MATH 2010 Chapter 5

5.1 Finding Limits Using Polar Coordinates

Recall:

$$(x,y) \longleftrightarrow (r,\theta)_{pol}$$

with:

$$x = r \cos \theta$$
$$y = r \sin \theta$$

and:

$$(x,y) = (0,0) \Longleftrightarrow r = 0.$$

Example 5.1. Find:

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

Solution.

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

$$= 0$$
 (Squeeze theorem)

Example 5.2. Find:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)}\frac{x^2+xy}{2(x^2+y^2)}.$$

Solution.

$$= \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{r^2 \cos^2 \theta + r^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta}{2r^2}$$
$$= \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{\cos^2 \theta + \cos \theta \sin \theta}{2}$$
$$= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } \theta = 0\\ 0 & \text{if } \theta = \frac{\pi}{2} \end{cases}$$

In other words, the function approach different values as (x, y) approaches (0, 0) at different angles. Hence, the limit **does not exist**.

Example 5.3. Find:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} xy\ln(x^2+y^2).$$

Solution.

$$= \lim_{r \to 0} \underbrace{r^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta \ln(r^2)}_{\text{V}}$$

Observe that, as $r \to 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} |\cos\theta\sin\theta| &\leq 1, \\ r^2 \to 0, \\ \ln\left(r^2\right) \to -\infty. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover:

$$\left|r^{2}\cos\theta\sin\theta\ln\left(r^{2}\right)\right| \leq \left|r^{2}\ln\left(r^{2}\right)\right|$$

We have:

$$\lim_{r \to 0} r^2 \ln\left(r^2\right) = \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{\ln\left(r^2\right)}{\frac{1}{r^2}} \quad \left(\frac{-\infty}{\infty}\right)$$

$$= \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{\frac{2r}{r^2}}{-\frac{2}{r^3}}$$
(L' Hopital's Rule)

$$=\lim_{r\to 0} -r^2 = 0$$

By Squeeze theorem, it now follows that:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} xy \ln \left(x^2 + y^2\right) = 0.$$

5.2 Iterated Limits

Example 5.4. Consider:

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

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \lim_{y \to 0} \frac{x+y}{x-y} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x+0}{x-0} = 1.$$

On the other hand,

$$\lim_{y \to 0} \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x+y}{x-y} = \lim_{y \to 0} \frac{0+y}{0-y} = -1.$$

Moreover, $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x+y}{x-y}$ does not exist (Exercise).

Remark. • In general, if $\lim_{x\to 0} \lim_{y\to 0} f(x, y)$ and $\lim_{y\to 0} \lim_{x\to 0} f(x, y)$ both exist and are equal to each other, it does *NOT* follow that $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x, y)$ exists. Counter-example:

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = y; \\ 0 & \text{if } x \neq y. \end{cases}$$

• Conversely, if $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y)$ exists, it also does *NOT* follow that:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \lim_{y \to 0} f(x, y), \quad \lim_{y \to 0} \lim_{x \to 0} f(x, y)$$

both exist. Counter-example:

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} x \cos \frac{1}{y} + y \cos \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0); \\ 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0). \end{cases}$$

• If all three limits exist, then they are equal.

5.3 Continuity

Definition 5.5. We say that a function $f : A \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ in *n* variables is **continuous** at $\vec{a} \in A$ if:

$$\lim_{\vec{x} \to \vec{a}} f(\vec{x}) = f(\vec{a}).$$

Definition 5.6. A function $\vec{f} : A \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **continuous** is f is continuous at every point in its domain A.

Example 5.7. Each "coordinate function" $f_i : \mathbb{R}^m \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$, defined by:

$$f_i(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m) = x_i,$$

is continuous.

Theorem 5.8. Let k be a scalar constant. If $f, g : A \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous at $\vec{a} \in A$, then:

- f + g, kf, fg are all continuous at \vec{a}
- $\frac{f}{g}$ is continuous at \vec{a} is $g(\vec{a}) \neq 0$.

Proof of Theorem 5.8. This follows from the properties of limits.

Corollary 5.9. All polynomial and rational functions (i.e. polynomial divided by another polynomial) are continuous (on their domains).

Theorem 5.10. If $f : A \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at $\vec{a} \in A$, and $g : I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a single-variable real-valued function continuous at $f(\vec{a})$, then $g \circ f : A \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at \vec{a} .

In other words:

$$\lim_{\vec{x}\to\vec{a}}g(f(\vec{x})) = g\left(\lim_{\vec{x}\to\vec{a}}f(\vec{x})\right) = g(f(\vec{a})).$$

Corollary 5.11. Every so-called "elementary function" (a function constructed from constants, power functions, trigonometric, inverse trigonometric, exponential and logarithmic functions, via addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and composition) is continuous at all points in its domain.

Example 5.12. • Every polynomial in *n* variables (e.g. $f(x, y, z) = x^2yz + 5yz^2 + 16y^3 - 8$) is continuous everywhere.

- Every rational function in *n* variables is continuous at all points where the function is defined.
- $f(x,y) = e^{\cos(x^2+y^2)}$ is continuous at all $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$.
- $f(x,y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y}}$ is continuous at all $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ such that $x^2 + y > 0$.

Example 5.13. • Consider:

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

Since $x^2 + y^2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow (x, y) = (0, 0)$, the domain of g is $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$.

$$\lim_{(x,y\to(0,0))} g(x,y) = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^4 - y^4}{x^2 + y^2}$$
$$= \lim_{r\to0} \frac{r^4 \cos^4 \theta - r^4 \sin^4 \theta}{r^2 \cos^2 \theta + r^2 \sin^2 \theta}$$
$$= \lim_{r\to0} r^2 \left(\cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta\right)$$
$$= 0 \quad \text{(Sandwich theorem)}$$

Hence, $g \ can$ be extended to a continuous function on the whole \mathbb{R}^2 as follows:

$$g(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^4 - y^4}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

• On the other hand, consider:

$$f(x,y) = \frac{xy + y^3}{x^2 + y^2}$$
$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)\atop y=mx} f(x,y) = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)\atop y=mx} \frac{xy + y^3}{x^2 + y^2}$$
$$= \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{mx^2 + m^3x^3}{x^2 + m^2x^2}$$
$$= \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{m + m^3x}{1 + m^2}$$
$$= \frac{m}{1 + m^2} = \begin{cases} 0, \text{ if } m = 0\\ \frac{1}{2} \text{ if } m = 1 \end{cases}$$

Since the limit varies with slope, $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y)$ does not exist.

The function f cannot be extended to a function defined on \mathbb{R}^2 .

5.4 Partial Derivatives

Definition 5.14. Let $f : A \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function on an open region $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\vec{a} = (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) \in A$. For $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, we define the **partial derivative**

with respect to x_i of f at \vec{a} to be:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\vec{a}) = \left(\frac{d}{dx_i} f(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{i-1}, \underbrace{x_i}_{i\text{-th coordinate}}, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n) \right) \bigg|_{x_i = a_i}$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{i-1}, a_i + h, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n) - f(\vec{a})}{h}$$

Observe that as \vec{a} varies, the correspondence:

$$\vec{a} \mapsto \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\vec{a})$$

defines a real-valued function on a subset A' of A consisting of those points $\vec{a} \in A$ where $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\vec{a})$ is defined. We have therefore a multivariable function defined as follows:

Definition 5.15.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}: A' \longrightarrow \mathbb{R},$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_i + h, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)}{h}.$$

Notation. Other notations for $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$ are:

$$f_{x_i}, \ \partial_i f, \ D_i f, \ \nabla_i f$$

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Example 5.16.

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

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x + 0 = 2x \quad (\text{Regard } y \text{ as a constant})$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 0 + 2y = 2y \quad (\text{Regard } x \text{ as a constant})$$

In particular:

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1,-1)=2(1)=2>0\\ &\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(1,-1)=2(-1)=-2<0 \end{aligned}$$

This means that f(x, y) increases as x increases at (1, -1), and it decreases as y increases at (1, -1).

Example 5.17.

$$f(x, y, z) = xy^2 - \cos(xz)$$

Find f_x, f_y, f_z .

Solution.

$$f_x = y^2 + z\sin(xz)$$

$$f_y = 2xy + 0 = 2xy$$

$$f_z = 0 + x\sin(xz) = x\sin(xz)$$

Example 5.18.

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } xy \ge 0; \\ 0 & \text{if } xy < 0. \end{cases}$$

Find $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1,1), \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,1), \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0).$

Solution. $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$: Fix y, differentiate f(x, y) with respect to x. Along y = 1

$$f(x,1) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \ge 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Hence:

 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1,1) = 0,$

and:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,1)$$
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Along y = 0 We have f(x, 0) = 1 for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. This implies that:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0) = 0.$$

Remark. In the previous example, we can similarly conclude that: $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0) = 0.$

Also, it may be shown that f is not continuous at (0,0) (exercise).

Hence, in general, the existence of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ at a point P does **not** imply that f is continuous at P.

5.5 Higher Order Partial Derivatives

Since, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$ is itself a function in *n* variables, we can consider its partial derivative with respect to any of the variables x_j . We can likewise further consider partial derivatives of *that* partial derivative, and so on. The notation is as follows:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i^2} = f_{x_i x_i} := \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right).$$

For $j \neq i$,

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} = f_{x_i x_j} := \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right).$$

For $m \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\frac{\partial^m f}{\partial x_i^m} = f_{\underbrace{x_i x_i \cdots x_i}_{m \text{ times}}} := \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\frac{\partial^{m-1} f}{\partial x_i^{m-1}} \right)$$

For $i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_m \in \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, n\}$,

$$\frac{\partial^m f}{\partial x_{i_m} \partial x_{i_{m-1}} \partial x_{i_{m-2}} \cdots \partial x_{i_1}} = f_{x_{i_i} x_{i_2} \cdots x_{i_m}} := \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i_m}} \left(\frac{\partial^{m-1} f}{\partial x_{i_{m-1}} \partial x_{i_{m-2}} \cdots \partial x_{i_1}} \right).$$

Example 5.19. Find all first and second order partial derivatives of:

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

Solution.

$$f_x = \sin y + 2y^2 e^{2x}$$

$$f_y = x \cos y + 2y e^{2x}$$

$$f_{xx} = (f_x)_x = 4y^2 e^{2x}$$

$$f_{xy} = (f_x)_y = \cos y + 4y e^{2x}$$

$$f_{yx} = (f_y)_x = \cos y + 4y e^{2x}$$

$$f_{yy} = (f_y)_y = -x \sin y + 2e^{2x}$$

Is $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$ a coincidence?

Example 5.20. Compute $f_{xy}(0,0), f_{yx}(0,0)$, where:

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

Solution. By definition,
$$f_{xy} = (f_x)_y$$
.
So, $f_{xy}(0,0) = \lim_{k \to 0} \frac{f_x(0,k) - f_x(0,0)}{k}$
Need to find: $f_x(0,k)$ for $k \neq 0$ and $f_x(0,0)$ for $k \neq 0$,
 $f = \frac{xy (x^2 - y^2)}{x^2 + y^2}$ near $(0,k)$.
 $f_x = \frac{(x^2 + y^2) (3x^2y - y^3) - xy (x^2 - y^2) (2x)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}$

near (0, k)Hence:

$$f_x(0,k) = \frac{k^2 (-k^3) - 0}{k^4} = -k$$
$$f_x(0,0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(h,0) - f(0,0)}{h}$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{0 - 0}{h} = 0$$
$$f_{xy}(0,0) = \lim_{k \to 0} \frac{f_x(0,k) - f_x(0,0)}{k}$$
$$= \lim_{k \to 0} \frac{-k - 0}{k} = -1$$

Similar calculation gives: $f_{yx}(0,0) = 1$.

(Alternatively, note that f(x, y) = -f(y, x). Hence $f_{yx}(0, 0) = -f_{xy}(0, 0) = 1$.)

Hence, in this example, $f_{xy}(0,0) \neq f_{yx}(0,0)$

Theorem 5.21 (Mixed Derivative Theorem). Let x and y be two of the variables of a real-valued function f in multiple variables. If f_{xy} and f_{yx} exist and are continuous on an open region containing a point \vec{a} , then:

$$f_{xy}(\vec{a}) = f_{yx}(\vec{a}).$$

Proof of Mixed Derivative TheoremClairaut's Theorem. We prove the theorem for the special case where $f : A \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has two variables (i.e. $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$).

Without loss of generality, we may assume that $\vec{a} = (0,0) \in A$. We want to show that:

$$f_{xy}(0,0) = f_{yx}(0,0)$$

Let h, k be any positive real numbers such that $[0, h] \times [0, k] \subseteq A$. Let:

$$\alpha = (f(h,k) - f(h,0)) - (f(0,k) - f(0,0))$$

Let:

$$g(x) = f(x,k) - f(x,0), \quad 0 \le x \le h.$$

Then:

$$\alpha = g(h) - g(0),$$

and:

$$g'(x) = f_x(x,k) - f_x(x,0)$$

By the Mean Value Theorem , there exists $h_1 \in (0, h)$ such that:

$$\frac{\alpha}{h} = \frac{g(h) - g(0)}{h} = g'(h_1) = f_x(h_1, k) - f_x(h_1, 0)$$

By MVT again, there exists $k_1 \in (0, k)$ such that:

$$\frac{f_x(h_1,k) - f_x(h_1,0)}{k} = f_{xy}(h_1,k_1).$$

Hence:

$$\alpha = h \left[f_x(h,k) - f_x(h,0) \right] = h k f_{xy}(h_1,k_1).$$

Similarly, there exists $(h_2, k_2) \in (0, h) \times (0, k)$ such that:

$$\alpha = hkf_{yx}(h_2, k_2)$$

Hence, for any positive real numbers h, k sufficiently small, we have:

$$f_{xy}(h_1, k_1) = f_{yx}(h_2, k_2) \tag{5.1}$$

for some $(h_1, k_1), (h_2, k_2)$ lying the rectangle $[0, h] \times [0, k]$.

If we let $(h, k) \to (0, 0)$, then $(h_1, k_1), (h_2, k_2) \to (0, 0)$. So, from an intuitive perspective, it follows from (5.1), and the continuity of f_{xy} and f_{yx} at (0, 0), that:

$$f_{xy}(0,0) = f_{yx}(0,0)$$

More rigorously: Suppose $f_{xy}(0,0) \neq f_{yx}(0,0)$. Then, $d := |f_{xy}(0,0) - f_{yx}(0,0)| > 0$. The continuity of f_{xy} and f_{yx} at (0,0) implies that there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for all $(x, y) \in B_{\delta}(0, 0)$, we have:

$$|f_{xy}(x,y) - f_{xy}(0,0)| < d/2$$

and

$$|f_{yx}(x,y) - f_{yx}(0,0)| < d/2.$$

Hence, if we take (h, k) such that $0 < ||(h, k)|| < \delta$, then, (5.1) implies that the intervals:

$$(f_{xy}(0,0) - d/2, f_{xy}(0,0) + d/2), \quad (f_{yx}(0,0) - d/2, f_{yx}(0,0) + d/2),$$

have nonempty intersection (i.e. the common value $f_{xy}(h_1, k_1) = f_{yx}(h_2, k_2)$ lies in both intervals). This contradicts the assumption that the distance d between $f_{xy}(0,0)$ and $f_{yx}(0,0)$ is nonzero.