

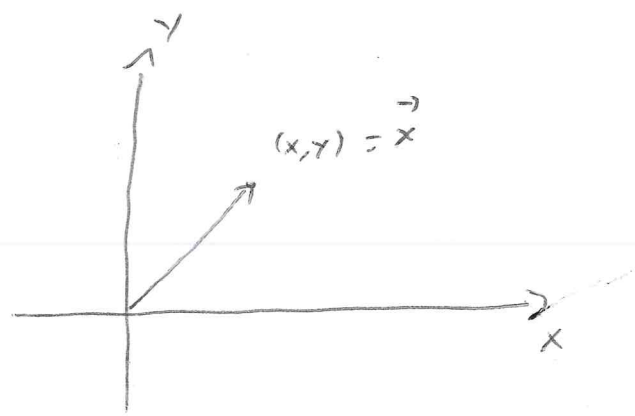
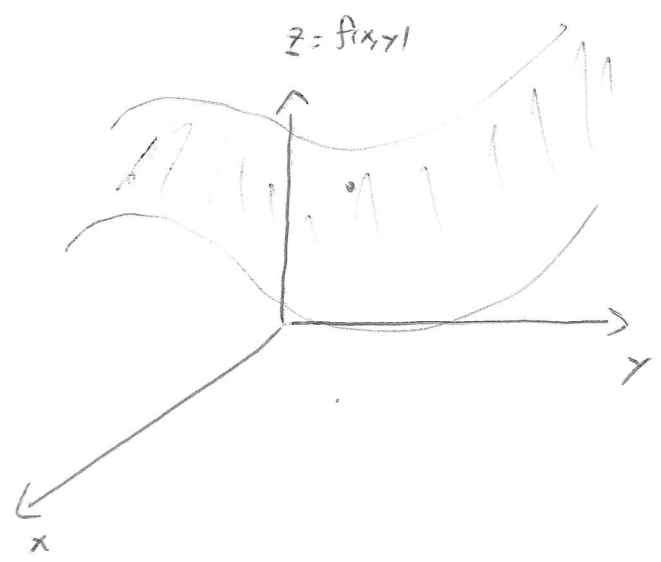
$$f(x, y) : \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}$$

Examples:

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

$$f(x, y) = x^3 y^4 + \sin(xy)$$

....

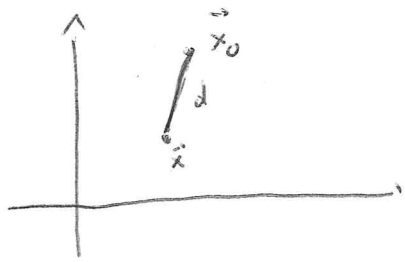


One writes also

$f(\vec{x})$. This is a "scalar field".

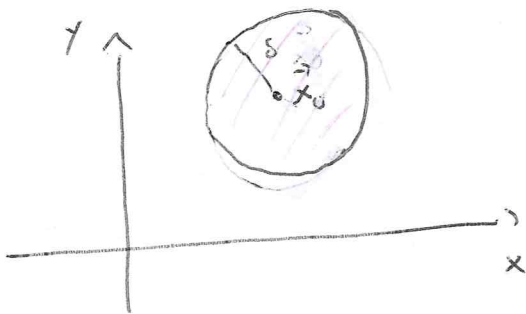
⌈ The generalization to $f(x_1, \dots, x_N) : \mathbb{R}^N \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is brought forward but
 cannot be any longer visualized... $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is the "limit" ... ⌋

In \mathbb{R}^2 we can also define the 'distance' of two points $\vec{x} = (x, y)$ and $\vec{x}_0 = (x_0, y_0)$:

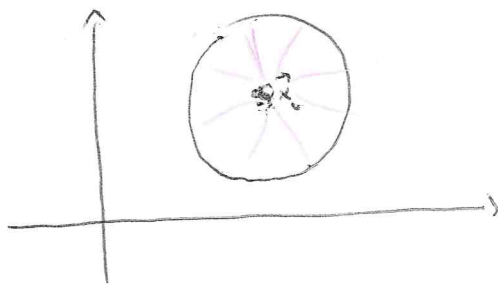


$$d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}_0) = \sqrt{(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2} \quad (\text{like in 1D})$$

$$I(\vec{x}_0; \delta) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left\{ \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ such that } d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}_0) < \delta \right\}$$



$$I^\circ(\vec{x}_0; \delta) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left\{ \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ such that } d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}_0) < \delta \text{ and } \vec{x} \neq \vec{x}_0 \right\}$$



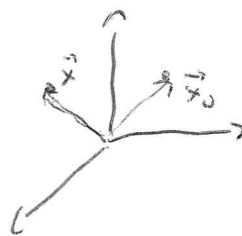
\vec{x}_0 is not part of $I^\circ(\vec{x}_0; \delta)$

Again, the generalization to the case \mathbb{R}^N with $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$ is simple.

In fact, for \mathbb{R}^N we have:

$$\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$$

$$\vec{x}_0 = (x_{0,1}, x_{0,2}, \dots, x_{0,N})$$



one has:

$$d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}_0) = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_{0,1})^2 + (x_2 - x_{0,2})^2 + \dots + (x_N - x_{0,N})^2}$$

Note that for the case $N=1$ (i.e., the old one dimensional case) we obtain

$$d(x, x_0) = \sqrt{(x - x_0)^2} = |x - x_0|$$



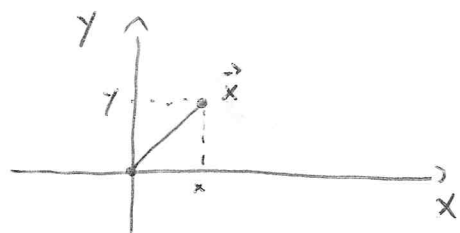
$I(x_0, \delta)$



$\dot{I}(x_0, \delta)$

A 'trivial' consideration:

$d(\vec{x}, \vec{0})$ is the length of the vector \vec{x} .



$$d(\vec{x}, \vec{0}) = l(\vec{x}) = \|\vec{x}\| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

In N dimensions ($\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$)

$$d(\vec{x}, \vec{0}) = l(\vec{x}) = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_N^2}$$

One can repeat the steps done for the case $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and study:

limits, derivatives, integrals and differential equations.

of course, things become more difficult when more dimensions is present.

$$\lim_{\vec{x} \rightarrow \vec{x}_0} f(\vec{x}) = L \quad f(\vec{x}) = f(x, y) = \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that for } \vec{x} \in \overset{\circ}{I}(\vec{x}_0, \delta) \rightarrow |f(\vec{x}) - L| < \epsilon$$

(The definition is indeed valid also for the general N case and for $N=1$ it reduces to the definition of limit we have discussed in the first lecture)

In the case $N=2$ one writes also

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

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} (x^2 + y^2) = 0 \\ \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} (x^2 \cdot y^2) = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,1)} (x^2 + y^2) = 2 \\ \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,1)} x^2 y^2 = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 \end{array} \right.$$

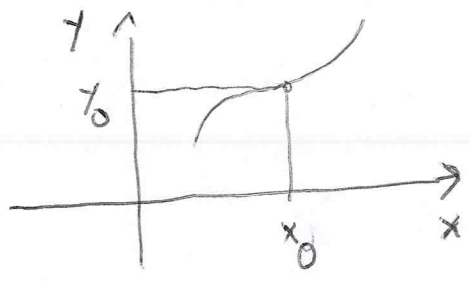
Note that, when the limit exists, it is allowed to perform the limit separately:

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

More in general, consider a function $\gamma(x)$

$$\gamma = \gamma(x) / \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \gamma(x) = \gamma_0$$

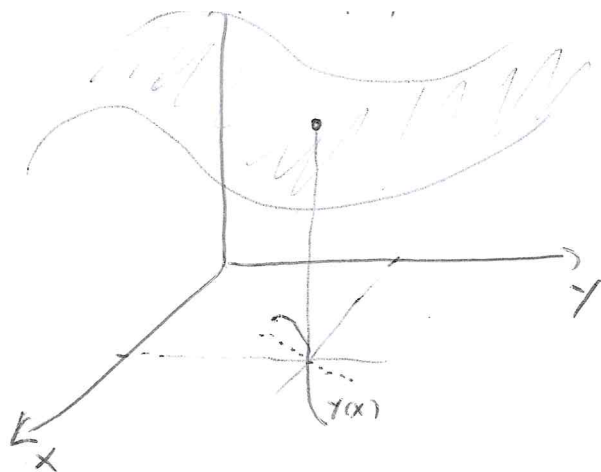
(i.e., $\gamma(x)$ is a cont. function)



Then, let $F(x) = f(x, \gamma(x))$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} F(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x, \gamma(x)) = L \quad \text{for each function } \gamma(x)$$

Example



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The value of the limit is independent on the chosen direction...

It does not depend on the way we approach the point (x_0, y_0) .

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,1)} x^2 y^2$$

Let us consider

$$f(x) = x^{10}; \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 1$$

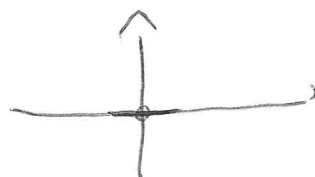
$$F(x) = x^2 \cdot x^{10} = x^{12}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} F(x) = \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,1)} x^2 y^2 = 1$$

However, not always the limit exists (even if it may exist and be well defined in some direction).

To this end let us study the function

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



Let us consider first

$$y(x) = 0 \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} y(x) = 0$$

$$f(x, 0) = 0 \quad \forall x \neq 0$$

$$\text{Ergo, we get for } F(x, y(x)) = \frac{|x y(x)|}{x^2 + y(x)^2} = 0 \quad \text{for } x \neq 0$$

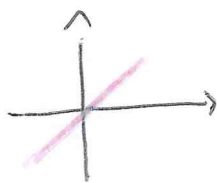
It follows that along this direction

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} F(x) = 0$$

$$x \rightarrow 0 \quad (0, 0)$$

However, if we consider $y(x) = x$ (for which it also holds

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



$$\Rightarrow G(x) = f(x, x) = \frac{x^2}{x^2 + x^2} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \forall x \neq 0$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} G(x) = 1/2$$

it is then clear that the "limit" does not exist.

(Along the direction $y=0$ the limit exists and is zero
" " " $y=x$ " " " " " $\frac{1}{2}$



No overall limit is defined

A function $f(\vec{x}): \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous in \vec{x}_0 if

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$$\lim_{\vec{x} \rightarrow \vec{x}_0} f(\vec{x}) = f(\vec{x}_0).$$

Examples:

• $f(x, y) = \sqrt{|xy|}$ is cont. in \mathbb{R}^2 (everywhere).

• $f(x, y) = \log(x^4 + y^4)$ is cont. for $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$.

• $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin(x^2 + y^2)}{x^2 + y^2} & (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 1 & (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

Derivatives

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In the case of two (or more) dimensions one defines "partial derivatives":

$$f(x, y): \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

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

$$\left(\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} \right)_{\vec{x} = \vec{x}_0} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0+h, y_0) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h}$$

Similarly:

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

One then introduces the gradient

$$\vec{\nabla} f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)$$

⌈ The gradient has a "precise" geometrical meaning, but we describe it

⌋ afterwards... ⌋

Example:

$$f(x, \gamma) = x^7 \sin(\gamma)$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 7x^6 \sin(\gamma) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma} = x^7 \cos(\gamma) \end{array} \right.$$

one can go further and study the second derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = 7 \cdot 6 x^5 \sin(\gamma)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \gamma^2} = -x^7 \sin \gamma$$

But there are also mixed derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \gamma \partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \gamma} (7x^6 \sin \gamma) = 7x^6 \cos \gamma$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial \gamma} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x^7 \cos \gamma) = 7x^6 \cos \gamma$$

Then it's not a convexity...

The equality $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$ holds in general. It can be easily proven by using properties of the limits. 11

A Taylor expansion can be performed also in more dimensions:

$$f(x, y) = a_{00} + a_{10}x + a_{01}y + a_{11}xy + a_{20}x^2 + a_{02}y^2 + a_{21}xy + \dots = \sum_{m, n} a_{mn} x^m y^n$$

$$a_{00} = f(0, 0).$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = a_{10} + a_{11}y + \dots$$

$$\left. \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) \right|_{\substack{x=0 \\ y=0}} = a_{10}$$

$$\left. \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) \right|_{\substack{x=0 \\ y=0}} = a_{01}$$

$$\left. \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x \partial y} \right) \right|_{\substack{x=0 \\ y=0}} = a_{11} = \left. \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \right) \right|_{\substack{x=0 \\ y=0}}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right)_{\substack{x=0 \\ y=0}} = 2a_{20}$$

$$a_{20} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial x^2 \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} (a_{21} x^2 + \dots) = 2a_{21} \dots$$

a_{mm}

In general:

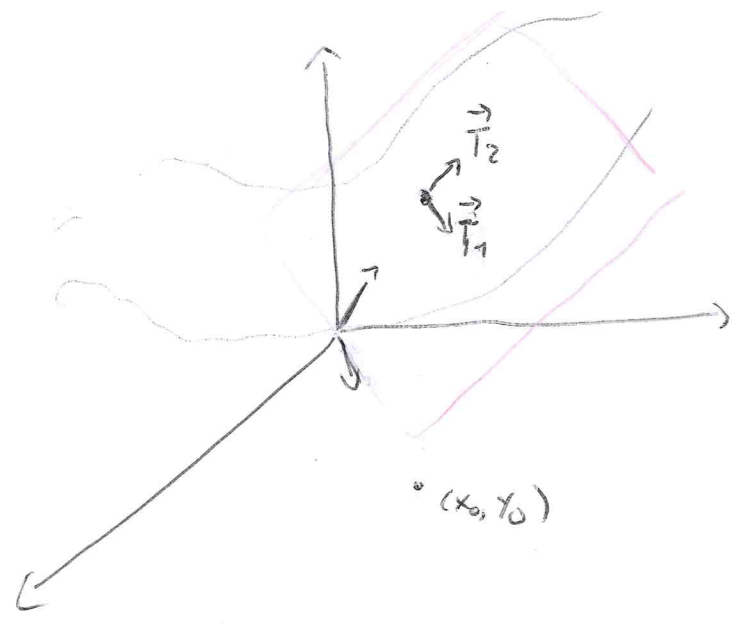
$$a_{mm} = \frac{1}{m!} \frac{1}{m!} \left[\frac{\partial^{m+m} f}{(\partial x)^m (\partial y)^m} \right]_{\substack{x=0 \\ y=0}}$$

In general, choosing the point $\vec{x}_0 = (x_0, y_0)$ we repeat all the steps and get

$$f(x, y) = a_{00} + a_{10}(x-x_0) + a_{01}(y-y_0) + a_{20}(x-x_0)^2 + a_{02}(y-y_0)^2 + a_{11}(x-x_0)(y-y_0) + \dots$$

$$a_{mm} = \frac{1}{m!m!} \left[\frac{\partial^{m+m} f}{(\partial x)^m (\partial y)^m} \right]_{\substack{x=x_0 \\ y=y_0}}$$

Again, the gener. to N dimension a straightforward



\vec{T}_1 and \vec{T}_2 are the tangent-vectors. (How to determine them?)

A Taylor expansion of the function up to the first order gives

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



this is the tg plane

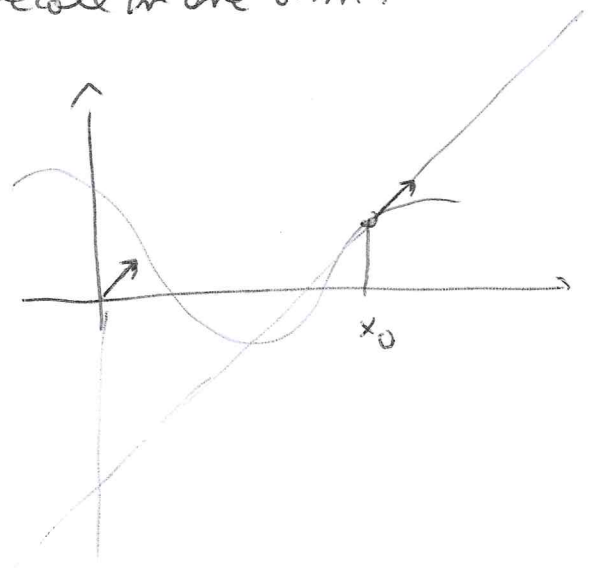
The vectors \vec{T}_1 and \vec{T}_2 which are

$$\vec{T}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)_{x_0}^2}} \left(1, 0, \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)_{x_0} \right)$$

$$|\vec{T}_1| = 1.$$

$$\vec{T}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)_{y_0}^2}} \left(0, 1, \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)_{y_0} \right)$$

Recall in one dim:



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

The \hat{t}_0 -vector is:

$$\vec{T} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + f'(x_0)^2}} (1, f'(x_0))$$

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In N dimensions I have $f(x_1, \dots, x_N)$. One has N \hat{t}_0

vectors

$$\vec{T}_1 = \frac{(1, 0, \dots, 0, \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}\right)_{\vec{x}_0})}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}\right)_{\vec{x}_0}^2}}$$

...

$$\vec{T}_{N-1} = \frac{(0, \dots, 1, \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_N}\right)_{\vec{x}_0})}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_N}\right)_{\vec{x}_0}^2}}$$

$$\vec{x}_0 = (x_{0,1}, \dots, x_{0,N})$$

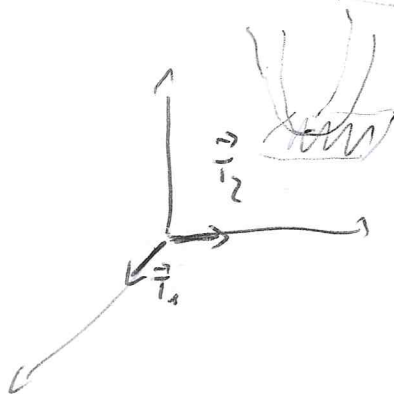
If the 1st derivatives are zero one has a maximum or a minimum or a "saddle point".

$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)_{\vec{x}_0} = 0, \quad \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)_{\vec{x}_0} = 0$$

$$\text{i.e.: } \left(\vec{\nabla} f\right)_{\vec{x}_0} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)_{\vec{x}_0}, \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)_{\vec{x}_0} = \vec{0} = (0, 0)$$

$$\vec{T}_1 = (1, 0, 0)$$

$$\vec{T}_2 = (0, 1, 0)$$



The t_3 plane is parallel to the xy -plane.

Examples:

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 1$$

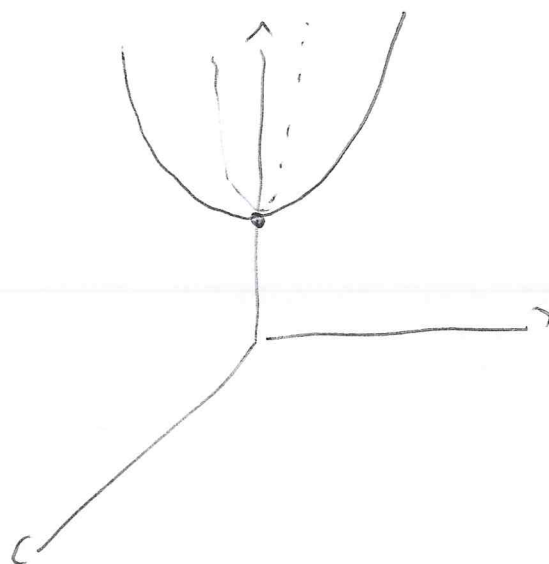
$$\vec{x}_0 = (0, 0)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x = 0 \rightarrow x = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y$$

$$\rightarrow \left(\vec{\nabla} f\right)_{\vec{x}_0} = (0, 0) = \vec{0}$$

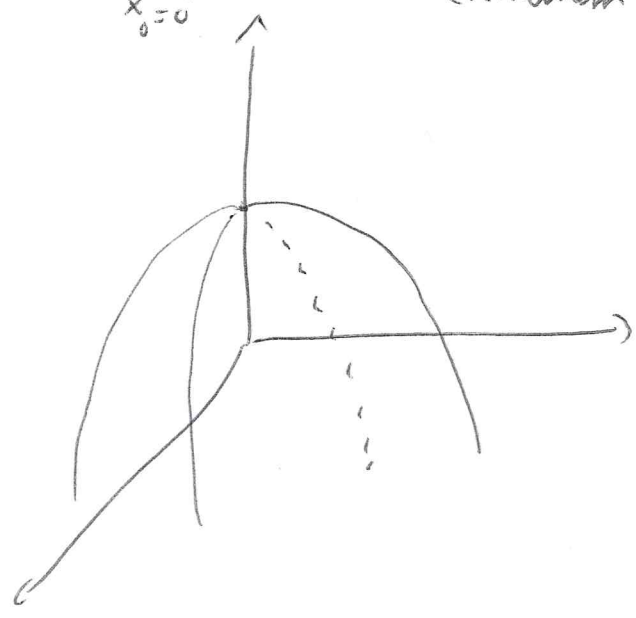
The point $\vec{x}_0 = (0, 0)$ is a minimum.



$(\nabla f) = (0,0)$... it is a local or extremum ...
 $\vec{x}_0 = \vec{0}$

Now, if we have

$$f(x,y) = -x^2 - y^2 + 1$$



The point

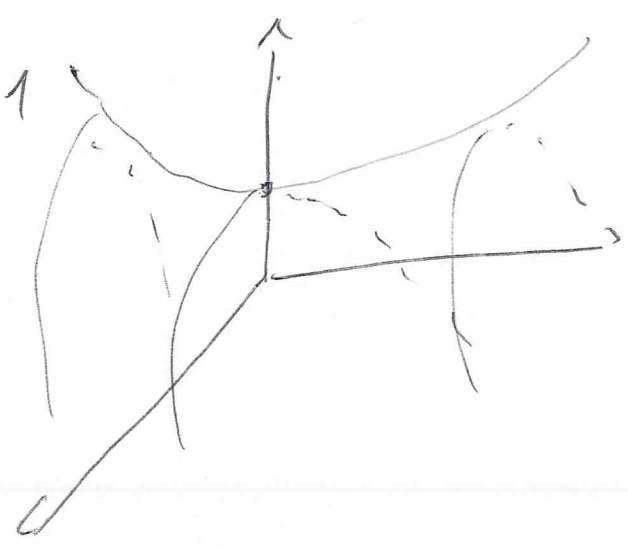
$$P = (0,0,1)$$

is a maximum!

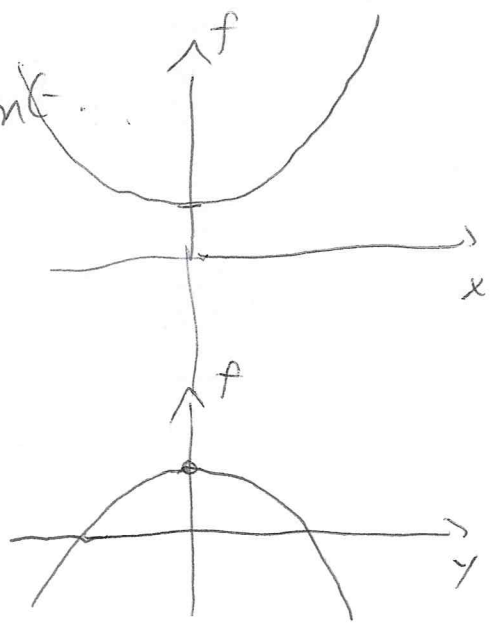
But there is a third possibility:

$$f(x,y) = x^2 - y^2 + 1$$

$$(\nabla f)_{\vec{x}=\vec{0}} = (0,0)$$



Then is a saddle point.



plane
 $y=0$

plane
 $x=0$

But what if we have:

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

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x - y = 0 \quad \text{for } x = y = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y - x = 0 \quad \dots \dots \dots$$

It is maximum, minimum or saddle point?

is there a way how to study it?

Indeed yes, but it goes a bit "beyond" the present status of our knowledge.

One considers the so-called Hesse matrix

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{\vec{x}_0} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \Big|_{\vec{x}_0} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \Big|_{\vec{x}_0} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \Big|_{\vec{x}_0} \end{pmatrix}$$

and studies the "eigenvalues of it".

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ c & b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\det(H - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} a - \lambda & c \\ c & b - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = (a - \lambda)(b - \lambda) - c^2 = 0.$$

$\Rightarrow \lambda_1, \lambda_2$ are the two eigenvalues.

$\lambda_1 > 0, \lambda_2 > 0 \rightarrow$ Minimum.

$\lambda_1 < 0, \lambda_2 < 0 \rightarrow$ Maximum

$\lambda_1 > 0, \lambda_2 < 0 \rightarrow$ Saddle.

if $\lambda_1 = 0$ or $\lambda_2 = 0 \rightarrow$ nothing can be said

Let us see the previous examples:

$$f = x^2 + y^2 + 1$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x \rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = 2$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y \rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 2$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = 0$$

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(2-\lambda)(2-\lambda) = 0$$

$$\begin{cases} \lambda_1 = 2 > 0 \\ \lambda_2 = 2 > 0 \end{cases} \rightarrow \text{MINIMUM}$$

$$\textcircled{1} f = -x^2 - y^2 - 1$$

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$$H|_{x=0} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(-2-\lambda)(-2-\lambda) = 0 \rightarrow \lambda_1 = -2 < 0 \\ \lambda_2 = -2 < 0$$

$$\textcircled{2} f = x^2 - y^2 + 1$$

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 2 > 0$$

$$\lambda_2 = -2 < 0$$

$$\textcircled{3} f = x^2 + y^2 - xy + 1$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x - y$$

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

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = -1$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 2$$

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\det H = (2-k)^2 - 1 = 4 + k^2 - 4k - 1 = k^2 - 2k + 3 = 0 \quad 20$$

$$k^2 - 2k + 3 = 0$$

$$k = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{16 - 4 \cdot 3}}{2} = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{4}}{2} = \frac{4 \pm 2}{2} = \begin{cases} 3 \\ 1 \end{cases}$$

OK!

$$k_1 = 3 > 0$$

$$k_2 = 1 > 0$$

it is a MINIMUM!

≡

$$\textcircled{d} f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 5xy$$

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -5 \\ -5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(2-k)^2 - 25$$

$$k^2 - 4k - 21 = 0$$

$$k_{1,2} = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{16 - 4(-21)}}{2} = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{16 + 21 \cdot 4}}{2} \quad \begin{cases} > 0 \\ < 0 \end{cases}$$

The present discussion can be done for each function

$f(x, y)$ around the point (x_0, y_0) for which

$$\left(\vec{\nabla} f\right)_{\vec{x}=\vec{x}_0=(x_0, y_0)} = 0.$$

$$f(x, y) \approx f(x_0, y_0) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right)_{\vec{x}_0} (x-x_0)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \right)_{\vec{x}_0} (y-y_0)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \right)_{\vec{x}_0} (x-x_0)(y-y_0).$$

$$(H)_{\vec{x}_0} = \begin{pmatrix} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right)_{\vec{x}_0} & \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \right)_{\vec{x}_0} \\ \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \right)_{\vec{x}_0} & \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \right)_{\vec{x}_0} \end{pmatrix}.$$