

Section 7: Functions of Two Variables

Example

The temperature T at a point on the Earth's surface at a given time depends on the latitude x and the longitude y . We think of T being a function of the variables x, y and write $T = f(x, y)$.

In general

A **function of two variables** is a mapping f that assigns a unique real number $z = f(x, y)$ to each pair of real numbers (x, y) in some subset D of the xy plane \mathbb{R}^2 . We also write

$$f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

where D is called the **domain** of f .

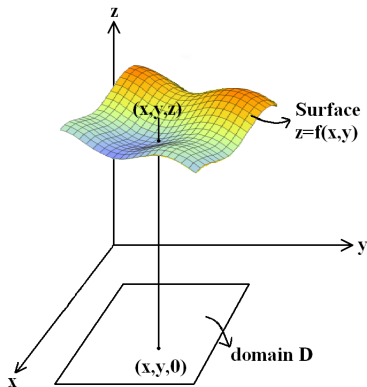
Example

If $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^3$ then $f(2, 1) = 4 + 1 = 5$.

We can represent the function f by its graph in \mathbb{R}^3 . The **graph of f** is:

$$\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : (x, y) \in D \text{ and } z = f(x, y)\}.$$

This is a surface lying directly above the domain D . The x and y axes lie in the horizontal plane and the z axis is vertical.



Equations of a Plane

The Cartesian equation of a plane has the form

$$ax + by + cz = d$$

where a, b, c, d are real constants.

$\mathbf{n} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j} + c\mathbf{k}$ is a normal vector to the plane.

In fact, the plane passing through a point (x_0, y_0, z_0) with a normal vector (a, b, c) consists of the points (x, y, z) such that (a, b, c) is perpendicular to $(x - x_0, y - y_0, z - z_0)$ and thus has equation

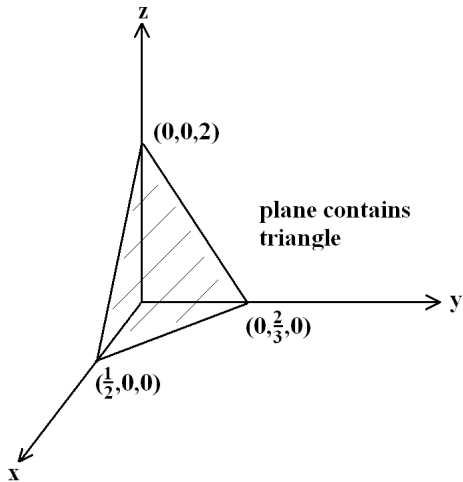
$$a(x - x_0) + b(y - y_0) + c(z - z_0) = 0,$$

that is,

$$ax + by + cz = ax_0 + by_0 + cz_0.$$

Example 7.1: The plane $4x + 3y + z = 2$ can be written as $z = 2 - 4x - 3y$, so is the graph of the function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x, y) = 2 - 4x - 3y$. Sketch the plane.

Solution:



Level Curves

A curve on the surface $z = f(x, y)$ for which z is a constant is a **contour**.

The same curve drawn in the xy plane is a level curve.

So a **level curve of f** has the form

$$\{(x, y) : f(x, y) = c\}$$

where $c \in \mathbb{R}$ is a constant.

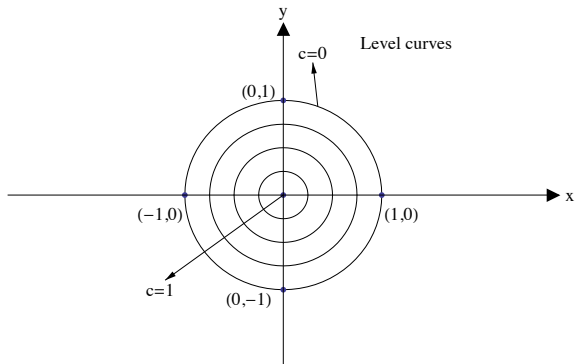
Sketching Functions of Two Variables

The key steps in drawing a graph of a function of two variables $z = f(x, y)$ are:

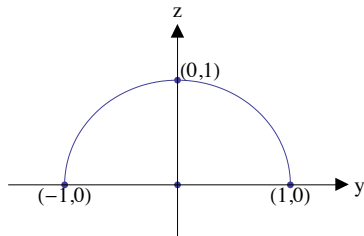
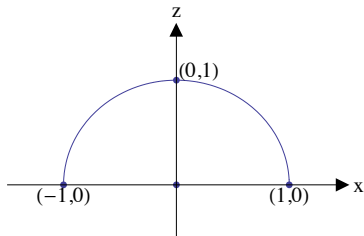
1. Draw the x, y, z axes.
For right handed axes: the positive x axis is towards you, the positive y axis points to the right, and the positive z axis points upward.
2. Draw the $y - z$ cross section.
3. Draw some level curves and their contours.
4. Draw the $x - z$ cross section.
5. Label any x, y, z intercepts and key points.

Example 7.2: Find the level curves of $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$.
Hence sketch the surface and identify it.

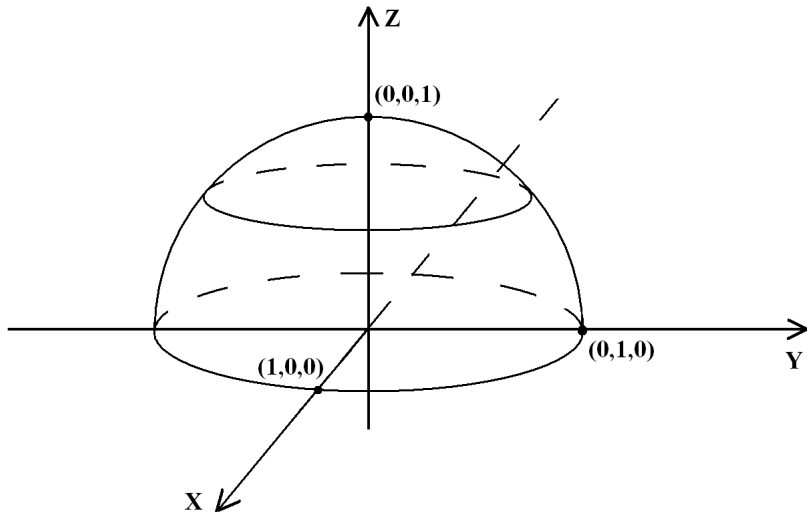
Solution:



Consider cross sections (slices) to help sketch graph.

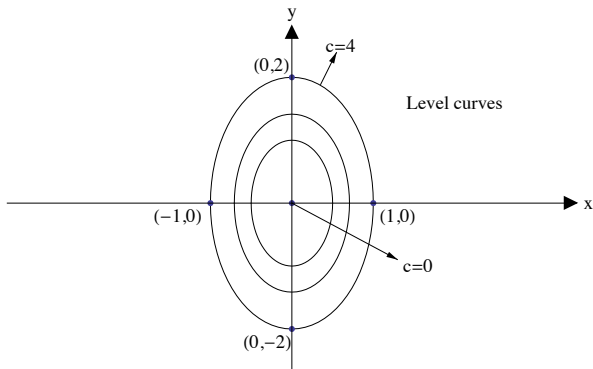


Surface is a hemisphere radius 1, centre at $(0,0,0)$ for $z \geq 0$.

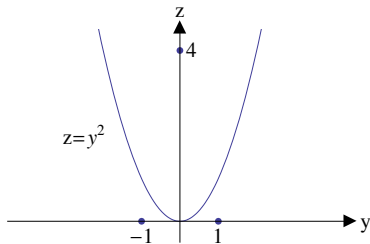
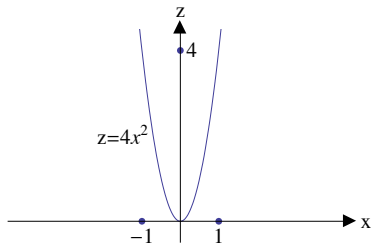


Example 7.3: Sketch the graph of $z = 4x^2 + y^2$.

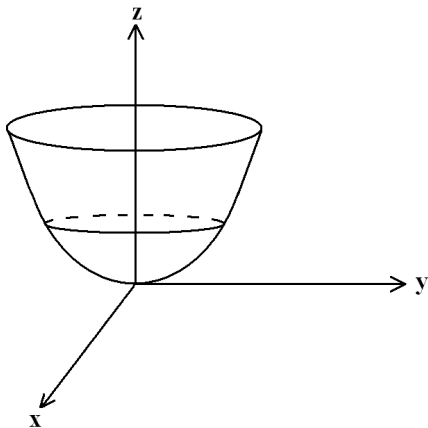
Solution:



Consider cross sections (slices) to help sketch graph.

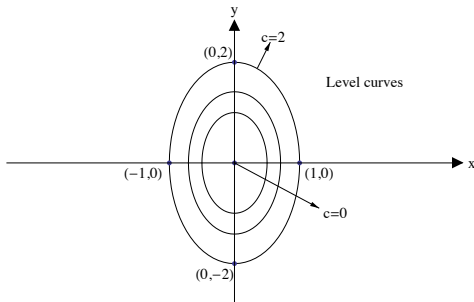


The surface is an elliptic paraboloid (parabolic bowl).

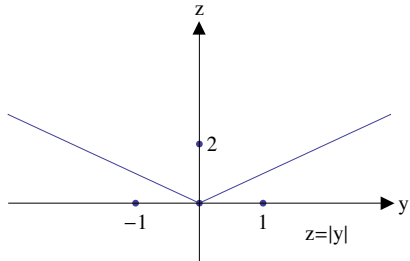
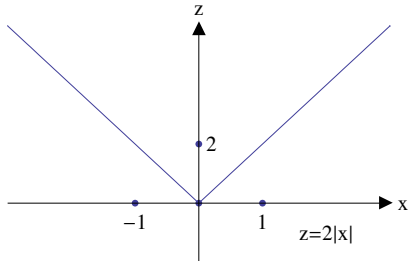


Example 7.4: Sketch the graph of $z = \sqrt{4x^2 + y^2}$.

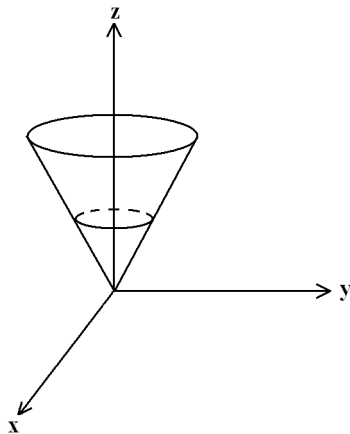
Solution:



Cross sections



The surface is an elliptic cone.



Limits

Let $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a real-valued function, where $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$.

We say f has the **limit L as (x, y) approaches (x_0, y_0)**

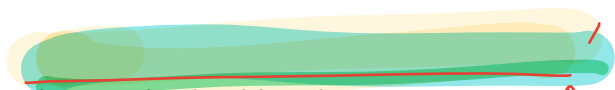
$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} f(x,y) = L$$

if when (x, y) approaches (x_0, y_0) along ANY path in the domain, $f(x, y)$ gets arbitrarily close to L .

Note:

- 1 L must be finite.
- 2 The limit can exist if f is undefined at (x_0, y_0) .
- 3 The usual limit laws apply.

Continuity



Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a real-valued function.

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

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

Same

Note:

The continuity theorems for functions of one variable can be generalised to functions of two variables.

Example 7.5: Let $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$. For which values of x and y is f continuous?

Solution:

Example 7.6: Evaluate $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (2,1)} \log(1 + 2x^2 + 3y^2)$.

Solution:

First Order Partial Derivatives

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a real-valued function. The **first order partial derivatives** of f with respect to the variables x and y are defined by the limits:

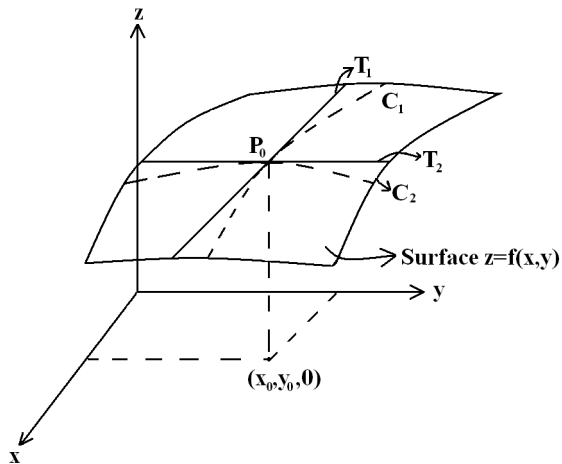
$$f_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h, y) - f(x, y)}{h}$$

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

Note:

- $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ measures the rate of change of f with respect to x when y is held constant.
- $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ measures the rate of change of f with respect to y when x is held constant.

Geometric Interpretation of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$



Let C_1 be the curve where the vertical plane $y = y_0$ intersects the surface. Then $\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)}$ gives the slope of the tangent to C_1 at (x_0, y_0, z_0) .

Let C_2 be the curve where the vertical plane $x = x_0$ intersects the surface. The $\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)}$ gives the slope of the tangent to C_2 at (x_0, y_0, z_0) .

- T_1 and T_2 are the tangent lines to C_1 and C_2 .

Example 7.7: Let $f(x, y) = xy^2$. Find $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ from first principles.

Solution:

Example 7.8: Let $f(x, y) = 3x^3y^2 + 3xy^4$. Find $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$.

Solution:

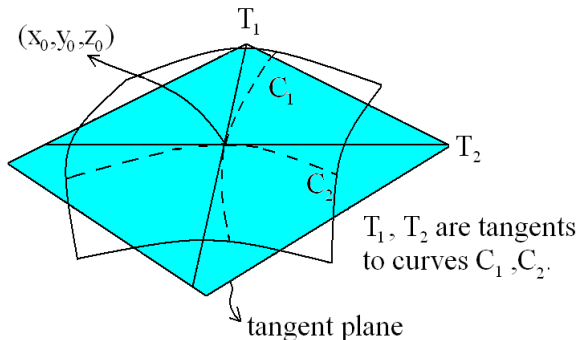
Example 7.9: Let $f(x, y) = y \log x + x \tanh(3y)$. Find f_x, f_y at $(1, 0)$.

Solution:

Tangent Planes and Differentiability

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a real-valued function. We say that f is **differentiable** at (x_0, y_0) if the tangent lines to all curves on the surface $z = f(x, y)$ passing through (x_0, y_0, z_0) form a plane, called the **tangent plane**.

This holds if f_x and f_y exist and are continuous near (x_0, y_0) .



The tangent line T_1 has equation ($y = y_0$ fixed):

$$z - z_0 = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} (x - x_0)$$

The tangent line T_2 has equation ($x = x_0$ fixed):

$$z - z_0 = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} (y - y_0)$$

Since a plane passing through (x_0, y_0, z_0) has the form

$$z - z_0 = \alpha(x - x_0) + \beta(y - y_0)$$

the tangent plane has equation

$$z - z_0 = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} (x - x_0) + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} (y - y_0).$$

Example 7.10: Find the equation of the tangent plane to the surface $z = f(x, y) = 2x^2 + y^2$ at $(1, 1, 3)$.

Solution:

Linear Approximations

If f is differentiable at (x_0, y_0) , we can approximate $z = f(x, y)$ by its tangent plane at (x_0, y_0, z_0) .

This **linear approximation of f near (x_0, y_0)** is:

$$f(x, y) \approx f(x_0, y_0) + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} (x - x_0) + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} (y - y_0)$$

Let $\Delta x = x - x_0$, $\Delta y = y - y_0$, $\Delta f = z - z_0 = f(x, y) - f(x_0, y_0)$.

Then the **approximate change** in f near (x_0, y_0) , for given small changes in x and y , is:

$$\Delta f \approx \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} \Delta x + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} \Delta y$$

Example 7.11: Let $z = f(x, y) = x^2 + 3xy - y^2$. If x changes from 2 to 2.05 and y changes from 3 to 2.96, estimate the change in z .

Solution:

Note:

The actual change in f is

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta f &= f(2.05, 2.96) - f(2, 3) \\ &= 13.6449 - 13 \\ &= 0.6449\end{aligned}$$

Example 7.12: Find the linear approximation of $f(x, y) = xe^{xy}$ at $(1, 0)$. Hence, approximate $f(1.1, -0.1)$.

Solution:

Note:

The actual value is

$$(1.1)e^{-0.11} \approx 0.98542$$

Second Order Partial Derivatives

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a real-valued function. The **second order partial derivatives** of f with respect to x and y are defined by:

- $f_{xx} = (f_x)_x = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$
- $f_{yy} = (f_y)_y = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$
- $f_{xy} = (f_x)_y = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$
- $f_{yx} = (f_y)_x = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}$

Theorem:

If the second order partial derivatives of f exist and are continuous then $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$.

Example 7.13: Find the second order partial derivatives of $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x, y) = x \sin(x + 2y)$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet f_{xy}(x, y) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} [\sin(x+2y) + x \cos(x+2y)] \\ &= 2 \cos(x+2y) - 2x \sin(x+2y) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet f_{yx}(x, y) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [2x \cos(x+2y)] \\ &= 2 \cos(x+2y) - 2x \sin(x+2y) \end{aligned}$$

Note:

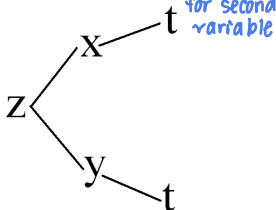
$f_{xy} = f_{yx}$ as expected since trigonometric functions and polynomials are continuous for all $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

Chain Rule

1. If $z = f(x, y)$ and $x = g(t)$, $y = h(t)$ are differentiable functions, then $z = f(g(t), h(t))$ is a function of t , and

chain rule
for first variable

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



hyperboloid

Example 7.14: If $z = x^2 - y^2$, $x = \sin t$, $y = \cos t$. Find $\frac{dz}{dt}$ at $t = \frac{\pi}{6}$.

Solution:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = 2x \quad ; \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -2y \quad ; \quad \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} = \cos(t) \quad ; \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = -\sin(t)$$

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

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

$$\text{At } t = \frac{\pi}{6} \quad ; \quad x = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \quad ; \quad y = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left. \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} \right|_{\pi/6} = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + \left(-2 \cdot \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{3}$$

• check by substitution:

$$z = x^2 - y^2 = \sin^2(t) - \cos^2(t) = -\cos(2t)$$

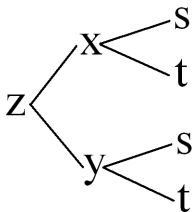
$$\Rightarrow \frac{dz}{dt} = 2\sin(2t)$$

$$\Rightarrow \left. \frac{dz}{dt} \right|_{\pi/6} = 2 \underbrace{\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)}_{\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}} = \sqrt{3}$$

2. If $z = f(x, y)$ and $x = g(s, t)$, $y = h(s, t)$ are differentiable functions, then z is a function of s and t with

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

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



Example 7.15: If $z = e^x \sinh y$, $x = st^2$, $y = s^2t$.

Find $\frac{\partial z}{\partial s}$ and $\frac{\partial z}{\partial t}$.

Solution: $\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = e^x \sinh(y)$; $\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = e^x \cosh(y)$

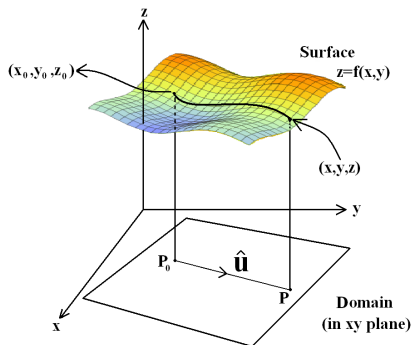
$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \frac{\partial z}{\partial s} &= \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial s} \\ &= (e^x \sinh(y)) t^2 + (e^x \cosh(y)) (2st) \\ &= t^2 e^{st^2} \sinh(s^2 t) + 2st e^{st^2} \cosh(s^2 t) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} &= \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \\ &= (e^x \sinh(y)) (2st) + (e^x \cosh(y)) (s^2) \\ &= 2st e^{st^2} \sinh(s^2 t) + s^2 e^{st^2} \cosh(s^2 t) \end{aligned}$$

Directional Derivatives

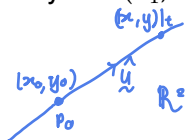
Let $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = (u_1, u_2)$ be a unit vector in the xy -plane (so $u_1^2 + u_2^2 = 1$). The rate of change of f at $P_0 = (x_0, y_0)$ in the direction $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ is the **directional derivative** $D_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}f|_{P_0} = \mathcal{D}_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}f(x_0, y_0)$

Geometrically this represents the slope of the surface $z = f(x, y)$ above the point P_0 in the direction $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$.



The straight line starting at $P_0 = (x_0, y_0)$ with velocity $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = (u_1, u_2)$ has parametric equations:

$$x = x_0 + tu_1, \quad y = y_0 + tu_2.$$



Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}f|_{P_0} &= \text{rate of change of } f \text{ along the straight line at } t = 0 \\ &= \text{value of } \frac{d}{dt}f(x_0 + tu_1, y_0 + tu_2) \text{ at } t = 0 \\ &= f_x(x_0, y_0)x'(0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)y'(0) \quad \text{by the chain rule} \\ &= f_x(x_0, y_0)u_1 + f_y(x_0, y_0)u_2. \end{aligned}$$

We can also write this as a dot product (*scalar / inner product*)

$$D_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}f|_{P_0} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Big|_{P_0}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Big|_{P_0} \right) \cdot (u_1, u_2).$$

Gradient Vectors

If $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a differentiable function, we can define the **gradient** of f to be the vector

$$\text{grad } f = \nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)$$

Then the directional derivative of f at the point P_0 in the direction $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ is the dot product

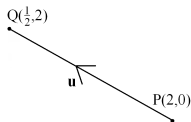
$$D_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}} f \big|_{P_0} = \nabla f \big|_{P_0} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}$$

Example 7.16: Find the directional derivative of $f(x, y) = xe^y$ at $\underbrace{(2, 0)}_{P_0}$ in the direction from $(2, 0)$ towards $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 2\right) = Q$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{u} &= \overrightarrow{PQ} = \left(\frac{1}{2}, 2\right) - (2, 0) \\ &= \left(-\frac{3}{2}, 2\right)\end{aligned}$$

• direction \hat{u}



$$|\vec{u}| = \sqrt{\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 + (2)^2} = \frac{5}{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \hat{\vec{u}} &= \frac{\vec{u}}{|\vec{u}|} = \frac{2}{5} \left(-\frac{3}{2}, 2\right) \\ &= \left(-\frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5}\right) \text{ (direction)}\end{aligned}$$

$$\cdot \nabla f \text{ at } (2, 0) = p$$

$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \underline{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \underline{j} = e^y \underline{i} + xe^y \underline{j}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla f(2, 0) = e^0 \underline{i} + 2e^0 \underline{j} = \underline{i} + 2\underline{j}$$

$$\cdot \nabla_{\hat{u}} f \text{ at } (2, 0) = p$$

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\hat{u}} f(2, 0) &= \nabla f(2, 0) \cdot \hat{u} \\ &= (1, 2) \cdot \left(-\frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5}\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$= 1 \cdot \left(-\frac{3}{5}\right) + 2 \cdot \left(\frac{4}{5}\right)$$

$$= -\frac{3}{5} + \frac{8}{5}$$

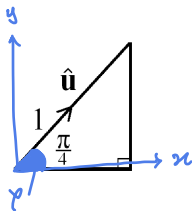
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Example 7.17: Find the directional derivative of

$f(x, y) = \arcsin\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$ at $\underbrace{(1, 2)}_{P_0}$ in the direction $\underbrace{\frac{\pi}{4}}_{\varphi}$ anticlockwise from the positive x axis.

Solution:

- direction $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = (\cos(\varphi), \sin(\varphi)) = (u_1, u_2)$



$$u_1 = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$u_2 = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{u}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \hat{i} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \hat{j} \\ = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

• ∇f at $(1, 2)$:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (\frac{x}{y})^2}} \cdot \frac{1}{y} ; \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (\frac{x}{y})^2}} \left(-\frac{x}{y^2} \right)$$

$$\text{At } (1, 2) : \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} (1, 2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}/2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} (1, 2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}/2} \left(-\frac{1}{2^2} \right) = -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\nabla f(1, 2) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} (1, 2), \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} (1, 2) \right) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \right)$$

• $D_{\hat{u}} f$ at $(1,2)$:

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\hat{u}} f(1,2) &= \nabla f(1,2) \cdot \hat{u} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \left(\frac{-1}{2\sqrt{3}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} - \frac{1}{2\sqrt{6}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{6}} // \end{aligned}$$

Properties of ∇f and $D_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}f$

The directional derivative of f is

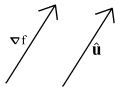
$$\begin{aligned} D_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}f &= \nabla f \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}} \\ &= |\nabla f| |\hat{\mathbf{u}}| \cos \theta \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{D_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}f = |\nabla f| \cos \theta}$$

where θ is the angle between ∇f and $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$, and $|\mathbf{v}|$ denotes the length of a vector \mathbf{v} .

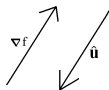
So for fixed ∇f :

- $D_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}f$ is maximum when $\cos \theta = 1$ so $\theta = 0$



$\Rightarrow f$ increases most rapidly along ∇f .

- $D_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}f$ is minimum when $\cos \theta = -1$ so $\theta = \pi$



$\Rightarrow f$ decreases most rapidly along $-\nabla f$.

- $D_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}f = 0$ when $\cos \theta = 0$ so $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ and $\nabla f \perp \hat{\mathbf{u}}$.

But $D_{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}f = 0$, whenever $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ is tangent to a level curve of f (where $f = \text{constant}$).

$$\Rightarrow \nabla f \perp \text{level curves of } f$$

Example 7.18: Let $f(x, y) = 4x^2 + y^2$.

(a) Find ∇f at $(1, 0)$ and $(0, 2)$.

(b) Show that ∇f is perpendicular to the level curves, by sketching ∇f at these points and the level curves of f .

Solution:

$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$\bullet \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 8x \Rightarrow \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(1,0)} = 8(1) = 8 \Rightarrow \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(0,2)} = 8(0) = 0$$

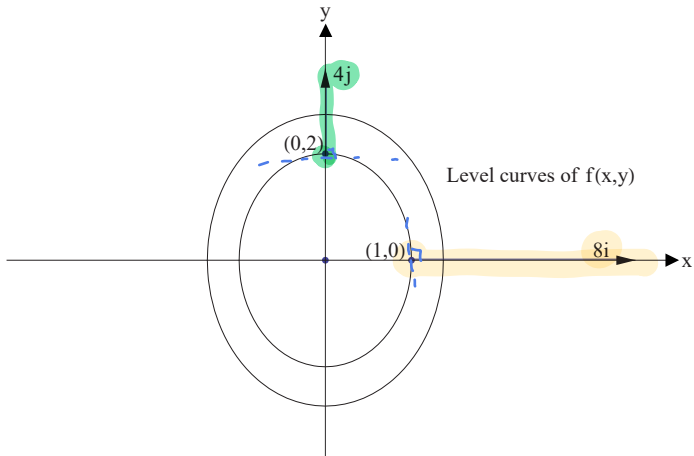
$$\bullet \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y \Rightarrow \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(1,0)} = 2(0) = 0 \Rightarrow \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(0,2)} = 2(2) = 4$$

$$\nabla f = 8x \mathbf{i} + 2y \mathbf{j} = (8x, 2y)$$

$$A + (1, 0) = 8\mathbf{i} + 0\mathbf{j} = (8, 0)$$

$$A + (0, 2) = 0\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} = (0, 4)$$

(b)



Example 7.19: In what direction does $f(x, y) = xe^y$

(a) increase

(b) decrease

most rapidly at $(2, 0)$? Express direction as a unit vector.

Solution:

From Example 7.16

$$\nabla f(2, 0) = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(2,0)} \mathbf{i} + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(2,0)} \mathbf{j}$$

$$\Rightarrow |\nabla f(2, 0)| = \sqrt{1^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{5}$$

\Rightarrow the unit vector in the direction of $\nabla f(2, 0)$ is $\hat{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j})$

The direction of most rapid

a) increase is $\hat{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\hat{i} + 2\hat{j}) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \right)$

b) decrease is $\hat{u} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\hat{i} + 2\hat{j}) = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, -\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \right)$

|

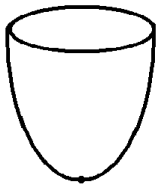
Stationary Points

A **stationary point** of f is a point (x_0, y_0) at which

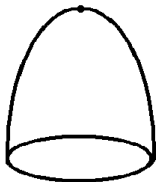
So $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 0$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 0$ simultaneously at (x_0, y_0) .
 $\nabla f = \mathbf{0} = (0, 0)$

Geometrically, this means that the tangent plane to the graph $z = f(x, y)$ at (x_0, y_0) is horizontal, i.e. parallel to the xy -plane.

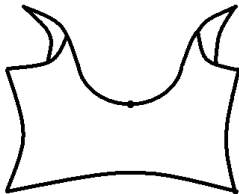
Three important types of stationary points are



Local
Minimum



Local
Maximum



Saddle
Point

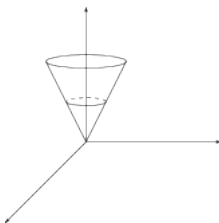
A function f has a

1. **local maximum** at (x_0, y_0) if $f(x, y) \leq f(x_0, y_0)$ for all (x, y) in some disk centred at (x_0, y_0) ,
2. **local minimum** at (x_0, y_0) if $f(x, y) \geq f(x_0, y_0)$ for all (x, y) in some disk centred at (x_0, y_0) ,
3. **saddle point** at (x_0, y_0) if (x_0, y_0) is a stationary point, and there are points near (x_0, y_0) with $f(x, y) > f(x_0, y_0)$ and other points near (x_0, y_0) with $f(x, y) < f(x_0, y_0)$.

Any local maximum or minimum of f will occur at a **critical point** (x_0, y_0) such that

1. $\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \mathbf{0}$ or

2. $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and/or $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ do not exist at (x_0, y_0) .



$z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. Minimum at $(0, 0)$ BUT ∇f does not exist at $(0, 0)$.

Second Derivative Test

If $\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \mathbf{0}$ and the second partial derivatives of f are continuous on an open disk centred at (x_0, y_0) , consider the **Hessian function**

$$H(x, y) = f_{xx}f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2$$

evaluated at (x_0, y_0) .

Then (x_0, y_0) is a

1. local minimum if $H(x_0, y_0) > 0$ and $f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) > 0$.
2. local maximum if $H(x_0, y_0) > 0$ and $f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) < 0$.
3. saddle point if $H(x_0, y_0) < 0$.

Note: Test is inconclusive if $H(x_0, y_0) = 0$.

Example 7.20: Find and classify the stationary points of $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x, y) = x^3 + y^3 + 3x^2 - 3y^2 - 8$.

Solution:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) = 3x^2 + 6x = 0 \Rightarrow 3x(x+2) = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow \begin{matrix} \downarrow & \downarrow \\ x=0 & x=-2 \end{matrix} \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) = 3y^2 - 6y = 0 \Rightarrow 3y(y-2) = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow \begin{matrix} \downarrow & \downarrow \\ y=0 & y=2 \end{matrix} \quad (2)$$

Combining (1) and (2) yields 4 points:

$$(0, 0); (-2, 0); (0, 2); (-2, 2)$$

• CLASSIFY THE stationary points

$$\bullet f_{xx}(x,y) = 6x + 6$$

$$\bullet f_{yy}(x,y) = 6y - 6$$

$$\bullet f_{xy}(x,y) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned}\bullet H(x,y) &= \underbrace{(6x+6)} \underbrace{(6y-6)} - (0)^2 \\ &= 36(x+1)(y-1)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\bullet H(0,0) &= 36(0+1)(0-1) = -36 < 0 \\ \Rightarrow (0,0) &\text{ is a saddle point}\end{aligned}$$

$$\bullet H(-2,0) = 36(-2+1)(0-1) = 36 \geq 0$$

$$f_{xx}(-2,0) = 6 \cdot (-2) + 6 = -6 < 0$$

$\Rightarrow (-2,0)$ is a ^{local} maximum

- $H(-2, 2) = 36(-2+1)(2-1) = -36 < 0$
 $\Rightarrow (-2, 2)$ is a saddle point

- $H(0, 2) = 36(0+1)(2-1) = 36 > 0$
 $f_{xx}(0, 2) = 6 \cdot (0) + 6 = 6 > 0$
 $\Rightarrow (0, 2)$ is a local minimum

Example 7.21: Find and classify the stationary points of $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x, y) = y \sin x$.

Solution:

① FIND STATIONARY POINTS

• Find x, y vals when $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \stackrel{(1)}{=} 0$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \stackrel{(2)}{=} 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= y \cos x = 0 \\ &\quad \downarrow \quad \quad \downarrow \\ &\quad y=0 \quad \cos x=0 \Rightarrow \underline{x = (m + \frac{1}{2})\pi \quad (m \in \mathbb{Z})} \end{aligned}$$

$$\bullet \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \sin x = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{x = n\pi \quad (n \in \mathbb{Z})}$$

• Combining (1) and (2) yields ...

• $x = (m + \frac{1}{2})\pi$ cannot yield a stationary point as it cannot satisfy both equations

• The stationary points are at $(n\pi, 0)$

② CLASSIFYING STATIONARY POINTS

$$H(x, y) = f_{xx} f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2$$

$$f_{xx}(x, y) = -y \sin(x)$$

$$f_{yy}(x, y) = 0$$

$$f_{xy}(x, y) = f_{yx}(x, y) = \cos(x)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow H(x, y) &= -y \sin(x) \cdot 0 - (\cos(x))^2 \\ &= -(\cos^2(x))\end{aligned}$$

$$H(n\pi, 0) = -(\cos^2(n\pi)) = -1 < 0$$

$\Rightarrow (n\pi, 0)$ with $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ are saddle points.

Partial Integration

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function over a domain D in \mathbb{R}^2 .

The **partial indefinite integrals** of f with respect to the first and second variables (say x and y) are denoted by:

$$\int f(x, y) dx \text{ and } \int f(x, y) dy.$$

- $\int f(x, y) dx$ is evaluated by holding y fixed and integrating with respect to x .
- $\int f(x, y) dy$ is evaluated by holding x fixed and integrating with respect to y .

Example 7.22: Evaluate $\int (3x^2y + 12y^2x^3) dx$.

Solution:

Hold y fixed and integrate with respect to x

$$\begin{aligned}\int (3x^2y + 12y^2x^3) dx &= 3y \int x^2 dx + 12y^2 \int x^3 dx \\&= 3y \left(\frac{1}{3} x^3 + c_1(y) \right) + 12y^2 \left(\frac{1}{4} x^4 + c_2(y) \right) \\&= yx^3 + 3y^2x^4 + c(y), \quad c(y) = 3yc_1(y) + 12y^2c_2(y), \text{ a constant of integration that may depend on } y\end{aligned}$$

Note:

Example 7.23: Evaluate $\int_0^1 (3x^2y + 12y^2x^3) dy$.

Solution:

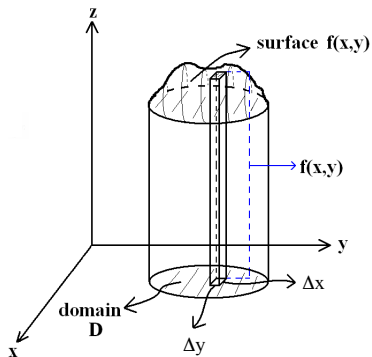
Double Integrals

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function over a domain D in \mathbb{R}^2 .

We can evaluate the **double integral**:

$$\boxed{\iint_D f(x, y) dA = \iint_D f(x, y) dx dy}$$

$\iint_D f(x, y) dA$ is the **volume** under the surface $z = f(x, y)$ that lies above the domain D in the xy plane, if $f(x, y) \geq 0$ in D .



$$\text{Volume of thin rod} = \underbrace{(\text{Area base})}_{\parallel \Delta x \Delta y} \cdot \underbrace{(\text{height})}_{\parallel f(x,y)}$$

The double integral is defined as the limit of sums of the volumes of the rods:

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_D f(x, y) dA &= \iint_D f(x, y) dx dy \\ &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n [f(x, y) \Delta x \Delta y]_i\end{aligned}$$

Note:

If $f(x, y) = 1$ then

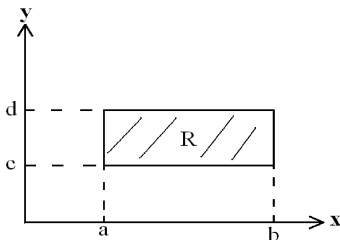
$$\iint_D dA = \iint_D dx dy$$

gives the **area** of the domain D .

Double Integrals Over Rectangular Domains

Definitions

1. $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$ is a rectangular domain defined by $a \leq x \leq b$, $c \leq y \leq d$.



2. $\int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) dx dy = \int_c^d \left[\int_a^b f(x, y) dx \right] dy$ means integrate with respect to x first and then integrate with respect to y .

Fubini's Theorem:

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function over the domain $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R f(x, y) dA &= \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) dx dy \\ &= \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) dy dx\end{aligned}$$

So order of integration is not important.

Example 7.24: Evaluate $\iint_R (x^2 + y^2) dx dy$ if $R = [-1, 1] \times [0, 1]$.

Solution:

$$\text{In } R: -1 \leq x \leq 1 \quad ; \quad 0 \leq y \leq 1$$

• Integrate with respect to x :

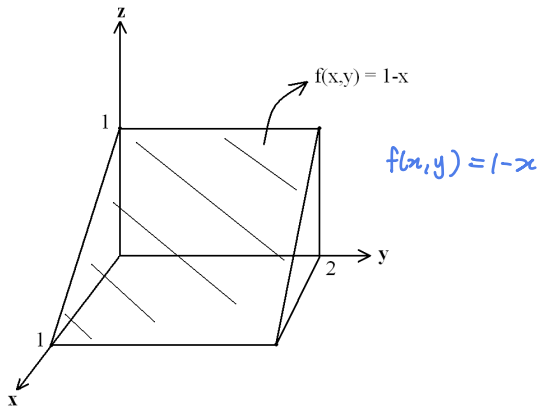
$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R (x^2 + y^2) dx dy &= \int_0^1 \int_{-1}^1 (x^2 + y^2) dx dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \left[\frac{1}{3} x^3 + y^2 x \right]_{-1}^1 dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \left[\left(\frac{1}{3}(1)^3 + y^2(1) \right) - \left(\frac{1}{3}(-1)^3 + y^2(-1) \right) \right] dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \left(\frac{2}{3} + 2y^2 \right) dy \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \left[\frac{2}{3}y + \frac{2}{3}y^3 \right]_0^1 \\
 &= \left(\frac{2}{3}(1) + \frac{2}{3}(1)^3 \right) - \left(\frac{2}{3}(0) + \frac{2}{3}(0)^3 \right) \\
 &= \frac{4}{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

Note:

As expected, the order of integration is not important since polynomials are continuous for all $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

Example 7.25: Using double integrals, find the volume of the wedge shown below.



Solution:

The domain in the x - y plane is:

$$R = [0, 1] \times [0, 2] \Leftrightarrow \begin{aligned} 0 &\leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 &\leq y \leq 2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Volume} = \int \int_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy$$

$$= \int_0^2 \int_0^1 (1-x) \, dx \, dy$$

$$= \int_0^2 \left[1 \cdot x - \frac{1}{2} x^2 \right]_0^1 \, dy$$

$$= \int_0^2 \left[(1) - \frac{1}{2} (1)^2 \right] \, dy$$

$$= \int_0^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \right) \, dy$$

$$= \left[y - \frac{1}{2} y \right]_0^2$$

$$= \left[2 \right] - \frac{1}{2} (2) = \underline{1 \text{ (length)}^3} //$$