

Differentiation of Vector-valued functions

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- First, functions of one variable.

Def. Let $I = (a, b)$, and let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.

The derivative of f at $t_0 \in I$ is

$$f'(t_0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} \frac{f(t) - f(t_0)}{t - t_0} \quad (\text{if exists})$$

• Also, when $f'(t)$ exists for all $t \in I$, then we define the derivative of f to be the function $f': I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ mapping t to $f'(t)$.

One interpretation (classical mechanics):

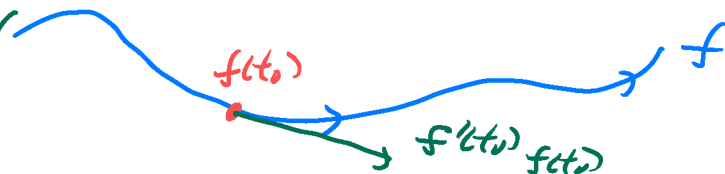
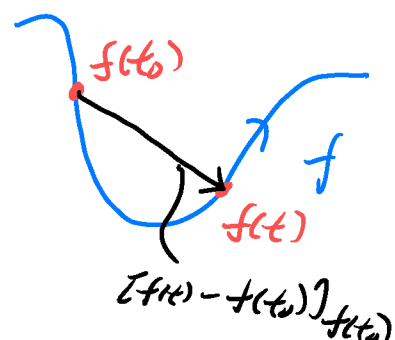
- $f(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ - position of particle at time t .
- $t - t_0$ - time elapsed.
- $f(t) - f(t_0)$ - Change in position between times t_0, t (displacement)

- $\frac{f(t) - f(t_0)}{t - t_0}$ - average rate of change in position (time t_0 to t)

↓ limit $t \rightarrow t_0$

- $f'(t_0)$ - instantaneous rate of change in position at time t_0 (velocity).

naturally drawn as arrows:



Q. How to compute derivatives?

- A. Componentwise.

Thm: Let f be as before, and write f in terms of components:

$$f(t) = (f_1(t), \dots, f_n(t)) \quad (f_k: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R})$$

Then, for any $t \in I$, $f'(t) = (f_1'(t), \dots, f_n'(t))$
(as long as $f_1'(t), \dots, f_n'(t)$ all exist).

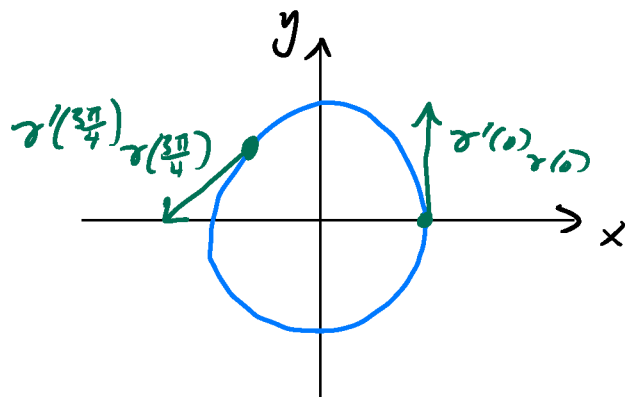
Pf: $\frac{f(t) - f(t_0)}{t - t_0} = \left(\frac{f_1(t) - f_1(t_0)}{t - t_0}, \dots, \frac{f_n(t) - f_n(t_0)}{t - t_0} \right)$

$\downarrow \quad t \rightarrow t_0 \quad \downarrow$
 $f'(t_0) = (f_1'(t_0), \dots, f_n'(t_0))$

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Ex. $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2, \gamma(t) = (\cos t, \sin t)$

$\Rightarrow \gamma'(t) = \left(\frac{d}{dt} \cos t, \frac{d}{dt} \sin t \right)$
 $= \underline{(-\sin t, \cos t)}$



• $\gamma(0) = (1, 0), \gamma'(0) = (0, 1)$

• $\gamma(3\pi/4) = (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}), \gamma'(3\pi/4) = (-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2})$

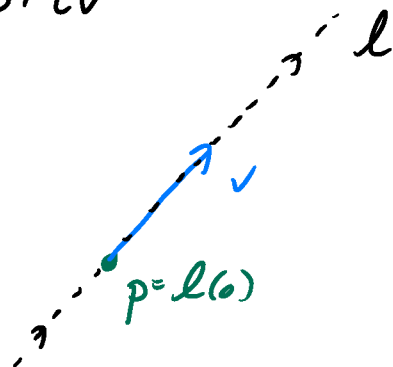
Ex. Fix $p, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Define $l: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, l(t) = p + tv$

• $\underline{l(0) = p}$

• Let $p = (p_1, \dots, p_n), v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$

$\Rightarrow l(t) = (p_1 + tv_1, \dots, p_n + tv_n)$

$\Rightarrow \underline{l'(t) = (v_1, \dots, v_n) = v}$



Next: functions of several variables
 $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$

Q. What should we assume for U to make sense of derivatives of f .

• Recall: Derivative at $p \approx$ "rate of change" at p .

- Need: values of f "near p ".

$\Rightarrow$ points "near p " must be in U (domain of f)

Def: $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ is open iff for any $p \in U$, there exists some $\delta > 0$ such that if $q \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $|q - p| < \delta$, then $q \in U$

"sufficiently close" "q sufficiently close to p"

~ "Any point sufficiently close to $p \in U$ also lies in U ."

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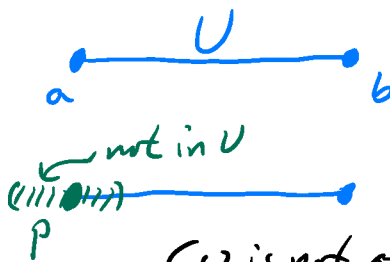
Remark: For those who took MTH5104 (Convergence & Continuity)
 U is open $\iff \forall p \in U \exists \delta > 0 \forall q \in \mathbb{R}^m (|q-p| < \delta \rightarrow q \in U)$

Ex. $U = (a, b) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$
 (open interval)



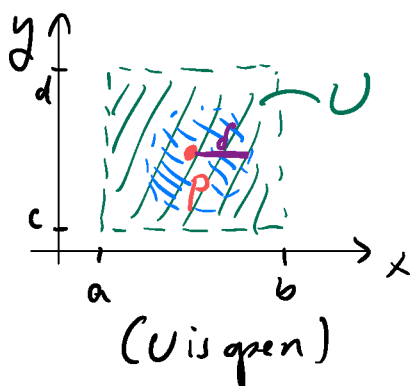
(U is open)

$U = [a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^1$
 (closed interval)



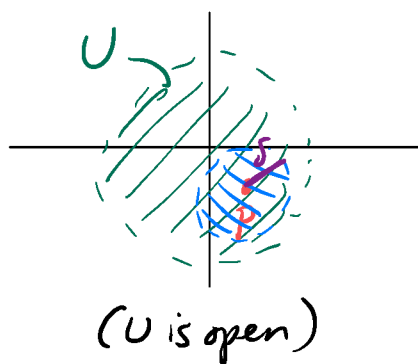
(U is not open)

Ex. $U = (a, b) \times (c, d) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$
 $\{(x, y) \mid x \in (a, b) \text{ and } y \in (c, d)\}$
 (rectangle)



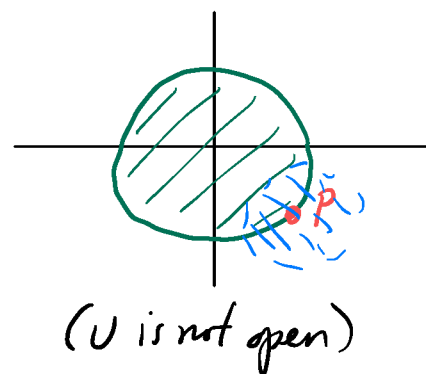
(U is open)

$U = B(0, 1) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$
 $\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 < 1\}$
 (open disk)



(U is open)

$U = \bar{B}(0, 1) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$
 $\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$
 (closed disk)



(U is not open)

Ex. Can generalise to higher dimensions:

- Let $p \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $r > 0$
- $B(p, r) = \{q \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid |q - p| < r\}$ - open ("open ball")
- $\bar{B}(p, r) = \{q \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid |q - p| \leq r\}$ - not open ("closed ball")

For convenience, we want one further property for U .

Motivation: 1-d case - U = open interval (a, b)

- U is open

• U is "connected"

if $x, y \in U$ and $x \leq y$, then $[x, y] \subseteq U$

Why connected? If $U = \underbrace{\quad}_{I_1} \cup \underbrace{\quad}_{I_2} \cup \underbrace{\quad}_{I_3}$,

then $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ can be treated as 3 independent functions

$$f_1: I_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, \quad f_2: I_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, \quad f_3: I_3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

Now: want similar property in higher dimensions

- Issue: many ways to join points.

Def: An open subset $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ is connected iff for any $p, q \in U$, there is a path, lying entirely in U , going from p to q .
See lecture notes for definition

Ex: • $I = (0, 1)$ - connected

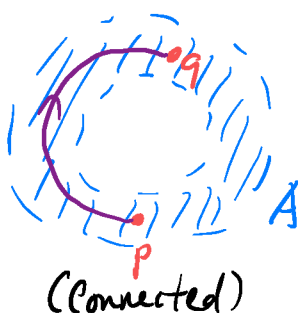


• $J = (0, 1) \cup (2, 3)$ - not connected



Remark: In fact, the open and connected subsets of $\mathbb{R}$ are precisely the open intervals.

Ex:



Finally: $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ - what to assume for f to make sense of derivatives

- Want: U open and connected.

Differentiation in Several Variables

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(derivative $\rightarrow$ partial derivative)

Def. Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ be open and connected, let $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, and let $p = (p_1, \dots, p_m) \in U$.

- For $1 \leq k \leq m$, we define the partial derivative in the k -th component of f at p by

$$\partial_k f(p) = \lim_{q \rightarrow p_k} \frac{f(p_1, \dots, \overset{\text{k-th component}}{\underset{\uparrow}{q}}, \dots, p_m) - f(p_1, \dots, \underset{\uparrow}{p_k}, \dots, p_m)}{q - p_k} \quad (\text{if exists})$$

- Also, if $\partial_k f(p)$ exists for all $p \in U$, then we can define $\partial_k f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, mapping p to $\partial_k f(p)$.

Remark: When $m=1$, then $\partial_1 f = f'$.

Ex. $h: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ $h(u, v) = u + v^2 + u^3 v$

- To find $\partial_1 h(u, v)$ - hold v constant, differentiate in u :

- $\partial_1 h(u, v) = 1 + 0 + 3u^2 v = \underline{1 + 3u^2 v}$

- $\partial_1 h(1, 1) = 1 + 3 \cdot 1^2 \cdot 1 = \underline{4}$

- To find $\partial_2 h(u, v)$ - hold u constant, differentiate in v :

- $\partial_2 h(u, v) = 0 + 2v + u^3 = \underline{2v + u^3}$

- $\partial_2 h(1, 1) = 2 \cdot 1 + 1^3 = \underline{3}$

Q. How to compute partial derivatives of vector-valued functions?

Thm: Let f be as before, and write $f(p) = (f_1(p), \dots, f_n(p))$ ($f_k: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$)

Then, for any $1 \leq k \leq m$ and $p \in U$:

$$\partial_k f(p) = (\partial_k f_1(p), \dots, \partial_k f_n(p)) \quad (\text{if right-hand side exists})$$

(P.f.: Same as theorem for derivatives - see lecture notes.)

Ex. $\sigma: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$, $\sigma(u, v) = (\cos u, \sin u, v)$ (cylinder)

- $\partial_1 \sigma(u, v) = \left(\frac{d}{du} \cos u, \frac{d}{du} \sin u, \frac{d}{du} v \right) = \underline{(-\sin u, \cos u, 0)}$

$$\bullet \partial_2 \sigma(u, v) = \left(\frac{d}{dv} \cos u, \frac{d}{dv} \sin u, \frac{d}{dv} v \right) = \underline{(0, 0, 1)}$$

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Q. How to interpret partial derivatives?
(Take previous example)

• Hold $v = v_0$ constant and vary u : $\gamma(u) = \sigma(u, v_0)$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma'(u_0) = \lim_{u \rightarrow u_0} \frac{\sigma(u, v_0) - \sigma(u_0, v_0)}{u - u_0} = \partial_1 \sigma(u_0, v_0).$$

$\sim \partial_1 \sigma$ - "derivative of σ obtained by holding v constant"

$\sim \partial_1 \sigma(u_0, v_0) \sigma(u_0, v_0) = \gamma'(u_0) \gamma(u_0)$ - arrow on path along image of σ by holding v constant.

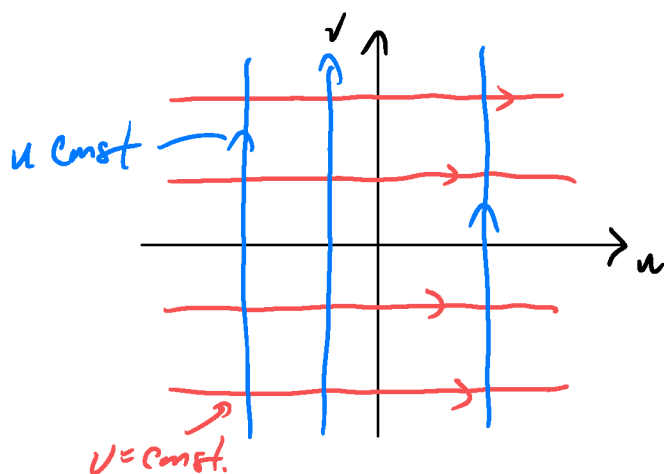
• Hold $u = u_0$ constant and vary v : $\lambda(v) = \sigma(u_0, v)$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda'(v_0) = \partial_2 \sigma(u_0, v_0)$$

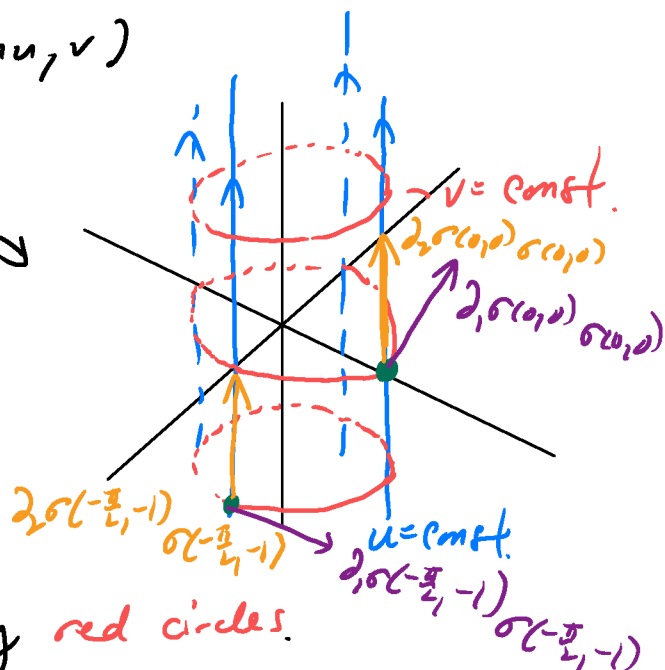
$\sim \partial_2 \sigma$ - "derivative of σ obtained by holding u constant"

$\sim \partial_2 \sigma(u_0, v_0) \sigma(u_0, v_0) = \lambda'(v_0) \lambda(v_0)$ - arrow on path along image of σ by holding u constant

Ex. $\sigma: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$, $\sigma(u, v) = (\cos u, \sin u, v)$



σ



• $\partial_1 \sigma(u, v) \sigma(u, v)$ - point along **red circles**.

• $\partial_2 \sigma(u, v) \sigma(u, v)$ - point along **blue lines**.

For instance: • $\sigma(0, 0) = (1, 0, 0)$

• $\partial_1 \sigma(0, 0) = (0, 1, 0)$

• $\partial_2 \sigma(0, 0) = (0, 0, 1)$

• $\sigma(-\frac{\pi}{2}, -1) = (0, -1, -1)$

• $\partial_1 \sigma(-\frac{\pi}{2}, -1) = (1, 0, 0)$

• $\partial_2 \sigma(-\frac{\pi}{2}, -1) = (0, 0, 1)$

Vector fields) but different approach than before

↳ "Functions whose values are tangent vectors."

Def Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. A vector field on A is a function F mapping each $p \in A$ to a tangent vector $F(p) \in T_p \mathbb{R}^n$

($\cdot F(p)$ is an "arrow" starting at p .) ~ different from calculus and differential equations.

• $n=3$: natural way to visualise vector fields
~ draw the arrows!

Ex. Vector field G on $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}$ ($n=2$)

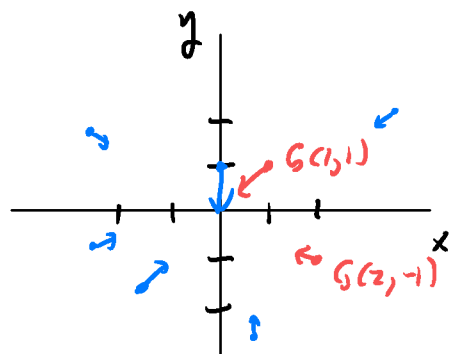
$$G(p) = -\frac{1}{|p|^3} \cdot p$$

$$\bullet G(1,1) = -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} (1,1)_{(1,1)} = \left(-\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)_{(1,1)}$$

$$\bullet G(2,-1) = -\frac{1}{5\sqrt{5}} (2,-1)_{(2,-1)} = \left(-\frac{2}{5\sqrt{5}}, \frac{1}{5\sqrt{5}}\right)_{(2,-1)}$$

• $G(p)$ - points toward origin

• $|G(p)| = \frac{1}{|p|^2} \sim$ larger when $|p|$ is smaller
- arrows longer near origin.



G (when $m=3$)
represents Newtonian gravitational force
from object at origin

One more familiar concept from calculus: gradients
(but define a bit differently here)

Def. Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$, and let $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (real-valued!)

The gradient of f at $p \in U$ is defined to be

$$\nabla f(p) = (\partial_1 f(p), \dots, \partial_n f(p))_p \in T_p \mathbb{R}^m \quad (\text{if exists})$$

• If $\nabla f(p)$ exists for every $p \in U$, then we define the gradient of f to be the vector field on U mapping each p to $\nabla f(p) \in T_p \mathbb{R}^m$.

Remark: $\nabla f(p)$ interpreted as "arrow" starting from p
 - Different from calculus definition (as "vector")
 - But same intuition for both definitions.

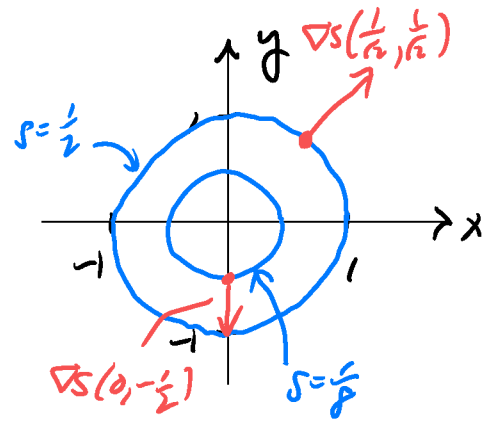
Ex. $S: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $S(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2)$

$$\Rightarrow \partial_1 S(x, y) = x, \quad \partial_2 S(x, y) = y$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla S(x, y) = (\partial_1 S(x, y), \partial_2 S(x, y))_{(x, y)} = \underline{(x, y)_{(x, y)}}$$

$$\bullet \nabla S\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)_{\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)}$$

$$\bullet \nabla S\left(0, -\frac{1}{2}\right) = \left(0, -\frac{1}{2}\right)_{\left(0, -\frac{1}{2}\right)}$$



Remark: ∇S always perpendicular to the level sets $S = \text{constant}$.
 (will see why later)

Ex. $g: \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g(p) = \frac{1}{|p|}$ $(g(x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}})$

$$\bullet \partial_1 g(x, y) = -\frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2)^{-3/2} 2x = -\frac{x}{(x^2 + y^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$\bullet \partial_2 g(x, y) = -\frac{y}{(x^2 + y^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla g(x, y) = -\frac{1}{(x^2 + y^2)^{3/2}} (x, y)_{(x, y)}$$

~ in other words $\nabla g(p) = -\frac{1}{|p|^3} \cdot p_p = G(p)$ - gravitational force

• g - called gravitational potential in physics

Remark: G can be expressed as a gradient, hence has special properties (will hopefully discuss later in module).