

Supplement to the derivation of Lagrange's method:

Session 12  
March 16, 2020

For a  $C^1$ -function  $G: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , consider the level sets  $S_c = \{ \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : G(\vec{x}) = c \}$ , for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  (all  $\vec{x}$ 's where  $G$  has the constant value  $c$ ; geometrically for  $G: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  this means all  $\vec{x}$  where  $G(\vec{x})$  has the same height w.r.t. the  $x$ - $y$ -plane).

Now let  $\vec{h}(t)$  be any curve in  $S_c$  ( $\vec{h}(t) \in S_c \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$ ).

Claim:  $\vec{\nabla} G(\vec{h}(t)) \cdot \frac{d\vec{h}}{dt} = 0$ , i.e.,  $\vec{\nabla} G$  is orthogonal to  $S_c$  (at any point)

Why?  $G(\vec{h}(t)) = c \forall t \in \mathbb{R}$  by definition ( $\vec{h}$  is a curve in  $S_c$ ).

$$\Rightarrow 0 = \frac{d}{dt} G(\vec{h}(t)) = \vec{\nabla} G(\vec{h}(t)) \cdot \frac{d\vec{h}}{dt}$$

Example: see geogebra picture on the last page

$\hookrightarrow G(x, y) = x^2 + y^3 + 2$ ,  $c = 3$ , i.e., the level set is the intersection of  $G$  with the  $z = 3$ -plane

generally:  $\vec{\nabla} G = \begin{pmatrix} 2x \\ 3y^2 \end{pmatrix}$

e.g., the points  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(0, 1)$ , and  $(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2}})$  are in the level set,  $G = 3$  at all three points

there, we have  $\vec{\nabla} G(1, 0) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\vec{\nabla} G(0, 1) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\vec{\nabla} G(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2}}) = \begin{pmatrix} 2/\sqrt{2} \\ 3/\sqrt[3]{4} \end{pmatrix}$

In the picture one can clearly see how  $\vec{\nabla} G$  is orthogonal to the level set  $G = 3$  at these points.

Back to vector-valued functions...

Recall that for  $\vec{f}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  we define the derivative component-wise:  $\frac{d\vec{f}(t)}{dt} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{df_1(t)}{dt} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{df_n(t)}{dt} \end{pmatrix}$

Note: integration is also defined component-wise:  $\int \vec{f}(t) dt := \begin{pmatrix} \int f_1(t) dt \\ \vdots \\ \int f_n(t) dt \end{pmatrix}$

Ex.: conservation of angular momentum: let  $\frac{d^2 \vec{x}(t)}{dt^2} = \vec{F} = f(|\vec{x}|) \vec{x}$ ,  
Newton's law (mass  $m=1$ )  
force

$\vec{x}(t)$  = particle position,  $\vec{p}(t) = \frac{d\vec{x}(t)}{dt}$  momentum (mass = 1)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \underbrace{(\vec{x}(t) \times \vec{p}(t))}_{\text{cross product}} = \underbrace{\left( \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} \times \vec{p} \right)}_{=\vec{p}} + \underbrace{\left( \vec{x} \times \underbrace{\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}}_{=\vec{F}} \right)}_{=0} = \vec{0} \quad \text{i.e., } \vec{x}(t) \times \vec{p}(t) \text{ does not change in time}$$

$\vec{p} \times \vec{p} = 0$  (cross product of parallel vectors)

$\Rightarrow \vec{x}(t) \times \vec{p}(t) = \vec{x}(0) \times \vec{p}(0)$  is a constant of motion, it is called angular momentum

But in the most general case, we need to consider

$$\vec{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, (x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto \vec{f}(\vec{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

Ex.:  $\vec{f}(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 - y^4 - 4 \\ 2xy \end{pmatrix}$ , see geogebra picture at the end of notes

First, some terminology:

- a fct.  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  ( $m \geq 2$ ) is called a **curve** in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  (e.g., particle trajectory)
- a fct.  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (usually  $n=3$ ) is called a **scalar field** (e.g., temperature)
- a fct.  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  (usually  $n=3; m \geq 2$ ) is called a **vector field** (e.g., electric field)

Next: What about derivatives of  $\vec{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ?

Slightly abstract point of view:

- as usual, we need a linear approximation of  $\vec{f}$  near  $\vec{a}$

Def.: A map  $\vec{L}: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is called linear if  $\vec{L}(a\vec{x} + b\vec{y}) = a\vec{L}(\vec{x}) + b\vec{L}(\vec{y})$  for all  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n, a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Writing  $\vec{x} = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \vec{e}_j$ , we find:  $(\vec{L}(\vec{x}))_i = \left( \vec{L}\left(\sum_{j=1}^n x_j \vec{e}_j\right) \right)_i = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j (\vec{L}(\vec{e}_j))_i$

*j-th component of the vector  $\vec{x}$  (in standard basis)*  
*unit vector in j-direction*  
*i-th component of the vector  $\vec{L}(\vec{x})$*   
*matrix*  
*linearity*  
*=  $L_i(\vec{e}_j)$*   
*= i-th component of the vector  $\vec{L}(\vec{e}_j)$*

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n L_{ij}(\vec{e}_j) x_j$$

$\Rightarrow$  a linear map is represented by a matrix

Thus, we know what differentiability means:

Definition: A function  $\vec{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is called (totally) differentiable

at  $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  if there is an  $m \times n$  matrix  $L_{\vec{a}}$  such that

$$\lim_{\vec{h} \rightarrow 0} \frac{|\vec{f}(\vec{a} + \vec{h}) - \vec{f}(\vec{a}) - L_{\vec{a}} \vec{h}|}{|\vec{h}|} = 0.$$

$L_{\vec{a}} = D\vec{f}(\vec{a}) = \vec{f}'(\vec{a})$  is called (total) derivative of  $\vec{f}$  at  $\vec{a}$ .

As before, we can figure out what  $L_{\vec{a}}$  is:

e.g., choose  $\vec{h} = \begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = h_1 \vec{e}_1$  with, say,  $h_1 > 0$ ; then  $\lim_{h_1 \rightarrow 0} \frac{|\vec{f}(\vec{a}+\vec{h}) - \vec{f}(\vec{a}) - L_{\vec{a}}\vec{h}|}{h_1} = 0$

$$L_{\vec{a}}\vec{h} = \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & \dots & L_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ L_{m1} & \dots & L_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = h_1 \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} \\ \vdots \\ L_{m1} \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \lim_{h_1 \rightarrow 0} \frac{\vec{f}(\vec{a}+\vec{h}) - \vec{f}(\vec{a}) - h_1 \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} \\ \vdots \\ L_{m1} \end{pmatrix}}{h_1} = \vec{0},$$

recall def.  
of partial derivatives

$$\text{i.e., } \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} \\ \vdots \\ L_{m1} \end{pmatrix} = \lim_{h_1 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h_1} \begin{pmatrix} f_1(\vec{a}+h_1\vec{e}_1) - f_1(\vec{a}) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(\vec{a}+h_1\vec{e}_1) - f_m(\vec{a}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(\vec{a}) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1}(\vec{a}) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{generally } L_{ij} = \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(\vec{a})$$

Theorem: If  $\vec{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is differentiable at  $\vec{a}$ , the derivative at  $\vec{a}$  is the  $m \times n$  matrix

$$L_{\vec{a}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(\vec{a}) & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(\vec{a}) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1}(\vec{a}) & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n}(\vec{a}) \end{pmatrix}, \text{ i.e., } (L_{\vec{a}})_{ij} = \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(\vec{a}).$$

$L_{\vec{a}} = J_{\vec{f}}(\vec{a})$  is called **Jacobian matrix** (of  $\vec{f}$  at  $\vec{a}$ )

Ex.:  $\vec{f}(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 - y^4 - 4 \\ 2xy \end{pmatrix}$  from before

$$\Rightarrow J_{\vec{f}}(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2x & -4y^3 \\ 2y & 2x \end{pmatrix}$$

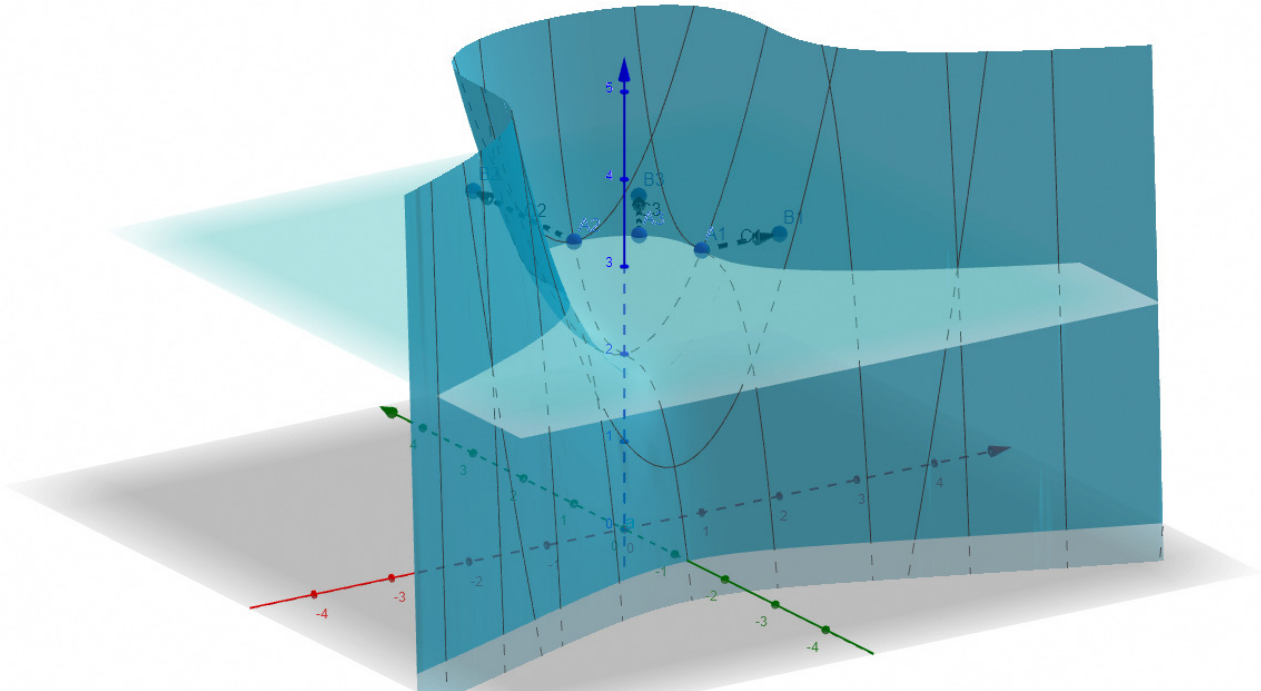
Note: • This is the most general notion of a derivative, covering any  $\vec{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , in particular the cases  $n=1$  or  $m=1$  we discussed before.

• There is also a chain rule: If  $g: \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  are differentiable, then  $D(f(g(\vec{x}))) = \underbrace{Df(g(\vec{x}))}_{m \times n \text{ matrix}} \underbrace{Dg(\vec{x})}_{n \times k \text{ matrix}}$ . (  $f \circ g: \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, \vec{x} \mapsto f(g(\vec{x}))$  )  
matrix product =  $m \times k$  matrix

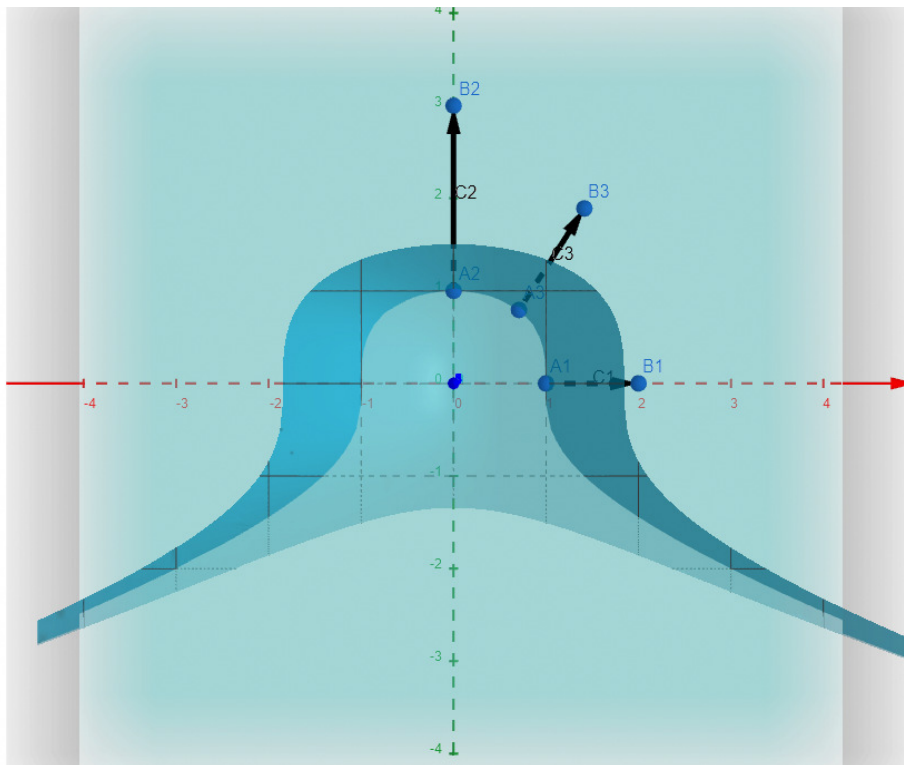
• As before, there is the theorem that says that if all  $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$  exist and are continuous, then  $\vec{f}$  is continuously differentiable.

Use <https://www.geogebra.org/3d> for generating the plots.

$G(x,y) = x^2 + y^3 + 2$ , level set  $G(x,y) = 3$ , with three gradient vectors:



View from above to see orthogonality of  $\nabla G$  and the level set:



Use <https://www.geogebra.org/3d> for generating the plots.

$$\text{Vector field } f(x,y) = (x^2 - y^4 - 4, 2xy)$$

