

Notes on directional derivatives, Stewart {14.6}

[Andrew Critch, Math 53, 2009 Summer]

P. 1 of 5

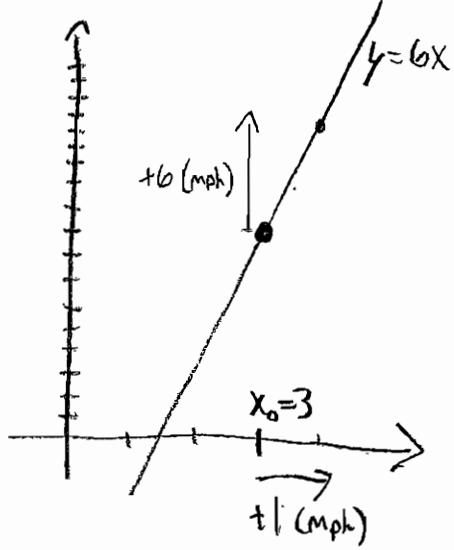
In single-variable calculus,

$$f'(x_0) := \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + 1h) - f(x_0)}{h}$$

sneaky coefficient of +1 for later!

Example 1 | $f(x) = 6x - 9$, $x_0 = 3$, $f'(3) = 6$. Here are two ways

to conceptualize this situation:

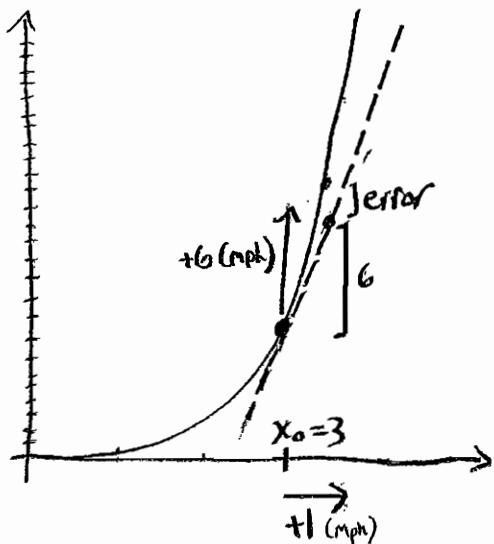


- a) If we change $x_0 = 3$ by a total of $+1$, f changes by a total of $+6$.
- b) If we change $x_0 = 3$ at a velocity of $+1$ (mph) (for an instant), f changes at at a velocity of $+6$ (mph) (for that instant).

Option (b) is a more accurate interpretation in non-linear examples. (See below). Let us write

$(D_{+1} f)(x_0)$ instead of $f'(x_0)$, for now to emphasize the sneaky h -coefficient of $+1$. This is called "the directional derivative of f along the vector $+1$ (at x_0)"

Example 2 | $f(x) = x^2$, $x_0=3$, $f'(3)=6$.



a) If we change $x_0=3$ by a total of +1
 f changes by approximately +6,
 With an error since the graph is
 curved. Hence "total changes" are
 not quite accurate for
 conceptualizing derivatives.

b) If we change $x_0=3$ at a velocity of +1 (mph) (for an instant!),
 f changes at a velocity of exactly +6 (for that instant).

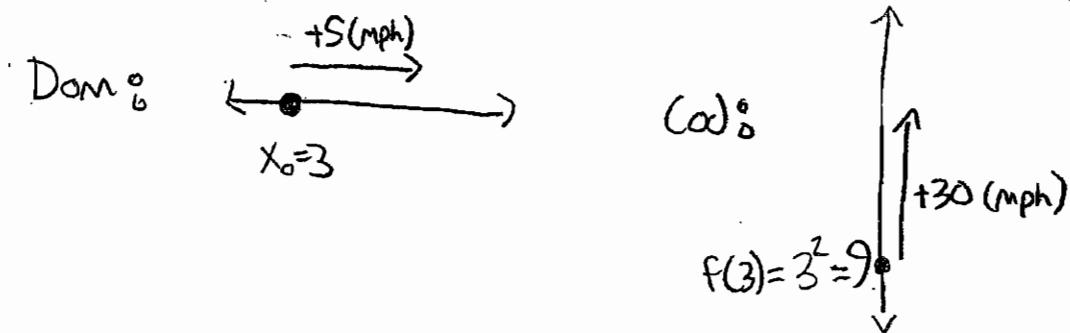
This makes sense if we replace +1 by, say, +5:

If we change $x_0=3$ at a velocity of +5 = 5(+1), then f changes at a velocity of +30 = 5(+6):

$$(D_{+5}f)(3) := \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + 5h) - f(x_0)}{h} = +30$$

(Check this!)

It is possible to visualize this situation entirely in terms of motion in the domain and codomain, without the graph:



(Not having to visualize a graph is nice when it's in 4-D!)

These concepts all make sense if $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^l$ and $+S$ is replaced by an arbitrary vector $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$! We define:

$$(D_{\vec{v}} f)(\vec{x}_0) := \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\vec{x}_0 + \vec{v} \cdot h) - f(\vec{x}_0)}{h}$$

} the "directional derivative
of f along the vector
 \vec{v} (at \vec{x}_0)"

★ Note: Stewart requires that $|\vec{v}|=1$, but I do not.
Non-unit directional derivatives are everywhere
in differential geometry and physics!

The interpretation is the same as in (b) above:

$$(D_{\vec{v}} f)(\vec{x}_0)$$

velocity of output change

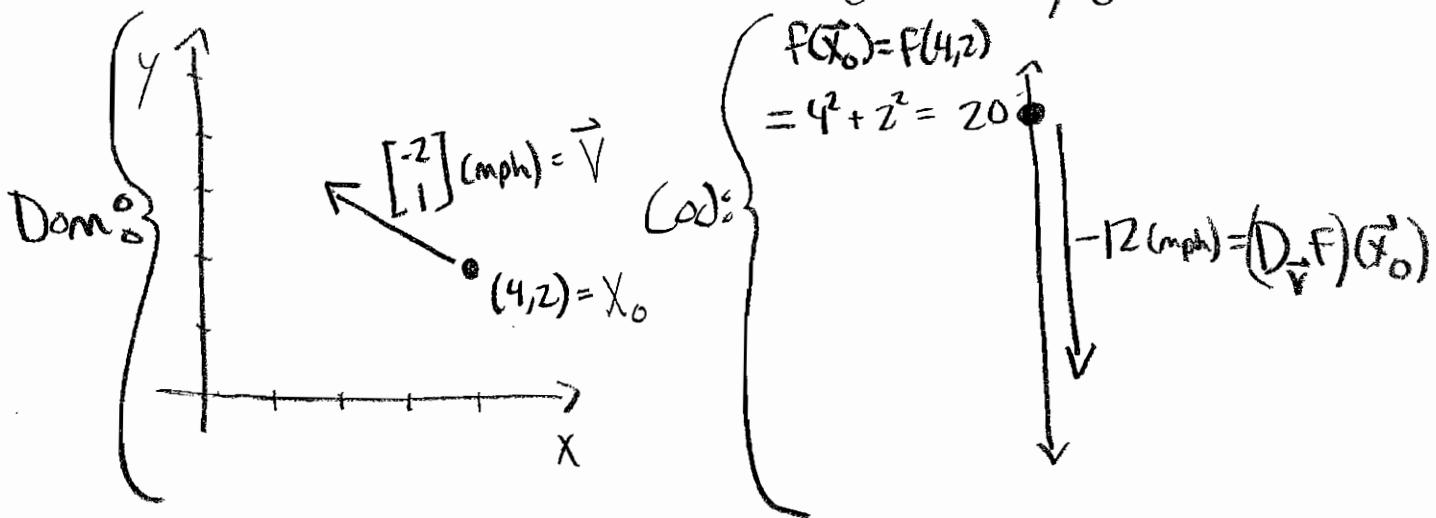
input

velocity of input change

Example 3 | $f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$, $\vec{x}_0 = (4,2)$, and $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\begin{aligned} (D_{\begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}} f)(4,2) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f\left(\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} h\right) - f\left(\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}\right)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{[(4-2h)^2 + (2+h)^2] - [4^2 + 2^2]}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-16h + 4h^2 + 4h + h^2}{h} = \boxed{-12} \end{aligned}$$

Here is the corresponding picture of the input, input change velocity, and output change velocity.



When \vec{v} is a unit vector, Stewart 14.3 gives a nice description of $(D_{\vec{v}} f)(\vec{x}_0)$ in terms of graph slopes, which I also recommend reading. But don't forget, slope is not the only way to think of derivatives!



One advantage of allowing non-unit directional derivatives is that we can write formulas such as

$$\begin{array}{l} D_{\vec{u}+\vec{v}} f = D_{\vec{u}} f + D_{\vec{v}} f \\ \text{and } D_c \vec{v} f = c D_{\vec{v}} f \end{array} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{"linearity" of} \\ \text{directional} \\ \text{derivatives} \end{array} \right\}$$

which are in fact true! These identities

are very important in physics and differential geometry. They will also help to understand the relationship between the "gradient" and directional derivatives.



Notes on partial derivatives, Stewart 14.3

A.1 of 3

[Andrew Critch, Math 53, 2009 Summer]

Partial derivatives are a special case of directional derivatives! Just as in \mathbb{R}^1 , our favorite direction is $+1$, in \mathbb{R}^2 our favorites are $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{i}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{j}$, and in \mathbb{R}^3 we like $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{i}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{j}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{k}$, etc.

We define the partial derivative of f "in the x direction" or "with respect to x " by

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f = D_{\hat{i}} f, \text{ and similarly } \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f = D_{\hat{j}} f, \text{ etc.}$$

So, if $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$, we have

$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f)(x_0, y_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} h\right) - f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix}\right)}{h}$$

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

(direct definition)

This is just a single-variable derivative with a " y_0 " in it!

Thus, $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f$ is computed by "holding y constant." After all, changing the input in the $\vec{v} = [1 \ 0]$ direction does not change its y -value!

Examples 1 $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (3x^2 y) = 6xy$ } hold y constant } compare $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(3x^2 \cdot 5) = 6x \cdot 5$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(e^{xy}) = xe^{xy}$$

etc.

} compare $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(e^y) = 2e^y$

Notation For brevity (and sanity!), we write f_x in place of $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$, and $(f_x)_y = f_{xy}$ in place of $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f)$. Note in the shorthand, the differentiations are written "from left to right." Other notations:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}, \text{ etc.}$$

In "nice" situations, the order of differentiation in fact does not matter!

Clairaut's Theorem If f_{xy} and f_{yx} (exist and) are continuous at

a given input, then

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

at that input.

Similarly, if for example f_{xxyz} and f_{zxyx} (exist and) are continuous at an input, they are equal at that input.

Note: There is nothing special about the x, y and z directions here! Derivatives such as $D_{\vec{u}}(D_{\vec{v}}f)$ and $D_{\vec{v}}(D_{\vec{u}}f)$ will agree in the same way.

