

## §13.1 Functions of Several Variables

1. Definition: A function like  $f(x, y)$ ,  $f(x, y, z)$ ,  $g(s, t)$  etc.
2. Definition of the graph of a function of two variables and classic examples like: Plane, paraboloid, cone, parabolic sheet, hemisphere.
3. Definition of level curve for  $f(x, y)$  and level surface for  $f(x, y, z)$ .
4. Graphs of surfaces which are not necessarily functions: Sphere, ellipsoid, cylinder sideways parabolic sheet like  $y = x^2$ , double-cone.

## §13.2 Limits and Continuity

1. Nothing much said other than  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} f(x, y)$  asks what  $f(x, y)$  approaches as  $(x, y)$  gets closer to  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

## §13.3 Partial Derivatives

1. Defn: We can define *the partial derivative of  $f(x, y)$  with respect to  $x$* , denoted  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  or  $f_x$ , as the derivative of  $f$  treating all variables other than  $x$  as constant. Similarly for any variable for any function.
2. For  $f(x, y)$  it turns out  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  give the slopes of the lines tangent to the graph of  $f(x, y)$  at the point  $(x, y)$  in the positive  $x$  and positive  $y$  directions respectively. A picture can clarify.
3. Higher derivatives will also be used but there are some points to note:
  - (a)  $f_{xy}$  means  $(f_x)_y$  so first take the derivative with respect to  $x$  and then  $y$ .
  - (b)  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}$  means  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)$  so first take the derivative with respect to  $y$  and then  $x$ .
  - (c)  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$  means  $x$  both times.
  - (d) It turns out that 99% of the time the order doesn't matter so for example  $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$ .

## §13.4 The Chain Rule

1. Consider: For example if  $f$  is a function of  $x$  and  $y$  which are both functions of  $s$  and  $t$  then really  $f$  is a function of  $s$  and  $t$  and so  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial s}$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}$  make sense. How to find them?
2. The chain rule says:
  - (a) First draw the tree diagram.
  - (b) For each route from the starting to ending variable write down the product of the derivatives along that path.
  - (c) Add the paths.
3. The chain rule is good for related rates problems when multiple rates are given and one rate is needed.

### §13.5 Directional Derivative

1. Intro: We saw that  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  (for example) give derivatives in specific directions (the  $\hat{i}$  and  $\hat{j}$  directions) and so what if we asked for the derivative (slope) in another direction?
2. Defn: If  $\bar{u} = a\hat{i} + b\hat{j}$  is a unit vector then *the directional derivative of  $f$  in the direction of  $\bar{u}$  is  $D_{\bar{u}}f = af_x + bf_y$* . If we have 3D then  $+cf_z$  on the end. Sometimes we use the term “directional derivative” when the direction is not a unit vector so we must make it a unit vector first.
3. A good analogy is that  $f(x, y, z)$  is temperature and  $D_{\bar{u}}f$  gives us temperature change (slope) in a specific direction.

### §13.6 The Gradient

1. Defn: The gradient of  $f$ , denoted  $\text{grad } f$  or  $\nabla f$ , is defined as  $\nabla f = f_x \hat{i} + f_y \hat{j} + f_z \hat{k}$  in 3D.
2. Properties:
  - (a) For any  $\bar{u}$  we see  $D_{\bar{u}}f = \bar{u} \cdot \nabla f$ .
  - (b) Since  $D_{\bar{u}}f = \bar{u} \cdot \nabla f = \|\bar{u}\| \|\nabla f\| \cos \theta = \|\nabla f\| \cos \theta$  we see that the directional derivative is maximum when  $\theta = 0$  which shows that the gradient points in the direction of maximum directional derivative.
  - (c) It also shows that the actual value of the maximum directional derivative is  $\|\nabla f\|$ .
  - (d) In the 2D case  $\nabla f$  is perpendicular to the level curve for  $f(x, y)$  at  $(x, y)$ . If we want a vector perpendicular to the graph of a function  $f(x)$  we need to rewrite as  $y = f(x)$  then  $f(x) - y = 0$  and then the graph of the function is the level curve for  $g(x, y) = f(x) - y$  and we use  $\nabla g$ .
  - (e) In the 3D case  $\nabla f$  is perpendicular to the level surface for  $f(x, y, z)$  at  $(x, y, z)$ . If we want a vector perpendicular to the graph of a function  $g(x, y)$  we need to rewrite as  $z = g(x, y)$  then  $g(x, y) - z = 0$  and then the graph of the function is the level surface for  $f(x, y, z) = g(x, y) - z$  and we use  $\nabla f$ .
3. Tangent Plane: From (e) above we see that the plane which is tangent to the level surface for  $f(x, y, z)$  at  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  has equation  $f_x(x - x_0) + f_y(y - y_0) + f_z(z - z_0) = 0$ .

### §13.7 Tangent Plane Approximations and Differentials

1. Tangent Plane Continued from 13.6: Moreover if this level surface is the graph of a function  $g(x, y)$  then this becomes  $g_x(x - x_0) + g_y(y - y_0) - 1(z - g(x_0, y_0)) = 0$ . If we use  $f$  instead of  $g$  we can solve for  $z$  to get  $z = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x - x_0) + f_y(y - y_0)$ .
2. Idea: If we have the graph of a function  $f(x, y)$  and take the tangent plane at a specific point  $(x_0, y_0, f(x_0, y_0))$  then the tangent plane will be close to the function if we stay near  $(x_0, y_0)$ .
3. Formula:  $f(x_0 + h, y_0 + k) \approx f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)h + f_y(x_0, y_0)k$
4. Generalization: If we have  $f(x, y, z)$  instead then there really isn't a tangent plane but more of a tangent space. This is harder to visualize but the formula is fairly obvious:  
 $f(x_0 + h, y_0 + k, z_0 + l) \approx f(x_0, y_0, z_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)h + f_y(x_0, y_0, z_0)k + f_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)l$

### §13.8 Extreme Values

1. Defn: Relative maximum/minimum/extremum for  $f(x, y)$ . Method:

- (a) First find where both  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  are zero or one is undefined. Those are the *critical points*.
- (b) Find the discriminant  $D(x, y) = f_{xx}f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2$  and then for each critical point:
  - If  $D(x, y) < 0$  then  $(x, y)$  is a saddle point.
  - If  $D(x, y) > 0$  and  $f_{xx}(x, y) < 0$  then  $(x, y)$  is a relative maximum.
  - If  $D(x, y) > 0$  and  $f_{xx}(x, y) > 0$  then  $(x, y)$  is a relative minimum.

Good examples:  $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2y^2 - 6x + 8y + 1$  and  $f(x, y) = 3x^2 - 3xy^2 + y^3 + 3y^2$ .

2. Defn: Absolute m/m/e of  $f(x, y)$  on a closed and bounded region  $R$ . Method:

- (a) Find all CP for  $f(x, y)$  which are inside the region. Take  $f$  of those.
- (b) Find the maximum and minimum of  $f$  on the edge of the region. Usually this involves combining  $f$  with the equation for the region (sometimes part by part) and then getting  $f$  in a form where we can see what the max and min would be.
- (c) Pick out the largest and smallest values from the previous two steps.

Good examples:  $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$  with  $\frac{x^2}{4} + y^2 \leq 1$  and  $f(x, y) = 3x - y$  on the triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(0, 3)$  and  $(6, 0)$ .

### §13.9 Lagrange Multipliers

1. Idea: If  $(x, y)$  are constrained by a level curve  $g(x, y) = c$  and we want to find the maximum of  $f(x, y)$  how do we do it?

2. Thm: If a max/min occurs at  $(x, y)$  then  $\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g$  at that point so the method is:

- (a) We set those equal and solve those along with the constraint. In other words we solve the system:  $f_x = \lambda g_x$ ,  $f_y = \lambda g_y$  and  $g(x, y) = c$ .
- (b) The result are potential winners. We take each  $(x, y)$  we get and plug it into  $f$ , picking out the largest and smallest.

Good Examples:  $f(x, y) = 2x + 3y$  with  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$ ,  $f(x, y) = xy$  with  $(x - 1)^2 + y^2 = 1$  and  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  with  $2x + 6y = 10$ .