and consider any sequence (y_n) in $f(I)$ with $y_n \rightarrow y$. Then the set $S = \{y\} \cup \{y_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is compact, so it has both a smallest element $c = f(a)$ and a largest element $d = f(b)$. Assuming that f is strictly increasing we must have $a \leq b$, and $f([a, b]) = [c, d] \supseteq S$. Since $f|_{[a, b]}$ is a homeomorphism onto $[c, d]$ (i.e., $(f|_{[a, b]})^{-1} = f^{-1}|_{[c, d]}$ is continuous), we obtain $f^{-1}(y_n) = (f^{-1}|_{[c, d]})(y_n) \rightarrow (f^{-1}|_{[c, d]})(y) = f^{-1}(y)$. It follows that f^{-1} is continuous at any $y \in f(I)$.

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