

As in the rate of change explanation of the derivative for scalar-valued functions, we can argue in the case of vector-valued  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  that  $\mathbf{x}'(t)$  is a velocity vector, and that it should be a tangent vector to the curve.

Leaving aside the motivation, we take it as a definition that if  $\mathbf{x}'(t_0)$  is not zero, then it is the tangent to the parametric curve. We define the line through the point  $\mathbf{x}(t_0)$  in the direction  $\mathbf{x}'(t_0)$  to be the tangent line to the curve.

One thing that makes this definition satisfactory is that if we drive along the same curve at a different rate, we get the same tangent direction. To explain that a bit better, suppose  $t = t(s)$  is a monotone increasing function with  $dt/ds > 0$  always. Then  $\mathbf{y}(s) = \mathbf{x}(t(s))$  defines a new parametric curve, but it traces out the same points as  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  (even in the same order). From the ordinary chain rule applied to each of the components we can conclude that

$$\frac{d\mathbf{y}}{ds} = \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} \frac{dt}{ds}$$

and so  $\mathbf{y}'$  has the same direction as  $\mathbf{x}'$ .

## 9.4 Functions of two variables

We recall now that a function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  from a set  $A$  to a set  $B$  is a *rule* that assigns one and only one value  $f(a)$  in  $B$  to each element  $a \in A$ . So far we have had  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . First we also had  $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  but in the subsection just above we had  $B = \mathbb{R}^n$  (or  $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ ).

Our goal now is to consider the situation  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . So a function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  now has a scalar value  $f(a)$  at each point  $a \in A$ . Expanding a bit, we have a scalar value  $f(x, y)$  at each point  $(x, y) \in A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ . This explains the terminology ‘function of two variables’.

A little later we will probably switch to  $f(x_1, x_2)$  rather than  $f(x, y)$ . That is more economical on letters and fits better with generalising formulae to more variables. For now, we will keep to  $f(x, y)$ .

So, examples can come from formulae, such as

$$f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \|(x, y)\|$$

or

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

or

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{1 - (x^2 + y^2)}.$$

In that last example, the largest domain we could allow would be  $A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \neq 1\}$  (the complementary set to the unit circle).

### 9.4.1 Graphs of functions of two variables

For functions of one variable (scalar valued), we used the graph as an important way to picture the function. Notice that we needed a second dimension to fit in the graph. For functions  $f(x, y)$  of two variables, we can also have a graph, but it needs  $\mathbb{R}^3$  to fit it.

We already need a plane (think of the horizontal plane or the floor) to picture the points  $(x, y)$  in the domain of the function, and then what we do for the graph is plot one point  $(x, y, z)$  with  $z = f(x, y)$  the height or altitude of the point above  $(x, y)$  in the horizontal plane.

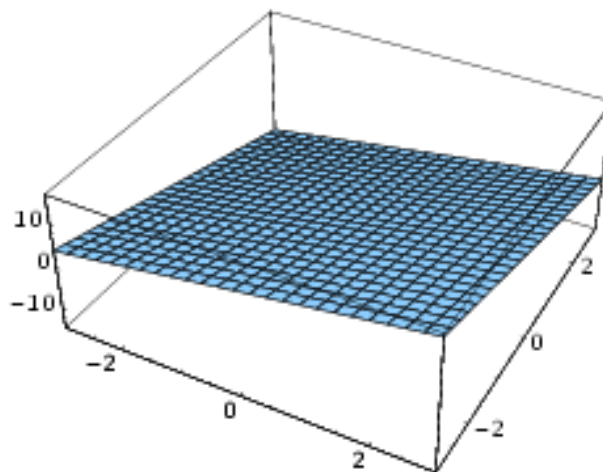
*Examples 9.4.1.* (i) For example in the case  $f(x, y) = 1 + 2x - 3y$  the graph  $z = f(x, y)$  is

$$z = 1 + 2x - 3y$$

and we can recognise that as the equation of a plane

$$-2x + 3y + z = 1$$

which has  $(-2, 3, 1) = -2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$  as a normal vector. Perhaps a way to draw it is to notice that the plane crosses the axes in  $(-1/2, 0, 0)$ ,  $(0, 1/3, 0)$  and  $(0, 0, 1)$ . (There is just one plane through 3 points, unless the points are in a line.) Here is a plot of that plane drawn by the program Mathematica:

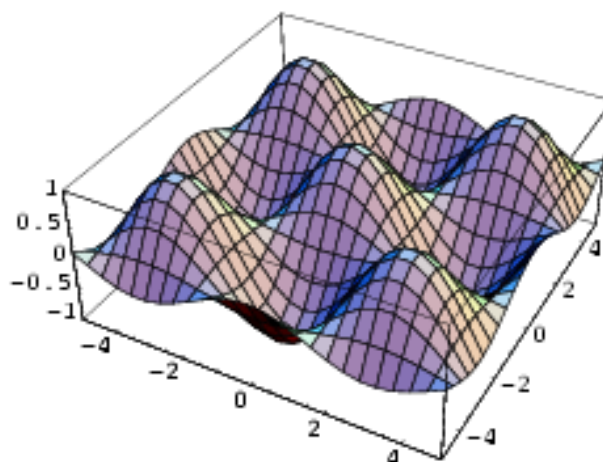


- (ii) In the case  $f(x, y) = \cos x \cos y$ , we can try to piece together what the graph  $z = f(x, y)$  looks like by looking at sections of the graph where  $x$  or  $y$  is constant. For example if we freeze  $y = 0$ , we are looking at the section of the whole graph above the  $x$ -axis, where we see  $z = f(x, 0) = \cos x$ , a standard cosine wave starting at  $z = 1$  when  $x = 0$ .

If we look at what happens when  $x = 0$ , which is along the  $y$ -axis, we get  $z = f(0, y) = \cos y$  — the same shape again. If, instead of taking a section with  $x = 0$  we take a section where  $x = x_0$  is some other constant we get the graph  $z = \cos x_0 \cos y$ . This is

a modified version of the regular cosine wave  $z = \cos y$ , which now oscillates between  $z = \cos x_0$  and  $z = -\cos x_0$ . Looking at sections in the perpendicular direction, where  $y = y_0$  is constant we get a similar shape  $z = f(x, y_0) = \cos x \cos y_0 = (\cos y_0) \cos x$ .

The whole graph  $z = f(x, y)$  is a sort of landscape. If we think of the  $x$ -axis as pointing East and the  $y$ -axis as pointing North (along the horizontal floor), we have a landscape that always looks like a cosine wave if we follow it either East-West or North-South. Perhaps it takes some intuition to see what it is really like and so here is a picture drawn by Mathematica.



You can see peaks and valleys. The highest points happen when  $\cos x = \sin y = 1$ , or when  $\cos x = \sin y = -1$ , and there we get  $z = 1$ . The lowest points happen when  $\cos x = 1$  and  $\sin y = -1$ , or when  $\cos x = -1$  and  $\sin y = -1$ . At these lowest points we get  $z = -1$ .

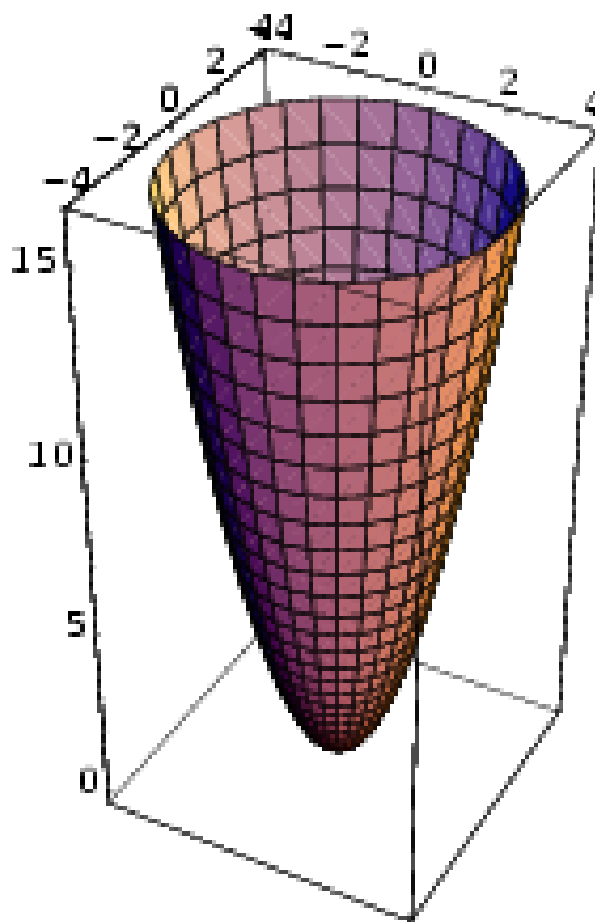
This may be a good place to explain that the altitude  $z = f(x, y)$  of the points on a graph can be negative as well as positive. Negative altitude points happen when the graph dips below the floor level.

- (iii) Next we look at  $z = x^2 + y^2$ , a somewhat easier example to figure out. This is the graph for  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ , and if you look to see what happens when  $y = 0$  we get  $z = f(x, 0) = x^2 + 0$ , or  $z = x^2$ . This is a familiar parabola graph of  $x^2$ . For the section along the  $y$ -axis, where  $x = 0$  we get  $z = f(0, y) = y^2$  and this is again the same shape.

If you take a section of this graph in some other direction from the origin, you get still the same shape because

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 = (\text{dist}((x, y), (0, 0)))^2.$$

When you piece this information together, you can see that this is what the graph looks like.



This is a graph that is rotationally symmetric around the  $z$ -axis and looks like a standard parabola ( $x^2$  graph) when you take any vertical section through the origin. It is called a paraboloid and in fact this is the shape for a reflector in a standard torch (or car head-lamps when they used to be just round). So it is a shape that has some applications.

#### 9.4.2 Partial derivatives

We move on now to calculus for functions of two variables. There are a number of different concepts to absorb, but the simplest to explain is the idea of a partial derivative.

Start with a function  $z = f(x, y)$  (which we can visualise in terms of its graph) and a point  $(x_0, y_0)$ . To get the partial derivative with respect to  $x$  of  $f(x, y)$  at the point  $(x_0, y_0)$  we consider the function of a single variable  $x$  that we get by fixing  $y$  to be  $y_0$ . That is the function  $x \mapsto f(x, y_0)$ , or  $z = f(x, y_0)$ .