

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

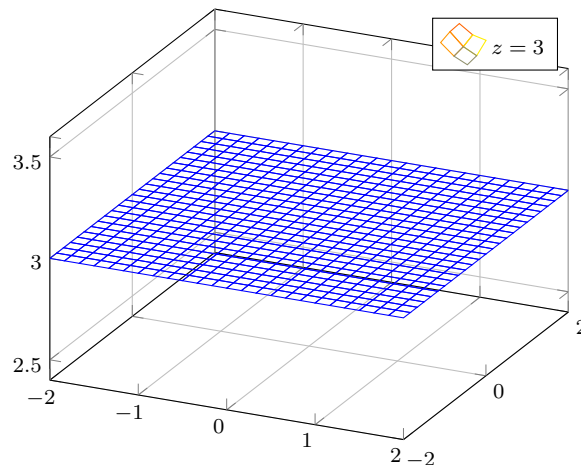
RANGE:  $\{f(x, y) \mid (x, y) \in \text{Dom}(f)\} = \mathbb{R}$

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

### Examples

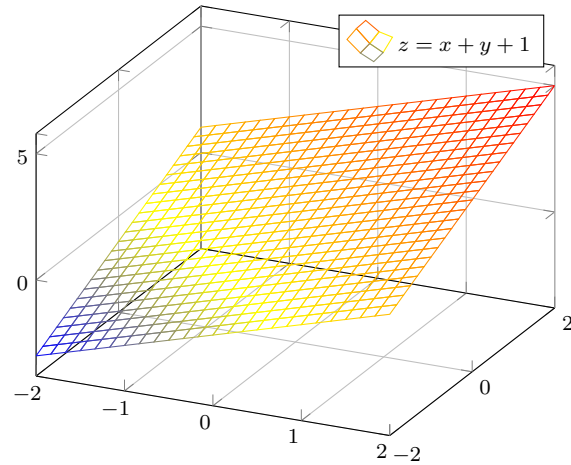
In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , in  $x, y, z$  coordinates,  $z = 3$  is a plane defined as follows:

- 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.

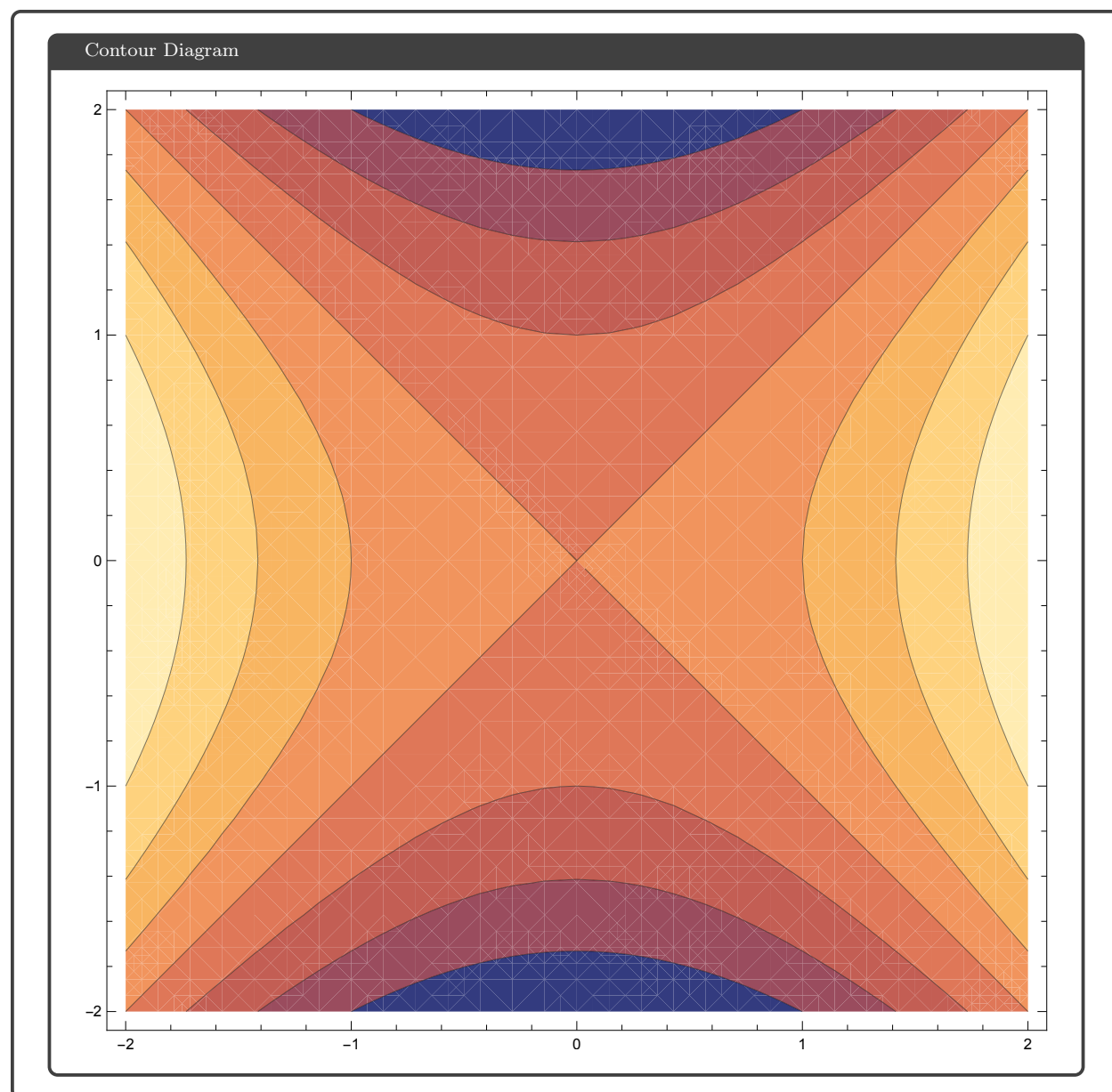


### Visualizing a function of multiple variables

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

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

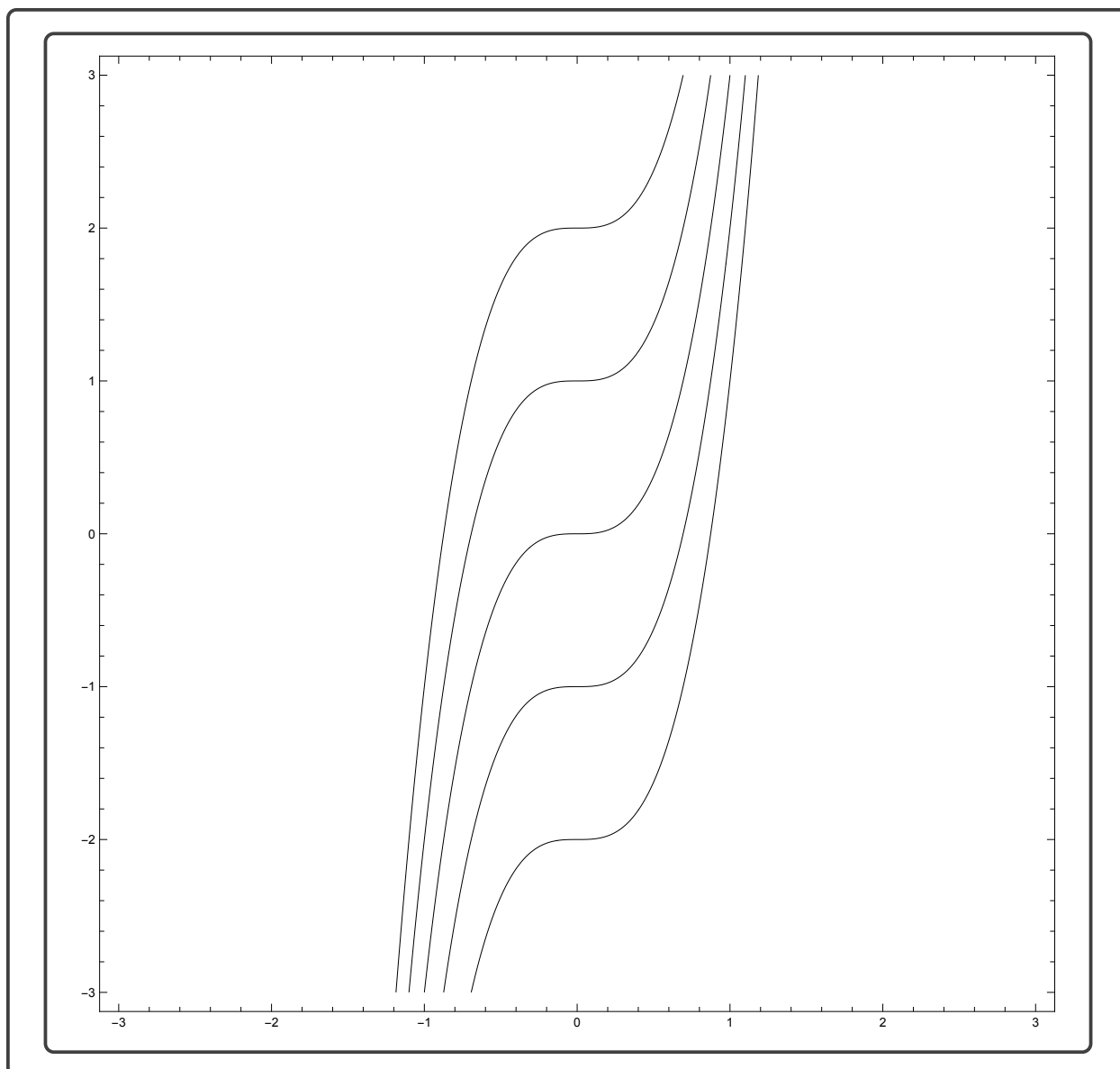
Alternatively, we can visualize via contour diagrams (i.e., everywhere that  $z$  is a certain value), as seen in mathematica as follows:



#### Contour Example

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

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

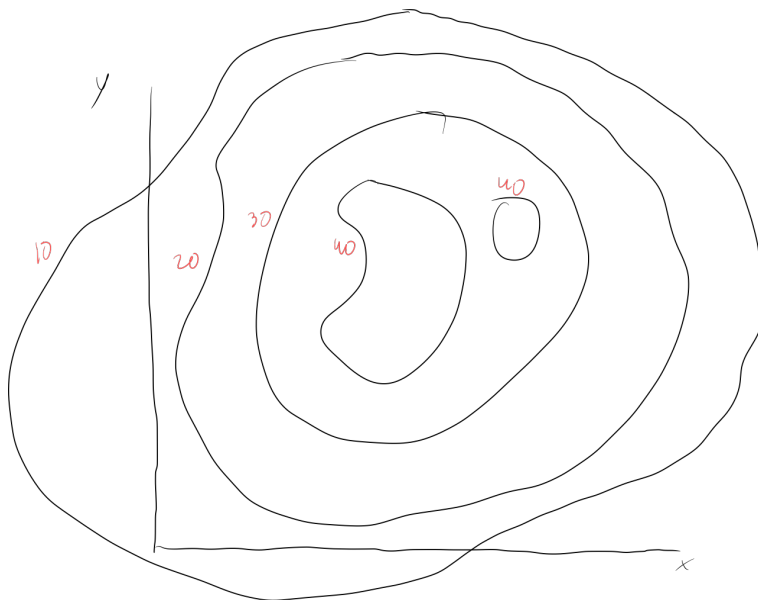


### Distance

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:

$x \backslash y$	0	1	2
4	5	6	7
6	8	9	10
8	11	12	13

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:

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

Allow  $y = mx$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 - y^2} &= \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + (mx)^2}{x^2 - (mx)^2} \\ &= \frac{1 + m^2}{1 - m^2} \end{aligned}$$

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

$m$	$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 - y^2}$
0	1
1	undefined
2	$-\frac{5}{3}$

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  $\vec{w} = [3 \quad 1 \quad 4]$ . 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:

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

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

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

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:

$$\begin{aligned}\ell(x, y) &= f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b) \\ q(x, y) &= \ell(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} (f_{xx}(a, b)(x - a)^2 + 2f_{xy}(a, b)(x - a)(y - b) + f_{yy}(a, b)(y - b)^2)\end{aligned}$$

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:

$$\begin{aligned}f(x, y) &\approx f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} (f_{xx}(a, b)(x - a)^2 + f_{yy}(a, b)(y - b)^2 + f_{xy}(a, b)(x - a)(y - b))\end{aligned}$$

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

a differential

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

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

$$f_x = e^y$$

$$f_y = xe^y$$

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

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

$$\Delta f = \Delta x - \Delta y$$

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  $x = x(t)$ ,  $y = y(t)$ ,  $z = z(t)$

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

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

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

Evaluating the first expression, we have

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

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  $(a, b)$