

Lecture Notes: Tangent and Gradient

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Let $p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)$ be a point in \mathbb{R}^d . We will often view it as a d -dimensional vector $[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d]$. As a convention, if it has been clear from the context that p is a point, then \mathbf{p} represents this corresponding vector.

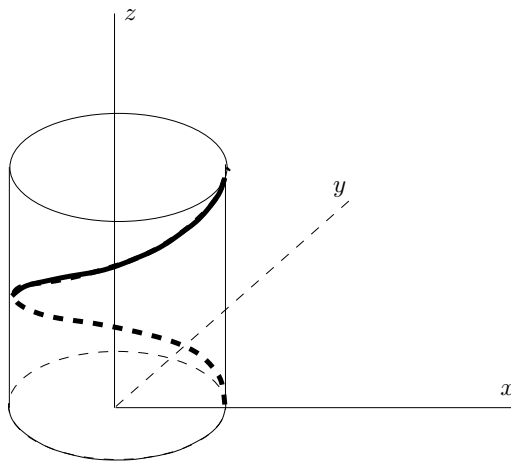
1 Curves and Tangent Vectors

Curves. Imagine that you move a point around in \mathbb{R}^d . The locus of the point forms a *curve*. Intuitively, a curve is a 1d geometric object. Indeed, we can represent a curve using a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$:

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = [x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_d(t)]$$

where t is a real value in a certain range, and each function $x_i(t)$ (with $i \in [1, d]$) returns a real value. For each t , $(x_1(t), \dots, x_d(t))$ defines a point, and $\mathbf{r}(t)$ gives the corresponding vector.

For example, $\mathbf{r}(t) = [\cos t, \sin t]$ for $t \in [0, 2\pi)$ defines a circle in \mathbb{R}^2 , whereas $\mathbf{r}(t) = [\cos t, \sin t, t]$ for $t \in [0, 2\pi)$ defines a circular helix in \mathbb{R}^3 as shown below:

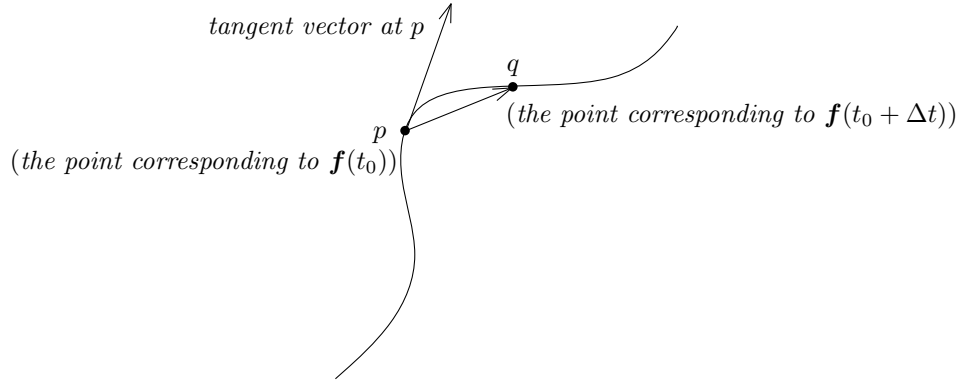


As yet another example, given constant d -dimensional vectors \mathbf{p} and \mathbf{q} with $\mathbf{q} \neq \mathbf{0}$, function $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{p} + t\mathbf{q}$ for $t \in (-\infty, \infty)$ gives a line in \mathbb{R}^d .

Tangent Vectors. We are ready to introduce:

Definition 1. Let $\mathbf{r}(t)$ be a curve, t_0 be a value of t , and p be the point corresponding to $\mathbf{r}(t_0)$. If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is differentiable at t_0 , then the vector $\mathbf{r}'(t_0)$ is the **tangent vector** of the curve at p .

The tangent vector has an intuitive geometric interpretation. Let q be the point that corresponds to $\mathbf{f}(t_0 + \Delta t)$; see the figure below. Let us focus on the direction of the directed segment $\overrightarrow{p, q}$. Now, imagine q moving along the curve towards p (namely, Δt tends to 0). The direction of the directed segment gradually converges to the direction of the tangent vector at p .



We will refer to

$$\mathbf{u}(t_0) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

as the *unit tangent vector* of the curve at p . Note that $|\mathbf{u}(t_0)| = 1$.

As an example, consider the helix mentioned earlier: $\mathbf{r}(t) = [\cos t, \sin t, t]$ for $t \in [0, 2\pi)$. Let p be the point corresponding to $\mathbf{r}(1)$. Then, the tangent vector of the curve at p is $\mathbf{r}'(1) = [-\sin(1), \cos(1), 1]$. The unit tangent vector at p is therefore $[-\frac{\sin(1)}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{\cos(1)}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}]$.

2 Gradient

Let $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)$ be a scalar function of real-valued parameters x_1, \dots, x_d . In other words, for each point $p(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ of \mathbb{R}^d , $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)$ returns a real value, if it is defined at p . For simplicity, sometimes we may write $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)$ simply as $f(p)$. Next, we introduce a concept called *gradient* for such functions:

Definition 2. Let $f(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ be a function defined as above. Consider a point (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_d) at which the partial derivative $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(t_1, \dots, t_d)$ exists for all $i \in [1, d]$. Then, the **gradient** of $f(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ at (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_d) is the vector:

$$\nabla f(t_1, \dots, t_d) = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(t_1, \dots, t_d), \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}(t_1, \dots, t_d), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d}(t_1, \dots, t_d) \right].$$

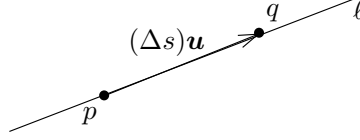
For example, suppose that $f(x, y, z) = x^3 + 2xy + 3xz^2$. We know that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 3x^2 + 2y + 3z^2$, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2x$, and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = 6x$. Therefore,

$$\nabla f(t_1, t_2, t_3) = [3t_1^2 + 2t_2 + 3t_3^2, 2t_1, 6t_1].$$

We can as well just write the gradient as $\nabla f(x, y, z) = [3x^2 + 2y + 3z^2, 2x, 6x]$ by renaming the variables.

The gradient $\nabla f(t_1, \dots, t_d)$ has an important geometric interpretation. Imagine that we are standing at the point $p(t_1, \dots, t_d)$. Then the gradient points to the direction we should move in order to increase the value of function $f(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ the *most*. Next, we will formalize the intuition.

Suppose that we decide to move from p towards the direction of a unit vector \mathbf{u} by a distance Δs . Let q be the point we will reach, as shown below:



We now prove an important lemma:

Lemma 1.

$$\lim_{\Delta s \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(q) - f(p)}{\Delta s} = (\nabla f(p)) \cdot \mathbf{u}. \quad (1)$$

Proof. Suppose that $\mathbf{u} = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_d]$, and the coordinates of p are (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_d) .

Let ℓ be the line that passes p and q . We know that we can represent any point on ℓ as $(x_1(s), x_2(s), \dots, x_d(s))$, where for all $i \in [1, d]$:

$$x_i(s) = t_i + s \cdot u_i.$$

In particular, if $s = 0$, the above representation gives p , whereas if $s = \Delta s$, the above representation gives q .

Define $g(s)$ to be the $f(x_1(s), \dots, x_d(s))$. We can re-write the left hand side of (1) as:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\Delta s \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(q) - f(p)}{\Delta s} &= \lim_{\Delta s \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(\Delta s) - g(0)}{\Delta s} \\ (\text{by def. of derivative}) &= g'(0). \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, applying the chain rule, we know:

$$\begin{aligned} g'(s) &= \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x_1(s), \dots, x_d(s)) \frac{dx_i}{ds} \\ &= \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x_1(s), \dots, x_d(s)), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d}(x_1(s), \dots, x_d(s)) \right] \cdot [x'_1(s), \dots, x'_d(s)] \\ &= (\nabla f(x_1(s), \dots, x_d(s))) \cdot [u_1, \dots, u_d] \\ &= (\nabla f(x_1(s), \dots, x_d(s))) \cdot \mathbf{u}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $g'(0) = (\nabla f(x_1(0), \dots, x_d(0))) \cdot \mathbf{u} = (\nabla f(p)) \cdot \mathbf{u}$. □

As a corollary of the above lemma, we obtain

$$\lim_{\Delta s \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(q) - f(p)}{\Delta s} = |\nabla f(p)| |\mathbf{u}| \cos \gamma.$$

where γ is the angle between the directions of $\nabla f(p)$ and \mathbf{u} . Hence, the limit is maximized if $\gamma = 0$, namely, \mathbf{u} has the same direction as $\nabla f(p)$.

It is worth mentioning that the limit on the left hand side of (1) is called the *directional derivative* in the direction of \mathbf{u} , and is denoted as $D_{\mathbf{u}}f$. Note that this is a function of p . In other words, $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(p)$ gives the directional derivative in the direction of \mathbf{u} at point p .