

Lecture note #5Differentiation in higher dimensions ( $n$ -dim:  $n \geq 2$ )

• Scalar-valued function:  $f(x) = x^2$

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

↑ number (input)      ↑ number (scalar) (output)

• ~~Scalar-valued function~~:  $f(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-3/2}$

$f: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

↑ vector (input)      ↑ number (aka. "scalar") (output)

• Vector-valued function:  $f(x, y) = (x^2 + y^2, xy)$

$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$

↑ vector (input)      ↑ vector (output)

Q: How do we visualize (graph) higher-dimensional functions?

Ans: We can use level sets.

e.g. Suppose  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ . A level set is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  on which  $f$  is constant.

For example,  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$  is a level set for  $f$ .

This is just a sphere of radius 1 in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

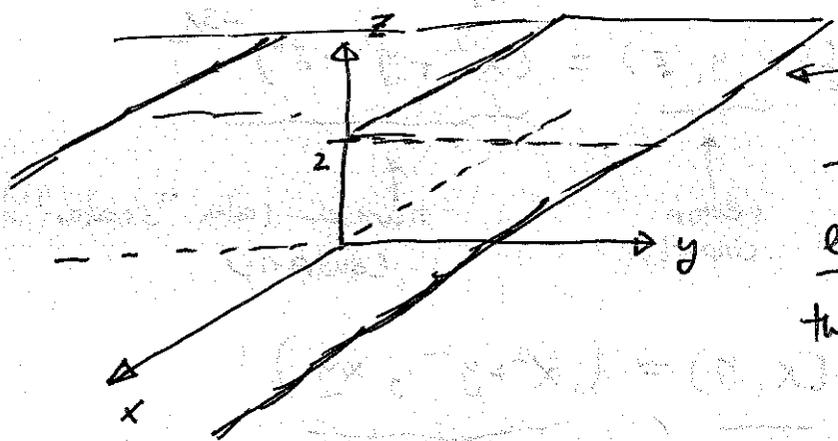
Formally, a level set is the set of  $(x, y, z)$  such that

$f(x, y, z) = C$ ,  $C$  is a constant. The behavior or structure

of a function is determined in part by the shape of its level sets. So we need to understand level sets of a function to better understand the function itself.

Level sets are also useful for understanding functions of two variables  $f(x,y)$ , in which case we speak of level curves or level contours.

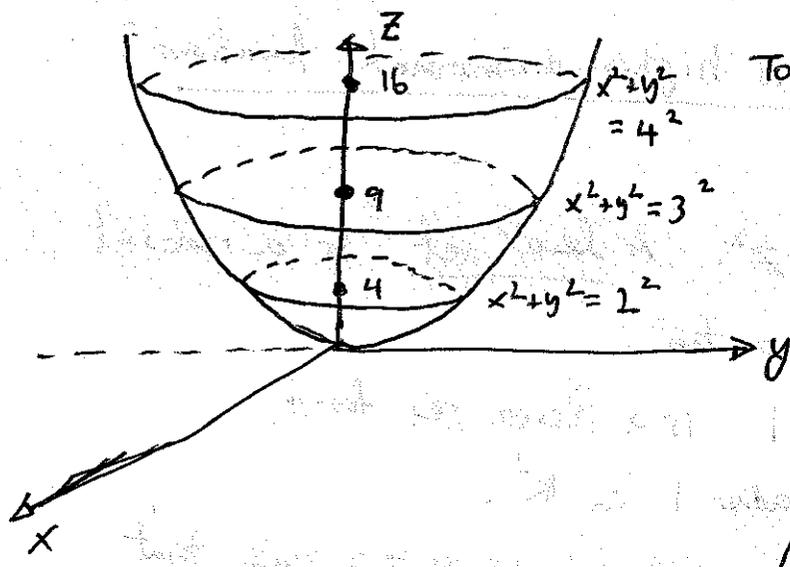
eg 1:  $f(x,y) = 2$ . ~~This describes a plane located at  $z=2$~~   
This describes the horizontal plane  $z=2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .



← plane  $z=2$ .

The level curve of value  $C$  is empty if  $C \neq 2$ , and is the whole  $xy$  plane if  $C=2$ .

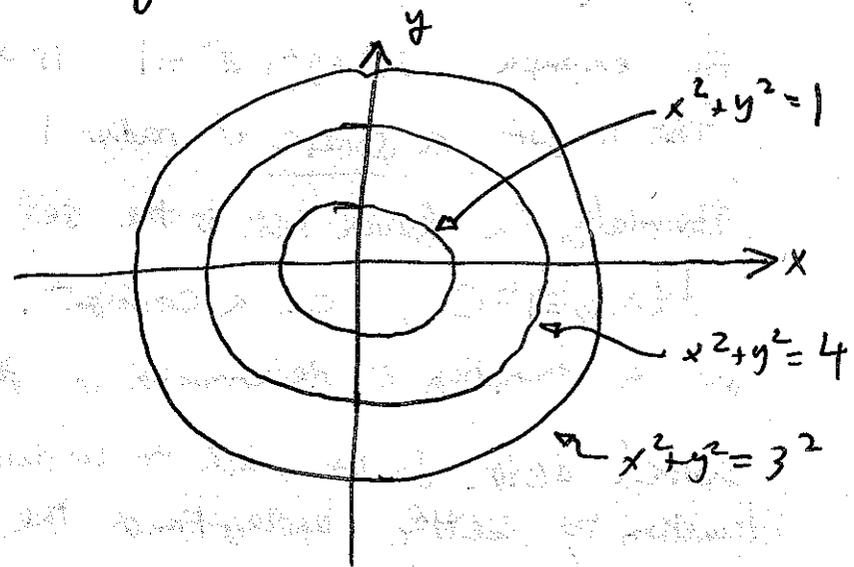
eg 2:  $f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$  ← Describes paraboloid of revolution.



To find level curves of  $f$ :

$$x^2 + y^2 = C$$

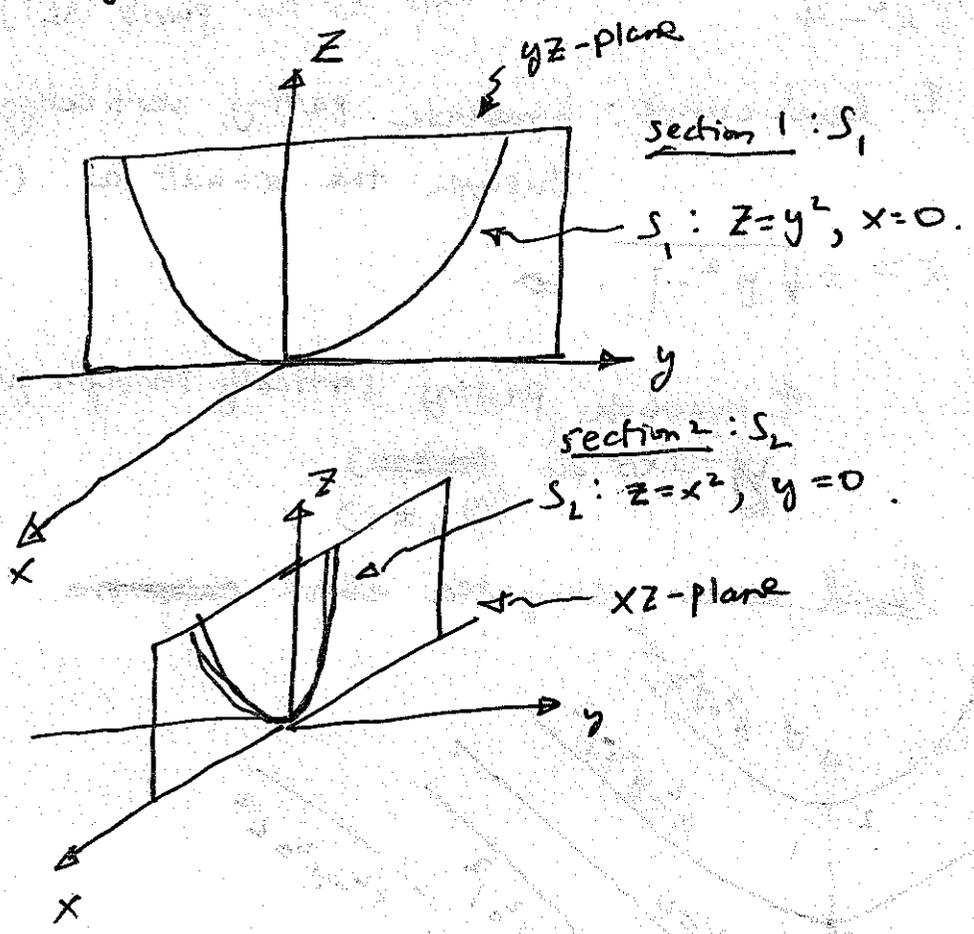
↑ Eqn of circle with radius  $C$ .



Sketch of level curves of paraboloid.

By a section of the graph  $f$ , we mean the intersection of the graph and a (vertical) plane.

e.g. Going back to our paraboloid example: let's take vertical sections of the paraboloid:



e.g. The graph of the quadratic function  $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$  is called a hyperbolic paraboloid (aka. "saddle"), centered at the origin. How do we sketch this graph?

Ans:

To visualize this surface, we first draw the level curves of  $f$ .

Consider the values  $c = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2^2$ .

• For  $c=0$ :  $x^2 - y^2 = 0 \Rightarrow y = \pm x$

so this level set consists of 2 straight lines through the origin.

• For  $c=1$  :  $x^2 - y^2 = 1 \Rightarrow y = \pm \sqrt{x^2 - 1}$

• For  $c=4$  :

$y = \pm \sqrt{x^2 - 4}$

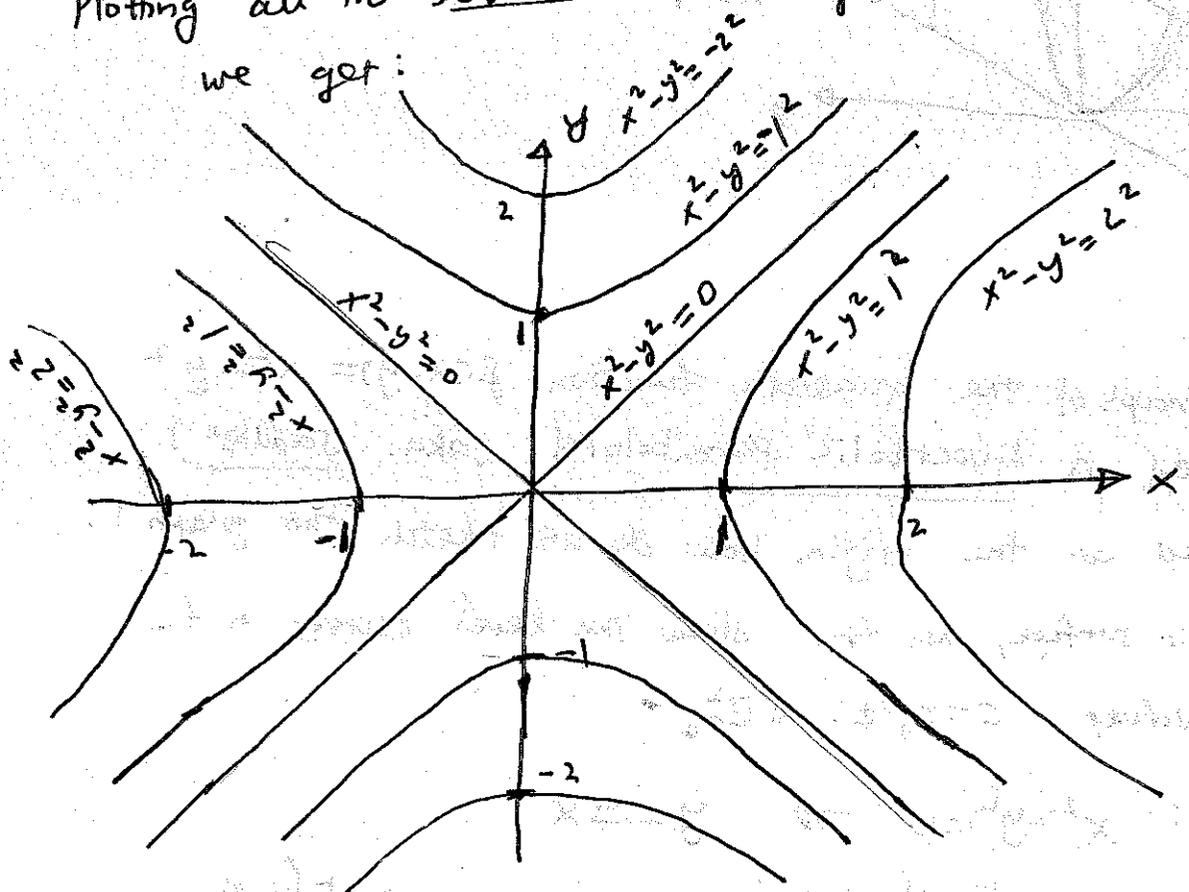
↳ This is a hyperbola that passes vertically through the x-axis at the points  $(\pm 1, 0)$ .

↳ level curve: hyperbola passing vertically through the x-axis at  $(\pm 2, 0)$ .

• For  $c=-1$  :  $x = \pm \sqrt{y^2 - 1}$

↳ Hyperbola passing vertically through the y-axis at  ~~$(\pm 1, 0)$~~   
 $(0, \pm 1)$ .

Plotting all the level curves computed above ~~one~~ we get:

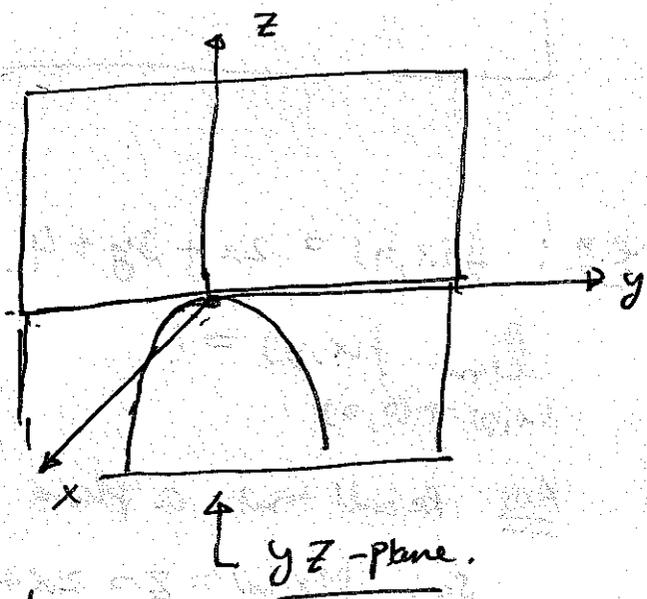
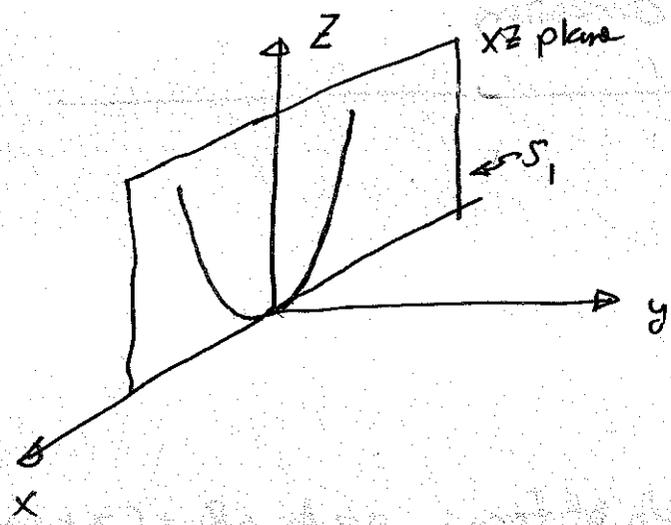


It's not easy to visualize the graph of  $f(x,y) = x^2 - y^2$  from these ~~two~~ level curves alone, so we will compute 2 sections to help us:

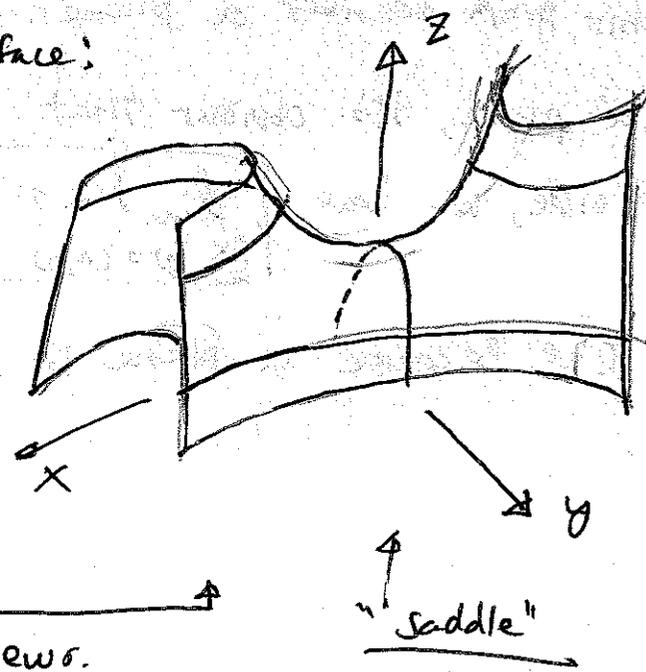
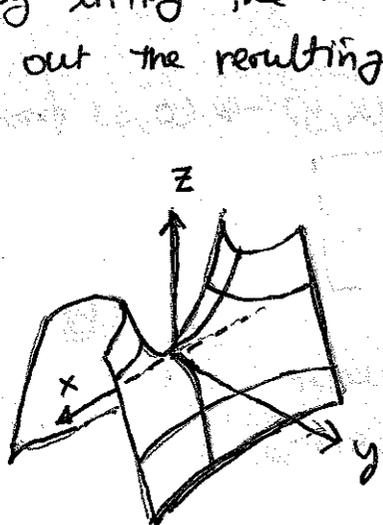
- 2 sections are:
  - ~~xz~~ plane
  - yz plane.

•  $S_1$ : xz plane ( $y=0$ ) :  $z = x^2$  (parabola)

•  $S_2$ : yz plane ( $x=0$ ) :  $z = -y^2$  (upside-down parabola)



The graph of  $f$  can now be visualized by lifting the level curves to the appropriate heights and smoothing out the resulting surface:



2 views.

Limits in higher dimensions : For scalar-valued function  $f(x, y)$  :

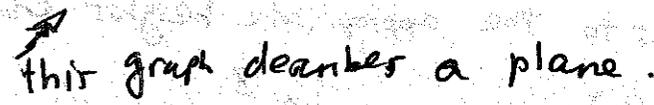
$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x,y) = l$  means that  
 $f(x,y)$  approaches  $l$  as  $(x,y)$   
approaches  $(a,b)$  from any  
 direction.

e.g.:  $f(x,y) = 2x + 3y + 4$ .

$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x,y) = ?$

Ans: Recall that a plane has eqn of form:  $0 = Ax + By + Cz + D$ .

So:  $f(x,y) = z = 2x + 3y + 4$  (i.e.,  $C=1$   $A=2$   
 $D=4$   $B=3$ )

so  this graph describes a plane.

In a plane, it's obvious that as  $(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)$  from

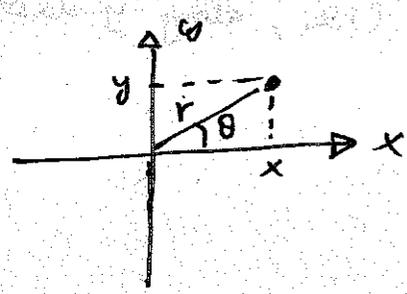
any side, we have  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x,y) = 4$ .

(i.e. Because a plane is continuous object.)

e.g.  $f(x,y) = \frac{\sin(x^2+y^2)}{x^2+y^2}$  ;  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x,y) = ?$

Sol'n: We use polar coordinates to simplify our work.

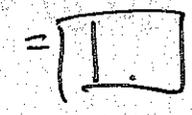
Notice that  $\begin{cases} x = r \cos \theta \\ y = r \sin \theta \end{cases} \Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 = r^2 [\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta] = r^2$



$\therefore f(x,y) \rightarrow f(r, \theta) = \frac{\sin(r^2)}{r^2}$

Now, notice that as  $(x,y) \rightarrow 0$ , so does  $r \rightarrow 0$ .  
And so does  $r^2 \rightarrow 0$ .

so:  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x,y) = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} f = \lim_{r^2 \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(r^2)}{r^2}$



← since  $\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \alpha}{\alpha} = 1$

e.g: Example in which the limit does not exist.

Consider  $f(x,y) = \frac{x^2}{x^2+y^2}$  .  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x,y)$  does not exist.

Sol'n: If the limit exists,  $\frac{x^2}{x^2+y^2}$  should approach a definite value, say "a", as  $(x,y)$  gets near  $(0,0)$ .

In particular, if  $(x,y)$  approaches zero along any given path, then  $\frac{x^2}{x^2+y^2}$  should approach the limiting value a.

over

• If  $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$  along the line  $y=0$  (i.e. along x-axis),

$$\frac{x^2}{x^2+y^2} \xrightarrow{(y=0)} \frac{x^2}{x^2} = 1. \text{ So the limiting value is clearly 1.}$$

• But, if  $(x, y)$  approaches  $(0, 0)$  along the line  $x=0$  (i.e., along y-axis)

the limiting value is 
$$\frac{0^2}{0^2+y^2} = 0 \neq 1.$$

Hence:  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2}{x^2+y^2}$  does not exist.



e.g. The function  $f(x, y) = \frac{2x^2y}{x^2+y^2}$ ;

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y) = 0.$$

How? Ans: Notice that

$$\left| \frac{2x^2y}{x^2+y^2} \right| \leq \left| \frac{2x^2y}{x^2} \right| = 2|y|.$$

Thus given  $\epsilon > 0$ , choose  $\delta = \epsilon/2$ :

Then  $0 < \|(x, y) - (0, 0)\| = \sqrt{x^2+y^2} < \delta$  implies

$|y| < \delta$ , and thus

$$\left| \frac{2x^2y}{x^2+y^2} - 0 \right| < 2\delta = \epsilon.$$



# Differentiation

• First, define partial derivatives

Consider a scalar-valued function:  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

$$[ f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} ]$$

Then we define:

$$\frac{\partial f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)}{\partial x_j} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{j-1}, x_j+h, x_{j+1}, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{h}$$
$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\vec{x} + h\vec{e}_j) - f(\vec{x})}{h}$$

where  $\vec{e}_j = (0, 0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$

Just standard basis vector in n-dimensions.

↑ j-1<sup>st</sup> position

↑ j<sup>th</sup> position

↑ j+1<sup>st</sup> position

nth.

eg.  $f(x, y) = x^2y + y^3$ .

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2xy$$

← to get this, hold y constant (think of it as some number, say 1.)  
and differentiate only with respect to x.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x^2 + 3y^2$$

↖ this time, hold x constant  
and differentiate only with respect to y.

e.g.  $Z = \cos(xy) + x \cos y$

$\frac{\partial Z}{\partial x} \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)} = -y_0 \sin(x_0 y_0) + \cos y_0$

↑ means evaluated at  $(x, y) = (x_0, y_0)$   
particular point ↗

$\frac{\partial Z}{\partial y} \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)} = -x_0 \sin(x_0 y_0) - x_0 \sin y_0$

