## The meaning of dx and dy

Definition: Suppose f is differentiable at x

- Define dx an independent variable
- Define dy = f'(x)dx,

• Then 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{f'(x)dx}{dx} = f'(x)$$
  
 $dy = "the rise"$   
 $dx = "the run"$  slope of the tangent at x

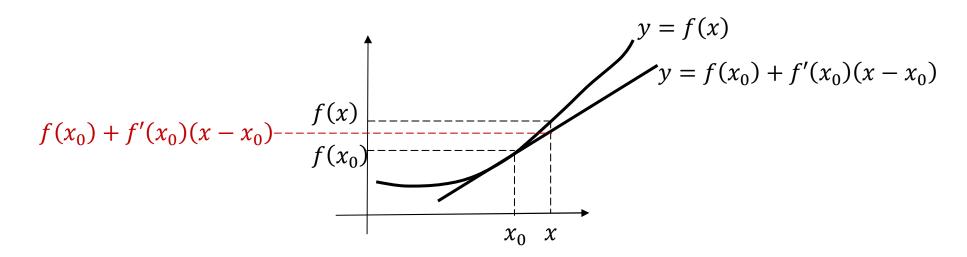
dx, dy - "differentials"

dy: rise of a function

 $\Delta y$ : rise of a tangent

 $\Delta y \approx dy$ 

#### Local linear Approximations of Non-Linear Functions



Tangent line at  $(x_0, f(x_0))$ 

$$y - f(x_0) = f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$
$$y = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

For value of x near  $x_0$  then

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + \underbrace{f'(x_0)(x - x_0)}_{tangent \ at \ x_0}$$

A local linear approximation of f(x) near  $x_0$ 

Another way of writing this:

Let  $x - x_0 = \Delta x$ , so  $x = x_0 + \Delta x$ 

 $f(x_0 + \Delta x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0) \Delta x$ 

## Finding Limits Using Differentiation: L'Hôpital Rule

Limits of Quotients That Appear to be "Indeterminate":  $\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\infty}{\infty}, 0 \cdot \infty, \infty - \infty$ Example:

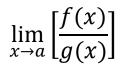
$$\lim_{x \to 1} \left[ \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1} \right]$$

has " $\frac{0}{0}$ " form.

$$\lim_{x \to 1} \left[ \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1} \right] = \lim_{x \to 1} \left[ \frac{(x - 1)(x + 1)}{x - 1} \right] = \lim_{x \to 1} (x + 1) = 2$$

is doable.

### 1. Assumption: Suppose



has the  $\frac{0}{0}$  form meaning both

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

and

 $\lim_{x\to a}g(x)=0$ 

2. Assumption: Suppose f, g are both differentiable at a

Meaning

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = f(a)$$
$$\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = g(a)$$
$$f(a) = g(a) = 0$$

Observe:

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f(x) - \widetilde{f(a)}}{g(x) - \widetilde{g(a)}} = \frac{\left[\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}\right]}{\left[\frac{g(x) - g(a)}{x - a}\right]}$$

Theorem: L'Hôpital Rule (for  $\frac{0}{0}$  form)

If f, g are both differentiable on  $I, a \in I$  and both

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = 0 \quad and \quad \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = 0$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \to a} \left[ \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] = \lim_{x \to a} \left[ \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} \right]$$

A limit we hope exists and we hope it is easier to calculate

Note, L'Hôpital Rule also applies to the  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$  form

# Examples:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \left[ \frac{\sin x}{x} \right]_{x \to 0} = \lim_{x \to 0} \left[ \frac{\cos x}{1} \right] = \cos(0) = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \left[ \frac{e^x - 1}{x^3} \right]_{x \to 0} = \lim_{x \to 0} \left[ \frac{e^x}{3x^2} \right] = \lim_{x \to 0} \left[ \frac{e^x}{6x} \right] = \lim_{x \to 0} \left[ \frac{e^x}{6} \right] = +\infty$$

$$\lim_{x \to \pi/2} \left[ \frac{1 - \sin x}{\cos x} \right]_{x \to \pi/2} = \lim_{x \to \pi/2} \left[ \frac{-\cos x}{-\sin x} \right] = \frac{0}{-1} = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \left[ \frac{x^2}{e^x} \right]_{x \to \infty} \left[ \frac{2x}{e^x} \right] = \lim_{x \to \infty} \left[ \frac{2}{e^x} \right] = 0$$

Finding other "Indeterminate" Limits

- L'Hôpital Rule applied directly to  $\frac{0}{0}$  and  $\frac{\pm \infty}{\pm \infty}$
- Also apply to  $\infty \cdot 0, \infty \infty, 1^{\infty}, 0^{0}, \infty^{0}$

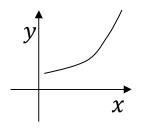
We have to reduce any indeterminate form to either  $\frac{0}{0}$  and  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ 

### Example:

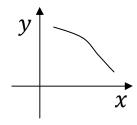
$$\lim_{\substack{x \to 0 \\ "0 \cdot (-\infty)"}} \left[ x \cdot lnx \right] = \lim_{\substack{x \to 0 \\ \hline \frac{1}{x} \\ \hline \frac{1}{x}$$

### **Increasing and Decreasing Functions:**

Definition (Algebraic): A function f is increasing on same interval I, if for any  $x_1, x_2$  in I $x_1 < x_2$  imply  $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ 



A function *f* is decreasing on same interval *I*, if for any  $x_1, x_2$  in  $I x_1 < x_2$  imply  $f(x_1) > f(x_2)$ 



Constant function: not increasing, not decreasing

- f is increasing on an interval  $\Leftrightarrow$  Graph is rising from left to right
- f is decreasing on an interval  $\Leftrightarrow$  Graph is falling from left to right

**Theorem**: If f is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b)

Then

$$f'(x) > 0, all \ x \in (a, b) \implies f \text{ increasing on } [a, b]$$

$$f'(x) < 0, all \ x \in (a, b) \implies f decreasing on [a, b]$$

$$f'(x) = 0, all \ x \in (a, b) \implies f \text{ constant on } [a, b]$$

## Local Maximums and Minimums

- *f* changes from increasing to decreasing at a relative (or local) maximum point
- *f* changes from decreasing to increasing at a relative (or local) minimum point

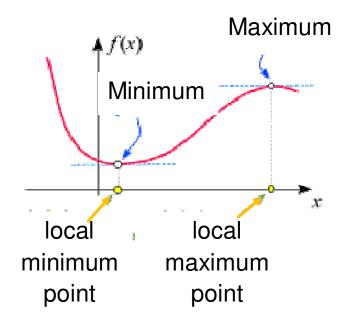
Definition. A function y = f(x) has a local maximum at "*c*" (some point) (in some interval *I*) if for all *x* in  $I f(x) \le f(c)$ .

Called a local maximum value for f

Definition. A function y = f(x) has a local minimum at "*c*" (some point) (in some interval *I*) if for all x in  $I f(x) \ge f(c)$ .

Called a local minimum value for f

• Local extremum means either (maximum and minimum)



Term Local (=Relative)

Definition:  $x_0$  in the Domain is a **critical** point for f

lf

$$\begin{cases} f'(x_0) = 0\\ f'(x_0) \text{ does not exist} \end{cases}$$

Theorem. Let *f* be defined on *I* open, containing  $x_0$ , *f* has a local max/min at  $x_0$ :  $x_0$  must be a critical point of *f* 

But !

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_0 \ a \ critial \ point \\ of \ f \end{bmatrix}}_{candidates \ for \ local \\ min/max} \neq \begin{bmatrix} f \ has \ a \ local \\ extremum \ at \ x_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Extrema occur at critical points, but not every critical point is an extremum!

To determine the extrema we must do two things:

- 1. Find the critical points (compute f'(x) and find out where it is either 0 or undefined)
- 2. "Test" each critical point to determine if it a relative maximum, a relative minimum, or neither

For the second, there are two "tests" available: The first derivative test and The second derivative test.

## The 1<sup>st</sup> derivative Test for local Maximums and Minimums

Observe: [f continuous at critical point  $x_0$ ]

- Local maximum f' > 0 f' < 0
- Local minimum f' < 0 f' > 0
- Using these observations we have the 1<sup>st</sup> derivative test for local extrema

# The 2<sup>nd</sup> Derivative Test for local Maximums and Minimums

- An alternative to the 1<sup>st</sup> derivative test. Use only if the 2<sup>nd</sup> derivative is easy to calculate
- Nice, because instead of looking to the left and right of  $x_0$ , you just look directly at  $x_0$

Observe: Assume  $f''(x_0)$  exists. [Thus,  $f'(x_0)$  must exist]

$$\begin{bmatrix} f'(x_0) = 0\\ and f''(x_0) > 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} f \text{ has a local}\\ minimum \text{ at } x_0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} f'(x_0) = 0\\ and f''(x_0) < 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} f \text{ has a local}\\ maximum \text{ at } x_0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} f'(x_0) = 0\\ and f''(x_0) = 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow [Inconclusive]$$

**Example:** Find all local extrema of the function:

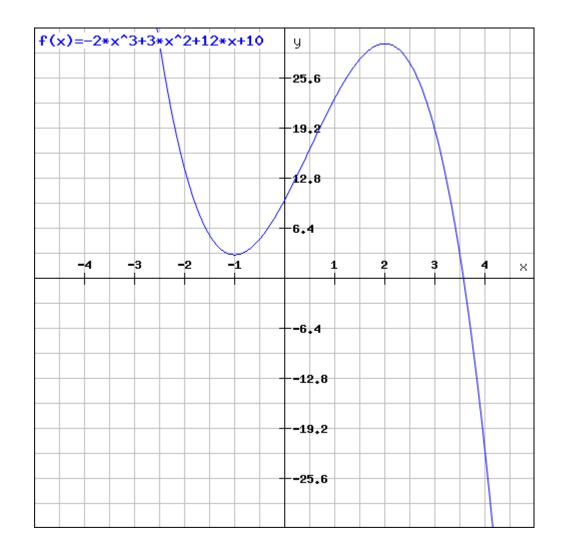
$$f(x) = -2x^3 + 3x^2 + 12x + 10$$

Solution:

$$f'(x) = -6x^{2} + 6x + 12$$
$$-6x^{2} + 6x + 12 = 0$$
$$x_{1,2} = \frac{-6 \pm 18}{-12}$$
$$x_{1} = 2, x_{2} = -1$$
$$f''(x) = -12x + 6$$

 $x_1 = 2$ :  $f''(x) = -12 \cdot 2 + 6 = -18 < 0$ : local maximum

 $x_2 = -1$ :  $f''(x) = -12 \cdot (-1) + 6 = 18 > 0$ : local minimum



## **Global (Absolute) Maximums and Minimums**

Consider: the function f(x), I is same Interval in the Domain of f and  $x_0 \in I$ Definition:

- *f* has a global maximum at  $x_0$  if  $f(x_0) \ge f(x)$  at  $x \in I$
- *f* has a global minimum at  $x_0$  if  $f(x_0) \le f(x)$  at  $x \in I$

We say "global extremum" for either

## Global extrema on (finite) closed Intervals

## **Extreme Value Theorem**

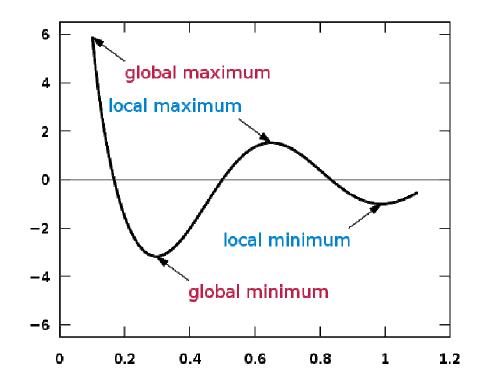
If f is continuous on close I[a, b] [both hypothesis necessary], Then f has both a global maximum and global minimum [guaranteed!] – "Existence Theorem"

Further Theorem: Suppose f has a global extremum on an Interval (a, b) open. Then that extremum must occur at a critical point.

Summary:

$$\begin{bmatrix} f \ continuous \\ on \ [a,b] \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} f \ has \ both \ global \ extrema \\ This \ occur \ at \\ either \ a,b \ [endpoint] \\ or \ when \ f'(x) = 0 \\ or \ f'does \ not \ exist \end{cases}$$

- 1. Find all the critical points of f[a, b]
- 2. Evaluate f as these points, and at a and b
- 3. Largest value=global maximum Smallest value=global minimum



http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Extrema example original.svg

## **Optimization Problem**

Applied Maximum and Minimum problems

Called "optimization" (find the best")

A strategy

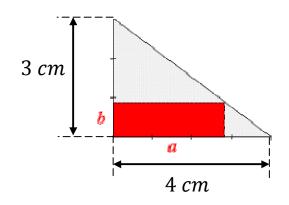
- Draw a sketch +label relevant quantities
- Find a formula for the one quantity to be maximized or minimized
- Use given information to write that formula as a function of one variable
- Find the domain of that variable
- Use the derivative to find the desired global max/min

## Example: What is the biggest Rectangle you can put inside a given triangle?

Given a right triangle of altitude 3 *cm* an base 4*cm* 

Find a dimension of the rectangle of maximum area that can be inscribed in this triangle with one side along the base.

• A sketch

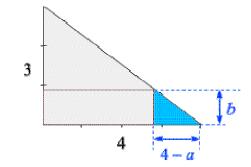


• A formula to be maximized

$$f = a \cdot b$$

We seek the maximum to the product  $a \cdot b$ . We need to find a so that f is maximized

• The formula as a function of one variable



$$\frac{3}{4} = \frac{b}{4-a}$$
$$b = \frac{3(4-a)}{4}$$
$$f = a \cdot b = \frac{3a(4-a)}{4}$$

• Domain of *a*: 0 < *a* < 4

• The derivative used

$$f'(a) = 3 - 1,5a = 0$$
  
 $a = 2$ 

## maximum or minimum?

f'' = -1,5 < 0 - maximum

●

$$b = \frac{3(4-a)}{4} = 1,5$$

### **Function Concave Up and Concave Down:**

• *f* can increase (or decrease) in two different way: concave up and concave down



• a point at which *f* changes from concave up to concave down or from concave down to concave up is called an **inflection** point.

## Function Concave Up and Concave Down: The 2<sup>nd</sup> derivative applied

Definition: Let *f* have a derivative on open interval *I* 

- *f* concave up on *I* means *f* ' is increasing on *I*
- *f* concave down on *I* means *f*' is decreasing on *I*

To tell if a function (later f') is increasing/decreasing, we check its first derivative of (f'):

(f')'=f''

### Theorem:

Suppose *f* is twice differentiate on *I* 

 $\begin{cases} f''(x) > 0\\ all \ x \in I \end{cases} \Rightarrow f \text{ is concave up in } I \\ \begin{cases} f''(x) < 0\\ all \ x \in I \end{cases} \Rightarrow f \text{ is concave down in } I \end{cases}$ 

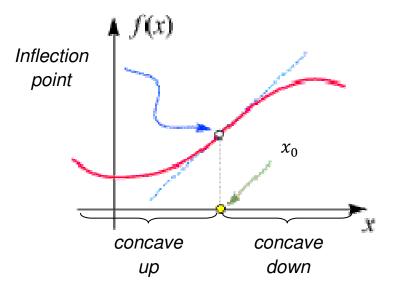
### When Concavity Changes: Inflection Points

### **Definition:**

If f is continuous on open I and concavity changes at  $(x_0, f(x_0))$ 

Then we say: *f* has an inflection point at  $x_0$  and  $(x_0, f(x_0))$  is that inflection point

 $f''(x_0) = 0$  gives candidates for inflection points, but no guaranties

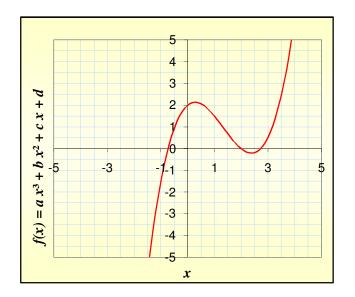


# Examples:

function	1.derivative	2. derivative	Concave up/down?
$f(x) = x^2$	2 <i>x</i>	2 > 0	concave up
$f(x) = -x^2$	-2x	-2 < 0	concave down
$f(x) = (e^{2x} + 4e^{-x})^2$	$4e^{4x} + 8e^x - 32e^{-2x}$	$16e^{4x} + 8e^x + 64e^{-2x} > 0$	concave up

# Example:

 $f(x) = 0,5x^3 - 2x^2 + x + 2$ 



$$f'(x) = 1,5x^{2} - 4x + 1; f''(x) = 3x - 4; f'''(x) = 3 > 0$$
  

$$3x - 4 < 0: \ x < \frac{4}{3}; \qquad \left] -\infty; \frac{4}{3} \right]: concave up$$
  

$$3x - 4 > 0: \ x > \frac{4}{3}; \qquad \left[ \frac{4}{3}; +\infty \right]: concave down$$
  

$$x = \frac{4}{3}: inflection point$$

## What to look for in a graph:

With Algebra:

- Domain and Range
- x intercepts
- y intercepts
- symmetrie

With Limits:

- Asymptotes
- End Behavior  $x \to -\infty, x \to \infty$

With derivatives:

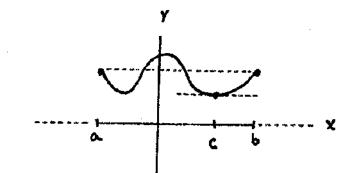
- Increasing/decreasing
- Local Extrema
- Concave up/down
- Inflection Points

#### The mean Value Theorem for Derivatives

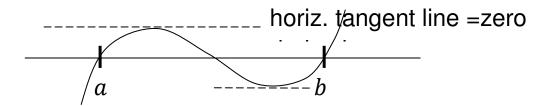
#### A special Case of the Mean Value: Rolle's Theorem

If f is continuous on [a, b], f is differentiable on (a, b), and f(a) = f(b)

Then there is at least one c in (a, b) such that  $f'(c) = 0 \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} slope \ of \\ secant \ line \ between \\ (a, f(a)) and \ (b, f(b)) \end{bmatrix}$ 



Proof for f(a) = 0 = f(b)



- (1) Suppose f(x) = 0 for all x in (a, b) [a constant function]. Then f'(c) = 0 for all c in (a, b)
- (2) Suppose f(x) > 0 for some point in (a, b). Since f is continuous on [a, b]

[Extreme Value Theorem]  $\Rightarrow$  *f* has a global max on [*a*, *b*] in fact on (*a*, *b*)[because f(a) = 0 and f(b) = 0]

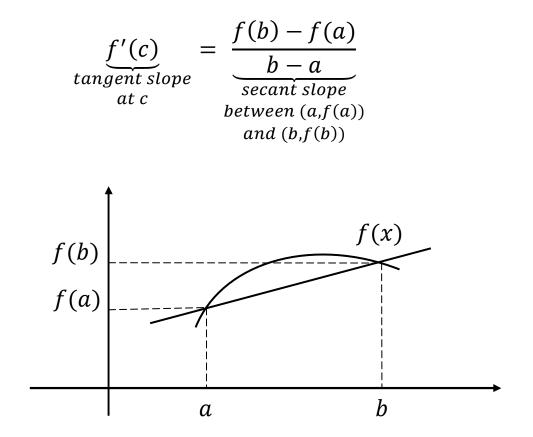
Since f is differentiable on (a, b), there must be a critical point c in (a, b), where f'(c) = 0

(3) (The f(x) < 0, is similar)

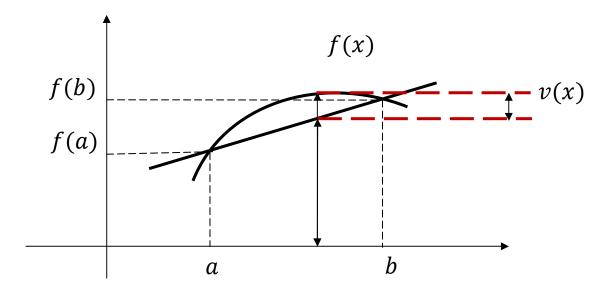
#### The Full Mean Value Theorem of Derivatives

If f is continuous on [a, b] f is differentiable on (a, b)

Then there is least one point *c* in (a, b) at which the tangent line is parallel to the secant line joining the points (a, f(a)) and (b, f(b)), i.e. at which



## **Proof of MVT for Derivatives**



Secant lines

$$y - f(a) = \left[\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}\right](x - a); \ y = \left[\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}\right](x - a) + f(a)$$

Let v be a function: v = [height of f] - [hight of secant line]

$$v(x) = \underbrace{f(x) - \left[\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a) + f(a)\right]}_{\text{Difference of two heights}}$$

Difference of two heghts

Since *f* is continuous on [*a*, *b*] so is v(x) [because a secant is just a line – continuous] Observe v(a) = 0 and v(b) = 0

So *v* satisfied Rolle's Theorem, meaning there is *c* in (a, b) with v'(c) = 0

But

$$v'(x) = f'(x) - \left[\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}\right]$$
$$0 = v'(c) = f'(c) - \left[\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}\right]$$

So

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

## **Direct Consequences of the Mean value Theorem**

## (1) Consequence: Theorem:

(recall – previously not proven)

Suppose f is continuous at [a, b], f differentiable on (a, b)

a) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} f'(x) > 0\\ all x in (a, b) \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow f$$
 increase on  $[a, b]$   
b)  $\begin{bmatrix} f'(x) < 0\\ all x in (a, b) \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow f$  decrease on  $[a, b]$   
c)  $\begin{bmatrix} f'(x) = 0\\ all x in (a, b) \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow f$  constant on  $[a, b]$ 

#### **Proof of Part (a) only**

Let  $x_1, x_2$  be in [a, b] with  $x_1 < x_2$  so  $[x_2 - x_1 > 0]$ 

We must show  $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ 

Since the MVT hypothesis holds on[a, b]. The Theorem also holds on [ $x_1, x_2$ ] So there is a c in ( $x_1, x_2$ ) such that

$$f'(c) = \left[\frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1}\right]$$
$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = \underbrace{f'(c)}_{positive} \underbrace{(x_2 - x_1)}_{positive} > 0$$
$$f(x_2) > f(x_1)$$

### (2) Consequence: Constant Difference Theorem

If *f*, *g* are differentiable on Interval *I* and f'(x) = g'(x) for all *x* in *I*,

Then for all x in I

$$f(x) - g(x) = k$$
 (constant)

meaning

$$f(x) = g(x) + k$$

Two function with the same derivative differ at most by a constant in *I* say,  $x_1 < x_2$ **Proof:** 

Let  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$  be different in I, say  $x_1 < x_2$ 

Since f, g are differentiable in I, then f, g continuous in I

So, *f*, *g* are differentiable on  $(x_1, x_2)$  and continuous on  $[x_1, x_2]$ 

The same hold true for

$$F(x) = f(x) - g(x)$$

Now,

Our hypothesis

$$F'(x) = f'(x) - g'(x) = 0$$

By the previous Consequence: Theorem (1c) we know F(x) = k constant

So, f(x) - g(x) = k at both  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ 

Since  $x_1, x_2$  arbitrary in I f(x) = g(x) = k for all x in I.

## A function of two variables

A function of two variables x and y is a rule which assigns to each ordered pair (x, y) of real numbers in some subset of the xy-plane (called the domain of the function) exactly one real number

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

called the value of f at (x, y).

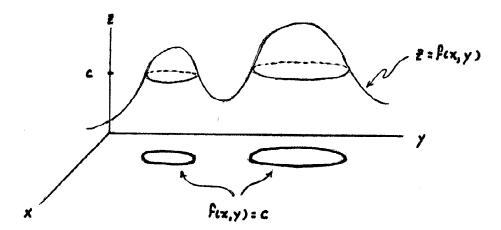
The value of *f* depends on two different parameters

**Example**: The temperature at the certain point on the surface of the earth f(x, y), where x and y are longitude and latitude.

# The graph of *f*

The graph of *f* is a surface in space. So for each value of *x* and *y* we have *x*, *y* in the (x, y) –plane, then we'll plot the point in space at position *x*, *y*: z = f(x, y)

It is possible to obtain something like a "picture" of a function z = f(x, y) without drawing its graph in space. It is the **contour** plot. The graph is sliced by horizontal planes. It is a representing the function of two variables by the map.

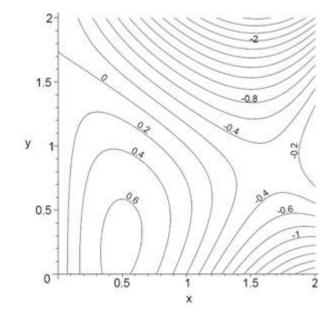


There are a bunch of curves. A **level** curve for z = f(x, y) is a curve in the x, y-plane on which the function takes only one value, i.e. with an equation of the form

$$f(x,y)=c$$

for constant *c* 

Draw enough of these, label each with the *c* it came from (so that you know how height it should be lifted to get to the graph) and you have some idea what the surface looks like.



### Limits and continuity for function of two variables.

Recall:

 $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = L$ 

If f(x) can be made as close as we like to L by choosing x sufficiently close (but not equal ) to  $x_0$ 

 $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = L$  exists if and only if both

$$\lim_{x \to x_0^-} f(x) = L$$

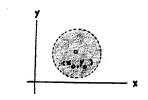
and

$$\lim_{x \to x_0^+} f(x) = L$$

are equal

For f(x, y) the definition looks essentially the same:

Given f(x, y) an a point  $(x_0, y_0)$  in the plane with f defined at least "near"  $(x_0, y_0)$ 

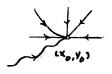


We say that

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(x_0,y_0)}f(x,y)=L$$

if f(x, y) can be made as close as we like to L choosing (x, y) sufficiently close (but not equal) to  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

This time, however, instead of just two there are infinitely many "approaches" to  $(x_{0,}, y_{0,})$  and, in order for the limit to exist, they must all give the same result.



# Continuity

Recall: f(x) is continuous at  $x_0$  if  $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$ 

Implicit in this is

- $x_0$  is in the domain of f(x) so  $f(x_0)$  exists
- $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x)$  exists
- these two are the same

For function of two variables the definition is the same

f(x, y) is continuous at  $(x_0, y_0)$  if

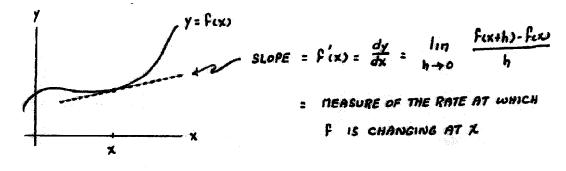
$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(x_{0},y_{0})} f(x,y) = f(x_{0},y_{0})$$

If this is true for every  $(x_{0,y_0})$  in the domain of f(x,y) we say simply that f(x,y) is continuous

- Polynomials are continuous everywhere
- Rational functions are continuous wherever the denominator is nonzero
- Sums, differences and products of continuous functions are continuous
- Quotients of continuous functions are continuous wherever the denominator is nonzero
- If f(x, y) is continuous and g(u) is a continuous function of one variable, then
   g(f(x, y)) is continuous

#### **Partial Derivatives**

Recall: given y = f(x) and x in its domain



Now suppose y = f(x, y) and (x, y) is a point in its domain.

"Rate at which f is changed at (x, y)" makes no sense since f can change at different rate in different directions at (x, y) Partial Derivatives: Rates of changes in the *x*-direction and in the *y*-direction

Slope of a tangent line in x-direction = **partial derivative** of f with respect to x

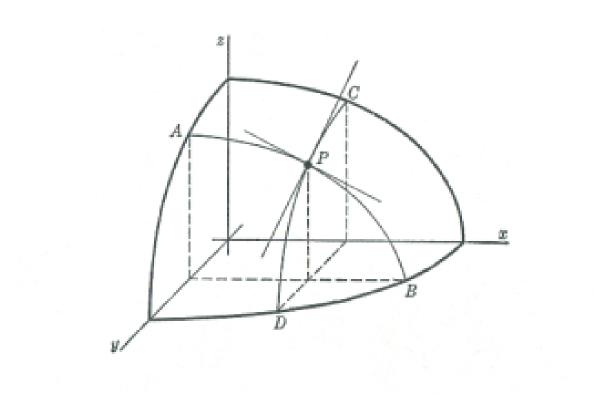
$$= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h, y) - f(x, y)}{h}$$

- hold y fixed and differentiate with respect to x as usual.

Slope of a tangent line in y-direction = partial derivative of f with respect to y

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

- hold y fixed and differentiate with respect to y with usual.



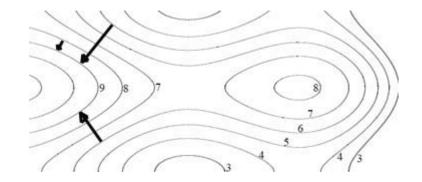
# Examples:

$$f(x,y) = x \cdot siny, \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = siny, \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x \cdot cosy$$

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

## Gradient

The **gradient** of a function *f* points in the direction of the greatest rate of increase of the function, and whose magnitude is that rate of increase.



The **gradient** of *f*:

$$\nabla f = grad f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}$$

The **gradient** of *f* at the point  $(x_0, y_0)$ :

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) \end{pmatrix}$$

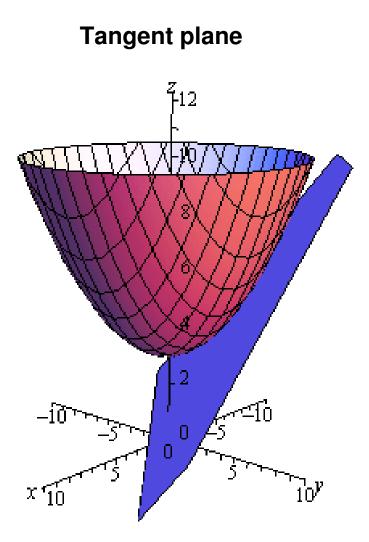
#### Tangent plane

Let  $(x_0, y_0)$  be any point of a surface function z = f(x, y) Then the surface has a nonvertical tangent plane at  $(x_0, y_0)$  with equation

$$T_{(x_0,y_0)} = f(x_0,y_0) + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0,y_0)\\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0,y_0) \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x - x_0\\ y - y_0 \end{pmatrix} = f(x_0,y_0) + \underbrace{\nabla f(x_0,y_0)}_{Gradient at point} \begin{pmatrix} x - x_0\\ y - y_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

A tangent plane to a function  $f(x_0, y_0)$  at the point  $(x_0, y_0)$  is a plane that just touches the graph of the function at the point  $((x_0, y_0), f(x_0, y_0))$ .

Approximation formula = the graph is close to its tangent plane.



http://tutorial.math.lamar.edu/Classes/CalcIII/TangentPlanes.aspx

**Example**: Find the equation of a tangent plane to:

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

At the point  $(x_0, y_0) = (1,2)$ 

# Solution:

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = (2x \quad 2y)(1,2) = \binom{2}{4}$$

$$T(x,y) = f(1,2) + \nabla f(1,2) \begin{pmatrix} x-1\\ y-2 \end{pmatrix} = 5 + (2 \quad 4) \begin{pmatrix} x-1\\ y-2 \end{pmatrix} = 5 + 2(x-1) + 4(y-2) = -5 + 2x + 4y$$

### The total differential

The total differential of the function of two variables df

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

The total differential gives the full information about rates of change of the function in the x-direction and in the y-direction.

Some alternate notation:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x, y) = f_x = D_x f = D_1 f = \cdots$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(x, y) = f_y = D_y f = D_2 f = \cdots$$

Second order derivatives: f(x, y)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = f_{xx}$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = f_{yy}$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = f_{yx}$$
mixed second order  
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = f_{xy}$$
mixed second derivatives

# Examples:

$$f(x,y) = x^{3}y - x^{2}y^{2}$$

$$f_{x} = 3x^{2}y - 2xy^{2}, \quad f_{y} = x^{3} - 2x^{2}y$$

$$f_{xx} = 6xy - 2y^{2}, \quad f_{yy} = -2x^{2}$$

$$f_{xy} = 3x^{2} - 4xy, \quad f_{yx} = 3x^{2} - 4xy$$

### Local maxima and minima

At a local max or min,  $f_x = 0$  and  $f_y = 0$ 

Definition of a critical point:  $(x_0, y_0)$  where  $f_x = 0$  and  $f_y = 0$ 

A critical point may be a local minimum, local maximum, or saddle.

#### Second derivative test

Goal: determine type of a critical point, and find the local min/max. Note: local min/max occur at a critical points

General case: second derivative test. We look at second derivatives:

$$f_{xx} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}; \ f_{xy} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \ f_{yx} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}; \ f_{yy} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

The **Hessian matrix** (or simply the **Hessian**) is the square matrix of second-order partial derivatives of a function

$$H(f) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xy} \\ f_{yx} & f_{yy} \end{pmatrix}$$

Given is f and a critical point  $(x_0, y_0)$ , then: if

$$f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) \cdot f_{yy}(x_0, y_0) - f_{xy}(x_0, y_0) \cdot f_{yx}(x_0, y_0) > 0$$

#### then

• if

 $f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) > 0$ 

	min
iuua	min

• if

 $f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) < 0$ 

local max.

if

$$f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) \cdot f_{yy}(x_0, y_0) - f_{xy}(x_0, y_0) \cdot f_{yx}(x_0, y_0) < 0$$

then saddle if

$$f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) \cdot f_{yy}(x_0, y_0) - f_{xy}(x_0, y_0) \cdot f_{yx}(x_0, y_0) = 0$$

then can't conclude

# Example:

$$f(x, y) = y^{3} + x^{2}(y + 1) - 12y + 11$$
  

$$f_{x} = (y + 1)2x \qquad f_{y} = 3y^{2} + x^{2} - 12$$
  

$$f_{xx} = 2y + 2 \quad f_{yy} = 6y$$
  

$$f_{yx} = f_{xy} = 2x$$

Critical points candidates:

$$f_x = (y+1)2x = 0 \quad f_y = 3y^2 + x^2 - 12 = 0$$
$$(x_1, y_1) = (3, -1); \ (x_2, y_2) = (-3, -1); \ (x_3, y_3) = (0, -2); \ (x_4, y_4) = (0, 2)$$

$$(x_1, y_1) = (3, -1) : \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2 = 0 - 36 = -36 < 0 \text{ saddle}$$

$$(x_2, y_2) = (-3, -1) : \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2 = 0 - 36 = -36 < 0 \text{ saddle}$$

$$(x_3, y_3) = (0, -2): \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2 = 24 - 0 = 24 > 0; \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = -2 < 0 \text{ maximum}$$

$$(x_4, y_4) = (0,2): \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}\right)^2 = 72 - 0 = 72 > 0; \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = 6 > 0 \text{ minimum}$$