Reminder: Euclidean spaces

- We work in n-dimensional space $x=(x_1,x_2,...,x_n).$
- 2D: $v = (x_1, x_2) = (x, y)$
- 3D: $v = (x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x, y, z)$

Scalar product

If we have $x = (x_1, ..., x_n)$ and $y = (y_1, ..., y_n)$, then:

$$x \cdot y = \langle x, y \rangle = x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n$$

Cross product (3D)

$$x = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$$

$$y = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$$

$$x \times y = (x_2y_3 - x_3y_2, x_3y_1 - x_1y_3, x_1y_2 - x_2y_1)$$

Scalar Field

A scalar field

$$F: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}, x \to F(x)$$

assigns a scalar value to every point.

Examples: temperature, chemical concentration, pressure, probability distribution.

Given a scalar field $F^n \to \mathbb{R}$, the level set of the value $c \in \mathbb{R}$ is:

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(x) = c\}$$

Vector Field

A vector field assigns a vector to each point in space:

$$F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n, x \to (F_1(x), ..., F_n(x))$$

Examples:

- $$\begin{split} & \bullet \quad F: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2, (x_1, x_2) \to (-x_2, x_1) \\ & \bullet \quad F: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2, (x_1, x_2) \to (2x_1, x_2 + x_3, x_1 x_2 x_3) \end{split}$$

How to visualize vector fields? Put one arrow for each point in space.

- · constant vector field
- · rotational vector field
- · source vector field

Gradient, Hessian, Laplacian

If $F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is a scalar field, then the gradient is the vector field

$$\nabla F = (\partial x_1 f, \partial x_2 f, ..., \partial x_n f)$$

$$\nabla = \begin{pmatrix} \partial x_1 \\ \partial x_2 \\ \dots \\ \partial x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\operatorname{grad} f = \nabla f = \begin{pmatrix} \partial x_1 f \\ \partial x_2 f \\ \dots \\ \partial x_n f \end{pmatrix}$$

Example:

$$f(x_1,x_2) = x_1^3 + x_1 x_2^5$$

$$\nabla f(x_1,x_2) = \left(3x_1^2 + x_2^5, x_1 \cdot 5x_2^4\right)$$

- Geometrically, ∇f points in the direction of the steepest increase of f
- The directional derivative of f in direction $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is:

$$D_v f = \nabla f \cdot v = \partial x_1 f \cdot v + \ldots + \partial x_n f \cdot v_n$$

The value $D_v f$ tells us how f changes as we move in direction v.

• Along any level set line, the gradient is orthogonal.

Example:

$$f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$$

$$\nabla f(x_1, x_2) = (2x_1, 2x_2)$$

Level set of c = 1.

If $F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is a scalar field, then the Hessian of f is a matrix field:

$$\nabla^2 f = \begin{pmatrix} \partial_1 \partial_1 f & \partial_1 \partial_2 f & \dots & \partial_1 \partial_n f \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \partial_n \partial_1 f & \dots & \dots & \partial_n \partial_n f \end{pmatrix}$$

- The Hessian is symmetric if all 2nd directives are continuous
- Physical/geometric interpretation contains information on the curvature of the scalar field

If $F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is a scalar field, then the Laplacian of f is the scalar field:

$$\Delta f = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \partial_i \partial_i f = \partial_i \partial_i f + \partial_2 \partial_2 f + \dots + \partial_n \partial_n f$$

- · Sum of the diagonal entries of the Hessian
- Physically relevant in modeling diffusion

Poisson problem : $-\Delta u = f$ (u is an unknown scalar field, while f is known, it's a differential equation).

Example:

$$f(x, y, z) = xy^3 e^z$$

$$\nabla f(x) = (y^3 e^z, 3xy^2 e^z, xy^3 e^z)$$

$$\partial x \partial x f = 0$$

$$\partial x \partial y f = 3y^2 e^z$$

$$\partial x \partial z f = y^3 e^z$$

$$\partial y \partial y f = 6xy e^z$$

$$\partial y \partial z f = 3xy^2 e^z$$

$$\partial z \partial z f = xy^3 e^z$$

$$\nabla^2 f = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3y^2 e^z & y^3 e^z \\ 3y^2 e^z & 6xy e^z & 3xy^2 e^z \\ y^3 e^z & 3xy^2 e^z & xy^3 e^z \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Delta f = 0 + 6xy e^z + xy^3 e^z = e^z xy(6 + y^2)$$

Example:

$$F(x) = \|x\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

First partial derivatives:

$$\partial_i F(x) = \partial_i \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \cdot 2x_i = \frac{1}{\|x\|} x_i = \frac{x_i}{\|x\|}$$

Notice the singularity at x = 0. It looks like the gradient is not defined but in fact it can be removed by continuous extension of the first derivatives.

Second partial derivatives (case disjunction):

$$\begin{split} \partial_i \partial_i f(x) &= \partial_i \bigg(\frac{x_i}{\|x\|} \bigg) = \partial_i \big(x_i \cdot \|x\|^{-1} \big) = \frac{1}{\|x\|} + x_i \cdot \bigg(-\frac{1}{\|x\|^2} (\partial_i \ \|x\|) \bigg) \\ &= \frac{1}{\|x\|} + x_i \cdot -\frac{1}{\|x\|^2} \cdot \frac{x_i}{\|x\|} = \frac{1}{\|x\|} - x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\|x\|^3} \\ \partial_j \partial_i f(x) &= \partial_j \bigg(\frac{x_i}{\|x\|} \bigg) = 0 + x_i \cdot -\frac{1}{\|x\|^2} \big(\partial_j \ \|x\| \big) = x_i \cdot -\frac{1}{\|x\|^2} \frac{x_j}{\|x\|} = \frac{-x_i x_j}{\|x\|^3} \end{split}$$

All partial derivatives of order 2, we can build the Hessiam matrix.

We want the Laplacian too:

$$\Delta f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \partial_i \partial_i f(x) = \sum_{i=i}^{n} \frac{1}{\|x\|} - \frac{x_i^2}{\|x\|^3} = \frac{n}{\|x\|} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2}{\|x\|^3}$$

$$= \frac{n}{\|x\|} - \frac{\|x\|^2}{\|x\|^3} = \frac{n-1}{\|x\|}$$

Divergence

Given a vector field $F:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}^n, x\to \left(F_1(x),...,F_{n(x)}\right)$

The divergence is the vector field:

$$\mathrm{div}\ F = \sum_{i=1}^n \partial_i F_i = \partial_1 F_1 + \partial_2 F_2 + \ldots + \partial_n F_n$$

- formally, div $F = \nabla \cdot F$
- the Laplacian is the divergence of the gradient: $\Delta F = {\rm div} \ \nabla F$

Example:

$$\mathrm{div}\,\left(x_1^2x_2,x_2^3,e^{x_3}\right) = 2x_1x_2 + 3x_2^2 + e^{x_3}$$

Rotation or curl of vector fields

If $F:\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ is a 3D vector field, $F=(F_1,F_2,F_3)$, then the curl/rotation is a 3D vector field:

$$\operatorname{curl} F = \operatorname{rot} F = \begin{pmatrix} -\partial_3 F_2 + \partial_2 F_3 \\ -\partial_1 F_3 + \partial_3 F_1 \\ -\partial_2 F_1 + \partial_1 F_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Formally, curl $F = \nabla \times F$.

Only works in 3D. There is a rotation in 2D:

If $F: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ is a 2D vector fireld, then the rotation/curl of F is a scalar field.

curl
$$F = \text{rot } F = -\partial_2 F_1 + \partial_1 F_2$$

Motivation: we formally extend the vector field with a third coordinate $F_3 = 0$.

$$\tilde{F} = \begin{pmatrix} F_1 \\ F_2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \operatorname{curl} F = \begin{pmatrix} -\partial_3 F_2 + \partial_2 F_3 \\ -\partial_1 F_3 + \partial_3 F_1 \\ -\partial_2 F_1 + \partial_1 F_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -\partial_2 F_1 + \partial_1 F_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Examples: the divergence measures the presence of sinks and sources ("puits et sources"), while rotation measures the presence of a spin.

Curve

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \text{integrate f over interval } [a, b]$$

Now we generalize this:

$$\int_{\gamma} f dl = \text{integrate f over curve } \gamma$$



A curve is a function

$$\gamma:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^n, t\to\gamma(t)$$

We may also think as $\gamma(t)$ as a position in time. The image of $\gamma(t)$ is written $\Gamma(t)$.

Some examples:

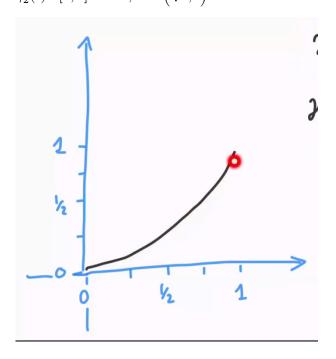
 $\gamma(t):[0,T]\to\mathbb{R}^3$ can be the 3D position of a drone flying.

 $\gamma(t):[0,1] \to \mathbb{R}^2$ can be the position at t% of a car travel on a map.

 $\gamma(t):[0,2\pi]\to\mathbb{R}^2, t\to(\cos(t),\sin(t))$ is the parametrization of the unit circle (as t progresses, we travel the unit circle).

Two functions can represent the same curve!

$$\begin{split} \gamma_1(t): [0,1] &\to \mathbb{R}^2, t \to \left(t, t^2\right) \\ \gamma_2(t): [0,1] &\to \mathbb{R}^2, t \to \left(\sqrt{t}, t\right) \end{split}$$



Notions and definitions

We call a curve

$$\gamma(t):[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^n, t\to \left(\gamma_1(t),\gamma_2(t),...,\gamma_{n(t)}\right)$$

• **simple**: if it does not self-intersect (formally, $\gamma : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is injective)

• closed: if $\gamma(a) = \gamma(b)$

- differentiable if $\gamma_1(t),...,\gamma_{n(t)}$ are differentiable

• **regular** if the curve is differentiable and the vector $\forall t \left(\gamma_1(t), ..., \gamma_{n(t)} \right) \neq \vec{0}$ (the derivatives are never 0 all together). It means that curve never comes to a full stop, they always keep moving.

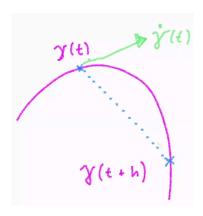
Tangential vectors and speed

The tangent vector of a curve $\gamma(t)$ is: $\dot{\gamma(t)} = \left(\dot{\gamma_1(t)},...,\dot{\gamma_2(t)}\right)$ and the speed is: $|\dot{\gamma(t)}| = \sqrt{\left(\dot{\gamma_1(t)}^2,...,\dot{\gamma_2(t)}^2\right)}$



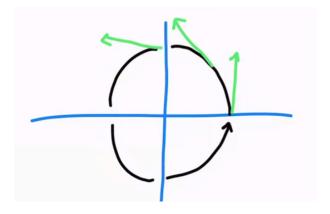
Similar to the definition of the derivative:

$$\dot{\gamma(t)} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\gamma(t+h) - \gamma(t)}{h}$$

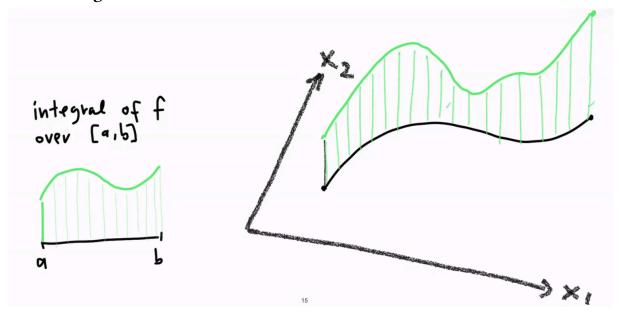


Example:

$$\begin{split} \gamma &: [0, 2\pi] \to \mathbb{R}^2, t \to (\cos(t), \sin(t)) \\ \gamma \dot(t) &= (-\sin(t), \cos(t)) \end{split}$$



Curve Integrals



Let $\gamma:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be a curve Let $f:\mathbb{R}^n \to R$ be a scalar field

The integral of f over Γ is:

$$\begin{split} &\int_{\Gamma} f dl \coloneqq \int_{a}^{b} (f \circ \gamma)(t) \ |\gamma\dot(t)| \ dt \\ &= \int_{a}^{b} (f \circ \gamma)(t) \sqrt{\left(\gamma_1\dot(t)^2 + \ldots + \gamma_{n(t)}^2\right)} dt \end{split}$$

The curve integral only depends on the curve Γ , not γ (which is what we want, we need the curve, not the parametrization, see eg. where we had 2 functions for one curve).

- where γ is slow, $\dot{\gamma}$ is small
- where γ is fast, $\dot{\gamma}$ is large

En fait si la fonction va très lentement, on va "utiliser" une grande partie de notre portion de a vers b pour la tracer, mais on réduit dcp le facteur.

If $\gamma:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^n$ is a simple regular curve, then $\int_\Gamma Fdl$ only depends on $\Gamma.$

And it should! After all, γ is just a parametrization and Γ is the "physical" object.