

## 14.1 Functions of Several Variables

### Functions of Two Variables

- A function  $f$  of two variables is a rule that assigns to each ordered pair of real numbers  $(x, y)$  in a set  $D$  a unique real number denoted by  $f(x, y)$ . The set  $D$  is the domain of  $f$  and its range is the set of values that  $f$  takes on, that is,  $\{f(x, y) \mid (x, y) \in D\}$

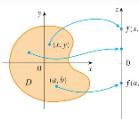


FIGURE 1

- A function of two variables is just a function whose domain is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and whose range is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$

\* Not all functions can be represented by explicit formulas

$$\text{Cobb-Douglas Production Function : } P(L, k) = 1.01 \cdot L^{0.75} K^{0.25}, \quad L \geq 0, K \geq 0$$

-  $P$  is the total production,  $L$  is the amount of labor, and  $K$  is the amount of capital invested

### Graphs :

#### Level Curves :

- The level curves of a function  $f$  of two variables are the curves with equations  $f(x, y) = K$ , where  $K$  is a constant
- A level curve  $f(x, y) = K$  is the set of all points in the domain of  $f$  at which  $f$  takes on a given value  $K$

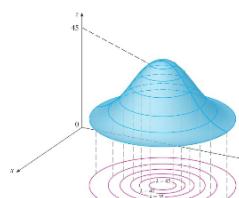


FIGURE 11

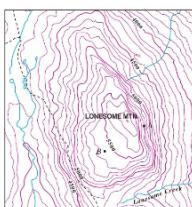


FIGURE 12

\* getting the  $x, y, z$ -intercepts helps draw the plane of  $f(x, y) = z$

### Functions of Three or More Variables :

- A function of three variables is a rule that assigns to each ordered triple  $(x, y, z)$  in a domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  a unique real number denoted by  $f(x, y, z)$
- A function of  $n$  variables is a rule that assigns a number  $z = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  to an  $n$ -tuple  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  of real numbers

## 14.2 Limits and Continuity

- Let  $f$  be a function of two variables whose domain  $D$  includes points arbitrarily close to  $(a, b)$ . Then we say that the limit of  $f(x, y)$  as  $(x, y)$  approaches  $(a, b)$  is  $L$  and we write  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y) = L$  if for every number  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding number  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $(x, y) \in D$  and  $0 < \sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2} < \delta$  then  $|f(x, y) - L| < \epsilon$
- If any small interval  $(L-\epsilon, L+\epsilon)$  is given around  $L$ , then we can find a disk  $D_\delta$  with center  $(a, b)$  and radius  $\delta > 0$  such that  $f$  maps all the points in  $D_\delta$  into the interval  $(L-\epsilon, L+\epsilon)$
- If  $\epsilon > 0$  is given, we can find  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $(x, y)$  is restricted to lie in the disk  $D_\delta$  and  $(x, y) \neq (a, b)$ , then the corresponding part of  $S$  lies between the horizontal planes  $Z = L - \epsilon$  and  $Z = L + \epsilon$
- For functions of a single variable, when we let  $x$  approach  $a$ , there are only two possible directions of approach, from the left or from the right. For functions of two variables, we can let  $(x, y)$  approach  $(a, b)$  from an infinite number of directions in any manner as long as  $(x, y)$  stays within the domain of  $f$

- If  $f(x, y) \rightarrow L_1$  as  $(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)$  along a path  $C_1$  and  $f(x, y) \rightarrow L_2$  as  $(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)$  along a path  $C_2$ , where  $L_1 \neq L_2$ , then  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y)$  does not exist

**EXAMPLE 1** Show that  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 - y^2}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$  does not exist.

**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x, y) = (x^2 - y^2)/(x^2 + y^2)$ . First let's approach  $(0, 0)$  along the  $x$ -axis. Then  $y = 0$  gives  $f(x, 0) = x^2/x^2 = 1$  for all  $x \neq 0$ , so

$$f(x, y) \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{as} \quad (x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0) \text{ along the } x\text{-axis.}$$

We now approach along the  $y$ -axis by putting  $x = 0$ . Then  $f(0, y) = -y^2/y^2 = -1$  for all  $y \neq 0$ , so

$$f(x, y) \rightarrow -1 \quad \text{as} \quad (x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0) \text{ along the } y\text{-axis.}$$

### Continuity :

- A function  $f$  of two variables is called continuous at  $(a, b)$  if  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y) = f(a, b)$ . We say  $f$  is continuous on  $D$  if  $f$  is continuous at every point  $(a, b)$  in  $D$

\* This means that a surface that is the graph of a continuous function has no hole or break

- Since any polynomial can be built up out of simple functions by multiplication and addition, it follows that all polynomials are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Likewise, any rational function is continuous on its domain because it is a quotient of continuous functions

- It can be shown that if  $f$  is a continuous function of two variables and  $g$  is a continuous function of a single variable that is defined on the range of  $f$ , then the composite function  $h = g \circ f$  defined by  $h(x, y) = g(f(x, y))$  is also a continuous function

## Functions of Three or More Variables

- If  $(x, y, z)$  is in the domain of  $f$  and  $0 < \sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2 + (z-c)^2} < \delta$  then  $|f(x, y, z) - L| < \varepsilon$ .

The function  $f$  is continuous at  $(a, b, c)$  if  $\lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (a,b,c)} f(x, y, z) = f(a, b, c)$

- If  $f$  is defined on a subset  $D$  of  $R^n$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  means that for every number  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a corresponding number  $\delta > 0$  such that, if  $x \in D$  and  $0 < |x-a| < \delta$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$

### 14.3 Partial Derivatives

- In general, if  $f$  is a function of two variables  $x$  and  $y$ , suppose we let only  $x$  vary while keeping  $y$  fixed, say  $y=b$ , where  $b$  is a constant. Then we are really considering a function of a single variable  $x$ ,  $g(x) = f(x, b)$ . If  $g$  has a derivative at  $a$ , then we call it the partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  at  $(a, b)$  and denote it by  $f_x(a, b)$   
 $\Rightarrow f_x(a, b) = g'(a)$ , where  $g(x) = f(x, b)$   
 $\Rightarrow f_x(a, b) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h, b) - f(a, b)}{h}$

If  $f$  is a function of two variables, its partial derivatives are the functions  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  defined by

$$f_x(x, y) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h, y) - f(x, y)}{h}$$

$$f_y(x, y) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x, y+h) - f(x, y)}{h}$$

**Notations for Partial Derivatives** If  $z = f(x, y)$ , we write

$$f_x(x, y) = f_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x, y) = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = f_1 = D_1 f = D_x f$$

$$f_y(x, y) = f_y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(x, y) = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = f_2 = D_2 f = D_y f$$

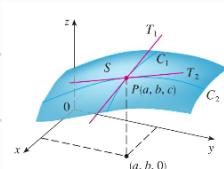
**Rule for Finding Partial Derivatives of  $z = f(x, y)$**

1. To find  $f_x$ , regard  $y$  as a constant and differentiate  $f(x, y)$  with respect to  $x$ .
2. To find  $f_y$ , regard  $x$  as a constant and differentiate  $f(x, y)$  with respect to  $y$ .

### Interpretation of Partial Derivatives

- By fixing  $y=b$ , we are restricting our attention to the curve  $C_1$  in which the vertical plane  $y=b$  intersects  $S$

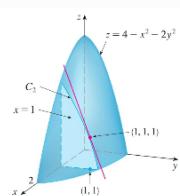
Both of the curve  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  pass through the point  $P$



**FIGURE 1**  
The partial derivatives of  $f$  at  $(a, b)$  are the slopes of the tangents to  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ .



**FIGURE 2**



**FIGURE 3**

## Functions of More Than Two Variables

## Higher Derivatives

- If  $f$  is a function of two variables, then its partial derivatives  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  are also functions of two variables, so we can consider their partial derivatives  $(f_x)_x$ ,  $(f_x)_y$ ,  $(f_y)_x$ , and  $(f_y)_y$ , which are called the second partial derivatives of  $f$

\*  $f_{xy} = \frac{d^2 f}{dy dx}$  means that we first differentiate with respect to  $x$  and then with respect to  $y$

## Clairaut's Theorem :

- Suppose  $f$  is defined on a disk  $D$  that contains the point  $(a, b)$ . If the functions  $f_{xy}$  and  $f_{yx}$  are both continuous on  $D$ , then  $f_{xy}(a, b) = f_{yx}(a, b)$

\* The theorem can also be applied for higher order derivatives

## Partial Differential Equations

### Laplace's Equation :

$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2 u}{dy^2} = 0$ , and solutions of the form of equations are called **Harmonic Functions**.

## The Cobb-Douglas Production Function

### Assumptions made by Cobb and Douglass :

- If either labor or capital vanishes, then so will production.
- The marginal productivity of labor is proportional to the amount of production per unit of labor.
- The marginal productivity of capital is proportional to the amount of production per unit of capital.

## 14.4 Tangent Planes and Linear Approximations

### Tangent Planes

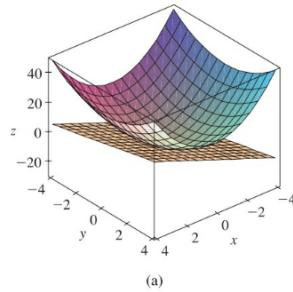
- the tangent plane to the surface at the point  $P$  is defined to be the plane that contains both tangent lines  $T_1$  and  $T_2$

\* think of the tangent plane to  $S$  at  $P$  as consisting of all possible tangent lines at  $P$  to curves that lie on  $S$  and pass through  $P$ .

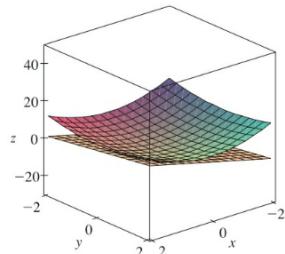
- Suppose  $f$  has continuous partial derivatives. An equation of the tangent plane to the surface  $Z = f(x, y)$  at the point

$P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is  $Z - z_0 = f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$

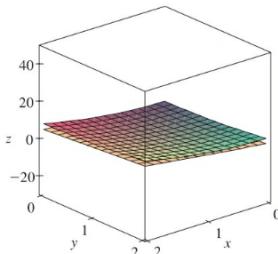
- The tangent plane at  $P$  is the plane that most closely approximates the surface  $S$  near the point  $P$ .



(a)



(b)



(c)

↑ As the scale of  $y$  decreases from (a) - (c), the tangent plane becomes similar to the surface

### Linear Approximations

- An equation of the tangent plane to the graph of a function  $f$  of two variables at the point  $(a, b, f(a,b))$  is

$Z = f(a,b) + f_x(a,b)(x-a) + f_y(a,b)(y-b)$ , and  $L(x,y) = f(a,b) + f_x(a,b)(x-a) + f_y(a,b)(y-b)$  is called the linearization of  $f$  at  $(a,b)$ , and the approximation  $f(x,y) \approx f(a,b) + f_x(a,b)(x-a) + f_y(a,b)(y-b)$  is called the linear approximation or the tangent plane approximation of  $f$  at  $(a,b)$ .

- If  $Z = f(x,y)$ , then  $f$  is differentiable at  $(a,b)$  if  $\Delta Z$  can be expressed in the form

$$\Delta Z = f_x(a,b)\Delta x + f_y(a,b)\Delta y + \varepsilon_1\Delta x + \varepsilon_2\Delta y, \text{ where } \varepsilon_1 \text{ and } \varepsilon_2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } (\Delta x, \Delta y) \rightarrow (0,0)$$

\*  $\Delta y = f(a+\Delta x) - f(a) = f'(a)\Delta x + \varepsilon\Delta x$

Theorem :

- If the partial derivatives  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  exist near  $(a,b)$  and are continuous at  $(a,b)$ , then  $f$  is differentiable at  $(a,b)$

### Differentials

- In case of  $f(x) = y$ , while  $\Delta x = dx$ ,  $\Delta y$  represents the change in height of the curve  $y = f(x)$  and  $dy$  represents the change in height of the tangent line when  $x$  changes by an amount  $dx = dx$ ,

Total Differential :

$$dz = f_x(x,y)dx + f_y(x,y)dy = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}dy \approx f_x(a,b)(x-a) + f_y(a,b)(y-b)$$

\*  $\Delta Z = f(x,y) - f(a,b)$

### Functions of Three or More Variables

- Linear approximations, differentiability, and differentials can be defined in a similar manner for functions of more than two variables

$$\Rightarrow f(x,y,z) \approx f(a,b,c) + f_x(a,b,c)(x-a) + f_y(a,b,c)(y-b) + f_z(a,b,c)(z-c), \text{ and if } w = f(x,y,z),$$

$$\Delta w = f(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y, z+\Delta z) - f(x,y,z) \quad \& \quad dw = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y}dy + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}dz$$

## 14.5 The Chain Rule

- If  $y = f(x)$  and  $x = g(t)$ , where  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable functions, then  $y$  is indirectly a differentiable function, then  $y$  is indirectly a differentiable function of  $t$  and  $\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{dy}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt}$

The Chain Rule (Case 1) :

- Suppose that  $z = f(x, y)$  is a differentiable function of  $x$  and  $y$ , where  $x = g(t)$  and  $y = h(t)$  are both differentiable functions of  $t$ . Then  $z$  is a differentiable function of  $t$  and

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

The Chain Rule (Case 2) :

- Suppose that  $z = f(x, y)$  is a differentiable function of  $x$  and  $y$ , where  $x = g(s, t)$

and  $y = h(s, t)$  are differentiable functions of  $s$  and  $t$ . Then,

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial s}, \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t}$$

\*  $s$  and  $t$  are independent variables,  $x$  and  $y$  are intermediate variables, and  $z$  is dependent variable

The Chain Rule (General Version) :

- Suppose that  $u$  is a differentiable function of the  $n$  variables  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  and each  $x_i$  is a differentiable function of the  $m$  variables  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m$ . Then  $u$  is a function of  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m$  and  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial t_i} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t_i} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t_i} + \dots + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_n} \frac{\partial x_n}{\partial t_i}$  for each  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, m$ .

## Implicit Differentiation

- Suppose that an equation of the form  $F(x, y) = 0$  defines  $y$  implicitly as a differentiable function of  $x$ , that is,  $y = f(x)$ , where  $F(x, f(x)) = 0$  for all  $x$  in the domain of  $f$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} \frac{dx}{dx} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx} = 0, \quad \frac{dx}{dx} = 1, \quad \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} \neq 0$$

## 14.6 Directional Derivatives and the Gradient Vector

- Suppose that we now wish to find the rate of change of  $z$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$  in the direction of an arbitrary unit vector  $u = [a, b] = \langle \cos \theta, \sin \theta \rangle$ . To do this, we consider the surface  $S$  with the equation  $z = f(x, y)$  and we let  $z_0 = f(x_0, y_0)$ .

- Then the point  $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  lies on  $S$ . The vertical plane that passes through  $P$  in the direction of  $u$  intersects  $S$  in a curve  $C$ . The slope of the tangent line  $T$  to  $C$  at the point  $P$

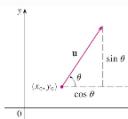
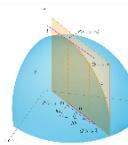


FIGURE 2  
A unit vector  
 $u = (a, b) = \langle \cos \theta, \sin \theta \rangle$



is the rate of change of  $z$  in the direction of  $u$

- If  $Q(x,y,z)$  is another point on  $C$  and  $P'$ ,  $Q'$  are the projections of  $P$ ,  $Q$  onto the  $xy$ -plane, then the vector  $\overrightarrow{P'Q'}$  is parallel to  $u$  and so  $\overrightarrow{P'Q'} = hu = [ha, hb]$  for some scalar  $h$ .  
 $\Rightarrow x - x_0 = ha, y - y_0 = hb$   
 $\Rightarrow \frac{\Delta z}{h} = \frac{z - z_0}{h} = \frac{f(x_0 + ha, y_0 + hb) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h}$
- The directional derivative of  $f$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$  in the direction of a unit vector  $u = [a, b]$  is  
 $D_u f(x_0, y_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + ha, y_0 + hb) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h}$ , if the limit exists

Theorem :

- If  $f$  is a differentiable function of  $x$  and  $y$ , then  $f$  has a directional derivative in the direction of any unit vector  $u = [a, b]$  and  $D_u f(x, y) = f_x(x, y)a + f_y(x, y)b$

### The Gradient Vector

- If  $f$  is a function of two variables  $x$  and  $y$ , then the gradient of  $f$  is the vector function  $\nabla f$  defined by  $\nabla f(x, y) = [f_x(x, y), f_y(x, y)] = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} i + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} j$
- \*  $D_u f(x, y) = \nabla f(x, y) \cdot u$ , this expresses the directional derivative in the direction of a unit vector  $u$  as the scalar projection of the gradient vector onto  $u$

### Functions of Three Variables

- The directional derivative of  $f$  at  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  in the direction of a unit vector  $u = [a, b, c]$  is  $D_u f(x_0, y_0, z_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + ha, y_0 + hb, z_0 + hc) - f(x_0, y_0, z_0)}{h}$ , if the limit exists.  
 $\Rightarrow \nabla f(x, y, z) = [f_x(x, y, z), f_y(x, y, z), f_z(x, y, z)] = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} i + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} j + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} k$   
 $\Rightarrow D_u f(x, y, z) = \nabla f(x, y, z) \cdot u$

### Maximizing the Directional Derivative

Theorem :

- Suppose  $f$  is a differentiable function of two or three variables. The maximum value of the directional derivative  $D_u f(x)$  is  $|\nabla f(x)|$  and it occurs when  $u$  has the same direction as the gradient vector  $\nabla f(x)$

## Tangent Planes to Level Surfaces

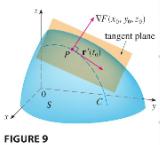


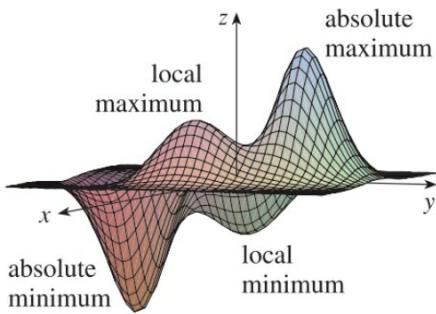
FIGURE 9

- The gradient vector at  $P$ ,  $\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is perpendicular to the tangent vector  $r'(t)$  to any curve  $C$  on  $S$  that passes through  $P$ . If  $\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0) \neq 0$ , it is therefore natural to define the tangent plane to the level surface  $F(x, y, z) = k$  at  $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  as the plane that passes through  $P$  and has normal vector  $\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ .  
 $\Rightarrow F_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)(x - x_0) + F_y(x_0, y_0, z_0)(y - y_0) + F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)(z - z_0) = 0$

## Significance of the Gradient Vector

- On the one hand, the gradient vector  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  gives the direction of fastest increase of  $f$ . On the other hand,  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is orthogonal to the level surface  $S$  of  $f$  through  $P$ .

## 14.7 Maximum and Minimum Values



**1 Definition** A function of two variables has a **local maximum** at  $(a, b)$  if  $f(x, y) \leq f(a, b)$  when  $(x, y)$  is near  $(a, b)$ . [This means that  $f(x, y) \leq f(a, b)$  for all points  $(x, y)$  in some disk with center  $(a, b)$ .] The number  $f(a, b)$  is called a **local maximum value**. If  $f(x, y) \geq f(a, b)$  when  $(x, y)$  is near  $(a, b)$ , then  $f$  has a **local minimum** at  $(a, b)$  and  $f(a, b)$  is a **local minimum value**.

**2 Theorem** If  $f$  has a local maximum or minimum at  $(a, b)$  and the first-order partial derivatives of  $f$  exist there, then  $f_x(a, b) = 0$  and  $f_y(a, b) = 0$ .

FIGURE 1

- A point  $(a, b)$  is called a critical point of  $f$  if  $f_x(a, b) = 0$  and  $f_y(a, b) = 0$ , or if one of these partial derivatives does not exist. At a critical point, a function could have a local maximum or minimum or neither.
- The point where it becomes a local maximum on the direction of the one axis and the local minimum on the other axis is called the saddle point.

Second Derivative Test :

- Suppose the second partial derivatives of  $f$  are continuous on a disk with center  $(a, b)$ , and suppose that  $f_{xx}(a, b) = 0$  and  $f_{yy}(a, b) = 0$ . Let  $D = D(a, b) = f_{xx}(a, b)f_{yy}(a, b) - [f_{xy}(a, b)]^2$ ,
- a) If  $D > 0$  and  $f_{xx}(a, b) > 0$ , then  $f(a, b)$  is a local minimum
- b) If  $D > 0$  and  $f_{xx}(a, b) < 0$ , then  $f(a, b)$  is a local maximum
- c) If  $D < 0$ , then  $f(a, b)$  is neither. (Saddle point)

\*  $D = 0$  gives no information.

$$D = \begin{vmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xy} \\ f_{yx} & f_{yy} \end{vmatrix} = f_{xx}f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2$$

Absolute Maximum and Minimum Values

Extreme Value Theorem for Functions of Two Variables :

- If  $f$  is continuous on a closed, bounded set  $D$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , then  $f$  attains an absolute maximum value  $f(x_1, y_1)$  and an absolute minimum value  $f(x_2, y_2)$  at some points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  in  $D$
- $\Rightarrow$  If  $f$  has an extreme value at  $(x_1, y_1)$ , then  $(x_1, y_1)$  is either a critical point of  $f$  or a boundary point of  $D$

- To find the absolute maximum and minimum values of a continuous function  $f$  on a closed, bounded set  $D$  :
  - 1) Find the values of  $f$  at the critical points of  $f$  in  $D$
  - 2) Find the extreme values of  $f$  on the boundary of  $D$

3) The largest of the values from steps 1 and 2 is the absolute maximum value ; the smallest of these is the absolute minimum value

#### 14.8 Lagrange Multipliers

- Lagrange's method for maximizing or minimizing a general function  $f(x,y,z)$  subject to a constraint of the form  $g(x,y,z) = k$
- Start by trying to find the extreme values of  $f(x,y)$  subject to a constraint of the form  $g(x,y) = k$
- To maximize  $f(x,y)$  subject to  $g(x,y) = k$  is to find the largest value of  $c$  such that the level curve  $f(x,y) = c$  intersects  $g(x,y) = k$   
 $\Rightarrow$  This means the gradient vectors are parallel ; that is,  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \lambda \nabla g(x_0, y_0)$  for some scalar  $\lambda$
- As for  $f(x,y,z)$ , the point  $(x,y,z)$  is restricted to lie on the level surface  $S$  with equation  $g(x,y,z) = k$  ; we consider the level surfaces  $f(x,y,z) = c$  and argue that if the maximum value of  $f$  is  $f(x_0, y_0, z_0) = c$  , then the level surface  $f(x,y,z) = c$  is tangent to the level surface  $g(x,y,z) = k$  and so the corresponding gradient vectors are parallel  
 $\Rightarrow$  Lagrange Multiplier :  $\lambda$  from the  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \lambda \nabla g(x_0, y_0)$

#### Method of Lagrange Multipliers :

- To find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x,y,z)$  subject to the constraint  $g(x,y,z) = k$  [assuming that these extreme values exist and  $\nabla g \neq 0$  on the surface  $g(x,y,z) = k$  ] :
- a) Find all values of  $x,y,z$  and  $\lambda$  such that  $\nabla f(x,y,z) = \lambda \nabla g(x,y,z)$  and  $g(x,y,z) = k$
- b) Evaluate  $f$  at all the points  $(x,y,z)$  that result from step (a). The largest of these values is the maximum value of  $f$  ; the smallest is the minimum value of  $f$ .

#### Two Constraints

- We are looking for the extreme values of  $f$  when  $(x,y,z)$  is restricted to lie on the curve of intersection  $C$  of the level surfaces  $g(x,y,z) = k$  and  $h(x,y,z) = c$   
 $\Rightarrow \nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) = \lambda \nabla g(x_0, y_0, z_0) + \mu \nabla h(x_0, y_0, z_0)$