MA 105: D3 Lecture 15

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September 11, 2023

The Chain Rule

The Chain Rule and gradients

Problems involving the gradient

The total derivative for $f : U \to \mathbb{R}^n$

The Chain Rule

We now study the situation where we have composition of functions. We assume that $x, y : I \to \mathbb{R}$ are differentiable functions from some interval (open or closed) to $\mathbb{R}$. Thus the pair $(x(t), y(t))$ defines a function from I to $\mathbb{R}^2$. Suppose we have a function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ which is differentiable. We would like to study the derivative of the composite function $z(t) = f(x(t), y(t))$ from I to $\mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 27: With notation as above

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt}.$$

For a function $w = f(x, y, z)$ in three variables the chain rule takes the form

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}\frac{dz}{dt}$$

Another application: Directional derivatives

Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ and let $f : U \to \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable. We want to relate the directional derivative to the gradient,

We consider the (differentiable) curve $c(t) = (x_0, y_0, z_0) + tv$, where $v = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ is a unit vector. We can rewrite $c(t)$ as $c(t) = (x_0 + tv_1, y_0 + tv_2, z_0 + tv_3)$. We apply the chain rule to compute the derivative of the function $f(c(t))$:

$$\frac{d(f \circ c)}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} v_1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} v_2 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} v_3.$$

But the left hand side is nothing but the directional derivative in the direction v. Hence,

$$\nabla_v f = \frac{d(f \circ c)}{dt} = \nabla f \cdot v.$$

Of course, the same argument works when $U \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ and f is a function of two variables.

The Chain Rule and Gradients

The preceding argument is a special case of a more general fact. Let $c(t)$ be any curve in $\mathbb{R}^3$. Then, clearly by the chain rule we have

$$\frac{d(f \circ c)}{dt} = \nabla f(c(t)) \cdot c'(t).$$

I leave this to you as a simple exercise.

Going back to the directional derivative, we can ask ourselves the following question. In what direction is f changing fastest at a given point (x_0, y_0, z_0)? In other words, in which direction does the directional derivative attain its largest value?

Using what we have just learnt, we are looking for a unit vector $v = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ such that

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) \cdot v$$

is as large as possible

We rewrite the preceding dot product as

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) \cdot v = \|\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)\| \|v\| \cos\theta.$$

where θ is the angle between v and $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$.
Since v is a unit vector this gives

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) \cdot v = \|\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)\| \cos\theta.$$

The maximum value on the right hand side is obviously attained when $\theta = 0$, that is, when v points in the direction of ∇f. In other words the function is increasing fastest in the direction v given by ∇f. Thus the unit vector that we seek is

$$v = \frac{\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)}{\|\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)\|}.$$

Surfaces defined implicitly

So far we have only been considering surfaces of the form $z = f(x, y)$, where f was a function on a subset of $\mathbb{R}^2$. We now consider a more general type of surface S defined implicitly:

$$S = \{(x, y, z) \mid f(x, y, z) = b\},$$

where b is a constant. Most surfaces we have come across are usually described in this form, for instance, the sphere which is given by $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = r^2$ or the right circular cone $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 0$. Let us try to understand what a tangent plane is more precisely.

If S is a surface, a tangent plane to S at a point $s \in S$ (if it exists) is a plane that contains the tangent lines at s to all curves passing through s and lying on S.

For instance, with the definition above, it is clear that a tangent plane to the right circular cone does not exist at the origin, since such a plane would have to contain the lines $x = 0, y = z$, $x = 0, y = -z$ and $y = 0, x = z$. Clearly no such plane exists.

If $c(t)$ is an curve on the surface S given by $f(x, y, z) = b$, we see that

$$\frac{d}{dt}(f \circ c)(t)) = 0.$$

On the other hand, by the chain rule,

$$0 = \frac{d}{dt}(f \circ c)(t)) = \nabla f(c(t)) \cdot c'(t).$$

Thus, if $s = c(t_0)$ is a point on the surface, we see that

$$\nabla f(c(t_0)) \cdot c'(t_0) = 0,$$

for every curve $c(t)$ on the surface S passing through t_0. Hence, if $\nabla f(c(t_0)) \neq 0$, then $\nabla f(c(t_0))$ is perpendicular to the tangent plane of S at s_0.

Let $\mathbf{r}$ denote the position vector

$$x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k},$$

of a point $P = (x, y, z)$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$. Instead of writing $\|\mathbf{r}\|$, it is customary to write r. This notation is very useful. For instance, Newton's Law of Gravitation can be expressed as

$$\mathbf{F} = -\frac{GMm}{r^3} \cdot \mathbf{r},$$

where the mass M is assumed to be at the origin, $\mathbf{r}$ denotes the position vector of the mass m, G is a constant and $\mathbf{F}$ denotes the gravitational force between the two (point) masses.

A simple computation shows that

$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = -\frac{\mathbf{r}}{r^3}.$$

Thus the gravitational force at any point can be expressed as the gradient of a function. Moreover, it is clear that

$$\left\| \nabla \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) \right\| = \left\| -\frac{\mathbf{r}}{r^3} \right\| = \frac{1}{r^2}.$$

Keeping our previous discussion in mind, we know that if $V = GMm/r$, $\mathbf{F} = \nabla V$.

What are the level surfaces of V? Clearly, r must be a constant on these level sets, so the level surfaces are spheres. Since $\mathbf{F}$ is a multiple of $-\mathbf{r}$, we see that F points towards the origin and is thus orthogonal to the sphere.

In order to make our notation less cumbersome, we introduce the notation f_x for the partial derivative $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$. The notations f_y and f_z will have the obvious meanings.

Since we know that the gradient of f is normal to the level surface S given by $f(x, y, z) = c$ (provided the gradient is non zero), it allows us to write down the equation of the tangent plane of S at the point $s = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$. The equation of this plane is

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

For the curve $f(x, y) = c$ we can similarly write down the equation of the tangent passing through (x_0, y_0):

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

Note that the fact that the gradient of f is normal to the level surface $f(x, y, z) = c$ is true only for implicitly defined surfaces. If the surface is given as $z = f(x, y)$, then we cannot simply take the gradient of f and make the same statement. We must first convert our explicit surface to the implicit surface S given by $g(x, y, z) = z - f(x, y) = 0$. Then ∇g will be normal to S.

Problems involving the gradient, continued

Exercise 3: Find $\nabla_u F(2,2,1)$ where $\nabla_u F$ denotes the directional derivative of the function $F(x,y,z) = 3x - 5y + 2z$ and u is the unit vector in the outward normal to the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$ at the point $(2,2,1)$.

Solution: The unit outward normal to the sphere $g(x,y,z) = 9$ at $(2,2,1)$ is given by

$$\frac{\nabla g(2,2,1)}{\|\nabla g(2,2,1)\|}.$$

We see that $\nabla g(2,1,1) = (4,4,2)$ so the corresponding unit vector is $(2,2,1)/3$.

To get the directional derivative we simply take the dot product of ∇F with u:

$$(3,-5,2) \cdot (2,2,1)/3 = -2/3$$

Comments: Also, there is no need to compute the gradient to find the normal vector to the sphere - it is obviously the radial vector at the point $(2,2,1)$!.

Problems involving the gradient, continued

Exercise 4: Find the equations of the tangent plane and the normal line to the surface

$$F(x, y, z) := x^2 + 2xy - y^2 + z^2 = 7$$

at $(1, -1, 3)$.

Solution: We first compute the gradient of F to get $\nabla F(x, y, z) = (2x + 2y, 2x - 2y, 2z)$. At $(1, -1, 3)$, this yields the vector $\lambda(0, 4, 6)$ which is normal to the given surface at $(1, -1, 3)$. By taking $\lambda = 1$, we see that the point $(1, 3, 9)$ also lies on the normal line so its equations are

$$x = 1, \frac{y + 1}{4} = \frac{z - 3}{6}.$$

The equation of the tangent plane is given by

$$4(y + 1) + 6(z - 3) = 0,$$

since it consists of all lines orthogonal to the normal and passing through the point $(1, -1, 3)$.

The proof of the chain rule

How does one actually prove the chain rule for a function $f(x, y)$ of two variables? We can write

$$f(x(t+h), y(t+h)) = f(x(t)+h[x'(t)+p_1(h)], y(t)+h[y'(t)+p_2(h)])$$

for functions p_1 and p_2 that go to zero as h goes to zero. Here we are simply using the differentiability of x and y as functions of t. Now we can write the right hand side as

$$f(x(t), y(t))+Df(x, y)(h[x'(t)+p_1(h)], h[y'(t)+p_2(h)])^T+p_3(h)h,$$

(where T denotes transpose, so we get a column vector) by using the differentiability of f, for some other function $p_3(h)$ which goes to zero as h goes to zero (you may need to think about this step a little).

Remember that ∇f is the same as Df, just written as a row vector rather than as a matrix. Multiplying a 1×2 matrix by a 2×1 column vector is the same as taking the dot product of the two, thinking of both of them as row vectors.

It is not too hard to figure out what $p_3(h)$ above is. This gives

$$f(x(t+h), y(t+h)) - f(x(t), y(t)) - f_x x'(t)h - f_y y'(t)h = p(h)h,$$

for some function $p(h)$ with $\lim_{h\to 0} p(h)$.

Functions from $\mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$

So far we have only studied functions whose range was a subset of $\mathbb{R}$. Let us now allow the range to be $\mathbb{R}^n$, $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$. Can we understand what continuity, differentiability etc. mean?

Let U be a subset of $\mathbb{R}^m$ ($m = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$) and let $f : U \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be a function. If $x = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m) \in U$, $f(x)$ will be an n-tuple where each coordinate is a function of x. Thus, we can write $f(x) = (f_1(x), f_2(x), \ldots, f_n(x))$, where each $f_i(x)$ is a function from U to $\mathbb{R}$.

Functions which take values in $\mathbb{R}$ are called scalar valued functions, which functions which take values in $\mathbb{R}^n$, $n > 1$ are usually called vector valued functions.

For $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we define

$$\|x\|_n = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}.$$

Sometimes we will omit the subscript and write $\|x\|$ for $\|x\|_n$.

Continuity of vector valued functions

The definition of continuity is exactly the same as before.
Definition: The function f is said to be continuous at a point $c \in U$ if

$$\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = f(c).$$

How does one define the limit on the left hand side? The function f takes values in $\mathbb{R}^n$, so its limit must be a point in $\mathbb{R}^n$, say $l = (l_1, l_2, \ldots, l_n)$.

Definition: We say that $f(x)$ tends to the limit l if given any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if $0 < \|x - c\|_m < \delta$, then

$$\|f(x) - l\|_n < \epsilon.$$

You can easily prove the following theorem yourself:

Theorem: The function $f : U \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is continuous if and only if each of the functions $f_i : U \to \mathbb{R}$, $1 \le i \le n$, is continuous.

The derivative for $f : U \to \mathbb{R}^n$

We now define the derivative for a function $f : U \to \mathbb{R}^n$, where U is a subset of $\mathbb{R}^m$.

The function f is said to be differentiable at a point x if there exists an $n \times m$ matrix $Df(x)$ such that

$$\lim_{\|h\| \to 0} \frac{\|f(x+h) - f(x) - Df(x) \cdot h\|}{\|h\|} = 0.$$

Here $x = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m)$ and $h = (h_1, h_2, \ldots h_m)$ are vectors in $\mathbb{R}^m$.

The matrix $Df(x)$ is usually called the total derivative of f. It is also referred to as the Jacobian matrix. What are its entries?

From our experience in the 2×1 case we might guess (correctly!) that the entries will be the partial derivatives.

Here is the total derivative or the derivative matrix written out fully.

$$Df(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(x) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}(x) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_m}(x) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}(x) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}(x) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_m}(x) \\ . & . & \cdots & . \\ . & . & \cdots & . \\ . & . & \cdots & . \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1}(x) & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_2}(x) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_m}(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

In the 2×2 case we get

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(x) & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}(x) \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}(x) & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}(x) \end{pmatrix}.$$

As before, the derivative may be viewed as a linear map, this time from $\mathbb{R}^m$ to $\mathbb{R}^n$ (or, in the case just above, from $\mathbb{R}^2$ to $\mathbb{R}^2$).

Rules for the total derivative

Just like in the one variable case, it is easy to prove that

$$D(f+g)(x) = Df(x) + Dg(x).$$

Somewhat harder, but only because the notation gets more cumbersome, is the Chain rule:

$$D(f \circ g)(x) = Df(g(x)) \circ Dg(x),$$

where $\circ$ on the right hand side denotes matrix multiplication. Theorem 26 holds in this greater generality - a function from $\mathbb{R}^m$ to $\mathbb{R}^n$ is differentiable at a point x_0 if all the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$ $1 \leq i \leq n$, $1 \leq j \leq m$, are continuous in a neighborhood of x_0 (define a neighborhood of x_0 in $\mathbb{R}^m$!).