# Section 2

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#### 1 Partial Derivatives

- The slope of f(x,y) depends on the direction in the xy-plane
  - The slope in the x-direction is called the partial derivative of f with respect to x
  - The slope in the y-direction is called the partial derivative of f with respect to y
  - Notation:  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  or  $f_x$ ,  $f_y$
  - For Second Derivatives:  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}$  or  $f_{xx}$ ,  $f_{xy}$ ,  $f_{yx}$ ,  $f_{yy}$

If  $f, f_x, f_y$ , and  $f_{xy}$  are defined in a small disc around  $(x_o, y_o)$  and  $f_{yx}$  is continuous, then:

$$f_{xy} = f_{yx}$$
 in that disc

- The gradient of f
  - Given  $f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ , the gradient of f,  $\overline{\nabla} f = \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}, ..., \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \right\rangle$
  - It can be computed at a point:  $\overline{\nabla} f(p) = \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(p), \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}(p), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(p) \right\rangle$
  - $\overline{\nabla} f \approx f'(x_o) \Delta x$

# 2 Linear Approximation, Tangent Planes, and the Differential

- In calculus I, the linear approximation is given by:  $f(x) \approx f(a) + f'(a)(x-a)$
- In calculus III, the approximation uses the gradient:  $\Delta f \approx \overline{\nabla} f(p) \cdot \Delta \overline{x}$
- Ex. in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  z = f(x, y), p = (a, b):

$$\Delta f \approx \overline{\nabla} f(a,b) \cdot \langle x-a, y-b \rangle \Rightarrow f(x,y) - f(a,b) \Rightarrow f(a,b) + f_x(a,b)(x-a) + f_y(a,b)(y-b)$$

Thus:

$$f(x,y) \approx f(a,b) + f_x(a,b)(x-a) + f_y(a,b)(y-b)$$

We find the linearization of f(x,y) near (a,b) (in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ )

• Linearization of f(x,y) near (a,b) is denoted by  $L_f(\overline{x},\overline{p})$ , where p is the vector  $\langle a,b\rangle$ 

• Ex. Given a cylinder of radius r = .5 and a height of h = 1, estimate the change in volume when the radius is increased by .1 and the height is decreased by .1

$$V = \pi r^2 h \Rightarrow \Delta V \approx 2\pi (.5)(1)(r - .5) + \pi (.5)^2 (h - 1) = \pi (r - .5) + .25\pi (h - 1) \approx$$
$$-.75\pi + \pi r + .25\pi h \Rightarrow -.75\pi + \pi (.6) + .25\pi (.9) = .075\pi$$

- The graph of  $z = L_f(\overline{x}, \overline{p})$  is called the tangent set to f at p
- Differentials

$$- df = \overline{\nabla} f \cdot d\overline{x}$$

$$- df = f_x dx + f_y dy + f_z dz$$

$$- df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} dx_1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} dx_2 + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} dx_n$$

- Relative Differentials
  - $-\frac{df}{f}$
  - Think of this as a stencil for relative error  $\left(\frac{\Delta f}{f}\right)$

#### 3 Differentiation Rules

• Linearity of differentiation

1. 
$$\nabla(af \pm bg) = a\nabla f \pm b\nabla g$$

• Product rule

2. 
$$\nabla (fg)(p) = \nabla f(p)g(p) = \nabla g(p)f(p)$$

• Quotient rule

3. 
$$\nabla \left(\frac{f}{g}\right)\Big|_p = \frac{g(p)\nabla f(p) - f(p)\nabla g(p)}{g^2(p)}$$

• Power rule

4. 
$$\nabla f^{\alpha}(p) = \alpha f^{\alpha-1}(p) \nabla f(p)$$

• Chain rule

5. 
$$\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt} + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\frac{dz}{dt} \Rightarrow \nabla f \cdot \frac{d\overline{x}}{dt}$$

• Ex. A particle is moving through space. At t=2 seconds, the particle is at (3,4,7), and is moving with velocity  $\langle -2,1,5\rangle$  meters per second. Suppose that there is also an electric potential in space, given by  $\phi(x,y,z)=xy-z^2$  volts. Find the instantaneous rate of change, with respect to time t, of the electric potential at the particle's position at t=2 seconds.

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt}\Big|_{t=2} = \nabla\phi(\langle 3, 4, 7 \rangle) \cdot \frac{d\overline{p}}{dt}\Big|_{t=2} = \nabla\phi(\langle 3, 4, 7 \rangle) \cdot v(2) \Rightarrow$$

$$\nabla \phi = \langle y, x, -2z \rangle (\langle 3, 4, 7 \rangle) = \langle 4, 3, -14 \rangle \Rightarrow \langle 4, 3, -14 \rangle \cdot \langle -2, 1, 5 \rangle = -75 \text{ volts per second}$$

#### 4 The Directional Derivative

- Directions live in the input of the function
- Same is true for  $\nabla f$
- What is rate of change of z = f(x, y) in the direction  $\overline{u}$ ?
  - Fix point p in xy-plane
  - Choose direction ( $\overline{u}$ -direction) in xy-plane
  - $D_{\overline{u}}f(p) = \nabla f(p) \cdot \overline{u}$ 
    - \* This is the derivative of f at p in the direction of  $\overline{u}$
- Alternative: Fix f(x,y) and point p, but  $\overline{u}$  varies
- What is  $\overline{u}$  in which f(x,y) changes in the fastest possible way?
  - When the angle between the direction and  $\nabla f$  is  $\theta = 0$  (because  $\cos(\theta)$ ) is greatest at this angle
    - \* Smallest occurs in opposite directions (when  $\theta = \pi$ ) because  $\cos(\theta)$  is the largest possible negative
    - \* Equals zero when  $\overline{u} \perp \nabla f(p) \left(i.e. \ \theta = \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$
  - Thus,  $D_{\overline{u}}f(p)$  is largest possible in direction of  $\nabla f(p)$
  - The largest rate is the magnitude of the gradient vector  $(|\nabla f(p)|)$ 
    - \* The largest rate is the negative magnitude,  $-|\nabla f(p)|$
  - This is all assuming that  $\nabla f(p) \neq 0$

#### 5 Level Sets and Gradient Vectors

- Given z = f(x, y)
  - Pick a constant, c
  - Plug it in for z, such that f(x,y) = c
  - The level curve of f(x, y) corresponding to c is formed
- $Ex. \ z = x^2 + y^2$ 
  - At c = -1, there is nothing to draw because there are no real solutions
  - At c = 0, there is one point at the origin (0,0)
  - At c = 1, we obtain a circle of radius one
  - At c = 4, we obtain a circle of radius two
- The level curves corresponding to different values of c can not intersect
- The gradient vector  $\overline{\nabla} f(p)$  is always perpendicular  $(\bot)$  to the level curve passing through p
- Implicit functions do not expressly define one variable in terms of different variables (Ex.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ ), while explicit functions do (Ex.  $z = \cos(y) + e^x$ )
- To find the tangent line function, use the formula  $\overline{\nabla} f(p) \cdot \langle X p \rangle = 0$

### 6 Parametrizing Surfaces

- A line in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ :  $\begin{cases} x = x_o + at \\ y = y_o + bt \\ z = z_o + ct \end{cases}$
- A circle in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ :  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x = r\cos(\theta) \\ y = r\sin(\theta) \end{array} \right.$ , where r is the radius
- Parametrizing a surface
  - Parametrization should be differentiable
  - Using u and v creates  $\overline{r}(u,v)$ , so that  $\overline{r}_u \times \overline{r}_v \neq 0$
  - $\overline{r}_u$  should not be parallel to  $\overline{r}_v$
  - A parametrization satisfying this property is said to be regular
  - Ex. Parametrize the cone with equation  $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ :  $\begin{cases} x = u \cos(v) \\ y = u \sin(v) \\ u \end{cases}$

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• The equation of a tangent plane  $a\overline{r}_u(u_o, v_o) + b\overline{r}_v(u_o, v_o)$ 

#### 7 Local Extrema

- In Calc I, critical points occurred where f'(x) = 0 or undefined with the first derivative test, or depending on concavity for the second derivative test
- The second derivative test was as follows:
  - If f''(p) > 0, p is a local min
  - If f''(p) < 0, p is a local max
  - If f''(p) = 0, p is neither
- In Calc III, critical points occur where  $\nabla f = 0$  or undefined, but the first derivative test is not practical
- The second derivative test is now done as:
  - Hessian Matrix:  $\begin{bmatrix} f_{xx}(p) & f_{yx}(p) \\ f_{xy}(p) & f_{yy}(p) \end{bmatrix}$ , then find the determinant:
  - $D = f_{xx}(p)f_{yy}(p) f_{xy}^{2}(p)$
  - A critical point p is non-degenerate if  $D \neq 0$
  - Assuming p is non-degenerate:
    - \* If D > 0 and  $f_{xx}(p) > 0$ , then f has a local minimum at p
    - \* If D > 0 and  $f_{xx}(p) < 0$ , then f has a local maximum at p
    - \* If D < 0, then p is a saddle point of f
- Saddle points occur where there are critical points, but a local extreme value is not contained

#### 8 Optimization

- Optimization involves finding the largest or smallest value of a function
  - Can be constrained or unconstrained
  - Unconstrained assumes there are no limits on the inputs of a function
  - Constrained contains limits on inputs
- The Unconstrained Case:
  - 1. Find critical points in the interior of the domain, and find values of the function at those points
  - 2. Work out the boundaries

#### • Steps to Solve

- 1. Determine critical points in the interior of the domain. Compute and tabulate the values of function at these points
- 2. Proceed to the boundary, and find all critical points interior of the boundary; compute and tabulate
- 3. Keep going

# 9 Lagrange Multipliers

- Lagrange Multipliers
  - Find the largest/smallest value of f, subject to some constraint (e.g. g = c)
  - Compute  $\overline{\nabla} f = \lambda \overline{\nabla} g$  (where f is the objective function, and g is the constraining function)