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

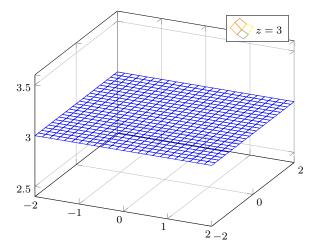
Range:  $\{f(x,y) \mid (x,y) \in \text{Dom}(f)\} = \mathbb{R}$ 

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

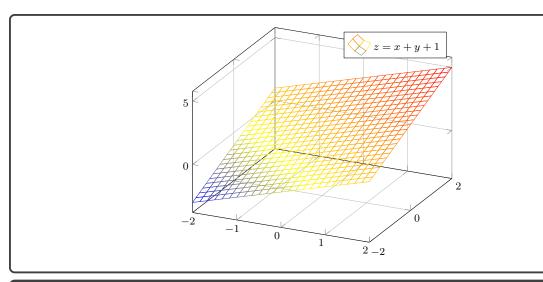
In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , in x, y, z coordinates, z = 3 is a plane defined as follows:

- $\bullet$  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.

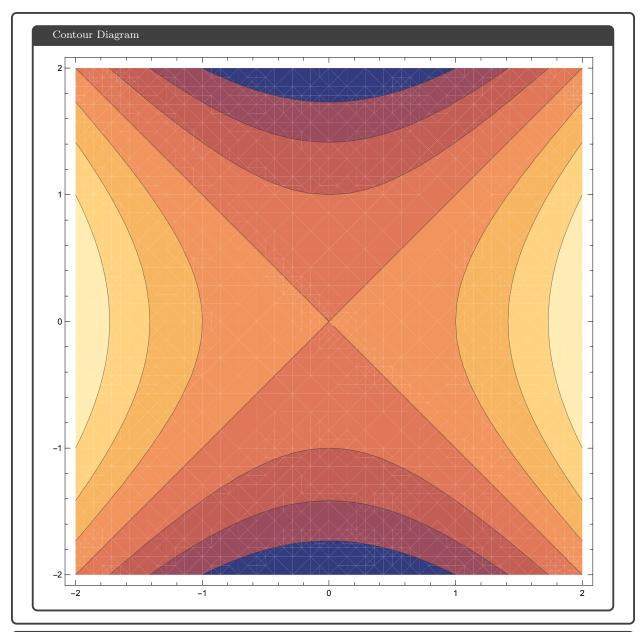


# Visualizing a function of multiple variables

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

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

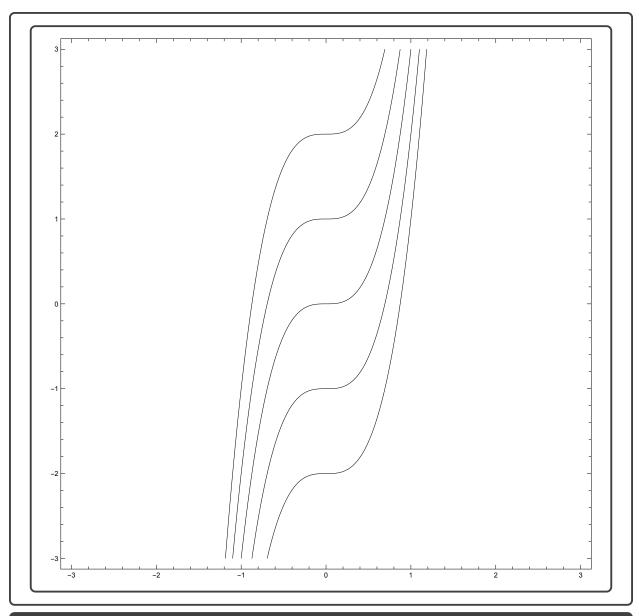
Alternatively, we can visualize via contour diagrams (i.e., everywhere that z is a certain value), as seen in mathematica as follows:



# 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  $c=\{-2,-1,0,1,2\}$ 

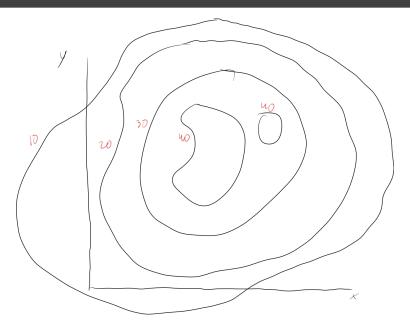


# Distance

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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:

$$\begin{split} f(x,y) &\approx f(a,b) + f_x(a,b)(x-a) + f_x(a,b)(y-b) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \left( f_{xx}(a,b)(x-a)^2 + f_{yy}(a,b)(y-b)^2 + f_{xy}(a,b)(x-a)(y-b) \right) \\ df &= f_x(a,b)dx + f)y(a,b)dy \end{aligned} \quad \text{a differential} \\ \Delta f &= f_x(a,b)\Delta x + f_y(a,b)\Delta y \end{split}$$

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:

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

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

$$ec{x} = egin{pmatrix} x(s,t) \\ y(s,t) \\ z(s,t) \end{pmatrix}$$

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)

## $\operatorname{Recap}$

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

## 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.

## Local Maxima and Minima Approach

Given f(x, y), we want

(1) Find critical points:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 0$$

(2) Compute  $f_{xx}, f_{yy}, f_{xy}, D = f_x x f_y y - (f_x y)^2$ 

(3)

$f_{xx}$	D	Critical Point
+	+	Local Minimum
-	+	Local Maximum
$\pm$	-	Saddle Point
$\pm$	0	Nothing

Consider the function

$$f(x,y) = \ln(x^{2} + y^{2} + 1)$$
  

$$f(0,0) = 0$$
  

$$f(x,y) > 0$$

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= \frac{2x}{x^2 + y^2 + 1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= \frac{2y}{x^2 + y^2 + 1} \end{split}$$

Critical Points: (0,0)

$$\begin{split} \left. \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right|_{(0,0)} &= \frac{2(x^2 + y^2 + 1) - 4x^2}{(x^2 + y^2 + 1)^2} \\ &= 2 \\ \left. \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right|_{(0,0)} &= \frac{2(x^2 + y^2 + 1) - 4y^2}{(x^2 + y^2 + 1)^2} \\ &= 2 \\ \left. \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \right|_{(0,0)} &= \frac{-4xy}{(x^2 + y^2 + 1)^2} \\ &= 0 \end{split}$$

Now, consider the function

$$\begin{split} f(x,y) &= x^2 - 2xy + y^2 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= 2x - 2y \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= -2x + 2y \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} &= 2 \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} &= 2 \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} &= -2 \\ D &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2 \\ &= 0 \end{split}$$

Therefore, the critical points of this function are indeterminate with the given approach. However, we know that  $f(x,y) = (x-y)^2 = 0$  when x = y, so the line y = x is a local minimum trough in 3-space.

Now, consider the function

$$f(x,y) = (x-1)^2(y+2)$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2(x-1)(y+2)$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = (x-1)^2$$

Critical points: 
$$\{(1,y)\mid y\in\mathbb{R}\}$$
 
$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}=2(y+2)$$
 
$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}=0$$
 
$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x\partial y}=2(x-1)$$
 
$$D=0-(2(x-1))^2$$

Evaluating D at critical points

## Finding Critical Points

Let 
$$f(x,y) = (y^2 + 2)\sin(x)$$
. on  $[-2,2] \times [-2,2]$ 

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = (y^2 + 2)\cos(x)$$

$$= 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y\sin(x)$$

$$= 0$$

$$(x,y) = \left(\frac{(2n+1)\pi}{2},0\right)$$

$$= \{(\pi/2,0),(-\pi/2,0)\}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = -(y^2 + 2)\sin(x)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 2\sin(x)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = 2y\cos(x)$$

$$D(x,y) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2$$

$$= -2(y^2 + 2)\sin^2(x) - 4y^2\cos^2(x)$$

Therefore, the critical points are saddle points. If there is no domain restriction, we have a series of saddle points all along y = 0.

## Why Finding Critical Points Works

We create the Taylor series of f(x, y) at  $(x_0, y_0)$ :

$$f(x,y) \approx \ell(x_0, y_0) + \frac{1}{2} \left( f_{xx}(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0)^2 + 2f_{xy}(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0)(y - y_0) + f_{yy}(y - y_0)^2 \right)$$

$$= f(x_0, y_0) + \nabla f(x, y) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x - x_0 \\ y - y_0 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} x - x_0 \\ y - y_0 \end{pmatrix}^T \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) & f_{xy}(x_0, y_0) \\ f_{yx}(x_0, y_0) & f_{yy}(x_0, y_0) \\ f_{yx}(x_0, y_0) & f_{yy}(x_0, y_0) \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{Hessian}} \begin{pmatrix} x - x_0 \\ y - y_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

If the Hessian is positive definite, then  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 > 0$  and the critical point is a local min. If the Hessian is negative definite, then  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 < 0$  and the critical point is a local max.

In any given  $2 \times 2$  matrix, the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  are such that  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = \text{Tr}(A)$  and  $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = \text{Det}(A)$ .