#### **Announcements**

#### **Topics:**

- **Section 4:** Partial Derivatives
- Section 5: Tangent Plane, Linearization, and Differentiability
- **Section 7:** Second-Order Partial Derivatives

#### To Do:

- Read sections 4, 5, and 7 in the "Functions of Several Variables" module
- Work on Assignments and Suggested Practice Problems assigned on the webpage under the SCHEDULE + HOMEWORK link

### **Partial Derivatives**

#### **Recall:**

<u>Definition of the Derivative in Single Variable</u> <u>Calculus</u>:

$$\frac{df}{dx} = f'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$



instantaneous rate of change of f with respect to x

The **partial derivative** of a function of several variables is a way to measure the rate of change of the function as **one** of its variables changes.

### **Partial Derivatives**

**Example**: Body Mass Index

$$BMI(w,h) = \frac{w}{h^2}$$

- (a) Determine the rate at which *BMI* is changing with respect to changes in height for a 56kg person who is currently 1.7m tall.
- (b) Determine the rate at which *BMI* is changing with respect to changes in weight for a 1.7m tall person who currently weighs 56kg.

The **partial derivative of** f **with respect to** x is the real-valued function  $\partial f / \partial x$  defined by

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

provided that the limit exists.

This function tells us the rate of change of f in the x-direction at all points (x,y) for which the limit exists.

The **partial derivative of** f **with respect to** y is the real-valued function  $\partial f / \partial y$  defined by

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

provided that the limit exists.

This function tells us the rate of change of f in the y-direction at all points (x,y) for which the limit exists.

#### **Example:**

Using the definitions, compute  $\partial f / \partial x$  and  $\partial f / \partial y$  for  $f(x) = x^2 - y$ .

#### Rule for finding partial derivatives of z=f(x,y):

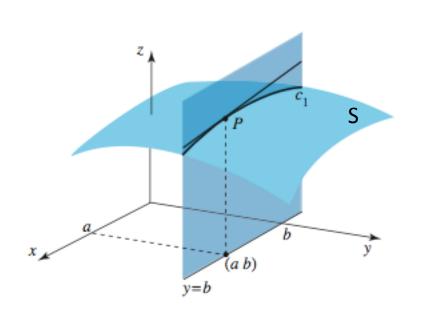
- 1. To find  $f_x$ , treat y as a constant and differentiate f(x,y) with respect to x.
- 2. To find  $f_y$ , treat x as a constant and differentiate f(x,y) with respect to y.

#### **Example:**

Find the first partial derivatives of the following functions.

(a) 
$$f(x,y) = x^4y^3 + 8x^2y$$
 (b)  $z = x^y$ 

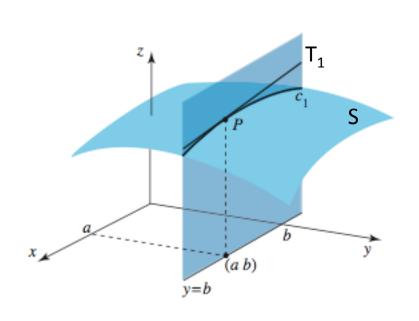
(c) 
$$f(x,y) = \frac{e^x}{y+x^2}$$
 (d)  $z = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ 



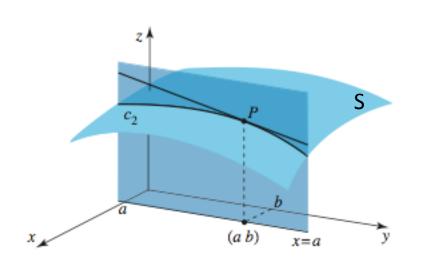
Let z=f(x,y) be a function of two variables whose graph is the surface S.

Fix y=b (constant) and let x vary.

The curve  $c_1$  on the surface S is defined by z=f(x,b). (Note: this is now only a function of the variable x)

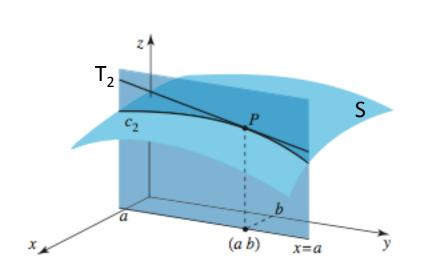


The partial derivative of f with respect to x at (a,b) is the slope of the tangent  $T_1$  to the curve  $c_1$  at the point P.



Now, fix x=a (constant) and let y vary.

The curve  $c_2$  on the surface S is defined by z=f(a,y). (Note: this is now only a function of the variable y)

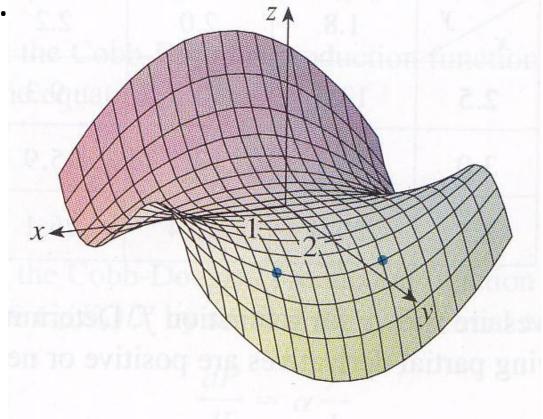


The partial derivative of f with respect to y at (a,b) is the slope of the tangent  $T_2$  to the curve  $c_2$  at the point P.

#### **Example:**

Determine the signs of  $f_x(1,2)$  and  $f_y(1,2)$  on the

graph below.



**Example:** 

If  $f(x,y) = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}$ , find  $f_x(1,0)$  and  $f_y(1,0)$  and interpret geometrically.

**Example:** *Humidex* 

The humidex H(T,h) is a measure used by meteorologists to describe the combined effects of heat and humidity on an average person's feeling of hotness. The table below contains values of humidex based on measurements of temperature T (in degrees Celsius) and relative humidity h (given as a percent).

	T=22	T=26	T=30	T=34
h=70	27	33	41	49
h=60	25	32	38	46
h=50	24	30	36	43

Estimate  $H_T(30, 60)$  and interpret your answer.

## **Tangent Lines**

Let y=f(x) be a <u>differentiable</u> function in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

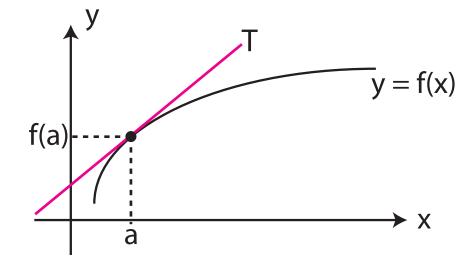
Equation of the tangent line to the graph of f at (a,f(a)):

$$y - f(a) = f'(a)(x - a)$$

#### Linearization of f at x=a:

$$L_a(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$$

L because this is a <u>L</u>inear function



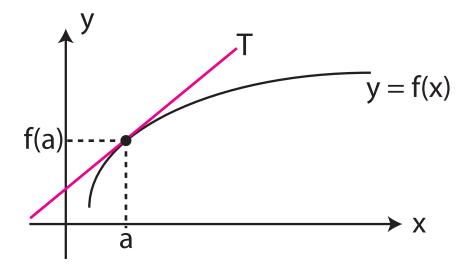
## **Tangent Lines**

The function f is approximately equal to its linearization at (a, f(a)) when the value of x is close to a.

Linear approximation of f at x=a:

$$f(x) \approx f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$$

as you zoom in around (a, f(a)), the line T more and more closely resembles the curve f

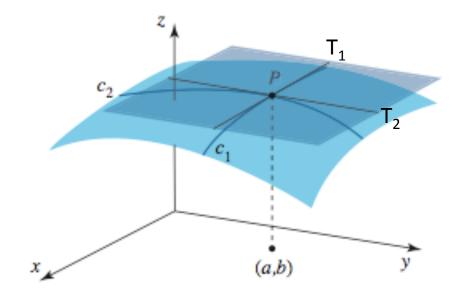


## **Tangent Planes**

Let z=f(x,y) be a function in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with continuous partial derivatives  $f_x$  and  $f_y$ .

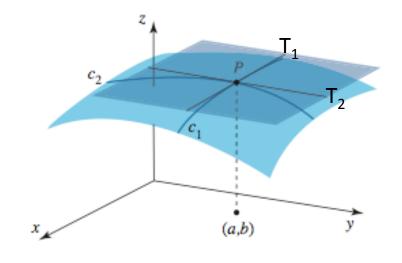
#### <u>Definition</u>: **Tangent Plane**

The plane that contains the point P and the tangent lines  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  at P is called the tangent plane to the surface z=f(x,y) at P.



## **Tangent Planes**

Equation of the tangent plane to the surface z=f(x,y) at (a, b, f(a,b)):

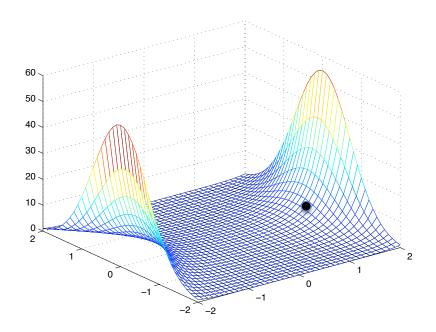


as you zoom in around (a,b, f(a,b)), the tangent plane more and more closely resembles the surface f

## **Tangent Planes**

#### **Example:**

Find an equation of the tangent plane to the surface  $z = e^{x^2-y^2}$  at the point (1,-1, 1).



# Linearization and Linear Approximation

#### **Definition**:

Assume that z=f(x,y) has continuous partial derivatives at (a,b).

#### Linearization of f at (a,b):

$$L_{(a,b)}(x,y) = f(a,b) + f_x(a,b)(x-a) + f_y(a,b)(y-b)$$

## Linear approximation (or tangent plane approximation) of f at (a,b):

$$f(x,y) \approx f(a,b) + f_x(a,b)(x-a) + f_y(a,b)(y-b)$$

# Linearization and Linear Approximation

#### **Example:**

Find the linearization of  $f(x,y) = \ln(x-3y)$  at (7,2) and use it to approximate f(6.9, 2.06).

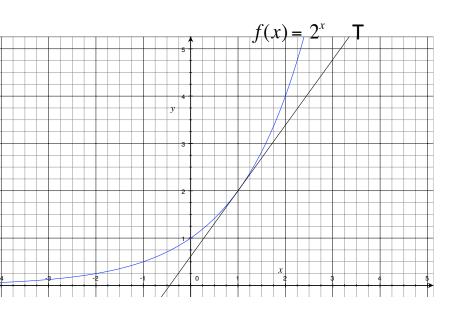
• A function f(x) is differentiable at a point x=a if f(a) exists,

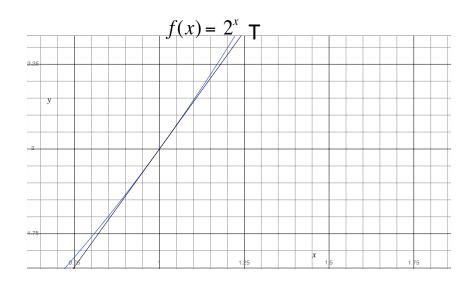
i.e. if the limit

$$f'(a) = \frac{df}{dx}\bigg|_{x=a} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

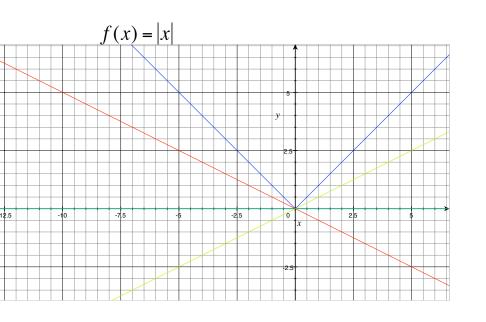
equals a real number.

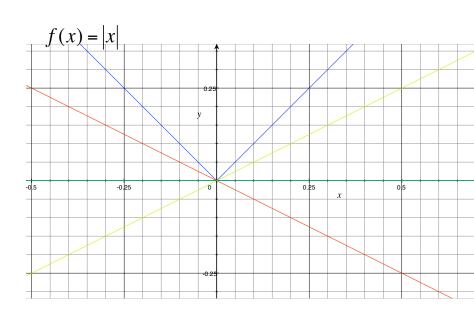
- Geometrically, a function is differentiable at x=a if its tangent line is well-defined at (a,f(a)).
- A well-defined tangent line has the property that it closely resembles the graph of the function on both sides of x=a as we move closer and closer to the point (i.e., as we zoom in around the point, the curve and its tangent line become indistinguishable).





\* f(x) is differentiable at x=1

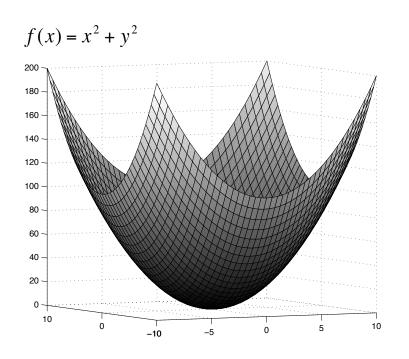


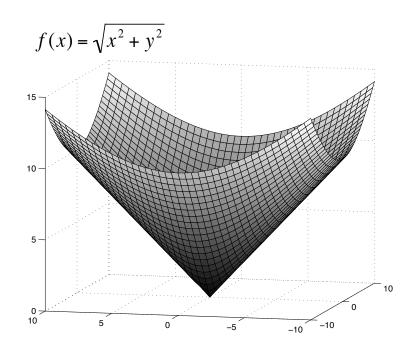


<sup>\*</sup> f(x) is NOT differentiable at x=0

• Theoretically, a function f(x,y) is differentiable at (x,y)=(a,b) if the <u>directional</u> derivative of f exists in <u>EVERY</u> direction at (a,b). (This is impossible to check directly using the algebraic definition of the derivative.)

- Geometrically, a function f(x,y) is differentiable at a point (x,y)=(a,b) if its tangent **plane** is well-defined at (a,b).
- A well-defined tangent plane has the property that it closely resembles the graph of the function <u>all around</u> the point (a,b) as we move closer and closer to the point (i.e., as we zoom in around the point, the surface and its tangent plane become indistinguishable).





Differentiable at (0,0)

**NOT** differentiable at (0,0)

When a function f(x,y) is differentiable at a point (a,b), we say that its linearization  $L_{(a,b)}(x,y)$  is a good approximation to f near (a,b) and so the linear approximation

$$f(x,y) \approx f(a,b) + f_x(a,b)(x-a) + f_y(a,b)(y-b)$$

is valid for (x,y) near (a,b).

### **Theorems**

#### **Sufficient Condition for Differentiability**



Assume that f is defined on an open disk  $B_r(a,b)$  centred at (a,b), and that the partial derivatives  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  are continuous on  $B_r(a,b)$ . Then f is differentiable at (a,b).

#### **Differentiability Implies Continuity**

Assume that a function f is differentiable at (a,b). Then it is continuous at (a,b).

#### **Example:**

Verify that the linear approximation

$$\frac{2x+3}{4y+1} \approx 3 + 2x - 12y$$

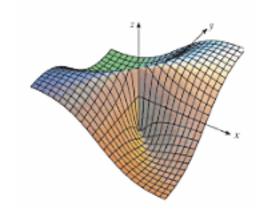
is valid for (x,y) near (0,0).

#### Example #16.

Show that the function  $f(x,y) = x \tan y$  is differentiable at (0,0). What is the largest open disk centred at (0,0) on which f is differentiable?

#### **Example in your text:**

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



Using the formula, and ignoring the fact that the partial derivatives are <u>not</u> continuous at (0,0), we find the linearization (tangent plane approximation) to be

$$L_{(0,0)}(x,y) = 0$$

#### **Example in your text:**

However this is <u>not</u> a good approximation since the error between this linearization and the function does not approach 0 as (x,y) approaches (0,0).

For instance, along y=x,  $f(x,x)=\frac{1}{2}$  and the difference between the tangent plane and and the surface will remain constant at  $\frac{1}{2}$  (i.e. will not go to zero):

error = 
$$|f(x,y) - L_{(0,0)}(x,y)| = \left|\frac{1}{2} - 0\right| = \frac{1}{2}$$

Let f be a differentiable function of two variables, x and y.

Then f has two partial derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$$
  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ 

Differentiating these expressions again (i.e. finding partial derivatives of partial derivatives), we obtain four second-order partial derivatives.

Differentiating  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  with respect to x, we obtain:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \quad \text{or} \quad (f_x)_x = f_{xx}$$

Differentiating  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  with respect to y, we obtain:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$
 or  $(f_y)_y = f_{yy}$ 

Differentiating  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  with respect to y, we obtain:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \quad \text{or} \quad (f_x)_y = f_{xy}$$

Differentiating  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  with respect to x, we obtain:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \quad \text{or} \quad (f_y)_x = f_{yx}$$

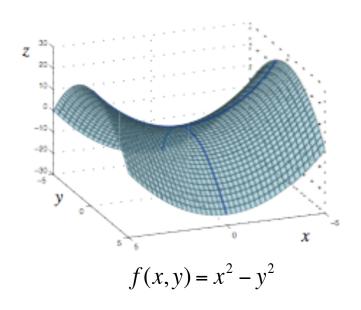
#### Some ways in which these derivatives are useful:

- 1. Second-order derivatives can help us to determine behaviour of first-order derivatives
- 2. We can use second-order derivatives to create quadratic approximations to functions (an improvement over linear approximations)
- 3. We can build partial differential equations which are used to model many real-life phenomena

#### **Example:**

Consider the function  $f(x,y) = x^2 - y^2$ .

Compute  $f_{xx}(0,0)$  and  $f_{yy}(0,0)$ . What does this tell you about the shape of the graph of f at (0,0)?



#### **Example:**

#18. Compute all second-order derivatives for the function  $f(x,y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + 1}$ .

## **Equality of Mixed Partial Derivatives**

#### Theorem:

Assume that a function f is defined in an open disk  $B_r(a,b)$  and that the partial derivatives  $f_{xy}$  and  $f_{yx}$  are continuous on  $B_r(a,b)$ . Then  $f_{xy}(a,b)=f_{yx}(a,b)$ .

#### **Example:**

Using the table of values below, determine whether the following partial derivatives are positive, negative, or zero:

$$f_x(4,1), \quad f_{xx}(4,1), \quad f_y(4,1), \quad f_{yy}(4,1)$$

	x=3	x=4	x=5	x=6
y=0	5.9	6.1	6.8	6.7
y=1	5.6	6	6.2	6.3
y=2	5.4	5.7	6.1	6.5