

Gradient

↙ $\vec{r} = (x, y)$ is position vector

$$f(x, y) = f(\vec{r})$$

Def: $\nabla f(\vec{r}) = \nabla f(x, y)$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y), \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) \right)$$

$$= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) \vec{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) \vec{j}$$

Ex: $f(x, y) = x^2 - 2y^2$

$$\nabla f(x, y) = (2x, -4y)$$

The symbol ∇ is called "nabla".

It is an ancient Phoenician letter.

It was supposed to represent the head of a bull.

Also symbolizes a musical instrument.

But for us, it is the vector of partials.

Linear approximation: $\vec{r} = (x, y)$ $\vec{r}_0 = (x_0, y_0)$

$$\begin{aligned} f(\vec{r}) - f(\vec{r}_0) &\approx f_x(\vec{r}_0)(x-x_0) + f_y(\vec{r}_0)(y-y_0) \\ &= \nabla f(\vec{r}_0) \cdot (x-x_0, y-y_0) \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\nabla f(\vec{r}_0) = (f_x(\vec{r}_0), f_y(\vec{r}_0))$$

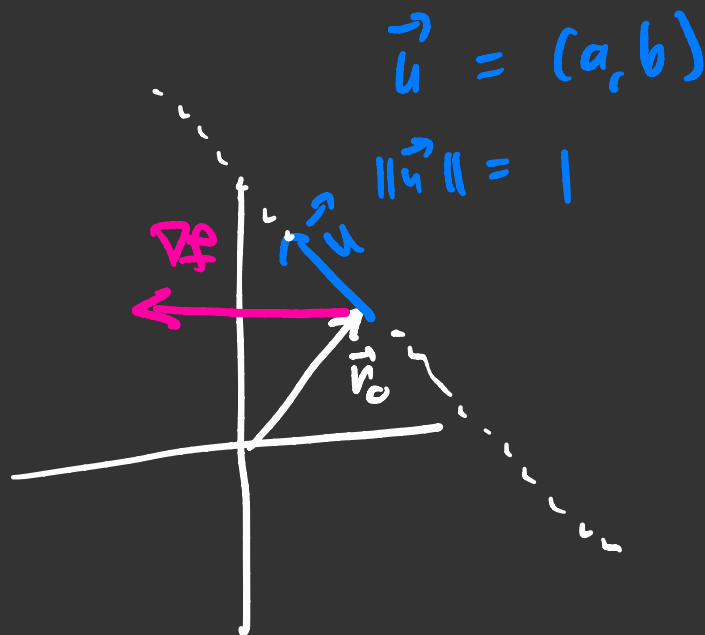
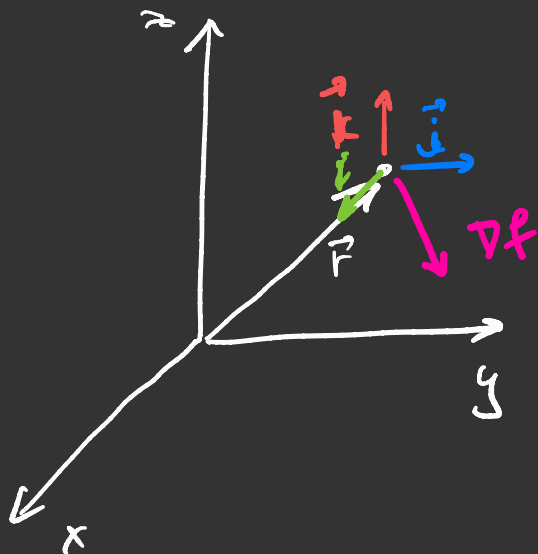
Thus

$$f(\vec{r}) - f(\vec{r}_0) \approx \nabla f(\vec{r}_0) \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}_0)$$

In particular

$$f_x = \nabla f \cdot \vec{i} \quad f_y = \nabla f \cdot \vec{j}$$

Directional Derivative



$$l = \vec{r}_0 + t\vec{u}$$

$$f(\vec{r}_0 + t\vec{u}) = f(x_0 + ta, y_0 + tb)$$

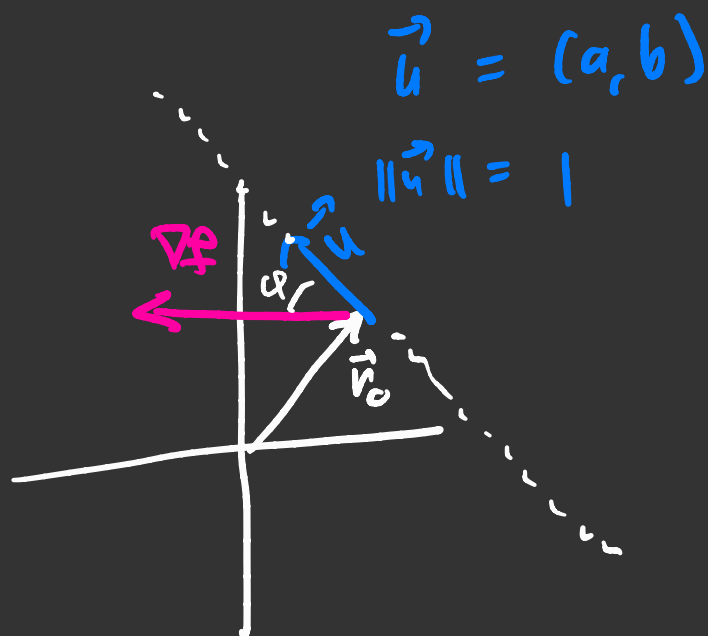
$$\frac{d}{dt} f(\vec{r}_0 + t\vec{u}) = f_x(x_0 + ta, y_0 + tb) a + f_y(x_0 + ta, y_0 + tb) b$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} f(\vec{r}_0 + t\vec{u}) &= f_x a + f_y b \\ &= \nabla f(x_0, y_0) \cdot \vec{u} \end{aligned}$$

↙ component of ∇f on $\vec{u}$

Derivative in direction of a unit vector

$$D_u f(x_0, y_0) = \vec{u} \cdot \nabla f(x_0, y_0)$$



$D_{\vec{u}}f$ is rate of change of f as we move in direction $\vec{u}$.

$$\nabla f \cdot \vec{u} = \|\nabla f\| \|\vec{u}\| \cos \phi$$

$$-1 \leq \cos \phi \leq 1$$

$\uparrow$ if $\vec{u}$ and ∇f are opposite directions
 $\uparrow$ when $\vec{u}$ and ∇f are same direction

$\therefore D_{\vec{u}}f(\vec{r}_0)$ is maximal if $\vec{u} \parallel \nabla f(\vec{r}_0)$

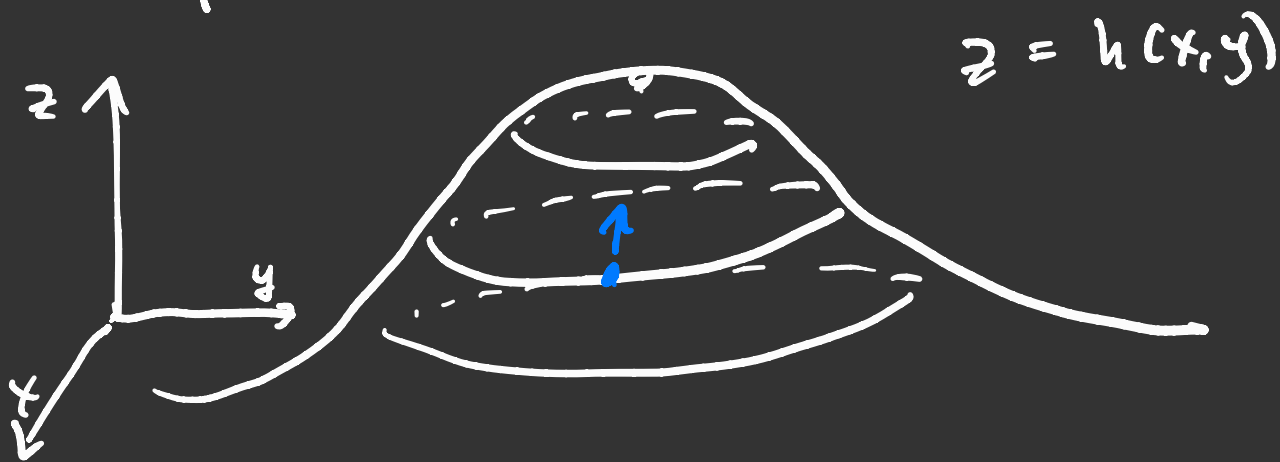
$D_{\vec{u}}f(\vec{r}_0)$ is minimal if $-\vec{u} \parallel \nabla f(\vec{r}_0)$

$\uparrow$ i.e. $\vec{u}$ and $\nabla f(\vec{r}_0)$ antiparallel.

maximal growth if you move along gradient.

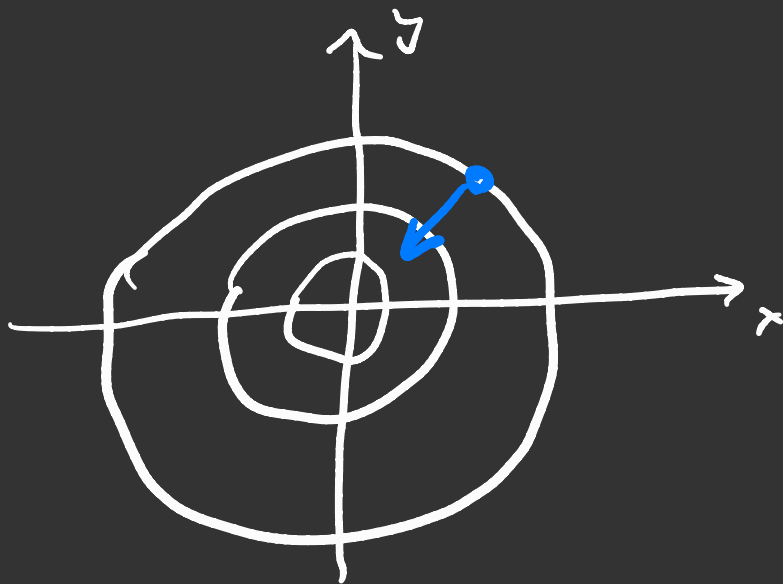
maximal decay if you move opposite.

Example



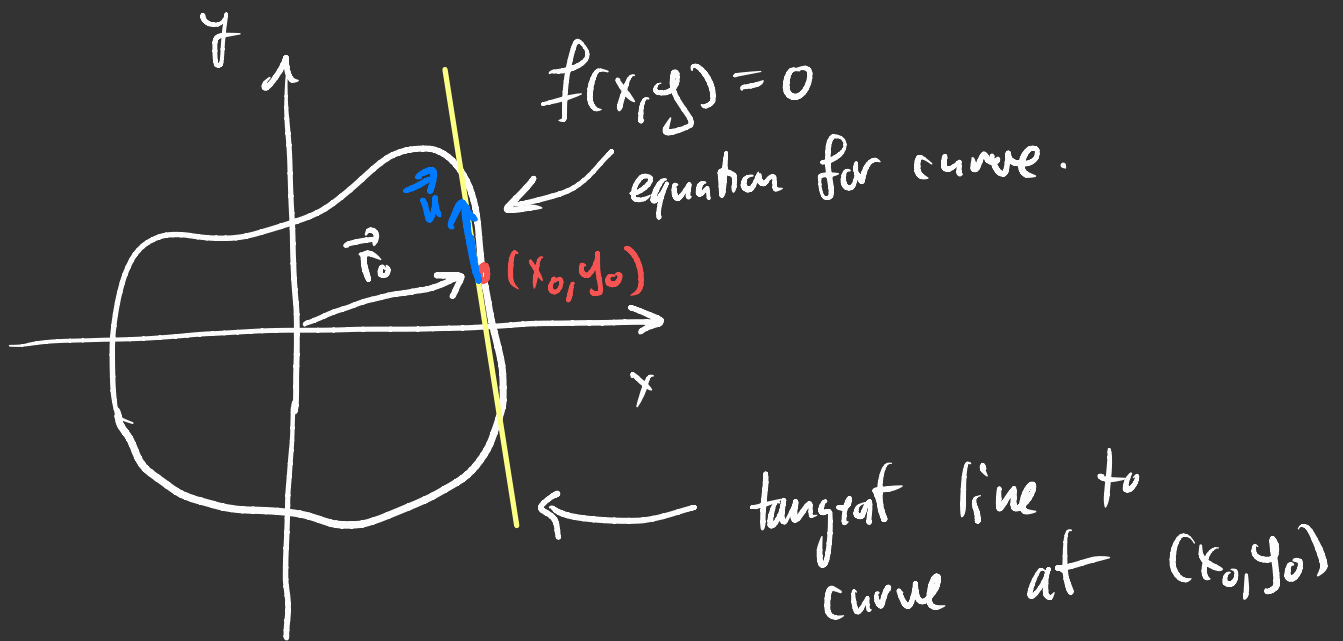
To climb the fastest, you should go in the direction of $\nabla f(x_0, y_0)$.

To descend the fastest, go in direction of $-\nabla f(x_0, y_0)$.



How to find a point where a function is maximal?
Choose initial point, and move up the gradient!
Basis of Gradient method in optimization.

Tangent lines and planes



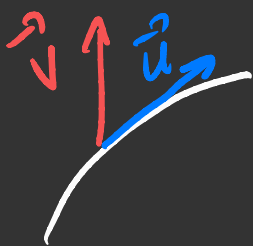
Equation for tangent is

$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}_0 + t\vec{u}$$

Recall then that

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} f(\vec{r}_0 + t\vec{u}) \right|_{t=0} = D_{\vec{u}} f(\vec{r}_0) = \nabla f(\vec{r}_0) \cdot \vec{u}$$

What can we say about $\vec{u}$ if it is in direction of tangent.



$D_{\vec{v}} f \neq 0$ since $f(x, y) \sim \text{dist from point to curve.}$

if $\vec{v}$ is not tangent, the distance grows with some rate.

For $\vec{u}$ tangent to the curve $\{f(x,y)=0\}$

$$D_u f(\vec{r}_0) = 0 = \nabla f(\vec{r}_0) \cdot \vec{u} = (f_x, f_y) \cdot \vec{u}$$

This means, the tangent line equation is

$$\partial_x f(x-x_0) + \partial_y f(y-y_0) = 0$$

is the equation for the line which is orthogonal to the gradient.

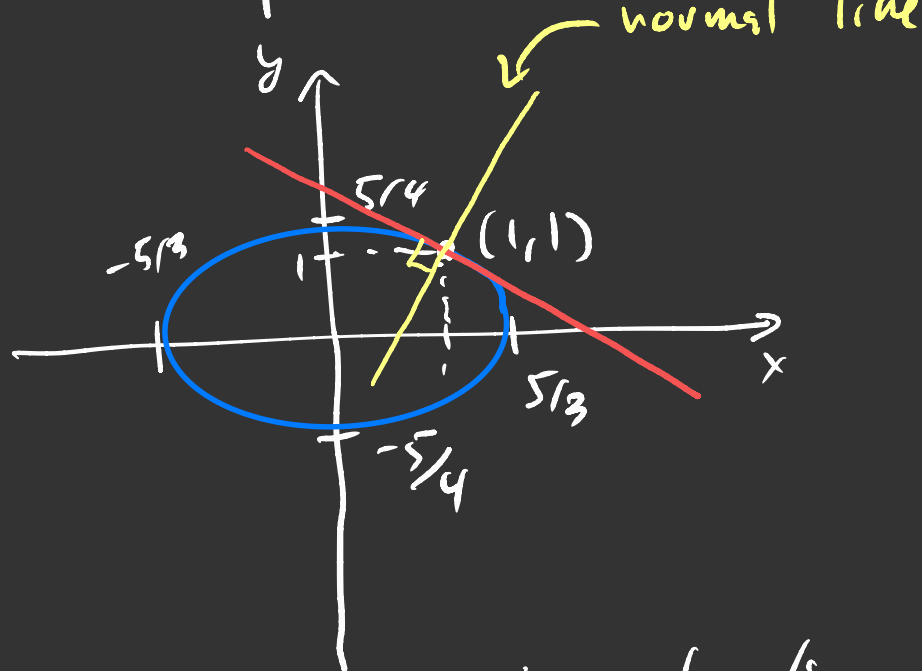
The equation for the normal line is

$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}_0 + \nabla f(\vec{r}_0) t$$

Example : $9x^2 + 16y^2 = 25$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{3x}{5}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{4y}{5}\right)^2 = 1$$

This is an ellipse whose axes are



Let's find equation for tangent line at $(1,1)$.

$$f(x,y) = 9x^2 + 16y^2 - 25$$

$$\partial_x f = 18x, \quad \partial_y f = 32y \quad x_0 = 1, \quad y_0 = 1$$

$$18(x-1) + 32(y-1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 9(x-1) + 16(y-1) = 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{tangent line}$$

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = (18, 32)$$

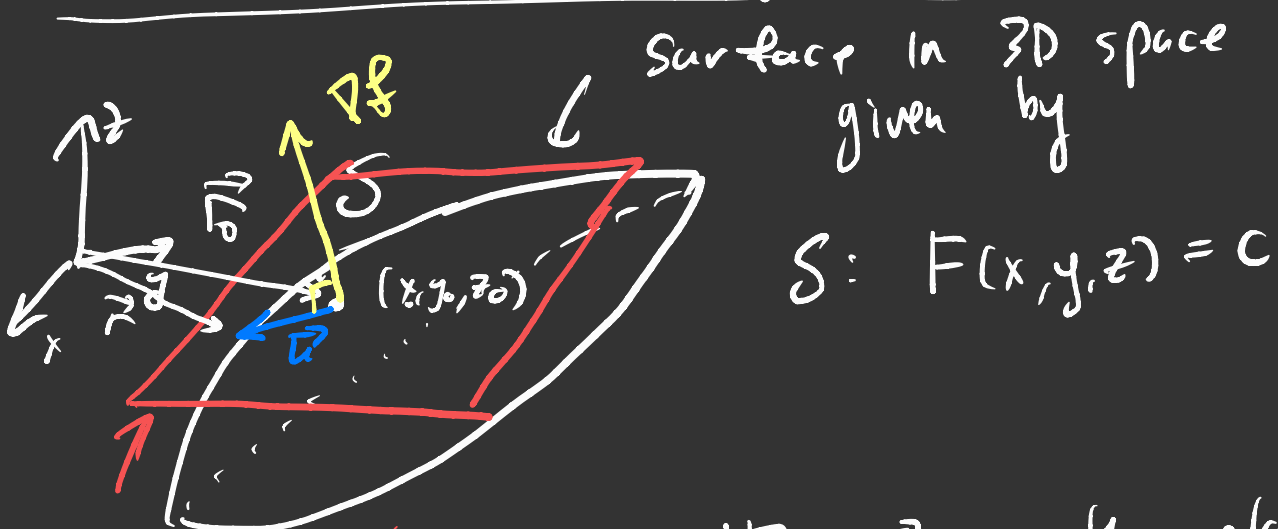
$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}_0 + t \nabla f(\vec{r}_0)$$

$$\begin{aligned} x-1 &= 16t \\ y-1 &= 32t \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{or } \frac{x-1}{16} - \frac{y-1}{32} = 0$$

normal line

Situation in 3D: Tangent plane



tangent plane at
 (x_0, y_0, z_0) , T.

For $\vec{u}$ in the plane, we have

$$D_{\vec{u}} f = 0.$$

This means that

$$\nabla f(\vec{r}_0) \cdot \vec{u} = 0$$

$$\nabla f(\vec{r}_0) \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}_0) = 0$$

Condition to be on tangent plane T.

Ex: $S: xyz = 1.$

$$F(x, y, z) = xyz - 1$$

$$\vec{r}_0 = (1, 2, \frac{1}{2}). \quad (\text{note } \vec{r}_0 \text{ on } S)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla F &= (\partial_x F, \partial_y F, \partial_z F) \\ &= (yz, xz, xy)\end{aligned}$$

$$\nabla F(\vec{r}_0) = (1, \frac{1}{2}, 2)$$

Tangent plane T has equation

$$1 \cdot (x-1) + \frac{1}{2}(y-2) + 2(z-\frac{1}{2}) = 0$$

or

$$x + \frac{1}{2}y + 2z = 3$$

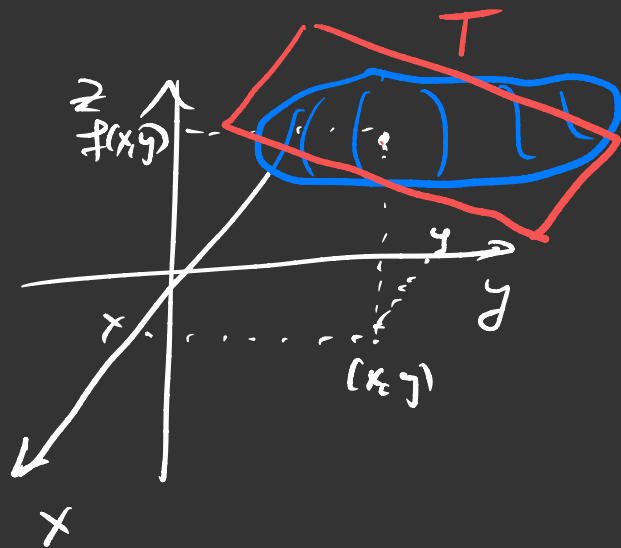
Equation for the normal line is

$$\begin{cases} x = 1+t \\ y = 2+\frac{1}{2}t \\ z = \frac{1}{2}+2t \end{cases}$$

Graph of a function.

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

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



$$F=0 \iff z=f(x,y)$$

$$F_x = -f_x, \quad F_y = -f_y, \quad F_z = 1.$$

$$\nabla F(x, y, f(x, y)) = (-f_x, -f_y, 1)$$

tangent plane T at $(x_0, y_0, f(x_0, y_0))$

$$-f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) - f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) + (z - z_0) = 0$$

rearranging:

$$z - z_0 = f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

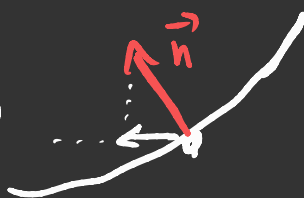
Tangent plane T at point (x_0, y_0)

$$z = z_0 + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

This is just equation for linear approximation!

Normal line

$$\begin{aligned} x &= x_0 - t f_x(x_0, y_0, z_0) \\ y &= y_0 - t f_y(x_0, y_0, z_0) \\ z &= f(x_0, y_0) + t \end{aligned}$$



Higher order partial derivatives

$f(x, y)$, smooth (all derivatives exist)

$f_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ $f_y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ are also two variable functions.

Four second order derivatives

$$f_{xx} = \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} \quad f_{xy} = \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial x} \quad f_{yx} = \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial y}, \quad f_{yy} = \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y}$$

Example: $f(x, y) = \sin(xy^2)$

$$f_x = y^2 \cos(xy^2) \quad f_y = 2yx \cos(xy^2)$$

$$f_{xx} = -y^4 \sin(xy^2) \quad f_{yy} = 2x \cos(xy^2) - 4y^2 x^2 \sin(xy^2)$$

$$f_{yx} = 2y \cos(xy^2) - 2y^3 x \sin(xy^2)$$

$$f_{xy} = 2y \cos(xy^2) - 2y^3 x \sin(xy^2)$$

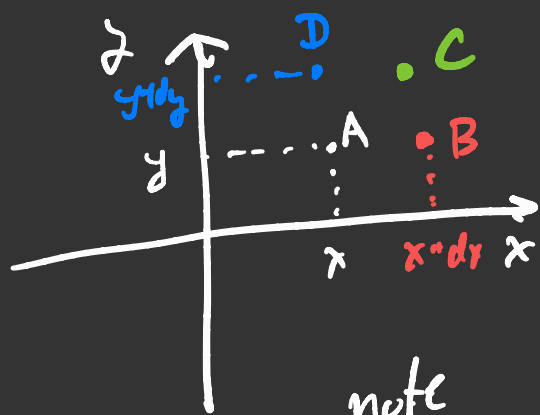
Notice, in our example, $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$.

This is a general fact!

Theorem: (Clairaut, Schwarz) Suppose $f, f_x, f_y, f_{xy}, f_{yx}$ exist and are continuous. Then

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

Idea of Proof:



$$A = (x, y)$$

$$B = (x+dx, y)$$

$$C = (x+dx, y+dy)$$

$$D = (x, y+dy)$$

note $f(B) - f(A) \approx f_x(A) dx$
etc

$$\Rightarrow f(B) \approx f(A) + f_x(A) dx$$

$$f(C) \approx f(D) + f_x(D) dx$$

$$f(D) \approx f(A) + f_y(A) dy$$

$$f(C) = f(B) + f_y(B) dy$$

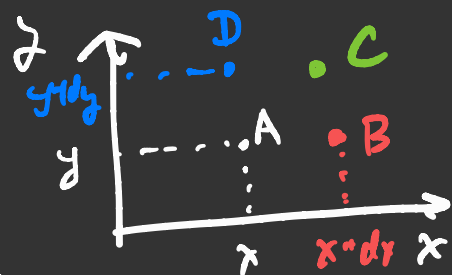
Consider

$$(f(C) - f(D)) - (f(B) - f(A))$$

$$\approx f_x(D)dx - f_x(A)dx$$

$$= (f_x(D) - f_x(A))dx$$

$$\approx f_{yx}(A) dy dx$$



$$(f(C) - f(B)) - (f(D) - f(A))$$

$$\approx f_y(B)dy - f_y(A)dy$$

$$= (f_y(B) - f_y(A))dy$$

$$\approx f_{xy}(A) dy dx$$

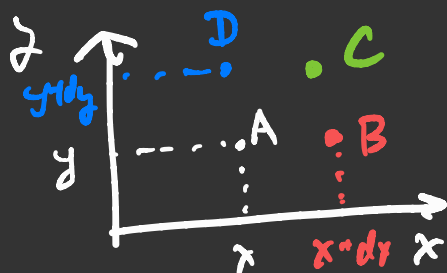
Thus we have:

$$f_{yx}(A) dy dx \approx f(A) - f(B) - f(D) + f(C)$$

$$f_{xy}(A) dy dx \approx f(A) - f(D) - f(B) + f(C)$$

$$\text{So } f_{yx}(A) \approx f_{xy}(A)$$

To evaluate mixed derivatives f_{xy} or f_{yx} numerically, we use the approximate formulae:



$$f_{yx}(A) dy dx \approx f(A) - f(B) - f(D) + f(C)$$

$$f_{xy}(A) dy dx \approx f(A) - f(D) - f(B) + f(C)$$

In 3D, $f(x, y, z)$

$$f_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \quad f_y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \quad f_z = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$$

$$f_{xx} = \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} \quad f_{xy} = \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial x} \quad f_{xz} = \frac{\partial f_z}{\partial x} \quad \dots$$

There are 9 different derivatives,
but mixed derivatives are equal

$$f_{xy} = f_{yx}, \quad f_{xz} = f_{zx}, \quad f_{yz} = f_{zy}.$$

No new proof required... reduces to 2D.