### Partial derivatives

Slide 1

- Review: Limits and continuity. (Sec. 14.2)
- Definition of Partial derivatives. (Sec. 14.3)
- Higher derivatives.
- Examples of differential equations.

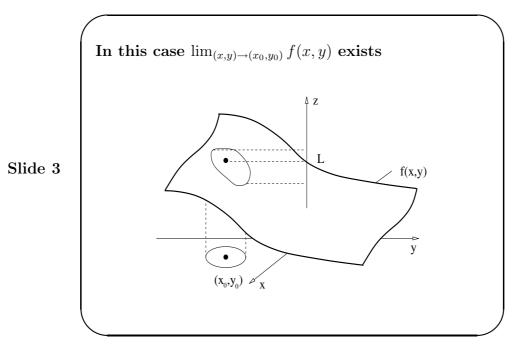
# We recall the definition of limit of f(x,y)

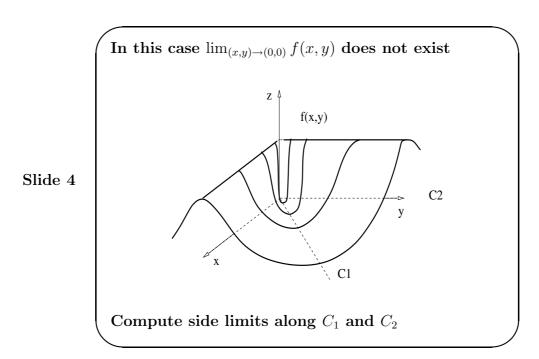
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Let f(x,y) be a scalar function defined for P=(x,y) near  $P_0=(x_0,y_0)$ . Let  $d_{P_0P}=\sqrt{(x-x_0)^2+(y-y_0)^2}$  be the distance between (x,y) and  $(x_0,y_0)$ . We write

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

to mean that the values of f(x,y) approaches L as the distance  $d_{P_0P}$  approaches zero.





Continuous functions have graphs without holes or jumps

**Definition 1** f(x,y) is continuous at  $(x_0,y_0)$  if

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

Polynomial functions are continuous in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , for example

$$P_2(x,y) = a_0 + b_1 x + b_2 y + c_1 x^2 + c_2 xy + c_3 y^2.$$

### More examples of continuous functions

• Rational functions are continuous on their domain,

$$f(x,y) = \frac{P_n(x,y)}{Q_m(x,y)},$$

for example,

$$f(x,y) = \frac{x^2 + 3y - x^2y^2 + y^4}{x^2 - y^2}, \quad x \neq \pm y.$$

• Composition of continuous functions are continuous, example

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

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To compute partial derivative with respect to  $\boldsymbol{x}$  keep  $\boldsymbol{y}$  constant

Definition 2 (x-partial derivative) Let

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 $f: D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \to R \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The partial derivative of f(x,y) with respect to x at  $(a,b) \in D$  is denoted as  $f_x(a,b)$  and is given by

$$f_x(a,b) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} [f(a+h,b) - f(a,b)].$$

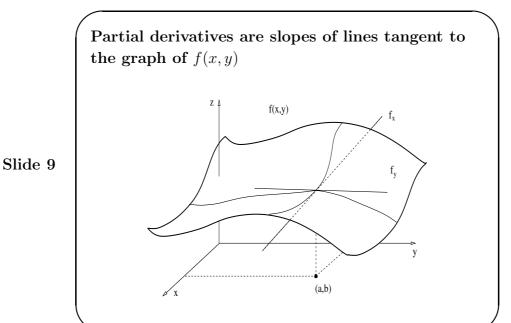
To compute partial derivative with respect to y keep x constant

Slide 8 f: L

Definition 3 (y-partial derivative) Let

 $f: D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \to R \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The partial derivative of f(x,y) with respect to y at  $(a,b) \in D$  is denoted as  $f_y(a,b)$  and is given by

$$f_y(a,b) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} [f(a,b+h) - f(a,b)].$$



So, to compute the partial derivative of f(x,y) with respect to x at (a,b), one can do the following: First, evaluate the function at y = b, that is compute f(x, b); second, compute the usual derivative of single variable functions; evaluate the result at x = a, and the result is  $f_x(a,b)$ .

Example:

- Find the partial derivative of  $f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2/4$  with respect to x at (1,3).
  - 1.  $f(x,3) = x^2 + 9/4$ ;
  - 2.  $f_x(x,3) = 2x$ ;
  - 3.  $f_x(1,3) = 2$ .

To compute the partial derivative of f(x,y) with respect to y at (a,b), one follows the same idea: First, evaluate the function at x = a, that is compute f(a, y); second, compute the usual derivative of single variable functions; evaluate the result at y = b,, and the result is  $f_y(a,b)$ .

Example:

- Find the partial derivative of  $f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2/4$  with respect to y at (1,3).
  - 1.  $f(1,y) = 1 + y^2/4$ ;
  - 2.  $f_y(1,y) = y/2;$
  - 3.  $f_y(1,3) = 3/2$ .

### Partial derivatives define new functions

**Definition 4** Consider a function

 $f: D \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \to R \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The functions partial derivatives of f(x,y) are denoted by  $f_x(x,y)$  and  $f_y(x,y)$ , and are given by the expressions

$$f_x(x,y) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} [f(x+h,y) - f(x,y)],$$
  
$$f_y(x,y) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} [f(x,y+h) - f(x,y)].$$

The partial derivative functions of a paraboloid are planes

$$f(x,y) = ax^2 + by^2 + xy.$$

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$$f_x(x,y) = 2ax + 0 + y$$

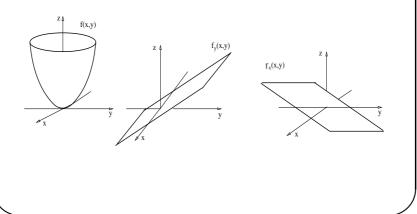
$$= 2ax + y.$$

$$f_y(x,y) = 0 + 2by + x.$$

$$= 2by + x.$$

# The partial derivative functions of a paraboloid are planes

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More examples:

•

$$f(x,y) = x^{2} \ln(y),$$
  

$$f_{x}(x,y) = 2x \ln(y),$$
  

$$f_{y}(x,y) = \frac{x^{2}}{y}.$$

•

$$f(x,y) = x^2 + \frac{y^2}{4},$$
  

$$f_x(x,y) = 2x,$$
  

$$f_y(x,y) = \frac{y}{2}.$$

•

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

$$f_x(x,y) = \frac{2(x + 2y) - (2x - y)}{(x + 2y)^2},$$

$$= \frac{2x + 4y - 2x + y}{(x + 2y)^2},$$

$$= \frac{5y}{(x + 2y)^2}.$$

$$f_y(x,y) = \frac{-(x+2y) - (2x-y)2}{(x+2y)^2},$$
  
=  $\frac{-5x}{(x+2y)^2}.$ 

$$f(x,y) = x^{3}e^{2y} + 3y,$$

$$f_{x}(x,y) = 3x^{2}e^{2y},$$

$$f_{y}(x,y) = 2x^{3}e^{2y} + 3,$$

$$f_{yy}(x,y) = 4x^{3}e^{2y},$$

$$f_{yyy}(x,y) = 8x^{3}e^{2y},$$

$$f_{xy} = 6x^{2}e^{2y},$$

$$f_{yx} = 6x^{2}e^{2y}.$$

# Higher derivatives of a function f(x, y) are partial derivatives of its partial derivatives

For example, the second partial derivatives of f(x, y) are the following:

$$f_{xx}(x,y) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} [f_x(x+h,y) - f_x(x,y)],$$

$$f_{yy}(x,y) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} [f_y(x,y+h) - f_y(x,y)],$$

$$f_{xy}(x,y) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} [f_x(x+h,y) - f_x(x,y)],$$

$$f_{yx}(x,y) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} [f_y(x,y+h) - f_y(x,y)].$$

### Higher partial derivatives sometimes commute

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**Theorem 1** Consider a function f(x, y) in a domain D. Assume that  $f_{xy}$  and  $f_{yx}$  exists and are continuous in D. Then,

$$f_{xy} = f_{yx}.$$

# Differential equations are equations where the unknown is a function

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For example, the Laplace equation: Find  $\phi(x,y,z):D\subset I\!\!R^3\to I\!\!R$  solution of

$$\phi_{xx} + \phi_{yy} + \phi_{zz} = 0.$$

This equation describes the gravitational effects near a massive object.

and where derivatives of the function enter into the equation

## More examples of differential equations

Heat equation: Find a function

 $T(t,x,y,z):D\subset \mathbb{R}^4\to \mathbb{R}$  solution of

$$T_t = T_{xx} + T_{yy} + T_{zz}.$$

The heat on a metal is described by this equation. T is the temperature on that object.

## More examples of differential equations

Wave equation: Find a function

 $f(t,x,y,z):D\subset I\!\!R^4 \to I\!\!R$  solution of

$$f_{tt} = f_{xx} + f_{yy} + f_{zz}.$$

The sound in the air is described by this equation. f is the air density.

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Exercises:

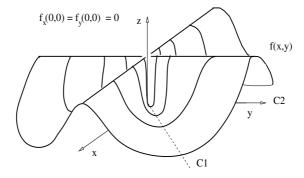
- Verify that the function  $T(t,x) = e^{-t}\sin(x)$  satisfies the one-space dimensional heat equation  $T_t = T_{xx}$ .
- Verify that the function  $f(t,x) = (t-x)^3$  satisfies the one-space dimensional wave equation  $T_{tt} = T_{xx}$ .
- Verify that the function below satisfies Laplace Equation,

$$\phi(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}.$$

## Differentiable functions (Sec. 14.4)

- Definition of differentiable functions.
- Equation of the tangent plane.
- Linear approximation. (Differentials.)

A function can have partial derivatives at a point and be discontinuous at that point



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This is a very bad property for a definition of derivative

Here is one of such functions, given explicitly

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$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 2xy/(x^2 + y^2) & (x,y) \neq (0,0), \\ 0 & (x,y) = (0,0). \end{cases}$$

 $f_x(0,0) = f_y(0,0) = 0$ , although f(x,y) is not continuous at (0,0).

Recall the following property of the derivative of f(x)

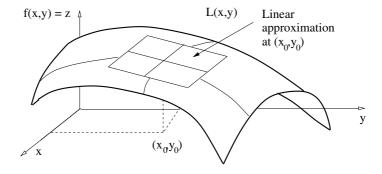
**Theorem 2** If f'(x) exists, then f(x) is continuous.

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$$\lim_{h \to 0} [f(x+h) - f(x)] = \lim_{h \to 0} \{ [f(x+h) - f(x)]/h \} h,$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} f'(x)h = 0.$$

The analogous claim "If  $f_x(x,y)$  and  $f_y(x,y)$  exists, then f(x,y) is continuous" is false

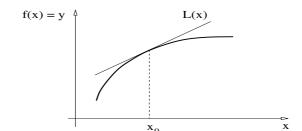
One has to define a notion of derivative having the continuity property discussed above



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New definition: A differentiable function must be approximated by a plane

In the case f(x) this definition says: The function must be approximated by a line



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Only for functions f(x) the derivative f'(x) implies the existence of an approximating line L(x)

A function of two variables is differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$  if two conditions hold:

- There exists the plane from its partial derivatives at  $(x_0, y_0)$ ;
- This plane approximates the graph of f(x, y) near  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

## Here is a rewording of the definition

**Definition 5** The function f(x, y) is differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$  if

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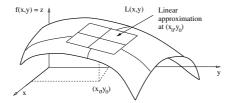
$$f(x,y) = L_{(x_0,y_0)}(x,y) + \epsilon_1(x-x_0) + \epsilon_2(y-y_0),$$
where  $\epsilon_i(x,y) \to 0$  when  $(x,y) \to (x_0,y_0)$ , for  $i = 1, 2$ ,
and

$$L_{(x_0,y_0)}(x,y) = f_x(x_0,y_0)(x-x_0) + f_y(x_0,y_0)(y-y_0) + f(x_0,y_0)$$

# This notion of differentiability has the continuity property

**Theorem 3** If f(x,y) is differentiable, then f(x,y) is continuous.

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If f(x,y) is differentiable, then  $L_{(x_0,y_0)}(x,y)$  is called the linear approximation of f(x,y) at  $(x_0,y_0)$ .

The following result is useful to check the differentiability of a function

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**Theorem 4** Consider a function f(x,y). Assume that its partial derivatives  $f_x(x,y)$ ,  $f_y(x,y)$  exist at  $(x_0,y_0)$  and near  $(x_0,y_0)$ , and both are continuous functions at  $(x_0,y_0)$ . Then, f(x,y) is differentiable at  $(x_0,y_0)$ .

#### Consider the following exercise:

- 1. Show that  $f(x, y) = \arctan(x + 2y)$  is differentiable at (1, 0).
- 2. Find its linear approximation at (1,0).

$$f_x(x,y) = \frac{1}{1 + (x+2y)^2}, \quad f_y(x,y) = \frac{2}{1 + (x+2y)^2}.$$

These functions are continuous in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , so f(x,y) is differentiable at every point in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

$$L_{(1,0)}(x,y) = f_x(1,0)(x-1) + f_y(1,0)(y-0) + f(1,0),$$

where  $f(1,0) = \arctan(1) = \pi/4$ ,  $f_x(1,0) = 1/2$ ,  $f_y(1,0) = 1$ . Then,

$$L_{(1,0)}(x,y) = \frac{1}{2}(x-1) + y + \frac{\pi}{4}.$$

### Second exercise, on linear approximation

• Find the linear approximation of  $f(x,y) = \sqrt{17 - x^2 - 4y^2}$  at (2,1).

We need three numbers: f(2,1),  $f_x(2,1)$ , and  $f_y(2,1)$ . Then, we compute the linear approximation by the formula

$$L_{(2,1)}(x,y) = f_x(2,1)(x-2) + f_y(2,1)(y-1) + f(2,1).$$

The result is: f(2,1)=3,  $f_x(2,1)=-2/3$ , and  $f_y(2,1)=-4/3$ . Then the plane is given by

$$L_{(2,1)}(x,y) = -\frac{2}{3}(x-2) - \frac{4}{3}(y-1) + 3.$$

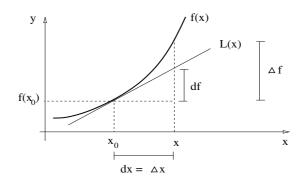
df is a special name for  $L_{(x_0)}(x) - f(x_0)$ 

Single variable case:

$$df(x) = L_{x_0}(x) - f(x_0) = f'(x_0)(x - x_0) = f'(x_0)dx.$$

We called  $(x - x_0) = dx$ .

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df(x,y) is a special name for  $L_{(x_0,y_0)}(x,y)-f(x_0,y_0)$ 

Functions of two variables:

$$df(x,y) = L_{(x_0,y_0)}(x,y) - f(x_0,y_0),$$

$$dx = x - x_0, \quad dy = y - y_0.$$

Then, the formula is easy to remember:

$$df(x,y) = f_x(x_0, y_0) dx + f_y(x_0, y_0) dy.$$

Different names for the same idea: Compute the linear approximation of a differentiable function.

An exercise on differentials

• Compute the df of  $f(x,y) = \ln(1+x^2+y^2)$  at (1,1) for dx = 0.1, dy = 0.2.

 $df(x_0, y_0) = f_x(x_0, y_0)dx + f_y(x_0, y_0)dy,$ =  $\frac{2x_0}{1 + x_0^2 + y_0^2}dx + \frac{2y_0}{1 + x_0^2 + y_0^2}dy.$ 

Then,

$$df(1,1) = \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{10} + \frac{2}{3} \frac{2}{10},$$
$$= \frac{2}{3} \frac{3}{10},$$
$$= \frac{1}{5}.$$

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### Another exercise on differentials

• Use differentials to estimate the amount of tin in a closed tin can with internal diameter of 8cm and height of 12cm if the tin is 0.04cm thick.

Data of the problem:  $h_0 = 12cm$ ,  $r_0 = 4cm$ , dr = 0.04cm and dh = 0.08cm. Draw a picture of the cylinder.

The function to consider is the volume of the cylinder,

$$V(r,h) = \pi r^2 h.$$

Then,

$$dV(r_0, h_0) = V_r(r_0, h_0)dr + V_h(r_0, h_0)dh,$$
  
=  $2\pi r_0 h_0 dr + \pi r_0^2 dh$   
=  $16.1cm.$ 

#### Chain rule and directional derivatives

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- Review: Linear approximations. (Sec. 14.4)
- Chain rule. (Sec. 14.5)
- Cases 1 and 2. Examples.

Recall the chain rule for f(x)

Given f(x), and x(t) differentiable functions, introduce z(t) = f(x(t)). Then, z(t) is differentiable, and

 $\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{df}{dx}(x(t))\frac{dx}{dt}(t).$ 

Or, using the new notation,

$$z_t(t) = f_x(x(t)) x_t(t).$$

There are many chain rules for f(x,y)

Case 1: Given f(x, y) differentiable, and x(t), y(t) differentiable functions of a single variable, then z(t) = f(x(t), y(t)) is differentiable and

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = f_x(x(t), y(t)) \frac{dx}{dt}(t) + f_y(x(t), y(t)) \frac{dy}{dt}(t).$$

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Example of Chain rule, case 1

$$f(x,y) = x^2 + 2y^3$$
,  $x(t) = \sin(t)$ ,  $y(t) = \cos(2t)$ .  
Let  $z(t) = f(x(t), y(t))$ . Then,

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = 2x(t)\frac{dx}{dt} + 6[y(t)]^2 \frac{dy}{dt}, 
= 2x(t)\cos(t) - 12[y(t)]^2 \sin(2t), 
= 2\sin(t)\cos(t) - 12\cos^2(2t)\sin(2t).$$

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Second case of chain rule for f(x, y)

Case 2: Let f(x,y) be differentiable, and x(t,s), y(t,s)be also differentiable functions of a two variable.

Then z(t,s) = f(x(t,s),y(t,s)) is differentiable and

$$z_t(t,s) = f_x(x(t,s), y(t,s)) x_t(t,s) + f_y(x(t,s), y(t,s)) y_t(t,s)$$

$$z_s(t, s) = f_x(x(t, s), y(t, s)) x_s(t, s) + f_y(x(t, s), y(t, s)) y_s(t, s)$$

## Second case of chain rule for f(x, y) again

Case 2: Let f(x, y) be differentiable, and x(t, s), y(t, s) be also differentiable functions of a two variable.

Then z(t,s) = f(x(t,s),y(t,s)) is differentiable and

$$z_t = f_x x_t + f_y y_t$$

$$z_s = f_x \, x_s + f_y \, y_s$$

## Example of chain rule, case 2

## A change of coordinates:

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Consider the function  $f(x,y) = x^2 + ay^2$ , with  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Introduce polar coordinates r,  $\theta$  by the formula

$$x(r, \theta) = r \cos(\theta), \quad y(r, \theta) = r \sin(\theta).$$

Let  $z(r,\theta) = f(x(r,\theta),y(r,\theta))$  be f in polar coordinates.

# A change of coordinates

Then, the chain rule, case 2, says that

$$z_r = f_x x_r + f_y y_r.$$

Slide 41 Each term can be computed as follows,

$$f_x = 2x, \quad f_y 2ay,$$

$$x_r = \cos(\theta), \quad y_r = \sin(\theta),$$

then one has

$$z_r = 2r\cos^2(\theta) + 2ar\sin^2(\theta).$$