The basis of Multivariable Calculus

If a function is continuous and differentiable, on a small enough interval, the function will approximate a line (i.e., a function of x).

A similar intuition applies to functions of more than one variable (but with a plane, cube, hypercube, etc.). However, in multivariable functions, we will have to sacrifice the ability to visualize it.

For example, in multiple dimensions, it is possible for there to be a function that is both strictly decreasing (in one dimension) and strictly increasing (in another dimension).

Some Functions and Sets

$$f(x,y) = x^2 - y^2$$

Domain: $\{(x,y) \mid \exists f(x,y)\}$

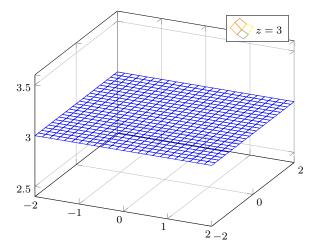
Range: $\{f(x,y) \mid (x,y) \in \text{Dom}(f)\} = \mathbb{R}$

Graph: $Graph(f) = \{x, y, f(x, y) \mid x, y \in Dom(f)\}$. For example, $(1, 3, 4) \notin Graph(f)$ since $1^2 - 3^2 \neq 4$.

Examples

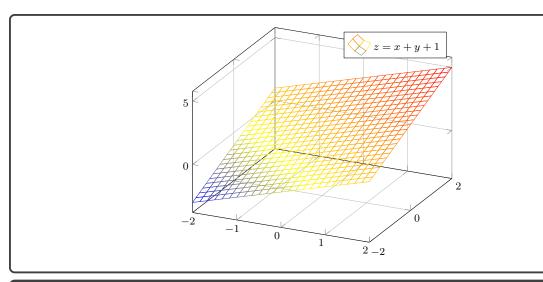
In \mathbb{R}^3 , in x, y, z coordinates, z = 3 is a plane defined as follows:

- \bullet Parallel to the xy plane.
- Passes through the point (0.0, 3).



Meanwhile, y = 0 would be a "wall" that passes through the origin that contains the line y = 0 in the xy plane.

Finally, z = x + y + 1 is a plane, as we can see below.

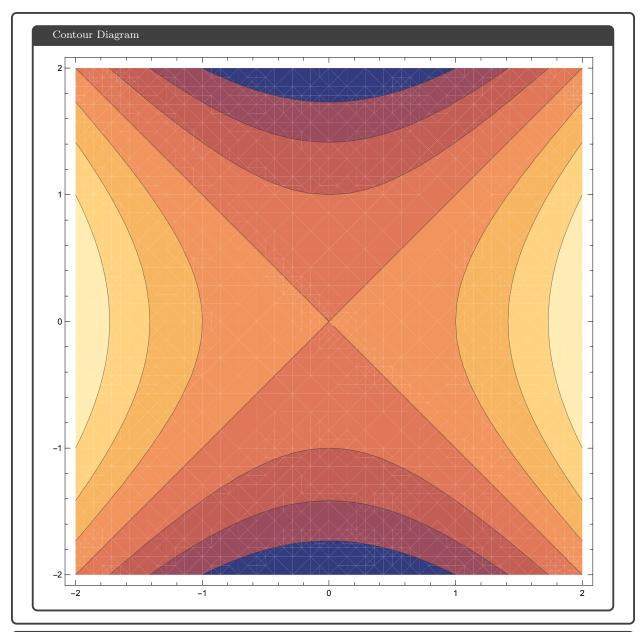


Visualizing a function of multiple variables

Consider the function $f(x,y) = x^2 - y^2$. We can try visualizing slices as follows:

- $f(-2,y) = 4 y^2$
- $f(0,y) = -y^2$
- $f(2,y) = 4 y^2$
- $f(x,-2) = x^2 + 4$
- $f(x,0) = x^2$
- $f(x,2) = x^2 + 4$

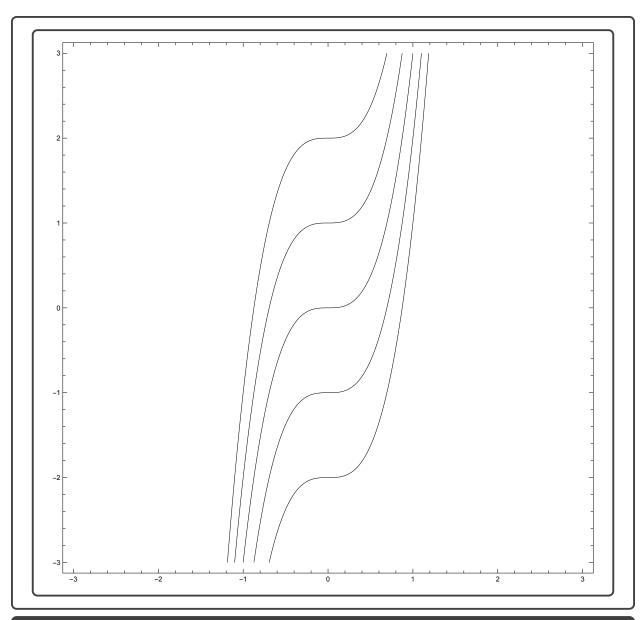
Alternatively, we can visualize via contour diagrams (i.e., everywhere that z is a certain value), as seen in mathematica as follows:



Contour Example

Consider the function $f(x,y) = y - 3x^2$. We want to find the contours.

For any c, we have that $c=y-3x^3$, or $y=3x^3+c$. Therefore, every contour "looks like" $3x^3+c$ for values of c. For example, in the following, we have $c=\{-2,-1,0,1,2\}$

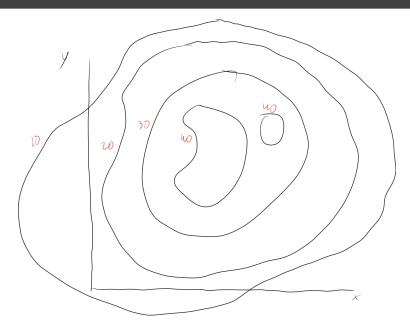


Distance

In \mathbb{R}^5 , let p=(3,1,4,1,5), and q=(1,0,-2,0,2). Using the Euclidean metric, we can find the distance between p and q is $d(p,q)=((3-1)^2+(1-0)^2+(4-(-2))^2+(1-0)^2+(5-2)^2)^{1/2}=(4+1+36+1+9)^{1/2}=\sqrt{51}=7.14$. We can also call this the 2-norm.

$$d(p,q) = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} (p_k - q_k)^2\right)^{1/2}$$

Derivatives



To denote a derivative, we can't talk about one value, we must use a partial derivative, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$, or $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$. The closeness of the contours specifies both resolution and steepness.

We can estimate slope by calculating the difference between two contours, divided by the distance between them along a path.

We can also analyze via a table:

A "linear" approximation for a function of two variables is expressed as follows:

$$z - z_0 = m(x - x_0) + n(y - y_0)$$

Where $(x_0, y_0, z_0) \in \mathbb{R}^3$, and is an output in z = f(x, y), and $m, n \in \mathbb{R}$.

For example, with the above table, we can see that the function is linear in x and y (i.e., the slope holding the other variable constant is constant).

Limits in Multivariable Functions

Consider the following:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 - y^2}$$

Allow y = mx

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 - y^2} = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^2 + (mx)^2}{x^2 - (mx)^2}$$
$$= \frac{1 + m^2}{1 - m^2}$$

Thus, the limit must depend on the path taken. The following table shows the limits for different values of m

$$\begin{array}{c|c} m & \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 - y^2} \\ \hline 0 & 1 \\ 1 & \text{undefined} \\ 2 & -\frac{5}{3} \end{array}$$

Because the limit depends on the path of incidence, we have that the limit is undefined.

For graphs where the contours "approach" a particular point, we can see that the limit is defined.

Vectors

A vector is a mathematical object with direction and magnitude:

$$\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Alternatively, we can have $\vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$. These vectors are equivalent because they are components of \mathbb{R}^3 .

Vector addition is component-wise, (i.e., you add or subtract components in order to find the new vectors).

Direction of \vec{v}

$$\frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|}$$

Properties of Vectors

Let $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Via properties of the real numbers, we know the following:

- $\bullet \ \vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$
- $(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w} = \vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w})$
- $c\vec{u} = \langle cu_1, cu_2, \dots, cu_k \rangle$

Additionally, we define $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}$ as follows:

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} u_k v_k = ||\vec{u}|| ||\vec{v}|| \cos \theta$$

Partial Derivatives

Consider $f(x,y) = x^2y + xe^y$.

$$f_x := \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$$

$$f_x(a, b) = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(a, b)}$$

We know that $f \in C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R})$, meaning f is endlessly differentiable.

Functions and Approximations

Let $f(x,y) = x^2 - y^2$, g(x,y) = 2xy

- $\bullet \ f_{xx} + f_{yy} = 0$
- $\bullet \ g_{xx} + g_{yy} = 0$

This is the solution to the Laplace equation:

$$0 = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

For f(x,y) at (a,b,f(a,b)), we have the following:

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

$$q(x,y) = \ell(x,y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(f_{xx}(a,b)(x-a)^2 + 2f_{xy}(a,b)(x-a)(y-b) + f_{yy}(a,b)(y-b)^2 \right)$$

In order to get a sense of the "derivative," we can use the following:

$$\nabla f(x,y) = \langle f_x(x,y), f_y(x,y) \rangle$$

Directional Derivative and Gradient

Given f(x,y) and (a,b), where $f \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$. Then, the quadratic approximation is:

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

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \left(f_{xx}(a,b)(x-a)^2 + f_{yy}(a,b)(y-b)^2 + f_{xy}(a,b)(x-a)(y-b) \right)$$

$$df = f_x(a,b)dx + f_y(a,b)dy$$

$$\Delta f = f_x(a,b)\Delta x + f_y(a,b)\Delta y$$
a differential

Evaluating $f(x,y) = xe^y$ at (a,b) = (-1,0)

$$f_x = e^y$$

$$f_y = xe^y$$

$$f_x(-1,0) = 1$$

$$f_y(-1,0) = -1$$

$$\Delta f = \Delta x - \Delta u$$

On a given contour map, let $\vec{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$ denote a *unit* vector in a direction that we want to find the derivative of f in.

$$f_{\vec{u}}(x,y) = \nabla f(a,b) \cdot \vec{u}$$

Where

$$\nabla f(a,b) = \langle f_x(a,b), f_y(a,b) \rangle$$

The directional derivative for all vectors \vec{v} is as follows:

$$f_{\vec{v}} = \nabla f \cdot \frac{\vec{v}}{||\vec{v}|}$$

Chain Rule

Let f(x,y) be a function where x-x(t) and y=y(t). We want to find

$$\frac{d}{dt}f(x(t),y(t)) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt}$$

The chain rule works in higher dimensions too. Consider $k(x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_{152}(t))$. Then,

$$\frac{dk}{dt} = \sum_{i=1}^{152} \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_i} \frac{dx_i}{dt}$$

We can also view this as a vector. Let $\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \\ \vdots \\ x_{152}(t) \end{pmatrix}$. Then, we can write $\frac{dk}{dt}$ more succinctly as follows:

$$\frac{dk}{dt} = \nabla k \cdot \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}$$

For example, let $f(x, y, z) = 3x^2y + zx + 2$, where x = x(t), y = y(t), z = z(t)

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \begin{pmatrix} 6xy + z \\ 3x^2 \\ x \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x'(t) \\ y'(t) \\ z'(t) \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= (6xy + z) x'(t) + 3x^2 y'(t) + xz'(t)$$

So, if we let $x(t) = \sin(t)$, $y(t) = e^t$, and $z(t) = t^2 + 1$. Then, we have

$$\frac{df}{dt} = 6\sin(t)\cos(t)e^t + t^2\cos(t) + \cos(t) + 3e^t\sin^2(t) + 2t\sin(t)$$

Alternatively, consider $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + yz + e^y$, where $x(s, t) = st, y = y(s, t) = t + s^2, z = z(s, t) = e^t$. Let

$$\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x(s,t) \\ y(s,t) \\ z(s,t) \end{pmatrix}$$

Then, we have

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} &= \nabla f \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{x}}{\partial t} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial s} &= \nabla f \cdot \frac{\partial \vec{x}}{\partial s} \end{split}$$

Evaluating the first expression, we have

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = \begin{pmatrix} 2x \\ z + e^y \\ y \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} s \\ 1 \\ e^t \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= 2s^2t + 3^t + e^{t+s^2} + (t+s^2)e^t$$

Consider f(x, y(x)). Then, we have

$$\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx}$$

This is the technique we use to find implicit differentiation.

We know as a result that $\nabla f(a,b)$ is orthogonal to the contour curve at (a,b)

Recap

In \mathbb{R}^3 , find the plane that contains $P = (P_1, P_2, P_3)$, Q, and R. We can find it by the following:

$$0 = \vec{n} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x - P_1 \\ y - P_2 \\ z - P_3 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$0 = n_1(x - P_1) + n_2(y - P_2) + n_3(z - P_3)$$

where

$$\vec{n} = \overrightarrow{PQ} \times \overrightarrow{QR}$$

Differentiability

A function f(x) of one variable is differentiable at x = a if

$$f(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} f(a+h)$$

and

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

exists and is bounded

We can also linearize the function. f is differentiable if

$$f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + E(x)$$

where
$$\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{E(a+h)}{h} = 0$$
.

In the multiple dimensions example, we have f(x,y) is differentiable if

$$f(x,y) = \ell(x,y) + E(x,y)$$

where $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0, k \rightarrow 0} \frac{E(a+h,b+k)}{\sqrt{h^2+k^2}} = 0$

Local Maxima

Let $f(x,y) = x^2 + 2y^2$. We want to find (a,b) which are local maxima, minima, or other.

(a,b) is a local maximum if $f(a,b) \ge f(x,y) \ \forall (x,y) \in V_{\varepsilon}(a,b)$, where $\varepsilon > 0$.

(1) Find Critical Points for $f(x,y): f_x(x,y), f_y(x,y) = 0, f_x(x,y), f_y(x,y)$ are undefined.

$$f_x(x,y) = 2x$$

 $f_y(x,y) = 4y$
 $f_x(0,0) = 0$
 $f_y(0,0) = 0$
 $f(0,0) = 0$
 $f(x,y) > 0$ $\forall (x,y) \neq (0,0)$

For all $x, y, f_{xx} = 2, f_{yy} = 4$, and $f_{xy} = 0$. Finally,

$$D(x,y) = f_{xx}(x,y) \cdot f_{yy}(x,y) + f_{xy}(x,y)^{2}$$

$$= 8$$

$$> 0$$

Since D(x,y) > 0, we look at the sign of f_{xx} . Since it is positive, f(0,0) has a local minimum.