

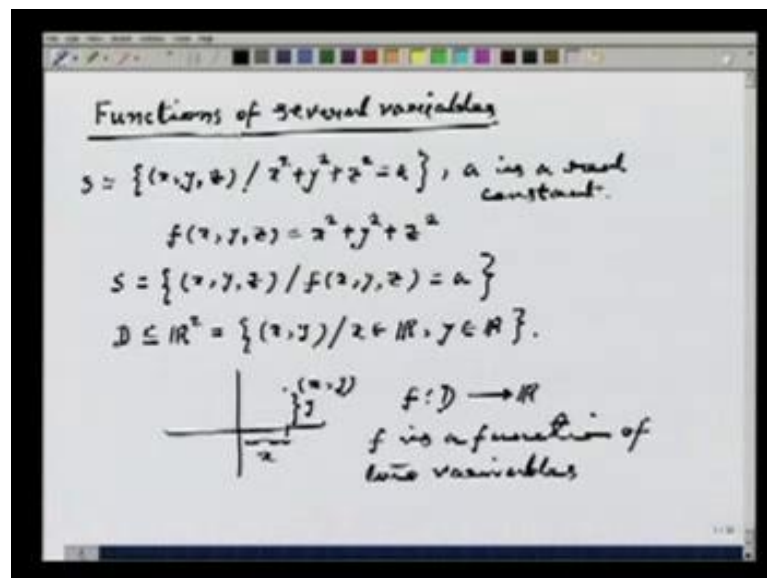
Mathematics - I
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Lecture - 22
Functions of Several Variables

Today, we are going to learn about Functions of Several Variable. So, before coming to the things we are going to learn about functions of several variables. Let me tell you why exactly we are interested in studying functions of several variables. Well, you must have noticed that even to draw curve given by a function, we need to know certain analytic facts about functions.

For example, whether that derivative of the function exists or not, to understand where the curve is increasing. Then the convexity, concavity, maxima, minima with all these information, sometime we can draw the curve of a function. So, this is where calculus helps us understanding curve of a function. Now, suppose instead of curves you are interested in surfaces. For example, I am interested in the sphere in three dimensions.

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So, what is the equation it is collection of all x, y, z . Such that, x square plus y square plus z square equal to some constant, where a is a constant, is a real constant, that is it is a real number. Now, this is a sphere centered at origin with radius a , now this can actually be understood in terms of certain function. So, if I define f of x, y, z equal to x

square plus y square plus z square. Then if I call this s, then s can also be written as all x, y, z such that, f of x, y, z is equal to a.

So, with this surface there is naturally associated a function, the surface in some sense comes out of the function. So, if you really want to understand this surface properly, the geometric properties of this surface. One way is to look at the function which produces it and try to understand the function. So, this is a big motivation for studying functions of several variable, so what exactly is a function of several variable. So, let me start with functions of two variables.

So, let us say D is a subset of \mathbb{R}^2 . What is \mathbb{R}^2 , \mathbb{R}^2 is the set of points of the form x, y where x is a real number, y is a real number. Usually, we try to draw \mathbb{R}^2 in this form, there are two axis. One is called the x axis, other is the y axis and if this point I want to say is x, y; that means, this distance is x and this distance is y. Now, if I have a function f from D to \mathbb{R} , then f is a function of two variables namely x and y. I will tell you more clear if I look at examples.

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical examples. The text is as follows:

Example $D = \mathbb{R}^2, f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $f(x, y) = 1$ for all $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$
 $f_1(x, y) = x + y$
 $f_2(x, y) = x - y$
 $f_3(x, y) = xy$
 $f_4(x, y) = \frac{x}{y}, y \neq 0$

Below these, there are three sets of points:

- $\{(x_n, y_n) / x_n \in \mathbb{R}\}$ - sequence
- $\{(\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n^2}) / n \in \mathbb{N}\}, x_n = \frac{1}{n}, y_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$
- $\{(\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{m}) / n \in \mathbb{N}, m \in \mathbb{N}\}$

Let me take D to be equal to \mathbb{R}^2 . So, I am going to talk about a function f defined from \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R} . That means, I take an point in \mathbb{R}^2 and f of that point should be real number. So, I can define f of x, y equal to 1 for all x, y in \mathbb{R}^2 , this is certainly a function of two variables a constant function. I can also define f of x, y to be equal to what can you do

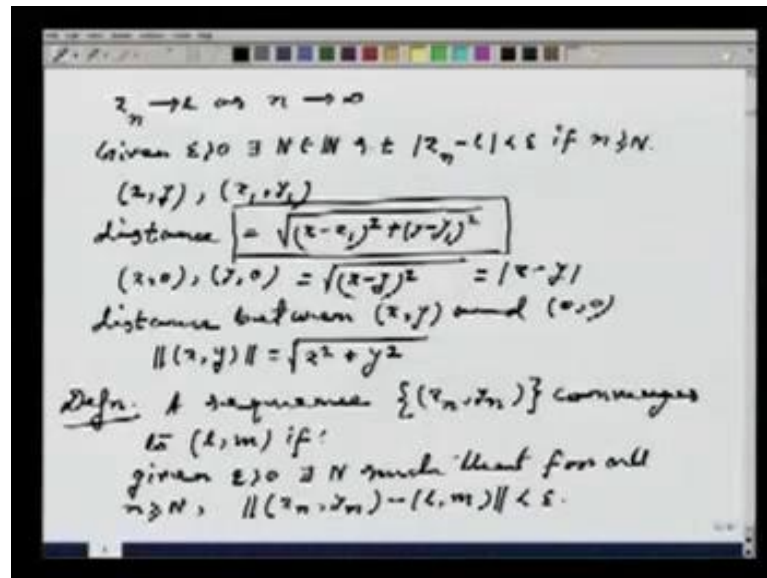
with two real numbers, well you can add them. So, you define this f_1 of x, y is just x plus y .

Similarly, I can define f_2 of x, y equal to x minus y . I can also define f_3 of x, y equal to x times y , what I mean is the multiplication of two real numbers. I can define f_4 of x, y x by y , if I like with y not equal to 0 and so on. So, given x and y there must be some rule which tells me what real number I get out of x, y , that is a function of several variables. Now, what do you really want to study about function of several variables. So, we will try to have analogs of what we have done for one variable functions.

So, what did you do, we first looked at sequences. So, x_n converges to x that was the very fundamental notion, using that we could talk about limit continuity and such things, and then finally differentiability maxima, minima, integrals. Now, I want to do all these things with functions of two variables. So, here the most fundamental thing to start with is, like real variable case, the convergence of sequences. So, what is a sequence here, well it is exactly analogous to one variable I look at x_n, y_n where n belongs to the set of natural numbers. This is the sequence, but it is a sequence of two variables.

So, to give an example I can define 1 by $n, 1$ by n square, this is a sequence of 2 variables anyway. Here x_n equal to 1 by n, y_n equal to 1 by n square. I could have as well defined it as 1 by $n, 1$ by m where n and m both are natural numbers. You know. So, it is just a mix of two sequences of real variables, in the first coordinate you have one sequence. In the second coordinate I have another sequence, coupled together that gives me sequence of two variables. And now I want to talk about the convergence of the sequences.

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So, let us go back to the definition in the one variable case what was it. I have a sequence x_n , what does it mean to say x_n converges to L as n goes to infinity. It means, so given ϵ bigger than 0, there exists a natural number N which belongs to the set of natural numbers. Such that, modulus of x_n minus L strictly less than ϵ if n is bigger than or equal to capital N .

So; that means, if you fix ϵ bigger than 0. Then if you take larger and larger ends, then the distance between x_n and L becomes less than ϵ . Modulus of x_n minus L just stands for the distance between x_n and L . Here the key point is to generalize this notion of distance in the two variable case.

Now, in the two variable case if I take a point x, y and another point x_1, y_1 , then there is a naturally defined distance between this two the Cartesian distance, which we always use in the coordinate geometry. So, what is the distance between this? So, distance between the above points is square root of $(x-x_1)^2 + (y-y_1)^2$. It is a generalization of the notion of modulus becomes very clear, if I look at the point x_0 and y_0 .

Then, the distance according to the above formula is square root of $(x-y)^2$. But, since I am taking the positive square root, it is just modulus of $x-y$. So, in that sense this distance called Euclidean distance between two points is the generalization of modulus. So, I am going to use this to define convergence of sequences. So, I am going

to use some notion for this, that the distance between x , y and $(0, 0)$ is denoted by it is called norm. You know double modulus kind of this is by the above definition is square root of x square plus y square.

That means, in this definition you just take x_1 to be equal to 0 and y_1 to be equal to 0, then what you get is this. Now, the definition a sequence x_n, y_n , since I am in \mathbb{R}^2 I have to talk about sequences where each element is a tuple. This converges to element (l, m) in \mathbb{R}^2 if you will see it is exactly analogous to the one dimensional case. That given Epsilon bigger than 0, there exists capital N . Such that for all n bigger than or equals to capital N , norm of x_n, y_n minus (l, m) is less than Epsilon. The only difference in the one dimensional case here is, that the modulus has been replaced by the norm.

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Handwritten mathematical derivation on a whiteboard:

$$\begin{aligned} & \| (x_n, y_n) - (l, m) \| \\ &= \sqrt{(x_n - l)^2 + (y_n - m)^2} \\ \Rightarrow |x_n - l| &\leq \sqrt{(x_n - l)^2 + (y_n - m)^2} = \| (x_n, y_n) - (l, m) \| \\ |y_n - m| &\leq \| (x_n, y_n) - (l, m) \| \\ \text{if } n \geq N \text{ then } &\underline{|x_n - l| < \epsilon}, \underline{|y_n - m| < \epsilon}. \\ \Rightarrow x_n \rightarrow l, y_n &\rightarrow m \\ \text{Question: If } x_n \rightarrow l \text{ and } y_n &\rightarrow m, \text{ is it} \\ \text{true that } (x_n, y_n) &\rightarrow (l, m)? \end{aligned}$$

Now, let us look at this definition closely again. I write down the quantity norm of x_n minus l , I just write down this quantity x_n, y_n minus (l, m) . I know what this means, it is square root of x_n minus l whole square plus y_n minus m whole square. Because of this I immediately get that modulus of x_n minus l , which is less than or equal to square root of x_n minus l square. Plus y_n minus m square, which is equal to norm of x_n, y_n minus (l, m) .

And the similar thing happens with modulus of y_n minus m also that this is also less or equal to norm of x_n, y_n minus (l, m) . Now, if n is bigger than or equals to capital N , since norm of x_n, y_n minus (l, m) is less than Epsilon. It then follows that modulus of x_n

minus 1 is less than Epsilon and modulus of y_n minus n less than Epsilon. So, what I got is that given any Epsilon bigger than 0, there exists a capital N , such that if n is bigger than or equals to capital N .

Then modulus of x_n minus 1 is less than Epsilon. Modulus of y_n minus 1 is also less than Epsilon, it means that x_n converges to 1 and y_n converges to m . So, x_n, y_n converges to $(1, m)$ that means, if you concentrate on the first coordinate. That is if you get that x sequence x_n , then x_n converges to 1. If you concentrate on the second coordinate, that is if you look at y_n 's then y_n 's converts to m . What about the converse, that suppose x_n converges to 1 and y_n converges to m . So, I will put it as question, if x_n converges to 1 and y_n converges to m , is it true. That x_n, y_n converges to $(1, m)$ fortunately the answer is yes, and it can be proved as follows.

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Given $\epsilon > 0$.
 To get N such that $\forall n > N$
 $\|(x_n, y_n) - (1, m)\| < \epsilon$.
 get N_1, N_2 such that
 $|x_n - 1| < \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}}, \forall n > N_1$
 $|y_n - m| < \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}}, \forall n > N_2$
 $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$. $n > N$
 $\|(x_n, y_n) - (1, m)\|$
 $= \sqrt{(x_n - 1)^2 + (y_n - m)^2} < \sqrt{\left(\frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2} = \sqrt{\epsilon^2} = \epsilon$

So, start with an Epsilon. What is the job, the job is to get capital N . Such that, for all n bigger than or equals to capital N , this should happen, this should be less than Epsilon. Now, I already know that x_n converged to 1 and y_n converges to m . So, what I do is get N_1 and N_2 such that, x_n minus 1 strictly less than $\frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}}$ for all n bigger than or equals to n_1 .

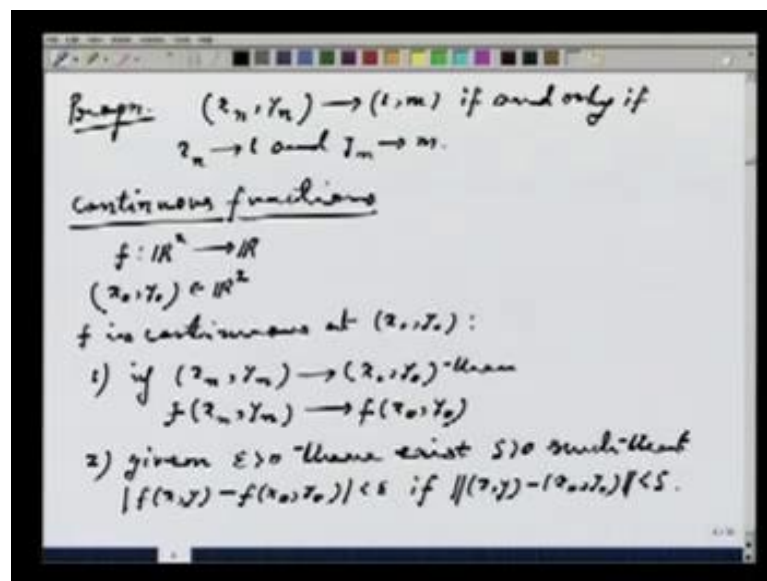
And y_n minus m less than $\frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}}$ for all n bigger than or equals to n_2 . That mean, here instead of Epsilon I am using $\frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}}$ in the definition of convergence x_n converges to 1. Now, I look at norm of $(x_n, y_n) - (1, m)$ I have the

definition of this. So, it is square root of $x_n - 1$ whole square plus $y_n - m$ whole square. If I assume my n is bigger than or equal to maximum of n_1, n_2 .

Then, what I get is that this is less than square root of half Epsilon by 2 square plus half Epsilon by 2 square. What I get is square root of Epsilon by 2 whole square. So, that is Epsilon by 2 which is any way strictly less than Epsilon. This is then less than Epsilon by root 2 square plus Epsilon by root 2 square, which is square root of Epsilon square by 2 plus Epsilon square by 2. That is Epsilon square which is equal to Epsilon as Epsilon is positive.

That means, if I choose my n to be bigger than or equals to this capital N . Then norm of $x_n, y_n - 1, m$ is less than Epsilon, that precisely means that x_n, y_n converges to $(1, m)$. So, you understood something important here about convergence of sequences. What you got is I will put it as proposition.

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All it says is that is sequence x_n, y_n converges to an element in \mathbb{R}^2 which I call it $(1, m)$. If and only if x_n converges to 1 and y_n converges to m . Now, because of this proposition it becomes real easy to give examples of sequences in \mathbb{R}^2 which converges. All you have to do is we pick two convergence sequences x_n and y_n from real line and put them together as (x_n, y_n) .

And that is the only thing which you have to do to give examples of a sequence in \mathbb{R}^2 , which converges to some l, m . Now, given this I can go to definition of continuous functions. So, I start with continuous functions, here we will not prove everything, because things are very analogous to the one dimensional case. But, let me just go to the definitions and try to convince you that this is an analog of the one dimensional case.

So, let us say that f is a function. Let us start with from \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R} . Suppose, x_0, y_0 is a point in \mathbb{R}^2 , what do you mean by f is continuous at x_0, y_0 . Well, analogous to the one dimensional case, I say one way of defining this is. It means if a sequence x_n, y_n converges to x_0, y_0 . Then the sequence of real numbers $f(x_n, y_n)$ converges to the real number $f(x_0, y_0)$.

This is exactly analogous to the definition of continuity on real line. That f is continuous at a point x_0, y_0 , if for every sequence x_n, y_n , x_n, y_n converges to x_0, y_0 implies $f(x_n, y_n)$ converges to $f(x_0, y_0)$. So, this is one way of defining. But, there is an alternative way of defining continuity using Epsilon and delta exactly as it is on real line. So, that is this that given any Epsilon bigger than 0, there exists delta bigger than 0. Such that, modulus of $f(x, y) - f(x_0, y_0)$ is less than Epsilon.

If now instead of modulus I have to use norm, because in the case of real line I used modulus of $x - x_0$, because there the variables on which the function is defined are real numbers. The only reasonable notion of distance that is modulus, but here the variables on which the function is defined they are elements of \mathbb{R}^2 , so the only natural way to define the distance to use the Euclidean distance. So, here if the distance between x, y and x_0, y_0 is less than delta. So, these are two ways. Now, what I want to do is I will try to see some simple examples of continuous functions by these two criteria's.

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Example: 1) $f(x, y) = x + y$
 $(x_0, y_0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$
 $(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)$
 $\Leftrightarrow x_n \rightarrow x_0, y_n \rightarrow y_0$
 $\Rightarrow x_n + y_n \rightarrow x_0 + y_0$
 $\Leftrightarrow f(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow f(x_0, y_0)$

2) Given $\epsilon > 0$ find $\delta > 0$ such that
 $\|(x, y) - (x_0, y_0)\| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x, y) - f(x_0, y_0)| < \epsilon$
 $|f(x, y) - f(x_0, y_0)| = |(x + y) - (x_0 + y_0)|$
 $= |(x - x_0) + (y - y_0)|$
 $\leq |x - x_0| + |y - y_0|$

So, we start with my example, suppose I look at the function f of x, y equal to x plus y . I want to see whether it is continuous at any point x_0, y_0 , choose a point arbitrarily. I want to check whether my function f is continuous at x_0, y_0 by the first criteria of continuity that is through sequences. So, I choose a sequence x_n, y_n which converges to x_0, y_0 . Then by my proposition I know that x_n converges to x_0, y_n converges to y_0 .

Now, apply the result about sequences which we have proved long back. That if you have 2 sequences x_n and y_n such that x_n converges to l, y_n converges to m . Then $x_n + y_n$ converges to $l + m$. Now, by that result this implies that $x_n + y_n$ converges to $x_0 + y_0$. But then, by the definition of the function it just means that $f(x_n, y_n)$ which is defined as $x_n + y_n$ it converges to $f(x_0, y_0)$.

So, this is by one criteria. Now, the second one given ϵ bigger than 0 to find δ bigger than 0. Such that, norm of $(x, y) - (x_0, y_0)$ less than δ should imply that modulus of $f(x, y) - f(x_0, y_0)$ is less than ϵ . So, given ϵ I have to find a δ . So, I start experimenting with modulus of $f(x, y) - f(x_0, y_0)$. This simply turns out to be modulus of $(x + y) - (x_0 + y_0)$, which is modulus of $(x - x_0) + (y - y_0)$, which is any way lesser equals to modulus of $x - x_0$ plus modulus of $y - y_0$.

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$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{2} \sqrt{(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2} &< \epsilon \\ &= 2 \|(x, y) - (x_0, y_0)\| < \epsilon \\ \|(x, y) - (x_0, y_0)\| &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \delta \end{aligned}$$

2) $f: \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{c.d.} \mathbb{R}, g: \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{c.d.} \mathbb{R}$
 $F: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $F(x, y) = f(x)g(y), G(x, y) = f(x) + g(y)$
 $(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0) \Leftrightarrow x_n \rightarrow x_0, y_n \rightarrow y_0$
 $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x_0), g(y_n) \rightarrow g(y_0)$
 $\Rightarrow f(x_n)g(y_n) \rightarrow f(x_0)g(y_0)$
 $= F(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow F(x_0, y_0)$

Now, I have observed then, that this is lesser equal to square root of x minus x naught square plus y minus y naught square into 2. Because, look at this quantity ((Refer Time: 27:15)) I have observed that this is lesser equal to square root of x minus x naught square plus y minus y naught square. Similar is the second quantity. So, both of them are actually less than square root of x minus x naught square plus y minus y naught square.

So, as a whole the whole things is less than this. So, I want to prove this to be less than Epsilon for which delta it should happen. Now, the choice is obvious because, this quantity is nothing but, 2 times norm of x, y minus x naught, y naught. I want this to be less than Epsilon. That means, norm of x, y minus x naught, y naught should be less than Epsilon by 2 choose this as delta. That gives me continuity of the function by the second criteria. But, in many cases you will see it turns out that the first definition works.

But, in many other cases it is the second one which works. That is why I have given both the definitions. Depending on the problem you use one of the criteria to check continuity of a function at a point. Now, using this you can actually create more complicated continuous functions. For example, let us say f from R to R is continuous and g from R to R is continuous. Now, I define a function capital F from R 2 to R by the following rule that F of x, y equals to f x into g, y. I can also define G of x, y equal to f x plus g, y I say both the function F and G are continuous function.

Now, I will try to prove that only capital F is continuous function. The proof of continuity of capital G I will leave as exercise. So, how do we prove that capital F is continuous function, I try to use the sequential criteria. So, take a sequence x_n, y_n converging to x_0, y_0 . This, then implies that x_n converges to x_0, y_n converges to y_0 . In fact, it implies and is implied by my proposition. Since, little f and little g are continuous functions I have that $f(x_n)$ converges to $f(x_0)$. $G(x_n)$ converges to $g(x_0)$.

But, then again by a result on sequences I get that $f(x_n) \times g(x_n)$ converges to $f(x_0) \times g(x_0)$. But, look at the definition of the function, this implies this is just f of x_n, y_n and this is f of x_0, y_0 . So, by the sequential criteria capital F is a continuous function. That exactly a similar kind of proof will tell you, that capital G is also a continuous function. So, this way you can create more complicated continuous functions of two variable using one dimensional continuous functions.

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Handwritten mathematical proof on a whiteboard:

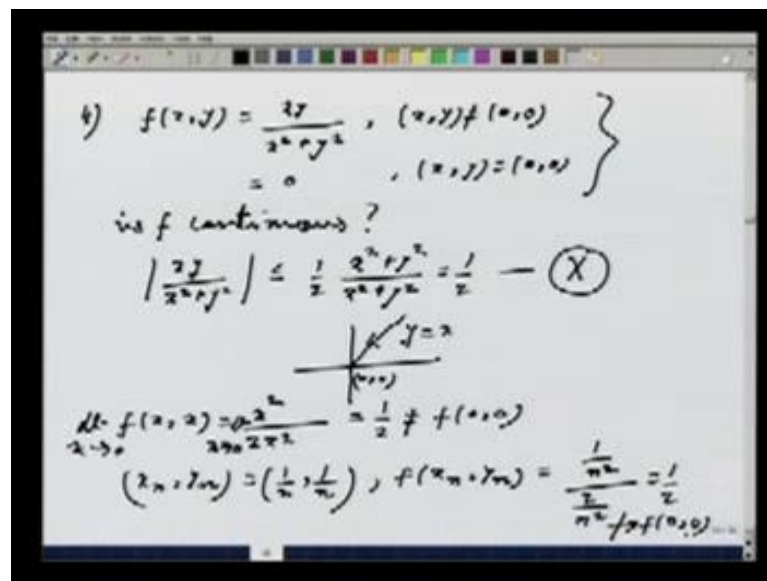
$$\begin{aligned}
 & 3) \quad f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\
 & \quad f(x, y) = \frac{\sin^2(x-y)}{|x|+|y|} \quad \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\
 & \quad \quad \quad = 0 \quad \quad \quad \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{matrix} f(x, y) = \frac{\sin^2(x-y)}{|x|+|y|} \\ \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \end{matrix}} \right\} \\
 & \text{is } f \text{ cont.} \\
 & |f(x, y) - f(0, 0)| \\
 & = \frac{\sin^2(x-y)}{|x|+|y|} \leq \frac{|x-y|^2}{|x|+|y|} = \frac{|x-y||x+y|}{|x|+|y|} \\
 & \leq |x+y| \\
 & \leq 2\sqrt{x^2+y^2} \\
 & = 2\|(x, y) - (0, 0)\| < \epsilon \\
 & \delta = \epsilon/2
 \end{aligned}$$

Let us see some more examples. Now, let us look at another example. I define f from \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R} given by f of x, y equal to \sin^2 of x minus y divided by $\text{mod } x$ plus $\text{mod } y$. If x, y not equal to $0, 0$, that is for the non-zero points of function is this. I define it to be 0 , if x, y equal to $0, 0$ question is, f continuous. What I will do is, I will just check continuity of function at 0 . For other points the function is certainly continuous and that I leave as an exercise using the previous results.

Now, why is this function continuous at 0, 0. For that what I do is I try to estimate this $f(x, y) - f(0, 0)$. This by the definitions of the functions is $\sin^2 x - y$ divided by $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. Because, $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ here. Now, using the fact that $|\sin x| \leq |x|$ I get that this is less than or equal to $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ divided by $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. That means, which is same as 1 which is obviously, less than or equal to 1, which then is less than or equal to which is same as ϵ .

So, if you start with an ϵ bigger than 0 you want to make this less than ϵ for some choice of δ . Then the obvious choice of δ is $\delta = \epsilon$. So, given any ϵ bigger than 0, I can find a δ . So, that $\|f(x, y) - f(0, 0)\|$ is less than ϵ if $\|(x, y) - (0, 0)\| < \delta$. So, that shows f is continuous at 0, 0 at our points which are not the point 0, 0 you can apply our example 2 ((Refer Time: 34:40)) to show that the function is continuous, because you can write then in terms of one dimensional continuous functions.

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Let us go to another example, $f(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$. If $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ I define it to be 0 is f continuous. Now, unless you have any guess about continuity of a function, it becomes little difficult to check whether the function is continuous at a point. So, since I do not know I will try to estimate $f(x, y) - f(0, 0)$ by $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ minus 0. So, δ I want to make this less than ϵ for some choice of δ .

But, this only thing what I can do is this x, y lesser equal to less than half x square plus y square. With a and bigger than or equal to g, m then it is x square plus y square. So, I just get that it is half I could not really make it small. So, that since there exists some problem here, perhaps this function is not continuous. So, what I do is since I have to converge to 0 to check continuity. The point $0, 0$ is here, I can converge to $0, 0$ through any line if I want. So, I choose to converge to $0, 0$ to come this way through the line y equal to x .

So, if I put y equal to x in the function. So, $f(x, x)$ that is x square by twice x square, which is equal to half. So, if I take limit as it is going to 0 I am again going to get half which is not equal to f of $0, 0$. So that means, if I choose the sequence x_n, y_n equal to $1/n, 1/n$. Then, what happens is f of x_n, y_n I can easily calculate it, it is $1/n$ square divided by $2/n$ square. That is half it does not converge to the value of the function f of $0, 0$. So, f is not continuous at 0 , but that is not end of the story.

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$f(0,0) = \frac{1}{2}, (x,y) = (0,0)$
 $f(x,y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{2x^2 + y^2}, (x,y) \neq (0,0)$
 $(x_n, y_n) = \left(\frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}\right)$
 $f(x_n, y_n) = \frac{\frac{2}{n^2}}{\frac{3}{n^2}} = \frac{2}{3} \neq \frac{1}{2}$
 $\Rightarrow f$ is not cont.

Suppose, I change my value of the function at $0, 0$ to be f of $0, 0$ equal to half and f of x, y remains same. This is x, y by x square plus y square. This is if x, y naught equal to $0, 0$ and this is x, y equal to $0, 0$. What happens then, well in this case I can try to approach $0, 0$ through $2/n$. For example, I choose this sequence x_n, y_n equals to let us say $1/n, 2/n$. Then what is f of x_n, y_n that is $2/n$ square divided by $3/n$ square, which is $2/3$ rd it is not equal to half again. And hence, this does not converge to half.

So, in this case whatever way you define f of $(0, 0)$ you cannot make it continuous. This implies f is not continuous. The point is if f is continuous at $(0, 0)$ through whatever path you go to $(0, 0)$ f of the values should converge to f of $(0, 0)$. Now, here what happens is I got two paths pictorially if I look at, this is y equal to x . And then, y equal to $2x$, if I go through this path, the function is going to half and if I go through this path this goes to half. But, this is going to $2/3$ rd those values are not same hence, the function cannot be continuous.

So, we have seen some examples of continuous functions as well as some examples of discontinuous functions also. And now we know how to create more complicated continuous functions starting from functions of one variable. Now, with all these concept now we want to go towards differentiability of functions. Now, we come to differentiation of functions, so how to define derivative of the function. Again we start trying with analogues for the one dimensional case.

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Differentiation of functions

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

(x_0, y_0)

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0+h, y_0) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0)$$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0, y_0+h) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)$$

f_x, f_y are called partial derivatives

So, in the one dimensional case given a function f we usually look at this quotient limit h going to 0 f of x plus h minus f of x by h . If this limit exists we call it f prime at x , the derivative of f at the point x . Now, here if I start looking at the analog of this, I take a point x naught, y naught. And then try to have an analog of the previous one. So, I can write this in this form that f of x naught plus h I do not do anything with y naught, I keep it fixed minus f of x naught, y naught I divide this by h I take limit as h going to 0 .

If this limit exists, I will like to say that f is differentiable at x naught, y naught. It is not really doing justice to y naught that we can see immediately, but to still this limit might exist we call it $\text{del } f \text{ del } x$ at x naught, y naught. Similarly, I can define $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x \text{ naught}, y \text{ naught} + h) - f(x \text{ naught}, y \text{ naught})}{h}$. Now, I am going to play around with y naught. If this limit exist I call it $\text{del } f \text{ del } y$ at x naught, y naught I will also denote this some time as f suffix x at x naught, y naught. And the next one I will denote by f suffix y at x naught, y naught, these are called partial derivatives. So, f_x, f_y are called partial derivatives.

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

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

partial derivatives exist.
 f is not continuous.
 Directional derivative:
 $u = (u_1, u_2) - \text{unit vector in } \mathbb{R}^2$
 $\sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2} = 1$

Now, to have an example of this, let me look at the function which I looked at before f_x y is equal to $x y$ by x square plus y square. When $x y$ is not equal to 0 equal to 0 if x, y equal to 0, 0. And let me try to check what is f_x at 0, 0 by the definition of partial derivative this is $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h, 0) - f(0, 0)}{h}$. Now, what is f of $h, 0$ look at the definition of the function, if either x or y is 0 then f is 0. So, f of $h, 0$ is 0, f of 0, 0 by definition is 0, so this is 0 the limit exists and the limit is 0.

Suppose, now I look at f_y at 0, 0 I write this as $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(0, h) - f(0, 0)}{h}$. Now, f of 0 h minus f of 0, 0 divided by h , this again if you look at the definition of the function. This also is 0, so the partial derivatives exist. So, can this be an alternative of derivative that is the question. The answer is no simply because, we have already seen that the function which we are looking at is not continuous. We expect that if a function is differentiable at a

point. Then the function should be at least continuous at that point. But, here I see that the partial derivatives exist, but the function is not continuous.

So, this cannot be an alternative for derivative that is very clear. But, do you see later it is not entirely an useless exercise to look at partial derivatives. It helps us to reach up to the derivative. Now, there are different ways of generalizing I can look at something called directional derivative. So, what is the directional derivative. Here, the derivatives are actually looking at the difference quotients, where in the numerator you given increment to the function. The directional derivative means, in which direction you give the increment. So, we start with a unit vector let us say u_1, u_2 this is a unit vector in \mathbb{R}^2 . That is the norm of this is $1 = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2}$ is equal to 1 and I call this u .

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical derivations. It starts with the definition of a directional derivative at a point (x_0, y_0) in the direction of a unit vector $u = (u_1, u_2)$. The formula is given as:

$$D_u f(x_0, y_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + hu_1, y_0 + hu_2) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h}$$

Then, it shows the simplification of the formula for two specific unit vectors:

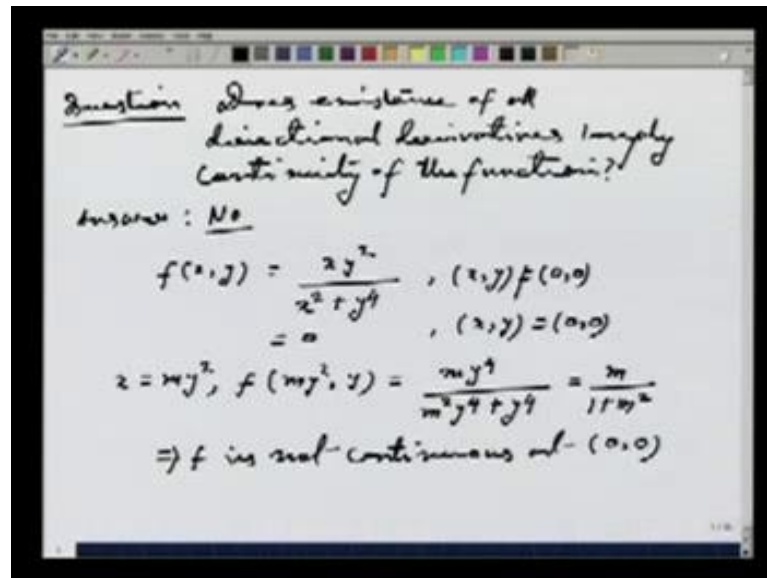
- For $u = (1, 0)$, the directional derivative is the partial derivative with respect to x : $D_u f(x_0, y_0) = f_x(x_0, y_0)$.
- For $u = (0, 1)$, the directional derivative is the partial derivative with respect to y : $D_u f(x_0, y_0) = f_y(x_0, y_0)$.

Then I define given a point x naught, y naught I define $D u f$. This stands for the partial the directional derivative in the direction of u at x naught, y naught to be limit h going to 0 f of x naught, y naught. Plus $h u_1, h u_2$ minus f of x naught, y naught divided by h using the rule of addition in \mathbb{R}^2 . I write it as limit h going to 0 f of x naught plus $h u_1 y$ naught plus $h u_2$ minus f of x naught, y naught divided by h . Now, if this limit exists then I call that the directional derivative of f in the direction u exists.

Now, if you choose u to be equal to $1, 0$. Then what is $D u f$ at x naught, y naught by the definition it is limit h going to 0. Now, f of x naught plus h I get because, u_1 is 1, but u_2

is 0. So, I just get y naught here minus f of x naught, y naught divided by h and this is a known quantity, we have seen it this is nothing but f x at x naught, y naught. So, the partial derivative del f del x is nothing but the directional derivative in the direction of the vector 1, 0. Similarly, you can check that if u it is equal to 0, 1. Then D u f at x naught y naught is nothing but f y at x naught, y naught.

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Now, the question, we ask is does existence of all directional derivatives imply continuity of the function. So, this is the question does existence of all directional derivatives imply continuity of the function. Well the answer to this question is no, that can be shown by the following example. Let us look at this function f of x y equals to x y square divided by x square plus y to the power 4, if x, y is not the origin it is 0, if x, y is equal to 0, 0. Now, I am going to check that f is not continuous at the origin.

So, what I do is I approach 0, 0 through the path x equal to m y square. If I do that then f of m y square y that turns out to be m y square times y square. That is m y to the power 4 divided by x square. Now, means m square y to the power 4 plus y to the power 4 which is m by 1 plus m square. So, if I take limit y going to 0 it is any way m by 1 plus y square, it does not depend on y and the limit depends on m. So, if I go through different paths I get different limit, so this implies f is not continuous at 0, 0.

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$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h,0) - f(0,0)}{h} = 0; \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(0,h) - f(0,0)}{h}$$

(u_1, u_2) s.t. $u_1 \neq 0, u_2 \neq 0$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h(u_1, u_2)) - f(0,0)}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(hu_1, hu_2) - f(0,0)}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{hu_1 h^2 u_2^2}{(h^2 u_1^2 + h^4 u_2^4)h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{u_1 u_2^2}{u_1^2 + h^2 u_2^4} = \frac{u_1 u_2^2}{u_1^2} = \frac{u_2^2}{u_1}$$

But then what about the directional derivatives first note that the usual partial derivatives exist. Because, limit h going to 0 f of h 0 minus f of 0, 0 divided by h turns out to be equal to 0. Because, f of h 0 is anyway 0 follows from the definition of the function, so, is f of 0, 0, so this quotient is always 0, hence the limit is also 0. Similarly, limit h going to 0 f of 0 h minus f of 0, 0 divided by h that is also 0, because f of 0 h is 0 and so is f of 0.

Now, the question is about other directional derivatives. So, let me choose a vector u_1, u_2 . Such that, u_1 not equal to 0 and u_2 not equal to 0 because, if one of them is 0 that case I have already taken care of in the usual partial derivatives. Now, we will look at the limit, limit h going to 0 f of $t u_1, u_2$ minus f of 0, 0 divided by h . This is same as limit h going to 0 f of $t u_1, t u_2$ minus f of 0, 0 which I know is 0 this is instead of t it should be h , instead of t here I have h , because the increment is given in terms of h divided by h .

Now, I just write down the definition of the function. This is limit h going to 0, now x y square. That means, $h u_1$ into h square u_2 square divided by x square. That means, h square u_1 square plus y to the power 4, that means h to the power 4 u_2 to the power 4, but then the reason 1 by h . So, that it is here, if I calculate what I get is limit h going to 0 u_1, u_2 square. Because, in the numerator I have an h cube which cancels with the denominator I get u_1 square plus $h u_2$ to the power 4. That limit certainly is u_1, u_2 square divided by u_1 square that is u_2 square by u_1 .

So, the limit exist and it certainly makes sense as I have chosen my u_1, u_2 both to be not equal to 0. So, you see that directional derivatives exist in the direction of any vector. But at the same time we have proved that the function is not continuous, so existence of all directional derivatives can never be a replacement of existence of derivatives. So, in the next lecture, we are going to see how to define a derivative function of two variables.