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model 2

1.10.52.

Jacobian applied

Here we going to extend the concept of the Jacobian from vectors up to matrices

which will allow us to describe the rate of change of a vector valued function.

However, before we do it, we first need to recap what we have learned so far about Jacobian to another simple system.

Consider the function:

$$f(x, y) = e^{-(x^2+y^2)}$$

Using our knowledge of partial differentiation:

(2)

its fairly straightforward to find the Jacobian (partial) vector

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} -2xe^{-(x^2+y^2)}, -2ye^{-(x^2+y^2)} \end{bmatrix}$$

We now going to do the reverse of our approach of last time, and start by looking at the vector fields of the Jacobian

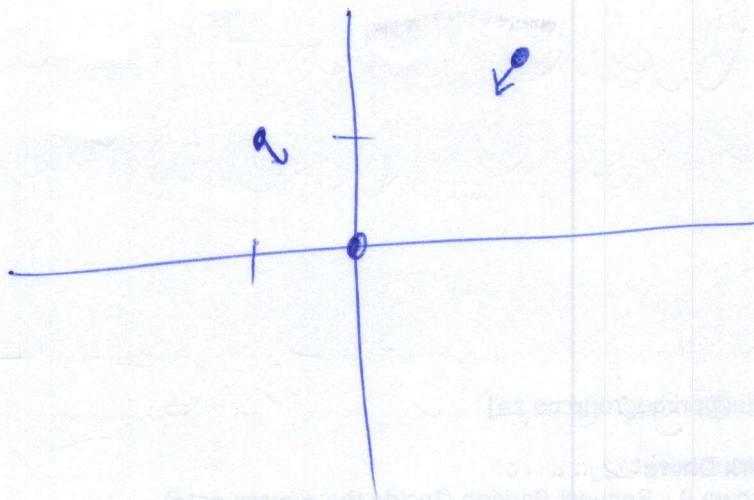
Then see if we can understand how function must look.

Let start by finding the Jacobian at a few specific points:

Firstly Point: (1, -1)

$$\begin{aligned} J(1, -1) &= \begin{bmatrix} -2(-1)e^{-((-1)^2+1^2)}, -2(1)e^{-1(-1)^2+2^2} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 2e^{-1}, 2e^{-2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.27, 0.27 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

③



Substituting these coordinates into our function expression, and simplifying it, we can see a vector pointing directly towards the origin

If we move further out to point $(2,2)$

$J(2,2) = [-0.001, -0.001]$, much smaller vector, but still pointing toward origin

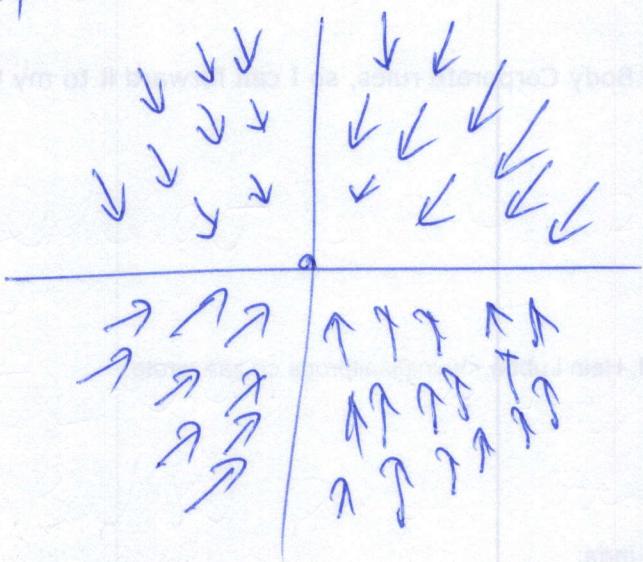
$J(0,0)$, lets look at the origin. Help

$J(0,0) = [0,0]$, suggesting the function is flat

With most mean 1 of 3 things:

- either points to a maximum, minimum or
- something call a Saddle

However, if we reveal the rest of the Jacobian vector field, it becomes clear that the origin must be maximum of the system



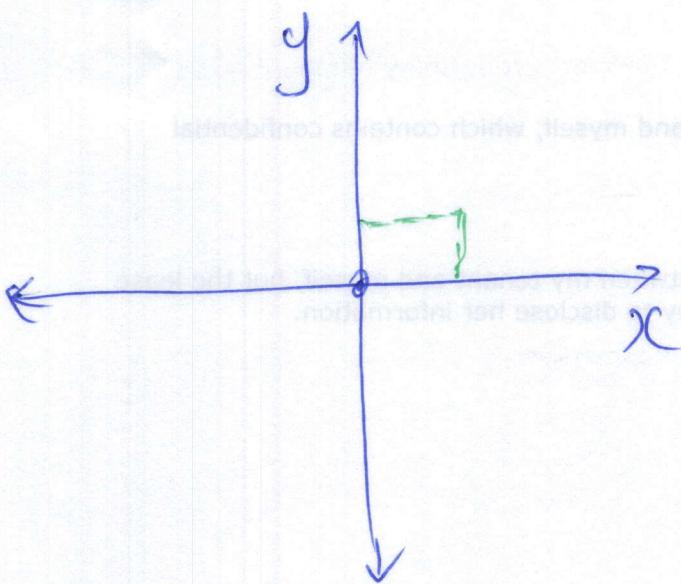
Graphically showing remaining the vector field and observe the function in 3D. (and should match up with our expectations)

5

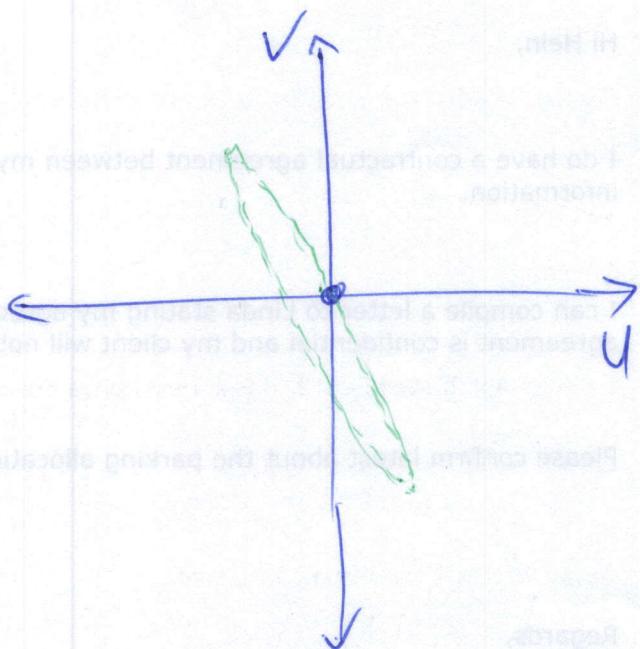
Next: Build a function matrix, which describes functions that takes a vector as input. But unlike all previous examples, also give a vector as the output

Let's consider the two functions:

$$U(x,y) = x - 2y$$



$$V(x,y) = 3y - 2x$$



We can think of these as two(2) vector spaces, one containing vectors with coordinate coordinates in (x,y) and other in (u,v)

Each point in (x, y) has a corresponding \mathbf{z} location in (u, v) ⑥

As we move around in (x, y) space we would expect our corresponding path in (u, v) to be ^{quite} different

Those familiar with LA, will see where this is going... we can make separate raw vectors Jacobians per u and v ,

However, as we considering u and v to be components of a single vector, it makes more sense to extend our Jacobian by stacking these vectors as rows of a matrix:) see - - .

(7)

$$J_u = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$J_v = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

So, that we have the structure and motivation
 for building a Jacobian vector matrix for vector value
 functions, Let's apply it to our example functions
 and see what we get:

$$u(x, y) = x - 2y$$

$$v(x, y) = 3y - 2x$$

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

↑ from above
↓ from above

8

At Jacobian ^{matrix} no longer contains ^{any} variables, which is what we should expect when we consider that both u and v are linear functions of x and y .
 So the gradient must be constant everywhere.

\therefore This matrix is just the linear transformation from x, y space to u, v space

So if we would apply the x, y vector $(2, 3)$ we'll get the following:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

This could well and good, But many of the functions that we will encounter will be highly Non linear, and generally much more complicated, than simple linear example.

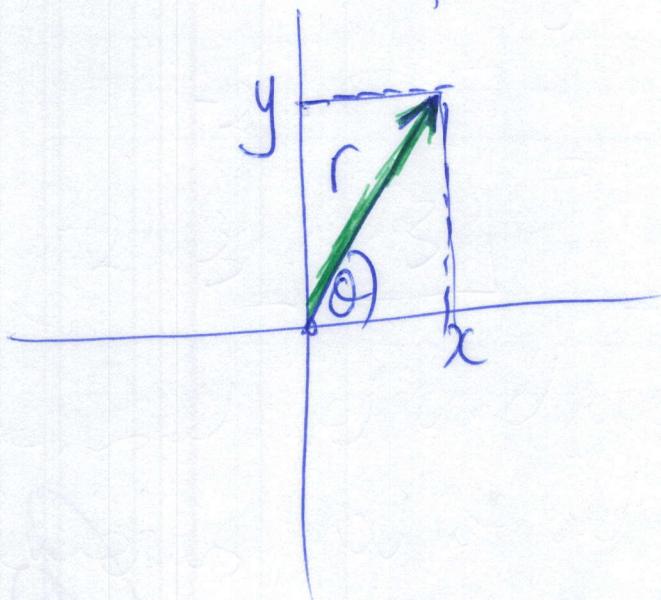
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However, often they may still be smooth
 which means if we zoom in close enough,
 we can consider each ^{little} region of space, to
 be approximately linear
 and therefore by adding up all the contributions
 of the Jacobian determinant at each point
 in space, we can still calculate the
 change in the size of region after
 the transformation

A classical example:

$$x(r, \theta) = r \cos(\theta)$$

$$y(r, \theta) = r \sin(\theta)$$



where we transform between Cartesian and
 polar coordinate systems

⑩

So, if we have a vector, expressed into a radius r , and angle from x axis θ ,
 But we would like it to be expressed into x, y instead.
 we can write the following expression, just
 by thinking about trigonometry. (see above)

Now, we can build the Jacobian matrix, and
 take its determinant:

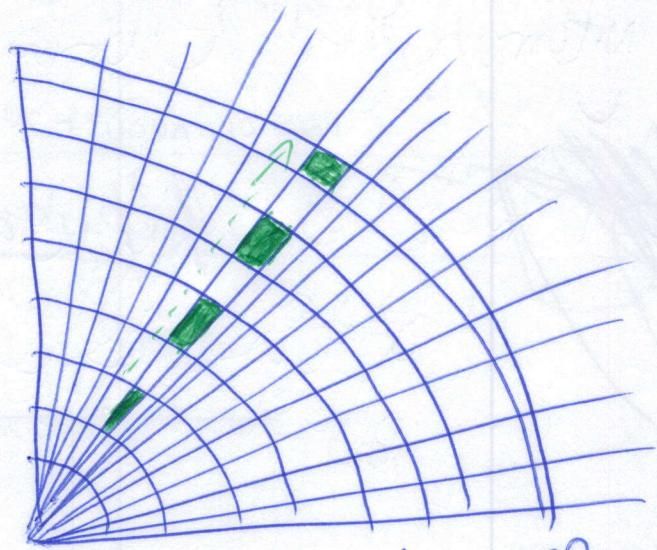
$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -r\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & r\cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|J| = r(\cos^2(\theta) + \sin^2(\theta))$$

$$|J| = r$$

The result is simply the r , and not further θ , tells that as we move along r , away from the origin, small regions of space will scale as a function of r . ①



As depicted by this diagram. . .

$\rightarrow \square \checkmark$