

Topic 3

Multivariable Functions & Partial Derivatives

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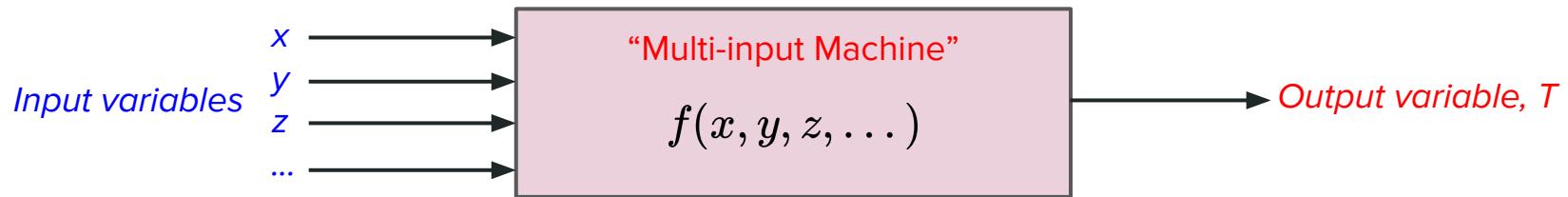
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Outline

- A Multivariable Function
- Level Sets
- Limits & Continuity
- Partial Derivatives
- Linear Approximation & Tangent Planes
- Total Differential & Chain Rule
- Differentiability

Concept of a Multivariable Function

A **multivariable function** is a function that takes in **multiple inputs** and produces an output. The ‘machine’ perspective is shown below.



For example, the **temperature (T)** in a room can be a **function** of space (x, y, z) and **time (t)**, i.e.

$$T = f(x, y, z, t)$$

Another example is the **altitude (z)** of a terrain as a function of **location (x, y)**, i.e.

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

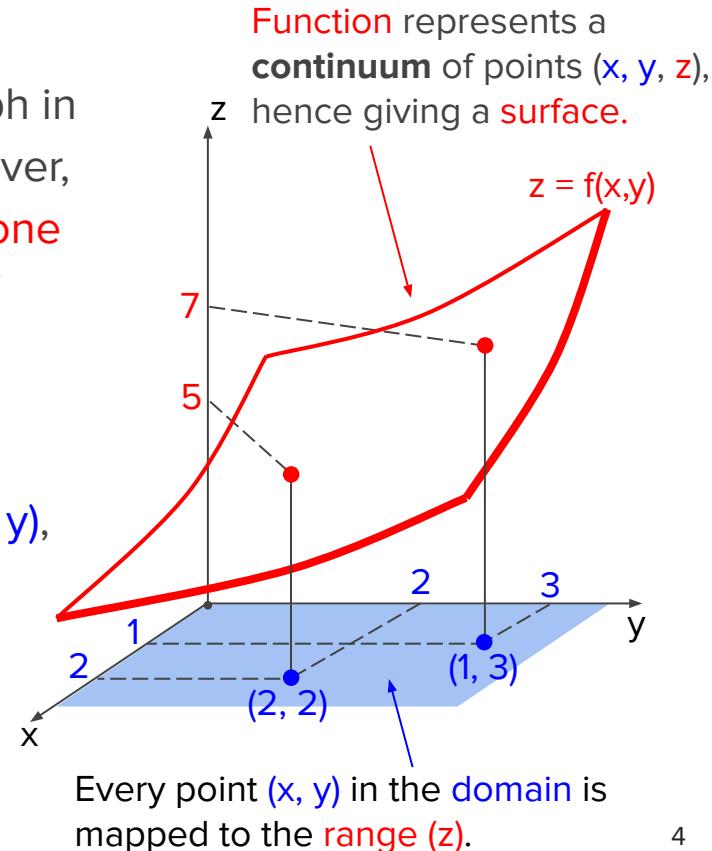
Graphing a Function of Two Variables

A **function of two variables** can be represented in a graph in a similar manner as with single-variable functions. However, since there are **two independent inputs**, say, x & y , and **one output**, say z , there is a **z -value** for every ordered pair of inputs (x, y) in the **domain** of the function. Hence, the **function** looks like a **surface** as shown.

It is also common to express (x, y) as a vector, say $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)$, such that

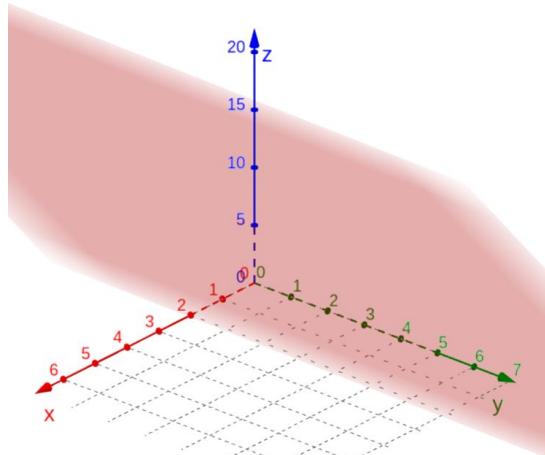
$$z = f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x, y)$$

Therefore, for a **function of n inputs**, \mathbf{x} would be n -dimensional input vector.

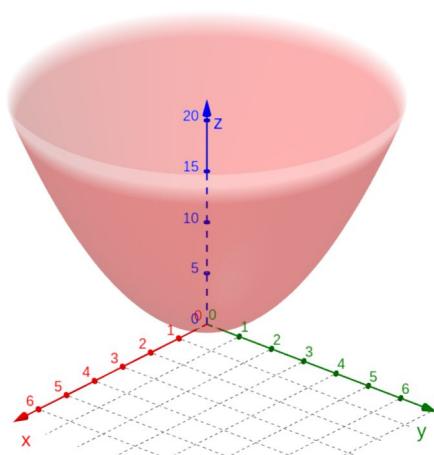


Some Functions of Two Variables

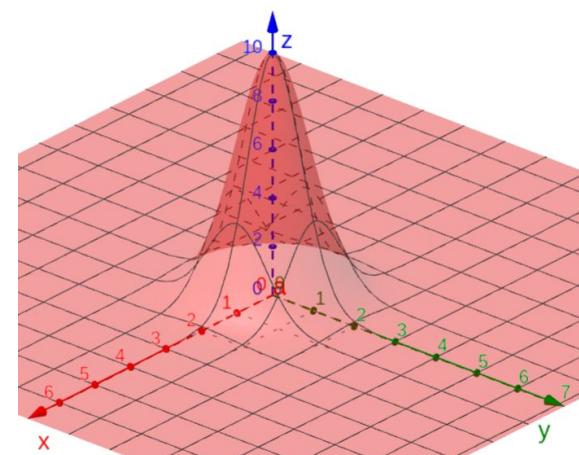
Similar to how single-variable functions can give different curves, **functions of two variables** give different **surfaces** when plotted. Same examples are shown below. Use <https://www.geogebra.org/3d?lang=en> to plot $f(x,y)$.



$$f(x,y) = 2x - y + 5$$



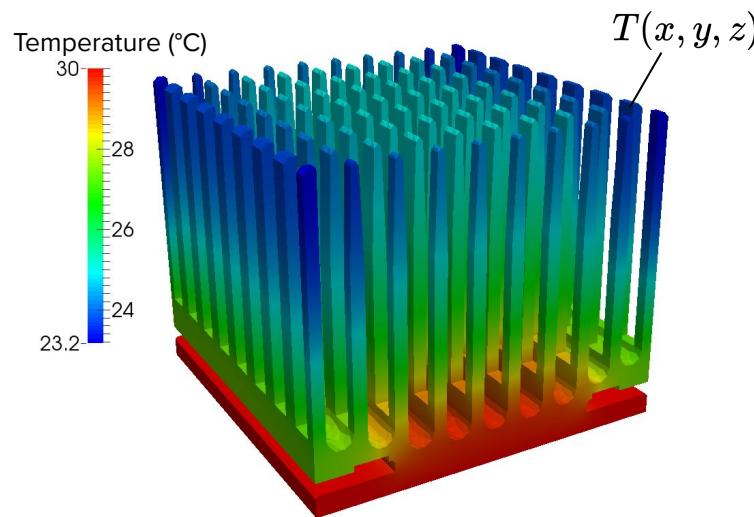
$$f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$$



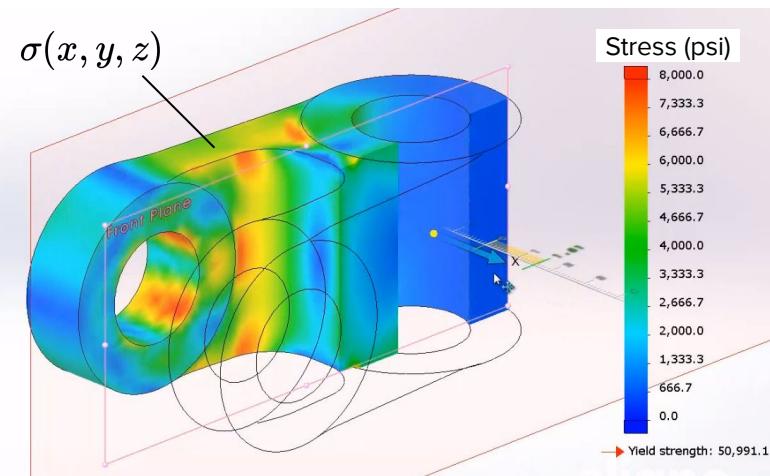
$$f(x,y) = 10e^{-(x^2+y^2)}$$

A Function of Three Variables

While a function of three variables such as $T = f(x, y, z)$ cannot be plotted as a geometrical feature since there are four variables, it can be (partly) represented in a colour plot as shown in the examples below.



Temperature function in a heat sink
(<https://quickersim.com/cfdtoolbox/heat-transfer/>)



Stress function in a joint knuckle
(<https://blogs.solidworks.com/tech/2020/01/introduction-to-solidworks-simulation-finite-element-analysis.html>)

Domain & Range

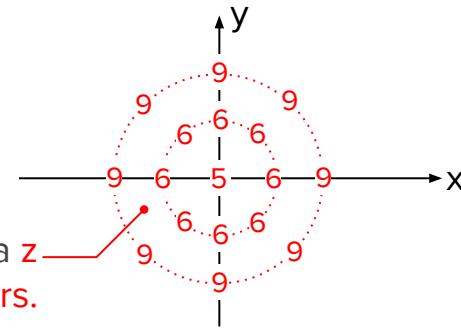
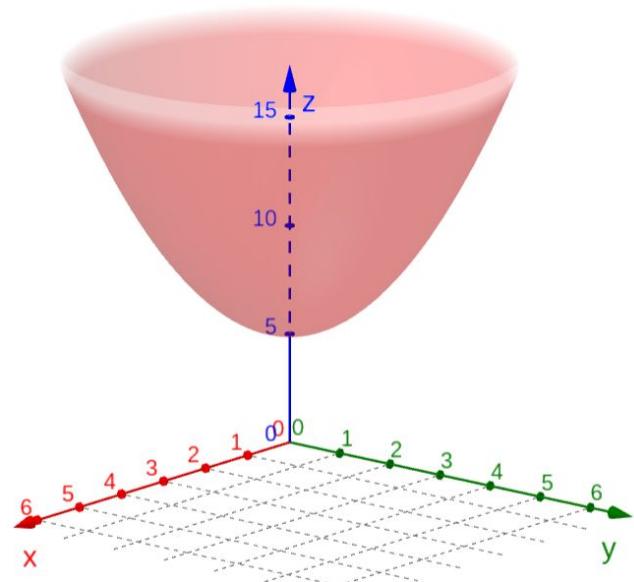
The **domain** and **range** of a multivariable **function** has a similar meaning to that of single-variable functions. For example, the function

$$z = f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 5$$

has a **domain** of \mathbb{R}^2 ($-\infty < x < \infty, -\infty < y < \infty$) and a **range** of $[5, \infty)$.

Because the above multivariable **function** returns a **scalar** at **every point** (x, y) in the domain, it is also called a **scalar field (field of scalars)**.

Every point in the xy plane has a **z** value, hence giving a **field of scalars**.



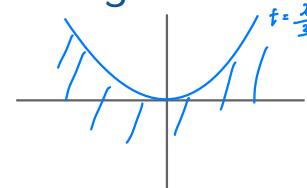
Domain & Range

Exercise: Determine the domain and range of the following functions. Verify in Geogebra if possible.

$$a) y(x, t) = 1 - \sqrt{x^2 - 3t} \quad \begin{matrix} \geq 0 \\ \underbrace{}_{x^2 - 3t \geq 0} \end{matrix} \quad x^2 - 3t \geq 0 \rightarrow x^2 \geq 3t \quad (\text{Domain})$$

$t \leq \frac{x^2}{3}$

Range is $y \leq 1$ or $(-\infty, 1]$



$$b) q(\theta, t) = 2 \sin(t + \theta)$$

$\underbrace{\sin(t + \theta)}_{\in \mathbb{R}}, \text{ so } t \in \mathbb{R} \text{ & } \theta \in \mathbb{R}$ Hence domain is \mathbb{R}^2

Range is $[-2, 2]$

$$c) T(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{\underbrace{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}_{\text{since } x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \neq 0}} \quad (\text{Describe this 3D temperature field.})$$

domain is $\left\{ \mathbb{R}^3 \mid (x, y, z) \neq (0, 0, 0) \right\}$

since $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \geq 0$, range is $T > 0$

The temperature is lower the further away from the origin.

A set can be a point, a curve, a surface etc.

Level Sets

$z = f(x, y) = c \rightarrow y = g(x)$ is a curve

A **level set** of a function is defined as

$$z = f(\mathbf{x}) = c \quad \begin{matrix} \leftarrow \\ \text{c must be in the} \\ \text{range of } f \end{matrix}$$

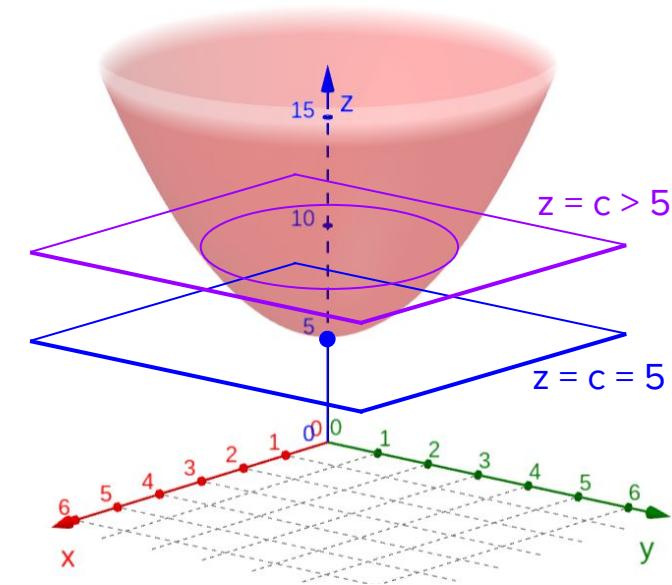
where c is a constant in the range of the function. For $z = f(x, y)$ that can be represented as a **surface**, a **level set** has the **same meaning as the contour lines of a terrain** as illustrated. For example, the **level set**

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 5 = 5 \rightarrow x^2 + y^2 = 0$$

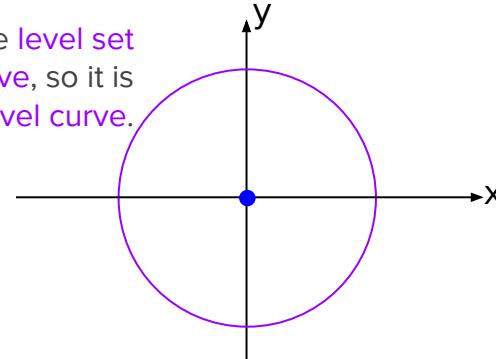
represents a **point** at $(0, 0)$. The **level set**

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 5 = c \rightarrow x^2 + y^2 = \underbrace{c - 5}_{R^2}, c > 5$$

is a **circle centered at $(0, 0)$ with radius $\sqrt{c-5}$** .



Generally, the **level set** of $f(x, y)$ is a **curve**, so it is also called a **level curve**.



Level Sets

Similarly, the **level sets** for a function of three variables such as a pressure function

$$P = f(x, y, z) = c$$

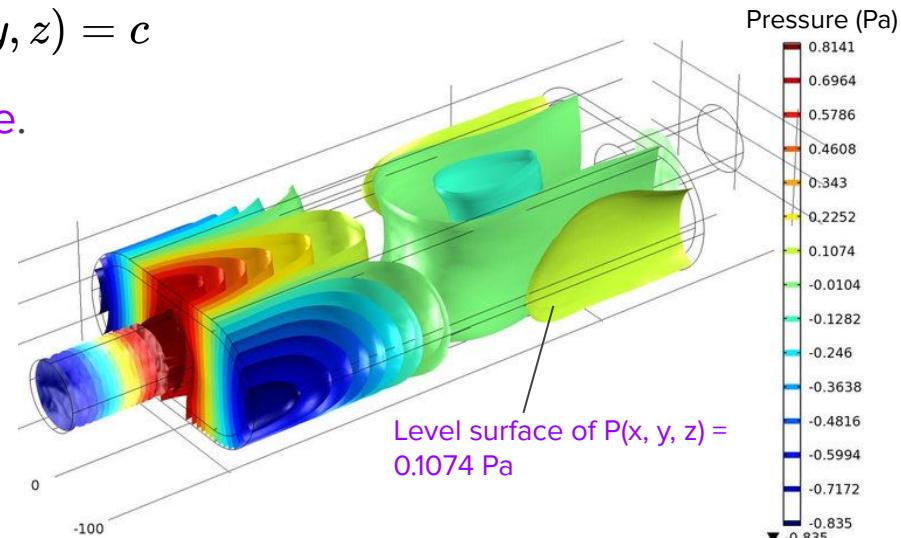
represent **surfaces of the same pressure value**.

In the example shown, a **surface of one colour** indicate the **locations** in a muffler where the **acoustic pressure is a constant value**. Such plots are called isosurface plots.

Can you explain why the level set of $f(x, y, z)$ is a surface?

$$f(x, y, z) = c \rightarrow z = C - g(x, y)$$

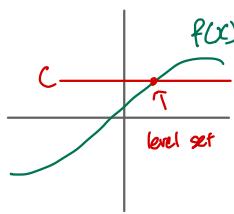
$z = h(x, y)$ is a surface



Source:

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/283269341_Finite_Element_Analysis_of_Acoustic_Pressure_Levels_and_Transmission_Loss_of_a_Muffler

Level Sets



$f(x) = C$ is a point, or points

Exercise: Describe the level set of a single variable function $f(x)$. What is the general relationship between a function and its level sets dimensionally?

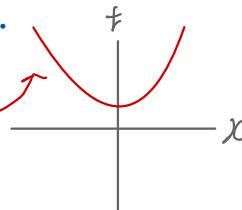
A level set is generally one dimension lower than its function

Exercise: Describe the level sets of each function below.

a) $y(x, t) = 1 - \sqrt{x^2 - 3t} = C \rightarrow \sqrt{x^2 - 3t} = | - C |$

$$x^2 - 3t = C(-C)^2$$

$$t = \frac{1}{3} [x^2 - (1-C)^2]$$



Level curve is a parabola on the xt -plane

b) $T(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = C$

$$\downarrow$$

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = \frac{1}{C} = R^2$$

Spherical surface of radius $\sqrt{\frac{1}{C}}$

ANS: a) Parabola: $t = \frac{1}{3}[x^2 - (1-C)^2]$. b) Spherical surface: $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1/C$.

Limits

Recall that the **limit** of a single variable function is defined as

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$$

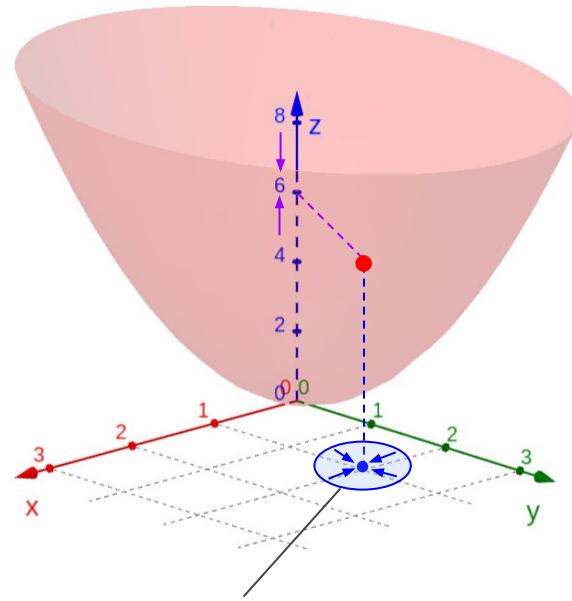
Similarly, the **limit** of a multivariable function is defined as

$$\lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow a \\ (x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)}} f(\mathbf{x}) = L$$

if the **limit** exists. Eg, for a **function** of two variables, we have

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,2)} f(x,y) = \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,2)} 2x^2 + y^2 = 2(1^2) + 2^2 = 6$$

As illustrated, the **limit** is the **value $f(x, y)$ approaches as (x, y) approaches $(1, 2)$ from all possible directions** (in the domain).



Graphically, the **limit** is the value that $z = f(x, y)$ approaches when the disc closes in to $(x, y) = (1, 2)$.

Nonexistent Limits

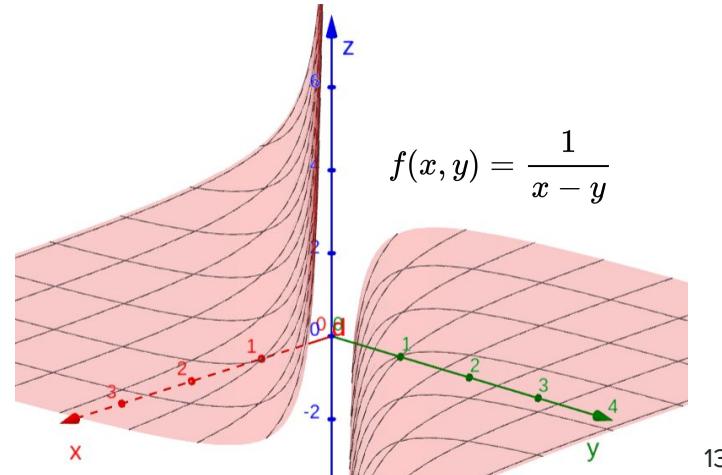
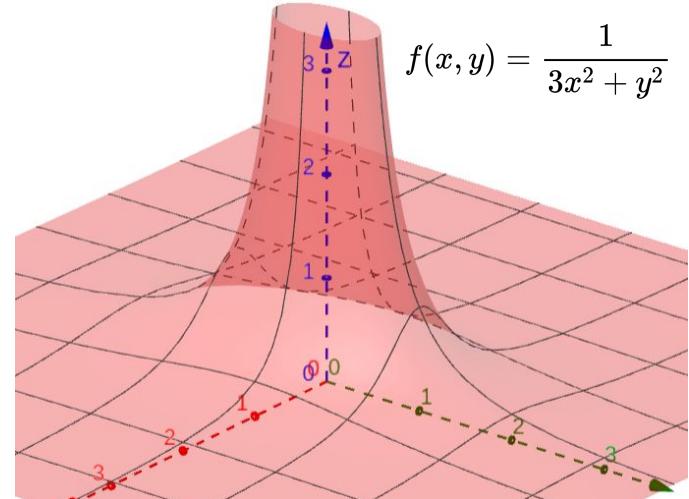
Similar to single-variable functions, the **limit** of a multivariable function can **fail to exist**, such as when

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \pm\infty$$

For example, as illustrated,

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{1}{3x^2 + y^2} = \infty \text{ (Limit D.N.E.)}$$

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,a)} \frac{1}{x - y} = \pm\infty \text{ (Limit D.N.E.)}$$



Nonexistent Limits

Another case of a **nonexistent limit** is when $f(x)$ approaches different limits along different paths, i.e.

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a} \text{ (path 1)}} f(\mathbf{x}) = L_1,$$

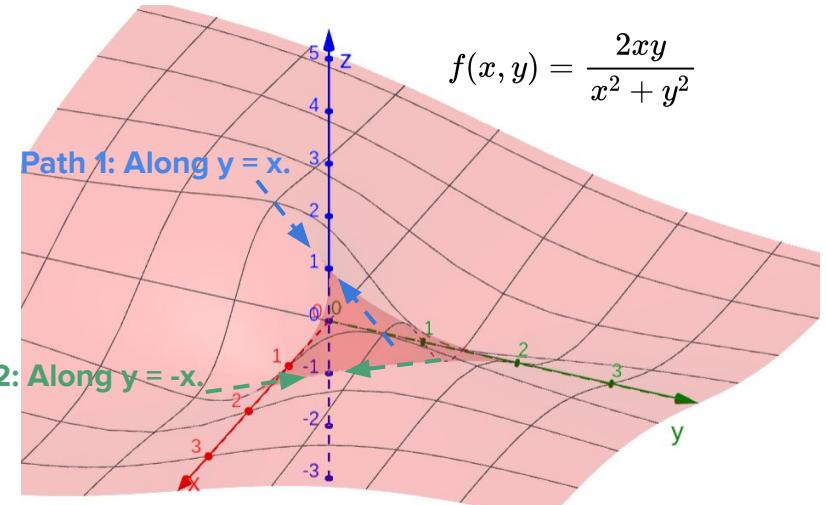
$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a} \text{ (path 2)}} f(\mathbf{x}) = L_2 \neq L_1$$

For example, the illustration shows that

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0) \text{ (y=x)}} \frac{2xy}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x^2}{x^2 + x^2} = 1,$$

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0) \text{ (y=-x)}} \frac{2xy}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2x^2}{x^2 + x^2} = -1$$

$$\rightarrow \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{2xy}{x^2 + y^2} \text{ D.N.E.}$$

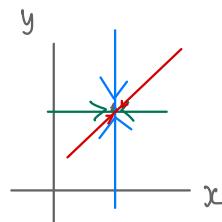


Two-Path Test for Nonexistent Limits Only

From the prior example, it implies that we can use **non-similar limits along two different paths to show that a limit does not exist (two-path test)**. It is important to note that when the limits obtained along two (or any number of) paths are the same, it **does not mean that the limit exists, since there are infinite paths to a point.**

Exercise: Determine if the limit below exists. Then verify it from the graph.

$$L = \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,2)} \frac{(x-1)(y-2)}{(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2} = \frac{0}{0} \text{ (indeterminate)}$$



Along $x=1$,

$$L_1 = \lim_{y \rightarrow 2} \frac{(0)(y-2)}{0^2 + (y-2)^2} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 2} \frac{0}{(y-2)^2} = 0$$

Along $y=x^2$,

$$L_2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1)(\cos)}{(x-1)^2 + 0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{0}{(x-1)^2} = 0$$

Along $y=2x$

$$L_3 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1)(2x-2)}{(x-1)^2 + (2x-2)^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{2(x-1)^2}{(x-1)^2 + 4(x-1)^2}$$
$$= \frac{2(x-1)^2}{5(x-1)^2}$$
$$= \frac{2}{5} \neq 0$$

Since the limits are different along different paths, the limits DNE

ANS: DNE.

Properties of Limits

Similar to that in **single-variable functions**, the limit operator for **multivariable functions** follows the following properties. Given

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) = L, \quad \lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} g(\mathbf{x}) = K$$

a) $\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} \{f(\mathbf{x}) \pm g(\mathbf{x})\} = \lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) \pm \lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} g(\mathbf{x}) = L \pm K$

b) $\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} \{f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot g(\mathbf{x})\} = \lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} g(\mathbf{x}) = LK$

c) $\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} \left\{ \frac{f(\mathbf{x})}{g(\mathbf{x})} \right\} = \frac{\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x})}{\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} g(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{L}{K}$

d) $\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} \left\{ f(\mathbf{x})^{g(\mathbf{x})} \right\} = \lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} f(x)^{\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} g(\mathbf{x})} = L^K$

Limits

Always direct sub first

Exercise: Determine the following limits.

a) $\lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (0,1,2)} \frac{2x^2 + \ln y - z}{\sqrt{x+2z}}$

$$= \frac{2(0) + \ln(1) - 2}{\sqrt{0+2(2)}}$$

$$= \frac{0+0-2}{\sqrt{4}} = -1$$

b) $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,0)} \frac{\sqrt{x-y} - 1}{x-y-1} = \frac{0}{0}$

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,0)} \frac{\sqrt{x-y} - 1}{x-y-1} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{x-y} + 1}{\sqrt{x-y} + 1}$$

$$= \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,0)} \frac{(x-y-1)}{(x-y-1)(\sqrt{x-y} + 1)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-0} + 1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

c) $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{y}{x+y} = \frac{0}{0}$

Along $x=0$,

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{y}{0+y} = 1$$

Along $y=0$,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{0}{x+0} = 0 \neq 1$$

\therefore limit DNE

Using Polar Coordinates to Evaluate Limits

In some cases, a conversion of the function in Cartesian coordinates to **polar coordinates** can assist in the **limit evaluation**. For example, the **limit**

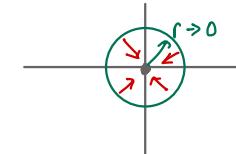
$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2y}{x^2 + y^2}$$

seems to **converge to zero along multiple paths**, i.e.

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \lim_{(y=0)} \frac{x^2y}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{0}{x^2} = 0, \quad \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \lim_{(x=0)} \frac{x^2y}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{y^2}{y^2} = 0,$$
$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \lim_{(y=x)} \frac{x^2y}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^3}{2x^2} = \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x}{2} = 0$$

But the **multiple-path test cannot be used to prove that a limit exists**.

Using Polar Coordinates to Evaluate Limits

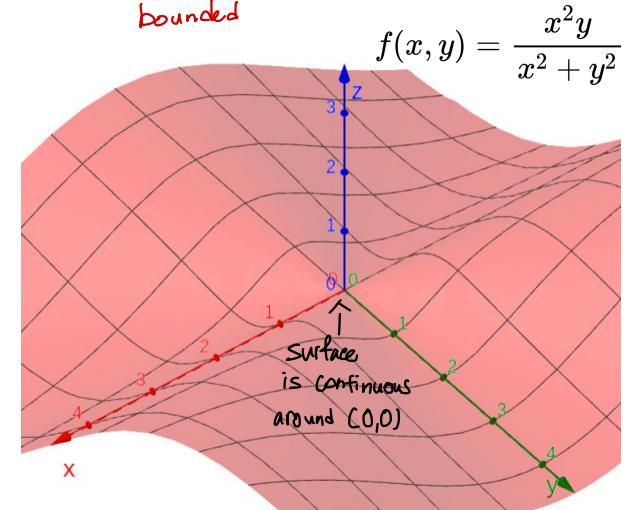


Now, if we substitute $x = r\cos(\theta)$ and $y = r\sin(\theta)$ to convert the function to polar coordinates, we get

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2y}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{r^2 \cos^2 \theta \cdot r \sin \theta}{r^2} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} r \underbrace{\cos^2 \theta \sin \theta}_{\text{bounded}} = 0$$

Take note that **as (x, y) approaches $(0, 0)$ from all paths**, this means r approaches 0. Conceptually, this means a **circle with radius r shrinks to a point** at $(0, 0)$.

The limit can be verified graphically as shown.



Using Polar Coordinates to Evaluate Limits

Exercise: Evaluate the limit below using polar coordinate substitution. Verify graphically.

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \left\{ \frac{2x^3 + y^5}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} + 1 \right\} \quad x = r \cos \theta \quad y = r \sin \theta$$

$$= \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \left\{ \frac{2r^3 \cos^3 \theta + r^5 \sin^5 \theta}{\sqrt{r^2 \cos^2 \theta + r^2 \sin^2 \theta}} + 1 \right\}$$

$$= \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \left\{ \frac{r^3 (2r \cos^2 \theta + r^2 \sin^5 \theta)}{r} + 1 \right\} = 0 + 1$$
$$= 1$$

Continuity

The **continuity** requirements for a **multivariable function** is similar to those in a **single-variable function**, i.e.

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{a})$$

which implies that the **limit exists** and **must be equal to the function value at $x = a$** . For a function of two variables, we have

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y) = f(a, b)$$

which graphically means there is a **continuous ‘patch’ of surface in the neighbourhood of (a, b)** . For example, the polynomial function

$$f(x, y) = x^2y + x + 4y + 3xy^2 + y + 2y^3$$

is **continuous in \mathbb{R}^2** because the above **continuity relation is satisfied for all (a, b)** .

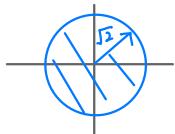
Continuity

Example: Determine the region where each function below is continuous.

a) $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{2 - x^2 - y^2}, & (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 2, & (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

Domain of f is $2 - x^2 - y^2 \geq 0$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 \leq 2$$



check: $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x,y) = \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \sqrt{2-x^2-y^2} = \sqrt{2} \neq 2 \neq f(0,0)$

$f(x,y)$ is cont. in $x^2 + y^2 \leq 2 / (x,y) \neq (0,0)$

b) $T(y, z) = e^{-z} [\cos(2y) + \sin(2y)]$

Check: $\lim_{(y,z) \rightarrow (a,b)} T(y,z) = T(a,b)$

Since the exponential, cosine & sine

functions are continuous everywhere

$\therefore T(y,z)$ is continuous in \mathbb{R}^2 .

ANS: a) On the disc $x^2 + y^2 \leq 2$, excluding $(0, 0)$. b) \mathbb{R}^2 ($-\infty < y < \infty, -\infty < z < \infty$).

Continuity

Exercise: Where is each function below discontinuous?

a) $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x+y}{2x-y}, & (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0, & (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

Domain is $2x-y \neq 0 \rightarrow y \neq 2x$

But since $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x,y) = \frac{0}{0}$, hence the limit might exist

Try along $x=0$, $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{0+y}{0-y} = -1 \neq 0 \neq f(0,0)$

$f(x,y)$ is discontinuous at $(0,0)$ & along $y=2x$

However, for the limit to exist, all paths to $(0,0)$ must give the limit. Yet, the path $y = 2x$ cannot be taken, since it is not in the domain of $f(x,y)$. So the limit DNE, and hence the $f(x,y)$ is discontinuous at $(0,0)$.

b) $g(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy^2}{4x^2 + y^2}, & (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 1, & (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

Domain is $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus (x, y) \neq (0, 0)$

Check at $(0,0)$:

Along $x=0$, $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{0 \cdot y^2}{0+y^2} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{0}{y^2} = 0 \neq 1 \neq g(0,0)$

So $g(x,y)$ is discont. at $(0,0)$

ANS: a) Along $y = 2x$, including $(0, 0)$. b) At $(0, 0)$.

Partial Derivatives

Recall that the **derivative** of a single-variable function is

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

which represents the **instantaneous rate of change of a function w.r.t. the input x**. For a multivariable function, say $f(x, y)$, we can apply the same concept, but since there is **more than one input variable**, we can define a '**partial**' derivative

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

which represents the **instantaneous change of $f(x, y)$ w.r.t. only the input x**. The **derivative** is called '**partial**' because it **does not consider changes of the function w.r.t. other input variables**. We use the letter ' ∂ ' instead of ' d ' to denote **partial derivatives**.

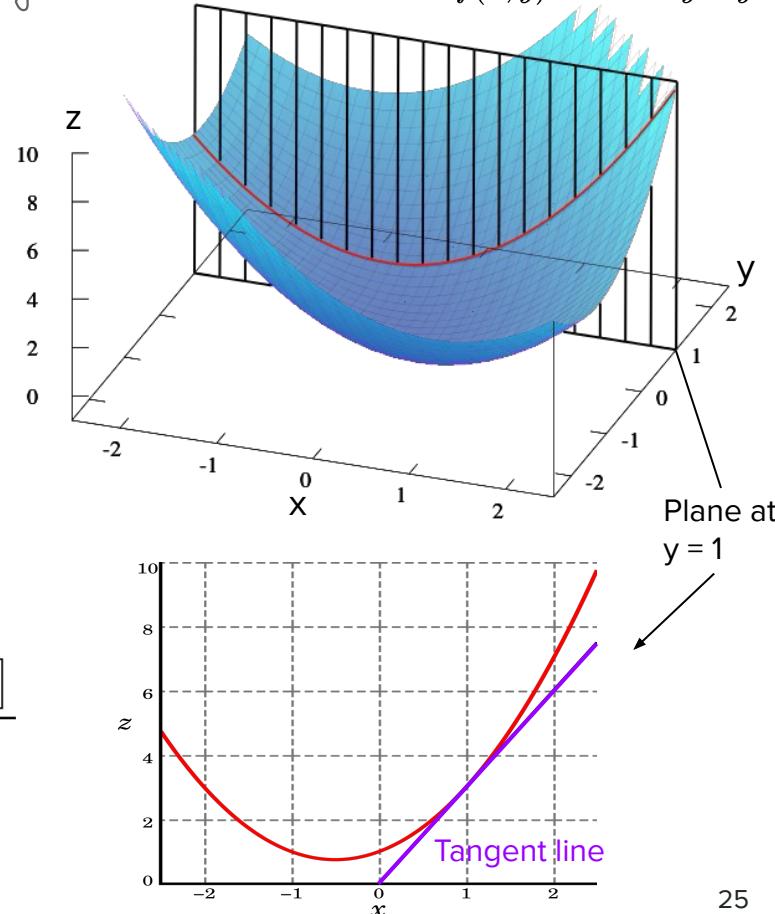
Partial Derivatives

Graphically, the **partial derivative** represents the **slope of the tangent** of the **intersection curve** between the surface $f(x, y)$ and a vertical plane at some y coordinate, as shown. For the $f(x, y)$ shown,

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_x &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h, y) - f(x, y)}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x+h)^2 + (x+h)y + y^2 - [x^2 + xy + y^2]}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 2hx + h^2 + xy + hy + y^2 - [x^2 + xy + y^2]}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2hx + h^2 + hy}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 2x + h + y = 2x + y
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x, y) &= x^2 + xy + y^2 \\
 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x^2 + xy + y^2) = 2x + y + 0
 \end{aligned}$$

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



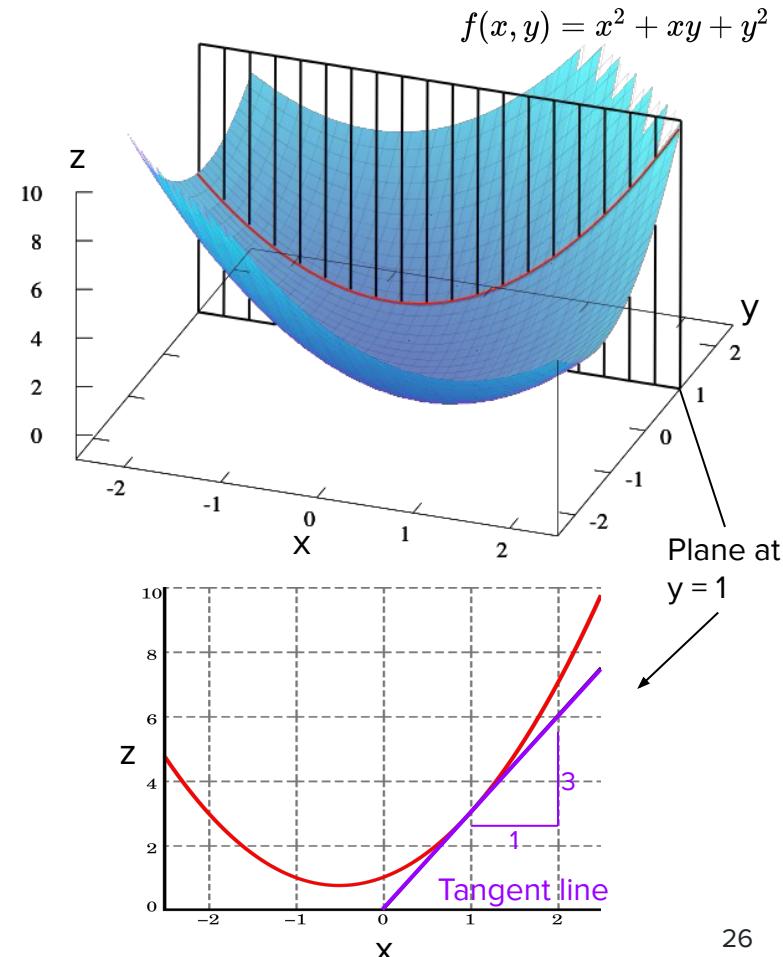
Partial Derivatives

The partial derivative $f_x(x, y) = 2x + y$ gives the gradient of $f(x, y)$ w.r.t. x at any coordinate (x, y) . For example, at $(1, 1)$ shown in the graphs, the gradient is

$$f_x(1, 1) = 2(1) + 1 = 3$$

which agrees with the slope of the tangent line shown.

Now, notice that in the limit evaluation, there is **no change of the variable y** . This means one can **differentiate $f(x, y)$ w.r.t. x while treating y as a constant** to obtain $f_x(x, y)$ using the table of derivatives.



Partial Derivatives

Example: Evaluate the partial derivatives of the function below directly. Verify $f_y(x, y)$ using the limit definition. Use the graph to illustrate the meaning of $f_y(x, y)$.

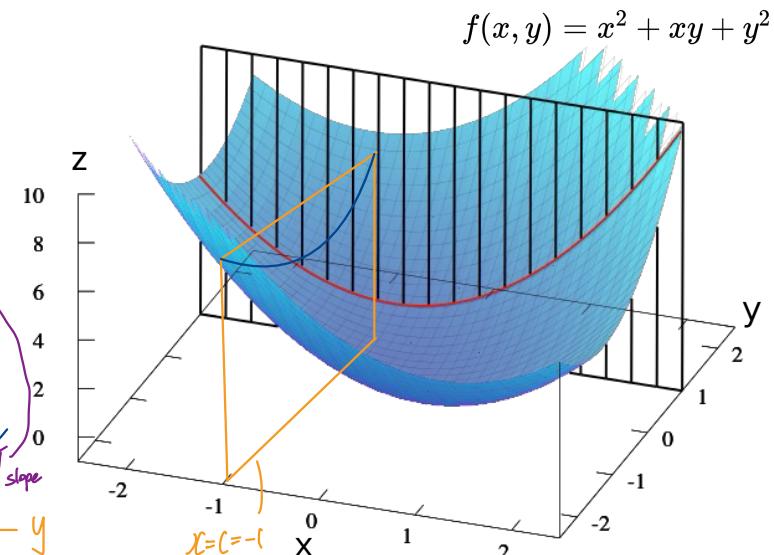
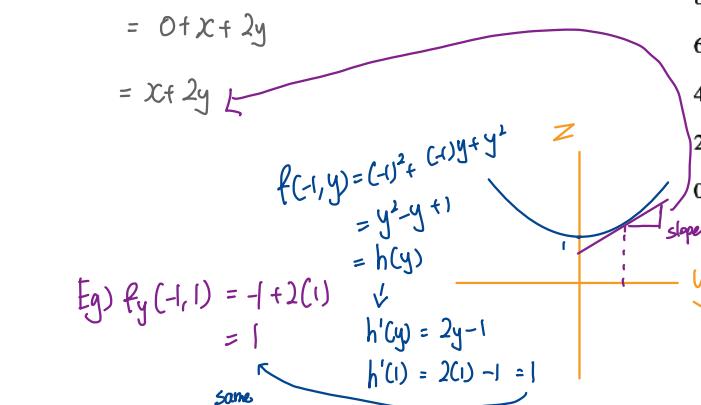
$$f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + y^2$$

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

\uparrow
treat x as constant

$$= 0 + x + 2y$$

$$= x + 2y$$



ANS: $f_x(x, y) = 2x + y$. $f_y(x, y) = x + 2y$.

Partial Derivatives

$$\frac{d}{dx}(a^x) = a^{kx} \ln a(k)$$

Exercise: Evaluate the partial derivatives of each function below directly.

a) $f(x, y) = xe^{xy} + \ln(xy)$

$$f_x(x, y) = \left[e^{xy} + x(ye^{xy}) \right] + \frac{y}{xy}$$

$$= e^{xy}(1+xy) + \frac{1}{x}$$

$$f_y(x, y) = x(xe^{xy}) + \frac{x}{xy}$$

$$= x^2 e^{xy} + \frac{1}{y}$$

b) $g(x, y) = \sin\left(\frac{x}{1+2y}\right)$

$$g_x(x, y) = \cos\left(\frac{x}{1+2y}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{1+2y}\right)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{1+2y}\right) \cos\left(\frac{x}{1+2y}\right)$$

$$g_y(x, y) = \cos\left(\frac{x}{1+2y}\right) \cdot \left(x \left[\frac{-2}{(1+2y)^2}\right]\right)$$

$$= \frac{-2x}{(1+2y)^2} \cos\left(\frac{x}{1+2y}\right)$$

c) $h(x, y, z) = z^{xy}$

$$h_x = z^{xy} \ln z (y) \underset{\substack{\text{like a} \\ \text{kx}}}{=} y z^{xy} \ln z$$

$$h_y = z^{xy} \ln z (x)$$

$$= x z^{xy} \ln z$$

$$h_z = x y z^{xy-1}$$

ANS: a) $f_x = e^{xy}(1+xy) + 1/x$, $f_y = x^2 e^{xy} + 1/y$. b) $g_x = \frac{1}{1+2y} \cos\left(\frac{x}{1+2y}\right)$, $g_y = \frac{-2x}{(1+2y)^2} \cos\left(\frac{x}{1+2y}\right)$.

c) $h_x = y z^{xy} \ln z$, $h_y = x z^{xy} \ln z$, $h_z = x y z^{(xy-1)}$.

Partial Derivatives

Exercise: Evaluate the partial derivatives of the implicit function $z = f(x, y)$ in the equation below.

$$x^3 + y^3 + z^3 + \underbrace{6xyz}_{6y(xz)} = 1 \quad - \text{Eqn}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \{ \text{Eqn} \} \rightarrow 3x^2 + 0 + 3z^2 \cdot z_x + 6y [z + xz_x] = 0$$

$$z_x (3z^2 + 6xy) = -3x^2 - 6yz$$

$$z_x = \frac{-3x^2 - 6yz}{3z^2 + 6xy} = \frac{-x^2 - 2yz}{z^2 + 2xy}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \{ \text{Eqn} \} \rightarrow 0 + 3y^2 + 3z^2 \cdot z_y + 6x [z + yz_y] = 0$$

$$z_y (3z^2 + 6xy) = -3y^2 - 6xz$$

$$z_y = \frac{-3y^2 - 6xz}{3z^2 + 6xy} = \frac{-y^2 - 2xz}{z^2 + 2xy}$$

$$\text{ANS: } z_x = \frac{-x^2 - 2yz}{z^2 + 2xy}, z_y = \frac{-y^2 - 2xz}{z^2 + 2xy}.$$

Higher-order Partial Derivatives

Just like **single-variable functions**, **multivariable functions** have **higher-order (partial) derivatives**. For example,

$$f(x, y) = x^3y^2 + \cos(xy) \rightarrow f_x(x, y) = 3x^2y^2 - y \sin(xy)$$

$$\rightarrow f_{xx}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f_x(x, y) = 6xy^2 - y^2 \cos(xy)$$

$$f(x, y) = x^3y^2 + \cos(xy) \rightarrow f_y(x, y) = 2x^3y - x \sin(xy)$$

$$\rightarrow f_{yy}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f_y(x, y) = 2x^3 - x^2 \cos(xy)$$

Generally, the **nth-order partial derivative** is found by **differentiating** the **(n-1)th-order partial derivative**. Rules of differentiation are applied as usual.

Mixed Partial Derivatives

For **multivariable functions**, there are **mixed partial derivatives** as well. For example,

$$f(x, y) = x^3y^2 + \cos(xy) \rightarrow f_x(x, y) = 3x^2y^2 - y \sin(xy)$$
$$\rightarrow f_{xy}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f_x(x, y) = 6x^2y - [\sin(xy) + xy \cos(xy)]$$

$$f(x, y) = x^3y^2 + \cos(xy) \rightarrow f_y(x, y) = 2x^3y - x \sin(xy)$$
$$\rightarrow f_{yx}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f_y(x, y) = 6x^2y - [\sin(xy) + xy \cos(xy)]$$

Notice that the **mixed partial derivatives** $f_{xy}(x, y)$ and $f_{yx}(x, y)$ are **equal**. This is **always true** if $f_{xy}(x, y)$ and $f_{yx}(x, y)$ are **continuous**, which is called **Clairaut's Theorem** (to be proven in Tutorial 4).

Higher-order Partial Derivatives

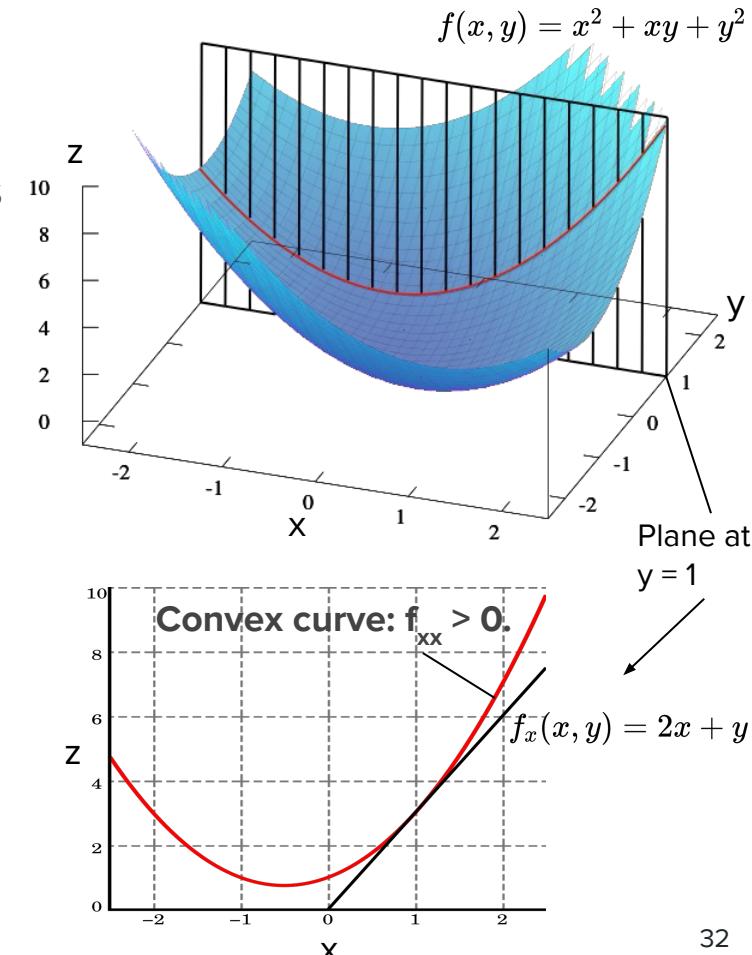
The **higher-order derivatives** in multivariable functions have similar meanings to those in single-variable functions. For example, for

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

we have

$$\begin{aligned} f_x(x, y) &= 2x + y, \quad f_y(x, y) = 2y + x \\ \rightarrow f_{xx}(x, y) &= 2 > 0, \quad f_{yy}(x, y) = 2 > 0 \end{aligned}$$

which means the **intersection curve** is **convex (concave up)** at all plane sections at any y & x value. The slope is always increasing at a rate of 2 in both the x & y directions.



Mixed Partial Derivatives

For **mixed partial derivatives**, they describe how the **slope in one direction changes w.r.t. another direction**.

For example, for

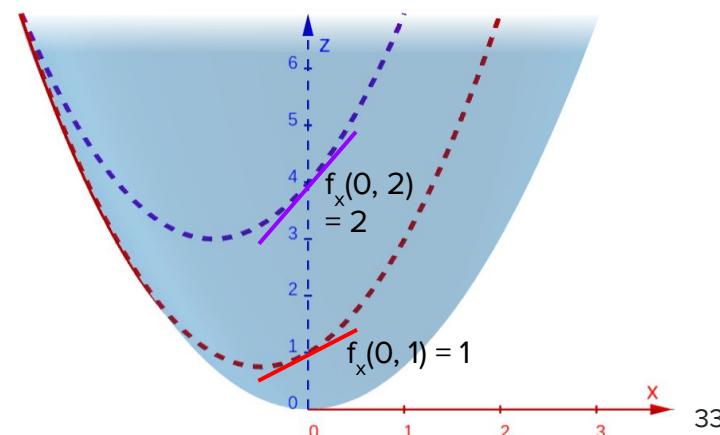
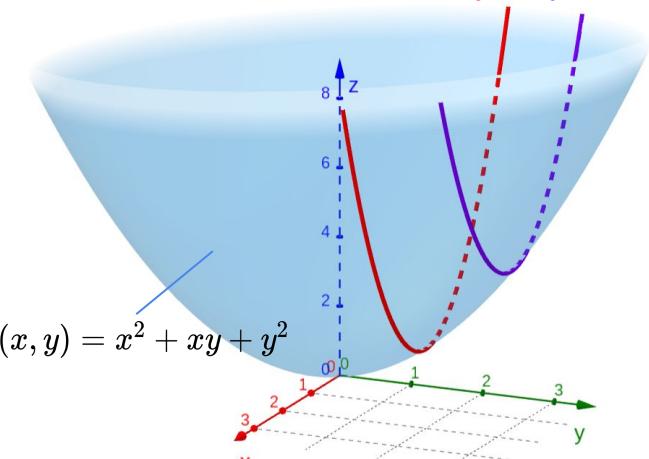
$$f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + y^2$$

$$\rightarrow f_x(x, y) = 2x + y, \quad f_y(x, y) = 2y + x$$

$$\rightarrow f_{xy}(x, y) = f_{yx}(x, y) = 1$$

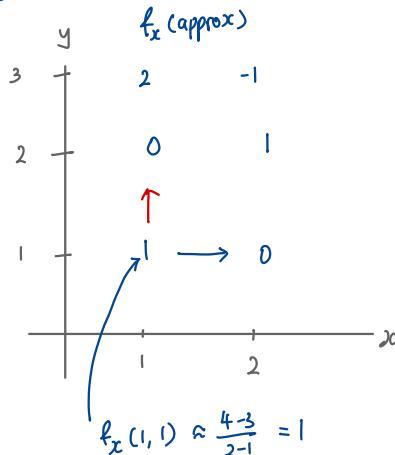
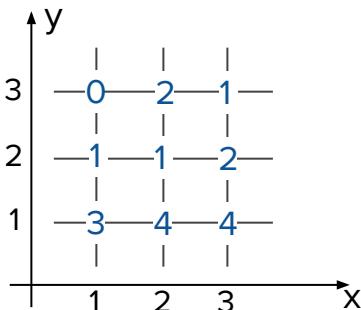
This means the **slope in the x-direction increases at a rate of 1 in the y-direction**. It also means the **slope in the y-direction increases at the rate of 1 in the x-direction**.

Intersection curves with planes at $y = 1, y = 2$.



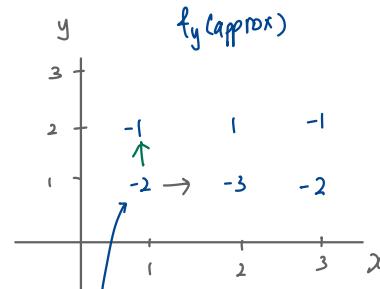
Higher-order Partial Derivatives

Exercise: The grid below represents a region of $f(x, y)$ where the function values are indicated at each coordinate point. Estimate f_{xx} , f_{yy} , f_{xy} and f_{yx} at $(1, 1)$. Hint: Estimate the slope values in the x & y directions first.



$$f_{xx}(1,1) \approx \frac{\Delta f_x}{\Delta x} \approx \frac{0-1}{1} = -1$$

$$f_{xy}(1,1) \approx \frac{\Delta f_x}{\Delta y} \approx \frac{0-1}{1} = -1$$



$$f_y(1,1) \approx \frac{\Delta f_y}{\Delta y} = \frac{1-3}{2-1} = -2$$

$$f_{yy}(1,1) \approx \frac{\Delta f_y}{\Delta y} = \frac{-1-(-2)}{1} = 1$$

$$f_{yx}(1,1) \approx \frac{\Delta f_y}{\Delta x} = \frac{-3-(-2)}{1} = -1$$

$(= f_{xy})$

ANS: At $(1, 1)$, $f_{xx} = -1$, $f_{yy} = 1$, $f_{xy} = f_{yx} = -1$.

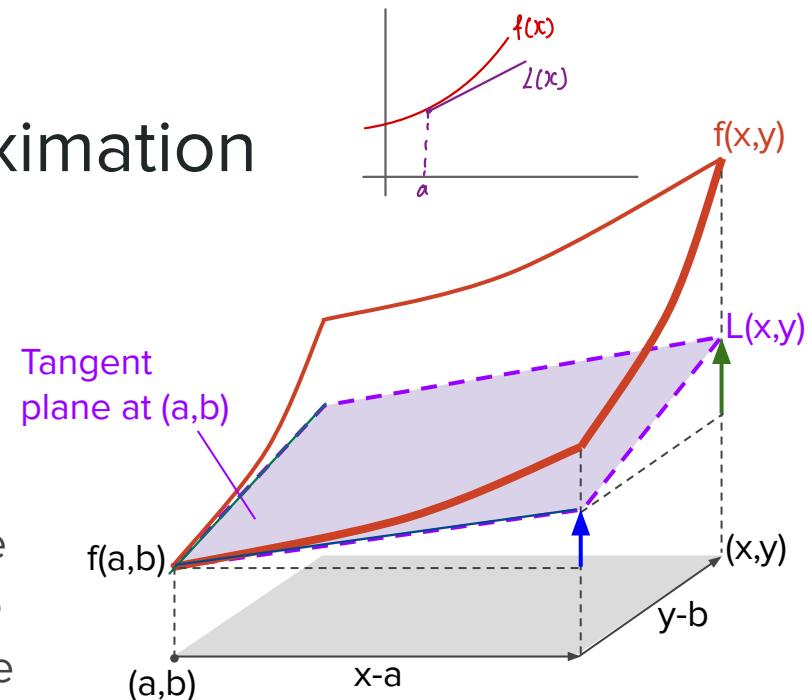
Tangent Plane & Linear Approximation

For **single-variable functions**, recall that the **linear approximation** is defined as

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

where $L(x)$ represents the tangent line to the curve of $f(x)$ at $x = a$. Analogously, we can also define the **linear approximation** for **multivariable functions** like $f(x, y)$ as

$$f(x, y) \approx L(x, y) = f(a, b) + \underbrace{f_x(a, b)(x - a)}_{\text{Approx. change in } f(x,y) \text{ due to change in } x.} + \underbrace{f_y(a, b)(y - b)}_{\text{Approx. change in } f(x,y) \text{ due to change in } y.}$$



where $L(x, y)$ here represents the **tangent plane** to the **surface of $f(x, y)$** at (a, b) .

Total Differential

Now, in a region **infinitesimally close** to a point (x, y) , we can imagine that the **surface $f(x, y)$** is '**coincidental**' with its tangent plane at (x, y) . Hence we have

$$f(x + \underline{dx}, y + \underline{dy}) = f(x, y) + f_x(x, y)dx + f_y(x, y)dy$$

$\frac{\partial x \rightarrow 0}{\partial y \rightarrow 0}$

Then, the **total differential** is defined as

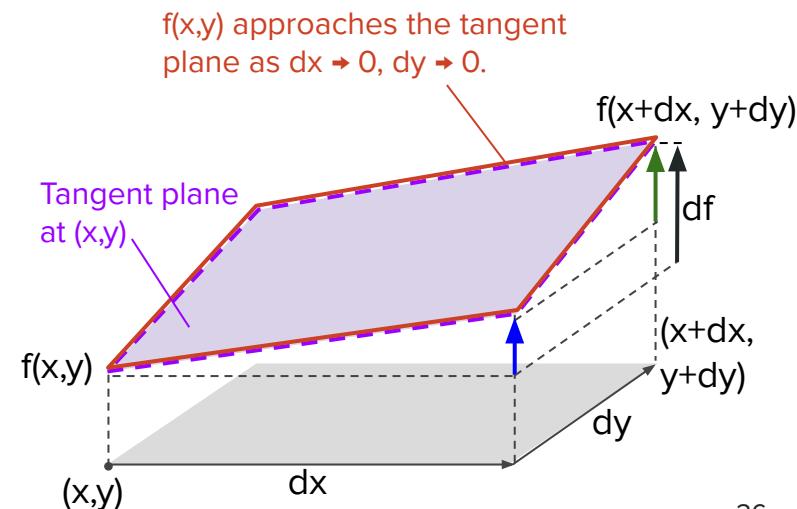
like total
Change

$$df = f(x + dx, y + dy) - f(x, y)$$
$$= \underline{f_x(x, y)dx} + \underline{f_y(x, y)dy}$$

Change in $f(x, y)$ due to
infinitesimal change in x .

Change in $f(x, y)$ due to
infinitesimal change in y .

which represents the **total change in $f(x, y)$** when inputs x & y change infinitesimally. Notice the **total change is a simple sum of partial changes.**



Chain Rule

Recall that for **single-variable functions**, such as $f(x)$ where $x = x(t)$, the **chain rule** for evaluating $f'(t)$ is

$$f'(t) = \frac{df}{dt} = \frac{df}{dx} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} = f'(x) x'(t)$$

For **multivariable functions**, such as $f(x, y)$ where $x = x(t)$ and $y = y(t)$, the **chain rule** applies in a similar manner. By '**dividing**' the **total differential df by dt**, we get

$$f'(t) = \frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{f_x(x, y) x'(t)}{\substack{\text{ROC in } f \text{ due to} \\ \text{ROC in } x}} + \frac{f_y(x, y) y'(t)}{\substack{\text{ROC in } f \text{ due to} \\ \text{ROC in } y}}$$

which means the **total rate of change (ROC)** in $f(x, y)$ is the **sum of partial ROCs** due to each input variable x & y changing w.r.t. t .

Chain Rule

If the input variables are $x = x(s, t)$ & $y = y(s, t)$ in $f(x, y)$, then '**dividing**' the total differential **df by ds and dt** respectively yields the **chain rule(s)**

$$f_s(s, t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial s} = \frac{f_x(x, y) x_s(s, t)}{\substack{\text{Partial ROC in } f \text{ due to} \\ \text{partial ROC in } x \text{ (w.r.t. } s)}} + \frac{f_y(x, y) y_s(s, t)}{\substack{\text{Partial ROC in } f \text{ due to} \\ \text{partial ROC in } y \text{ (w.r.t. } s)}}$$

$$f_t(s, t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = \frac{f_x(x, y) x_t(s, t)}{\substack{\text{Partial ROC in } f \text{ due to} \\ \text{partial ROC in } x \text{ (w.r.t. } t)}} + \frac{f_y(x, y) y_t(s, t)}{\substack{\text{Partial ROC in } f \text{ due to} \\ \text{partial ROC in } y \text{ (w.r.t. } t)}}$$

The general principle in applying the **chain rule** to differentiate any multivariable function is to **sum up all partial ROCs w.r.t. each input parameter** ($s, t, \text{etc.}$).

Chain Rule

$$f(s, t) = g(x(s, t), y(s, t))$$

Example: Determine $f_s(s, t)$ and $f_t(s, t)$ for the functions defined below.

g $f(x, y) = x^2 y^3, \quad x(s, t) = e^{st}, \quad y(s, t) = t \sin s$

$$\begin{aligned} f_s &= g_x \cdot x_s + g_y \cdot y_s = 2xy^3 \cdot te^{st} + 3x^2y^2 \cdot t \cos s \\ &= 2e^{st}(t^3 \sin^3 s) \cdot te^{st} + 3e^{2st}t^2 \sin^2 s \cdot t \cos s \\ &= t^3 e^{2st} \sin^2 s (2t \sin s + 3 \cos s) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_t &= g_x \cdot x_t + g_y \cdot y_t = 2xy^3 \cdot se^{st} + 3x^2y^2 \cdot \sin s \\ &= 2e^{st}(t^3 \sin^3 s) \cdot se^{st} + 3e^{2st}t^2 \sin^2 s \cdot \sin s \\ &= t^2 e^{2st} \sin^3 s (2st + 3) \end{aligned}$$

ANS: $f_s(s, t) = t^3 e^{2st} \sin^2 s \cdot (2t \sin s + 3 \cos s), \quad f_t(s, t) = t^2 e^{2st} \sin^3 s \cdot (2st + 3).$ 39

Chain Rule

$$f(t) = g(x(t), y(t), z(t))$$

Exercise: Write down the chain rule for the functions defined below and evaluate $f'(t)$.
Verify the chain rule by differentiating $f(t)$ directly.

g $f(x, y, z) = \frac{xy}{z}$, $x(t) = t^2$, $y(t) = \ln t$, $z(t) = 1/t$

$$\begin{aligned} f'(t) &= g_x \cdot x_t + g_y \cdot y_t + g_z \cdot z_t \\ &= \frac{y}{z} \cdot 2t + \frac{x}{z} \cdot \frac{1}{t} + \frac{-xy}{z^2} \cdot -\frac{1}{t^2} \\ &= \frac{\ln t}{1/t} \cdot 2t + \frac{t^2}{1/t} \cdot \frac{1}{t} + \frac{-(t^2)(\ln t)}{(1/t)^2} \cdot -\frac{1}{t^2} \\ &= 2t^2 \ln t + t^2 + t^2 \ln t \\ &= t^2(3 \ln t + 1) \end{aligned}$$

ANS: $f'(t) = t^2(3 \ln t + 1)$ 40

Differentiability of a Multivariable Function

Recall a **single-variable function** is **differentiable** if it is a **smooth curve**, which means a **tangent line can be drawn** anywhere on the curve. Similarly, for a **multivariable function** such as $f(x, y)$ to be **differentiable**, it must be **smooth surface**, which means the **tangent plane can be drawn** anywhere on the surface.

Mathematically, **differentiability** conditions are that **partial derivatives must exist and be continuous**. **Differentiability** also implies continuity, but **not vice-versa**.

Example: Determine the region where the function below is differentiable. Verify with its graph.

$$f_x(x, y) = \frac{1}{3}(x^2 + 2y^2)^{-2/3} \cdot (2x) \\ = \frac{2x}{3(x^2 + 2y^2)^{2/3}}$$

$$f(x, y) = (x^2 + 2y^2)^{1/3} \quad f_y(x, y) = \frac{1}{3}(x^2 + 2y^2)^{-2/3} \cdot (4y) \\ \text{Notice that } f(x, y) \text{ is continuous in } \mathbb{R}^2 \\ = \frac{4y}{3(x^2 + 2y^2)^{2/3}}$$

f_x & f_y are continuous everywhere except possibly at $(0, 0)$

ANS: $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus (x, y) \neq (0, 0)$.

Check at $(x, y) = (0, 0)$

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f_x$$

Along path $x=0$, $L_1 = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{2(y)}{3(0+2y)^{2/3}} = 0$

Along path $y=0$, $L_2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x}{3(x^2+0)^{2/3}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x}{3x^{4/3}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2}{3x^{1/3}}$ DNE

since $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f_x$ DNE, $f_x(x, y)$ is discontinuous at $(0, 0)$

so $f(x, y)$ is not differentiable at $(0, 0)$

Differentiability of a Multivariable Function

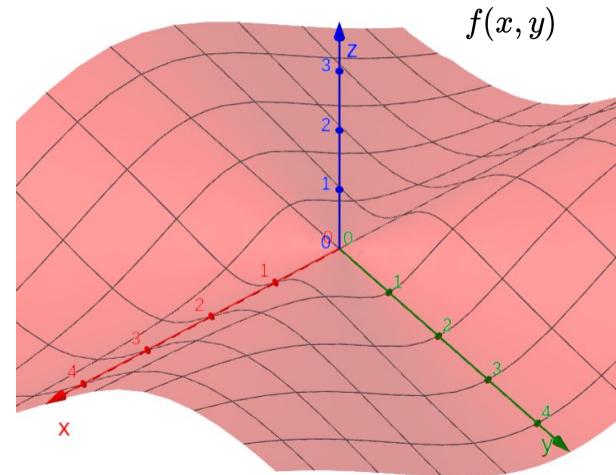
It is important to note that even though a **multivariable function** can have **continuity** and **existence of partial derivatives**, it **might not** be **differentiable** as shown by the example below.

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

From an earlier slide, we have

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2y}{x^2 + y^2} = 0 = f(0, 0)$$

which means $f(x,y)$ is **continuous everywhere, including at $(0, 0)$** . The graph shows this clearly.



Differentiability of a Multivariable Function

And partial derivatives at $(0, 0)$ can be evaluated to be

$$f_x(0, 0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h, 0) - f(0, 0)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{0/h^2 - 0}{h} = 0,$$

$$f_y(0, 0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(0, h) - f(0, 0)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{0/h^2 - 0}{h} = 0$$

So **partial derivatives exists at $(0, 0)$** . We can find that

$$f_x(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{2xy^3}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}, & (x, y) \neq (0, 0), \\ 0, & (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases} \quad f_y(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2(x^2 - y^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}, & (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0, & (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

Now, we need to check **continuity of the partial derivatives**.

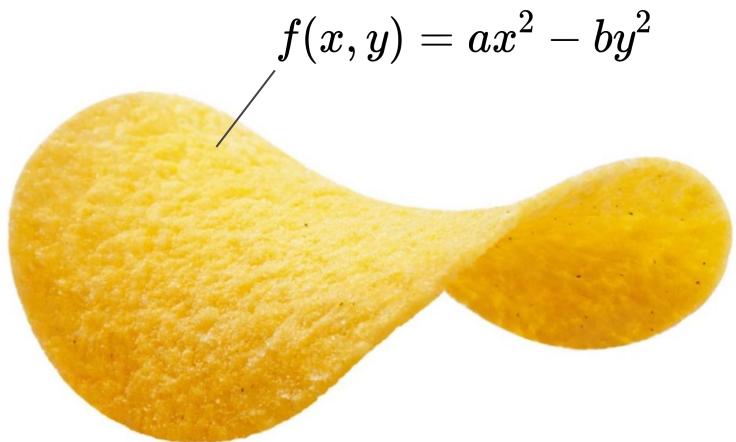
Differentiability of a Multivariable Function

Along $y = x$, we get

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0) \atop (y=x)} f_x(x, y) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x^4}{(x^2 + x^2)^2} = \frac{1}{2} \neq f_x(0, 0)$$

which is **discontinuous** at $(0, 0)$. This means $f(x,y)$ is **not differentiable** at $(0, 0)$, which can somewhat be observed from the '**seemingly non-smooth**' point at $(0, 0)$ from the graph. The same conclusion can be reached from the discontinuity of $f_y(0, 0)$, such as from the path $y = 0$.

Hence, **continuity of a multivariable function and existence of partial derivatives** does not guarantee **differentiability (smoothness)**. **Partial derivatives must also be continuous.**



$$f(x, y) = ax^2 - by^2$$

End of Topic 3

Almost everything can be described by a multivariable function. Even a potato chip.