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**PROFESSOR:** Hi. Today's lecture starts off with what probably is the single most important topic in the entire course, not just to date, but in the entire course. And it's a rather sneaky thing in the sense that takes a while to grow into it. Things have been going so smoothly so far, that perhaps this point is going to be a little bit subtle to make, and we'll try to lead into it gradually.

There are probably ten different ways to introduce this topic. And whichever one you pick, I think, any one of the other nine would've been better. But without any further ado, let me talk about today's lesson in terms of something called the directional derivative and indicate, in a manner of speaking, that when we deal with functions of several variables, especially in the case that  $n = 2$ , there is a very obvious geometrical interpretation, one that we made some use of in the previous lecture, but which I hope to make more use of in this particular lecture.

Let's take a look and see what the situation is. Let's suppose I'm given that  $w$  is a function of the two independent variables,  $x$  and  $y$ , and I have the  $w$  as therefore some function of  $x$  and  $y$ . And I can now talk about the graph of  $w$ , which we assume is some surface. And I've drawn it in this particular way.

I take some point  $(a, b)$  in the  $xy$  plane on which  $f$  is defined. And at that particular point, I go to the corresponding point on the surface, which I call  $P_0$ , which has coordinates what?  $(a, b, c)$ , where  $c$  is simply  $f(a,b)$ . That, of course is how you graph a function of two independent variables. The  $w$  coordinate, so to speak, is simply the functional value of the  $x$ - and  $y$ -coordinates.

Now, what we did last time was we essentially said, look, if we were to slice this surface by a plane which was either parallel to the  $wy$  plane or to the  $wx$  plane, we

get special curves of intersection, and we use this to indicate the idea of partial derivatives. Now, without too much imagination, I think it should be very easy for you to visualize an arbitrary surface over your heads. You're standing in a particular point on the floor. At that point on the floor, you visualize a coordinate axis, which we'll call the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axis.

Now, obviously, you can move out from the point at which you're standing along the  $x$ -axis. You can move out in the direction along the  $y$ -axis. You can visualize that how rapidly the height above your head is changing as you move out certainly will depend on whether you're moving along the  $x$ -axis or the  $y$ -axis.

But the key point-- at least, the key point from the point of view of today's lecture-- is the fact that why were you restricted to either of these two directions? Why couldn't you have moved in any one of infinitely many different directions, namely from the point at which originating? You can move in any direction at all, because we're assuming, at least, that the floor on which you're standing is continuous. It's unbroken. You can move in these directions.

And the idea that you get can be shown pictorially by saying, look. Let's assume that we're at the point  $(a, b)$ . We have this surface over our head just as we did before. But now, instead of picking a direction either parallel to the  $wx$  plane or to the  $wy$  plane, let's pick some arbitrary direction  $s$  in which to move.

And now, what I'm saying is if I now take the plane that passes through this direction  $s$  perpendicular to the  $xy$  plane, that plane will also intersect this surface, passing through the point  $P_0$ . I get a curve of intersection, and I can talk about the slope of that particular curve. See, ultimately, this is what we're going to be talking about.

Now, what is the slope of that particular curve? Well it's a derivative. It's a derivative of  $w$  with respect to  $s$ , where all of a sudden we've now chosen the  $s$  direction over here to be what we're going to take our derivative with respect to. In other words, it seems to make sense to talk about the derivative of  $f$  in the direction of  $s$ , evaluated at the point  $a$  comma  $b$ . In other words, just like we talked about  $f_{\text{sub } x}(a, b)$  and  $f_{\text{sub } y}(a, b)$ , why can't we talk about the derivative of  $f$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$  in the

direction of  $x$ ?

And if we want to correlate this with the notation in the text, observe that we call that  $dw/ds$ . By the way, notice-- not the partial of  $w$  with respect to  $s$ , but the derivative of  $w$  with respect to  $s$ . Remember, the partials were essentially defined in terms of holding either  $x$  or  $y$  constant.

Notice that in our general directional derivative idea, neither  $x$  nor  $y$  is being held constant. Notice that  $x$  and  $y$  are varying as we move along  $s$ . Notice, also by the way, that once  $x$  and  $y$  are restricted to move along  $s$ , they are no longer independent variables.

It's a rather interesting point. We talk about  $w$  being a function of the two independent variables  $x$  and  $y$ , but as soon as we pick that direction  $s$  in the  $xy$  plane,  $x$  and  $y$  have to be very specially related, namely, according to the equation of a straight line that determines  $s$  for that point to be on the line. And that's why we talk about  $dw/ds$ .  $w$  is a function of a single variable once you restrict yourself to the particular direction  $s$ . At any rate, the question that we want to come to grips with is how do you find  $dw/ds$ .

Well, here again is the beauty of our logical structure. By definition-- this is the same definition we knew early in part one of our course.  $dw/ds$ , by definition, is the limit as  $\Delta s$  approaches 0,  $\Delta w$  divided by  $\Delta s$ .

Now, the thing is what's very difficult to compute in real life is  $\Delta w$ . After all, this  $w$ , being  $f(x,y)$ ,  $f$  can be a very, very complicated surface. And to actually find the true change in  $w$ -- well, heck. We already saw this in part one when we compared this  $\Delta y$  with  $\Delta y \tan$ . To actually find the change in  $y$  was a much more difficult job than to find the change in  $y$  to the tangent line.

What we're saying here is, look. We already know how to find the change in  $w$ , not to the surface, but to the plane which is tangent to the surface at our point  $P$  sub 0. In other words, we have already discussed that  $\Delta w \tan$  is the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$  times  $\Delta x$  plus the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $y$  at

the point  $(a, b)$  times  $\Delta y$ .

And now, what we say is-- and I've written this to accentuate, because I have to talk very strongly about this. It's a point that, if I don't make, most of you, at least, will allow me to slip over this and not even notice that I've missed something very, very crucial. But let me assume that I can approximate  $\Delta w$  by  $\Delta w \tan$ . In other words, let's suppose  $\Delta w \tan$  is a reasonable approximation for  $\Delta w$ .

You say, well, what's such a big assumption about that? And I'm going to save that for the very last part of the lecture, because my belief is that the subtlety is so great that I would like to leave that for the very end and go through as if the subtlety didn't exist so that you get the computational feeling as to what's going on here. But here's the interesting point. Notice that  $\Delta w$  is a change in  $w$  as you move from the point  $(a, b)$  to some other point in the plane. It's a change in height.

Now, obviously, that change in  $w$  is going to depend very strongly on what direction you're moving in. On the other hand, how was  $\Delta w \tan$  computed?  $\Delta w \tan$  was computed just by knowing two special directional derivatives known as the partial derivatives.

You see, notice that to get  $\Delta w \tan$ , I have made the assumption that all I have to know is what's happening in the  $x$  direction and what's happening in the  $y$  direction, everything else being determined from the function evaluated at  $(a, b)$ . So this is really a very strong assumption, that  $\Delta w$  is determined pretty closely by  $\Delta w \tan$ .

And it turns out to be almost universally true and we're going to save that part, as I say, for the end. But for now, let's suppose that we are allowed to replace  $\Delta w$  by  $\Delta w \tan$ . If we do that, and we go back to our definition for  $dw/ds$ -- namely, the limit as  $\Delta s$  approaches 0,  $\Delta w$  divided by  $\Delta s$ -- we now replace  $\Delta w$  by  $\Delta w \tan$  and divide through by  $\Delta s$  to find  $\Delta w$  over  $\Delta s$ .

We have, assuming that this is a legal substitution, that  $\Delta w$  over  $\Delta s$  is the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $x$ , evaluated at  $(a, b)$  times  $\Delta x$  divided by  $\Delta s$  plus

the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $y$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$  times the change in  $y$  divided by the change in  $s$ --  $\Delta y$  divided by  $\Delta s$ .

Now, remember, in the  $s$  direction,  $x$  and  $y$  are not independent variables. In fact, how are they related? Let's isolate our little diagram here so that we see in what direction we're moving here. We're starting at the point  $(a, b)$ .

And by the way, to get the proper orientation here, as I've drawn the  $xy$  plane here, imagine the surface coming out from the blackboard. In other words, the height is really being measured away from the blackboard here. That's where my surface is. I move in the direction of  $s$ .

Here is a  $\Delta x$ . Here is a  $\Delta y$ .  $s$  has a constant direction, a constant slope. It's a straight line. Call the angle that it makes with the positive  $x$ -axis  $\phi$ . Notice that no matter how big  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  are, they are related by similar triangles to what? The  $\Delta x$  divided by  $\Delta s$  will always be  $\cos \phi$ , and  $\Delta y$  divided by  $\Delta s$  will always be  $\sin \phi$ .

And therefore, if I replace  $\Delta x$  divided by  $\Delta s$  by  $\cos \phi$ ,  $\Delta y$  divided by  $\Delta s$  by  $\sin \phi$ , I obtain that-- what?  $\Delta w$  divided by  $\Delta s$  is equal to the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  evaluated at point  $(a, b)$  times the cosine of  $\phi$  plus the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $y$  evaluated at  $a$  comma  $b$  times the sine of  $\phi$ , where  $\phi$  is the what? The angle that the direction  $s$  makes with the positive  $x$ -axis.

At any rate, notice by the way, that these things are all constants once  $s$  is chosen, once the point  $(a, b)$  is fixed. Therefore, when I pass to the limit, nothing really changes. In other words, this thing that I'm calling the directional derivative of  $f$  in the direction of  $s$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$  turns out to be what? The partial of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  at the point  $(a, b)$  times  $\cos \phi$  plus the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $y$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$  times the sine of  $\phi$ .

And what I'd like you to notice is that in these two terms, one factor of each term is determined solely by the point  $a$  comma  $b$ . In other words, notice that these two factors here are just partial derivatives and have nothing to do with direction. They

determined solely by the choice of the function  $f$  and the point  $(a, b)$ .

On the other hand, notice that these two factors,  $\cos \phi$  and  $\sin \phi$ , have nothing to do with  $f$  and have to do only with the direction  $s$  itself, which, again, should make intuitive sense to you. But if you're asking in terms of the surface being up over your head for a directional derivative, obviously, once the surface is given, the directional derivative should depend on two things-- one, what point you start at, and the other, what direction you move in once you've started at that particular point. And what direction you move in has nothing to do with what the surface looks like over your head.

At any rate, what we now do is invoke our dot product notation-- in other words, this little trick that we talked about when we learned dot products. This particular sum can be written very suggestively as the dot product of two vectors. Namely, I will write this as what? The vector whose components are  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  dotted with the vector whose components are  $\cos \phi$  and  $\sin \phi$ , because remember, when you dot two vectors in Cartesian coordinates, you multiply them coefficient by coefficient.

To make a long story short,  $dw/ds$  is what? It's this vector,  $f_s$ , whose  $i$  component is  $f_x$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$ , whose  $j$  component is  $f_y$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$ . I call that vector  $g(a, b)$ . I'm going to give that a special name a little bit later.

But for now, it's very important to notice that this is not a number. It's an ordered pair of numbers. In other words, it's a vector, and if you want to think of this as a vector, what we're saying is what? Think of the vector whose  $i$  component is the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$ , whose  $j$  component is  $f_y$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$ .

Notice that these are numbers, because  $a$  and  $b$  are fixed constants here.

Therefore, this vector,  $g(a, b)$  is a constant vector, and it's in the  $xy$  plane. It's a 2-tuple. On the other hand, the other vector  $(\cos \phi, \sin \phi)$ -- hopefully, you recognize by now is nothing more than the unit vector in the direction of  $s$ . You see, this is the unit vector in the direction of  $s$ . So if I now use my abbreviation,  $dw/ds$

evaluated at  $(a, b)$ -- in other words, the directional derivative of  $w$  in the direction of  $s$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$  is just my vector  $g(a, b)$  dotted with the unit vector in the direction of  $s$ .

Now, observe have two things. First of all, when you dot, this is a constant. I can't change this once  $a$  and  $b$  are given. This is fixed. So all I can vary is  $u_{\text{sub } s}$ . But  $u_{\text{sub } s}$  is a unit vector, so the only way I can vary  $u_{\text{sub } s}$  is to change its direction.

Notice that for two vectors of constant magnitude, their dot product is maximum when the two vectors are parallel. In other words, this will be as big as possible when  $u_{\text{sub } s}$  is chosen to be in the direction of my vector  $g$ . In other words,  $dw/ds$  at  $(a, b)$  is maximum in the direction of  $g(a, b)$ . That's the first thing to observe.

The second thing is that when they act parallel, the cosine of the angle between them is 1. So the magnitude of this vector will just be the product of these two magnitudes. But the magnitude of  $u_{\text{sub } s}$ ,  $u_{\text{sub } s}$  being a unit vector, is 1. Therefore, the maximum magnitude not only occurs in the direction of  $g$ , but it is also numerically equal to the magnitude of  $g$ .

In other words, the maximum value of  $dw/ds$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$  not only occurs in the direction of the vector  $g$ , but that maximum magnitude is the magnitude of  $g$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$ . For that reason,  $g$  of  $(a, b)$  is given a very important name. And I decided to hold off on the name until as late as possible so that the name wouldn't frighten you.

But the name is the gradient vector. In other words, the vector  $g$  of  $(a, b)$  is called the gradient of  $f$  at  $(a, b)$ . And it's usually written in this notation-- in an upside down delta. It's called  $\nabla$ , usually, with an arrow over it, or in boldface print in the text. And it's written this way and it's read what? The gradient of  $f$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$ .

What is the gradient of  $f$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$ ? It's the vector, which gives you the hint as to how to compute the directional derivative in any direction that you wish. Namely, in terms of the gradient vector, the directional derivative of  $f$  in the direction of  $s$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$  is the gradient of  $f$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$  dotted with the unit

vector in the direction of  $s$ . By the way, you may recall that when you dot a vector with a unit vector, you get the projection of that vector in the direction of the unit vector. In other words, the directional derivative-- another way of looking at this physically is nothing more than the projection of the gradient vector onto the given direction in which you're moving.

And the important point is that this particular definition does not depend on our coordinate system. What is interesting is that, in Cartesian coordinates, there is a very simple way of computing the gradient vector. Namely, the  $i$  component of the gradient vector is just the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  and the  $j$  component is just the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $y$ .

But that was a very special case, because, you see,  $i$  and  $x$  happen to have the same direction, as do  $y$  and  $j$ . For arbitrary coordinate systems, this need not be true. And I'm going to drill you on that in the exercises. But in other words, what I'm saying is remember the gradient vector in terms of a maximum directional derivative. Don't memorize it as a formula, because if you do, you're going to get in trouble.

For example, if I were to give my surface in polar coordinates, say  $w$  of some function of  $r$  and  $\theta$ , then it turns out-- and there's an exercise on this in the notes-- that the gradient of  $f$  is the partial of  $w$  with respect to  $r$  times  $u_r$  plus-- and here's the big difference--  $\frac{1}{r}$  times the partial of  $w$  with respect to  $\theta$  times  $u_\theta$ . In other words, the gradient vector is not the partial of  $w$  with respect to  $r$  times  $u_r$  plus the partial of  $w$  with respect to  $\theta$  times  $u_\theta$ . In other words, you don't just mechanically differentiate with respect to these variables.

And the key reason that you can't do this-- well, look. Let's just look at this little diagram. And I think the whole idea will become very clear. Remember that in polar coordinates  $r$  is denoted this way.  $u_\theta$  is at right angles to  $r$ . Notice that  $u_\theta$  is not in the direction of  $\theta$ . Notice that the direction of  $\theta$  is sort of the tangent to this circle of radius  $r$  at this point. If I call this increment  $d(\theta)$ ,

notice that this arc length is  $r d(\theta)$ , so the vector in the direction of  $u_{\theta}$  is  $r d(\theta)$ , not  $d(\theta)$ .

I don't know if you noticed that, but coming back up here for a moment, notice that this was OK here, because  $r$  was in the same direction as  $u_r$ . Notice, however, that it's  $r d(\theta)$  which is in the  $u_{\theta}$  direction. Again, I leave most of these details for the notes. But I feel that if I don't say these things to you, it becomes very easy to miss these points when we talk about them or write about them, but somehow I hope that by you hearing me say this, you will be keyed in when you come to these concepts in the unit that we're studying.

But I think the best way to augment what we're doing is by means of a specific example. Let us suppose that we're given the surface  $w$  equals  $f(x,y)$  where  $f(x,y)$  is  $x$  to the fifth plus  $x$  cubed  $y$  plus  $y$  to the fifth. And we want to compute the directional derivative of  $f$  at the point  $(1, 1)$  in the direction-- let's call it  $s_1$ , where  $s_1$  is the direction that goes from the point  $(1, 1)$  to the point  $(4, 5)$ .

Now, what we're saying is-- and I guess, maybe, if we look at these two diagrams concurrently, maybe this'll be easier to see. Here we are at the point  $(1, 1)$  We want to see how fast the slope over our head-- the  $w$  value-- is changing in the direction of  $s_1$ , where  $s_1$  is chosen to be what? We're moving from the point  $(1, 1)$  on the  $xy$  plane to the point  $(4, 5)$ .

See, we're moving in this direction and we want to see how fast  $w$  is changing over our heads, which geometrically means you draw this plane, intersect it with the particular surface here. And this point,  $P_0$ -- what we really want geometrically is what? The slope of the line tangent to this curve in the  $ws_1$  plane tangent to this curve at the point  $P_0$ . And my claim is that this can be done very, very easily from a mechanical point of view now that we have our gradient vector behind us.

Namely, what we do is, given what  $w$  looks like as a function of  $x$  and  $y$ , we take the partial of  $w$  with respect to both  $x$  and  $y$ , which, hopefully, you can all do quite mechanically now based on our last unit's work. We differentiate, first holding  $y$  constant, then holding  $x$  constant. At any rate, we obtain what? That the partial of  $w$

with respect to  $x$  is  $5x^4 + 3x^2y$ . And so if we compute that at the point  $(1, 1)$  when  $x$  and  $y$  are both 1, this simply turns out to be 8.

In a similar way, the partial of  $w$  with respect to  $y$  is  $x^3 + 6y^5$ . So if we compute that at the point  $(1, 1)$ , that turns out to be 7. In other words, then, by definition of our gradient, which is the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  evaluated at  $(1, 1)$  times  $i$  plus the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $y$  evaluated at  $(1, 1)$  times  $j$ , the gradient of  $f$  at  $(1, 1)$  is just  $8i + 7j$ . Very easy to write down mechanically when you're using Cartesian coordinates.

Now, let me make a brief aside, an interruption here. The idea is to emphasize what the gradient vector means. What this tells me is that if I were to leave the point  $(1, 1)$  in the direction of the vector  $8i + 7j$ -- if I were to leave in that direction, that would be the direction in which the directional derivative would be maximum. And moreover, that maximum directional derivative would just be the magnitude of this gradient vector.

The magnitude of that gradient vector is just the square root of  $8^2 + 7^2$ , which is the square root of 113. In other words, what this tells us is that the maximum directional derivative leaving the point  $1, 1$  is the square root of 113, and it occurs in a direction  $8i + 7j$  as you leave the point  $1, 1$ .

At any rate, getting back to the main stream of the problem, what we want is a directional derivative in the direction of  $s_1$ . That means what? We take our gradient vector, which is  $(8, 7)$ , and dot that with the unit vector in the direction of  $s_1$ .

You may recall from this diagram here that the vector in the direction of  $s_1$  has its  $i$  component equal to 3, its  $j$  component equal to 4. This makes this a 3, 4, 5 right triangle. So the unit vector in this direction has as its components  $3/5$  and  $4/5$ .

In other words, the directional derivative of  $f$  at the point  $(1, 1)$  in the given direction  $s_1$  is just the gradient dotted with the unit vector  $3/5 i + 4/5 j$ . Just mechanically carrying out this operation leads to  $52/5$ . And by the way, this had better turn out to be less than this, because this is what? The maximum value that the directional

derivative can have. In other words, if we haven't made a mistake here, one of the checkpoints is what? That the vector can't project to be any longer than what it really is in this. It can't be more than the gradient vector.

But at any rate, let's now conclude the lecture by coming to the part which is probably the hardest thing that we're going to encounter in the whole course. In a way, I feel a little bit like a man who fell off the Empire State Building. And when he went past the 40th floor, somebody said, "How are you doing?" And he said, "So far so good."

And that is, we've taken some tremendous liberties here. And the biggest liberty that we've taken-- and it's not just a liberty. It's the kind of a liberty that to solve involves the foundations of our entire course. We are now at the grassroots of what at least the calculus of functions of several variables is all about. And that's this trouble spot.

First of all, does  $\Delta w$  exist? That's the first question. Namely, how do you know that there is a tangent plane? Just because the surface happens to be smooth when you cut it by a plane parallel to the  $wy$  plane and smooth when you cut it by a plane parallel to  $wx$  plane, how do you know that it's going to be smooth for any given direction?

See, that's the first intellectual question that comes up in the reading assignment that has to be solved effectively. First of all, does  $\Delta w$  exist meaningfully? And secondly, if it does exist, how is it related to  $\Delta w$ ?

And now, we come to that key theorem, the proof of which is quite hairy. It's done in the text. It's also done as an optional exercise to help you generalize what's done in the text. And it's the counterpart of what happens with differentials in functions of a single real variable. But the key theorem, which I'll state here without proof, is simply this.

Suppose that  $w$  is a function of  $x$  and  $y$  and that  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  both happen to exist in some neighborhood of the point  $(a, b)$ . All right? So far so good. Now, here is the key additional hypothesis. Suppose also that  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  happen to

be continuous at  $(a, b)$ .

My claim is that if this additional hypothesis is obeyed, the tangent plane will exist. In other words, it's not enough for the directional derivative to exist in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions in order to guarantee that the directional derivative will exist in every direction. But it is enough provided that these directional derivatives happen to be continuous. And by the way, if these conditions are met, we say that  $f$  is a continuously differentiable function of  $x$  and  $y$ .

But I'll talk about that more next time or in the notes or in the exercises. We're going to make a big issue over the sooner or later. But for now what I do want to do is just end with what the key theorem is.

The key theorem says, look. Just like with one variable, if these conditions are met, then there is a very reasonable approximation to  $\Delta w$  by  $\Delta w \tan$ . Namely, what the theorem says is, in this case,  $\Delta w$  will be the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$  times  $\Delta x$  plus the partial of  $f$  with respect to  $y$  evaluated at  $(a, b)$  times  $\Delta y$ -- and notice, of course, that this is a thing that we've been calling  $\Delta w \tan$ -- plus an arrow. And the arrow has the form  $k_1 \Delta x$  plus  $k_2 \Delta y$ , where  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  both approach 0 as  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  approach 0.

And this is very, very crucial. It's not enough, as we're going to see in the very next lecture, that  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  approach 0. It's that these things go to 0 as  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  go to 0. Consequently, these terms go to 0 faster. They go to 0 as a second order, infinitesimal. And what this really says is, look, for very small values of  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$ , even when you're dealing with  $0/0$  forms, if you pick a sufficiently small neighborhood of the point  $(a, b)$ -- and that's the key point, a sufficiently small neighborhood of the point  $(a, b)$ -- then  $\Delta w$  is approximately equal to  $\Delta w \tan$

And by the way, this holds also in several variables. In other words, I picked the case  $n$  equals 2 here simply so that we can utilize the geometry. Namely, what we're saying is, in terms of the geometry, if  $f$  happens to be a continuously differentiable function of  $x$  and  $y$ , and we look at the surface  $w$  equals  $f(x, y)$  above the point  $(a, b)$ , what we're saying is that in a neighborhood of that point, there is--

well, first of all we're saying what?

A tangent plane exists to the surface above that point and that in a neighborhood of that point of tangency, the tangent plane is an excellent approximation of the true change in  $w$ . Now, what happens is if  $n$  is greater than 2, we can no longer use the geometric interpretation. But what is important is that the analytic proof never makes use of the picture.

And the key point is-- and I'm going to exploit this in future lectures. The really key point is that the  $\Delta w$  never gets messy, that the variables--  $\Delta x$ ,  $\Delta y$ , et cetera-- all occur as linear terms. And this is why the so-called linear algebra subject becomes so important in the study of functions of several variables.

At any rate, I think this is enough for one lesson. And in our next lesson, what we will do is show how using this key theorem has its analog in something called the chain rule, just as it did in the case of part one when we studied functions of a single independent variable.

At any rate, then, until next time. Good bye.

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