

# 1 Recap

- Defined differentiability (after examples indicating things can go wrong).
- Computed the derivative and proved continuity.
- Meaning of gradient.

# 2 Differentiability

A sufficient condition for differentiability: Differentiability seems like a pain in the neck to check. Fortunately, we have a *sufficient* ( but not *necessary*) condition that helps us. Theorem: Suppose  $f : S \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a scalar field and  $\vec{a} \in S$  is an interior point. Suppose the partials  $f_{x_1}, f_{x_2}, \dots, f_{x_n}$  exist in an open ball  $B(\vec{a}, r) \subset S$  and they are continuous at  $\vec{a}$ . Then  $f$  is differentiable in the multivariable sense at  $\vec{a}$ . Such functions are said to be *continuously differentiable* or  $\mathcal{C}^1$ .

Examples:

- If  $f(x), g(y)$  are differentiable functions on  $\mathbb{R}$  with continuous derivatives then  $h(x, y) = f(x)g(y)$  is differentiable in the multivariable sense. Indeed,  $h_x, h_y$  exist and by continuity laws, they are continuous.
- By the one-variable chain rule and continuity laws, a linear combination of functions like  $f(x)^k g(y)^l$  is also differentiable.
- As a consequence, polynomials are differentiable on all of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- Rational functions are differentiable wherever their denominator is non-zero.

Proof: The only candidate for the total derivative at  $\vec{a}$  is surely the linear map  $\vec{v} \rightarrow \langle \nabla f(\vec{a}), \vec{v} \rangle$ . Let us prove for the special case of  $f(x, y)$  first.  $f(a + h, b + k) - f(a, b)$  must be proved to be  $\nabla_{\vec{v}} f(a, b) + \|(h, k)\|E$  where  $E \rightarrow 0$  as  $(h, k) \rightarrow (0, 0)$ .  $f(a + h, b + k) - f(a, b) = f(a + h, b + k) - f(a, b + k) + f(a, b + k) - f(a, b) = I + II$ .  $I$ : By the Lagrange MVT  $I = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a + \theta_1, b + k)h$  and  $II = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a, b + \theta_2)k$ , where  $\theta_1 \in (0, h)$  and  $\theta_2 \in (0, k)$ . Roughly speaking, when  $h, k$  are small,  $I$  is almost  $f_x(a, b)h$  and  $II$  is almost  $f_y(a, b)k$  by the assumption of continuity of the partial derivatives.

More rigorously,  $f(a + h, b + k) - f(a, b) - f_x(a, b)h - f_y(a, b)k = (I - f_x(a, b)h) + (II - f_y(a, b)k)$ . Hence, when  $\|(h, k)\| < \delta$  ( which immediately implies that  $|h| < \delta, |k| < \delta$ ), then by continuity of  $f_x, f_y$ ,  $|f_x(a + \theta_1, b + k) - f_x(a, b)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  and  $|f_y(a, b + \theta_2) - f_y(a, b)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Thus  $|(I - f_x(a, b)h)| < |h|\frac{\epsilon}{2}$  and  $|II - f_y(a, b)k| < |k|\frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Thus,  $\frac{|f(a+h, b+k) - f(a, b) - f_x(a, b)h - f_y(a, b)k|}{\|(h, k)\|} < \epsilon$ . This implies the result in this case.

When we have  $n$  variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , the proof is similar. Indeed, write  $f(a_1 + h_1, \dots) - f(a, b)$  as a sum  $I + II + \dots$  where  $I = f(a_1 + h_1, \dots) - f(a_1, \dots)$ , etc. For each of the  $n$  summands, use Lagrange's MVT to get partials into the picture. For each of the partials, we can replace them by their values at  $\vec{a}$  at the cost of an error  $\frac{\epsilon}{n}$  provided  $\vec{h}$  is small enough. The same manipulations as before show what we need.

Recall that if  $h(x) = \sin(x^2)$  then  $f'(x) = \cos(x^2)2x$ . That is, if  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable and  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable, then  $f \circ g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable and

$$(f \circ g)'(x) = f'(g(x))g'(x).$$

The rough idea of the proof is as follows.  $g(x+h) \approx g(x) + hg'(x)$  when  $h$  is small.  $f(y+k) \approx f(y) + kf'(y)$  when  $k$  is small. So  $f(g(x+h)) \approx f(g(x) + hg'(x))$  which is  $f(g(x)) + hg'(x)f'(g(x))$  when  $h$  is small. Thus  $\frac{f(g(x+h)) - f(g(x))}{h} \approx g'(x)f'(g(x))$  when  $h$  is small. Of course, one has to make the above rigorous using  $\delta$ s and  $\epsilon$ s.

There is a genuine need for a higher-variable chain rule. Here are two examples where such a rule might help.

Suppose a particle is moving along a path  $\vec{r}(t)$  in a room. One question is what rate of temperature rise will the particle experience? That is, suppose  $T(x, y, z)$  is the temperature (presumably an infinitely differentiable function) and  $\vec{r}(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t))$  is the trajectory (again presumably highly differentiable), then what is  $\frac{dT(x(t), y(t), z(t))}{dt}$ ?

Consider the polar coordinates  $x = r \cos(\theta)$ ,  $y = r \sin(\theta)$ , i.e.,  $r^2 = x^2 + y^2$  and  $\tan(\theta) = \frac{y}{x}$ . (By the way, they make sense only away from the positive  $x$ -axis and the origin.) Again, let's assume  $T(x, y)$  is the temperature of a hot circular plate. So  $\tilde{T}(r, \theta) = T(x(r, \theta), y(r, \theta))$  is a function. We want  $\frac{\partial \tilde{T}}{\partial r}$ ,  $\frac{\partial \tilde{T}}{\partial \theta}$  in terms of  $\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}$ ,  $\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}$ . What we want is  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{T(\vec{r}(t+h)) - T(\vec{r}(t))}{h}$ . Note that  $x(t+h) \approx x(t) + hx'(t)$  when  $h$  is small. Likewise for  $y(t), z(t)$ , i.e.,  $\vec{r}(t+h) \approx \vec{r}(t) + h\vec{r}'(t)$ . Now  $T(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y, z + \Delta z) \approx T(x, y, z) + \Delta x T_x + \Delta y T_y + \Delta z T_z$  (by definition of differentiability). Taking  $\Delta x = x'(t)h$  and likewise for  $y, z$ , we see that  $T(\vec{r}(t+h)) \approx T(\vec{r}(t)) + h(x'(t)T_x + y'(t)T_y + z'(t)T_z)$ , i.e.,  $\frac{T(\vec{r}(t+h)) - T(\vec{r}(t))}{h} \approx x'(t)T_x + y'(t)T_y + z'(t)T_z = \langle \nabla T, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle = \nabla_{\vec{r}'(t)} T$ .

Theorem: Let  $f(\vec{r}) : S \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a scalar field. Let  $\vec{r}(t) : (a, b) \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a vector-valued function. Define the composition  $h(t) : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as  $h(t) = f(\vec{r}(t))$ . Suppose  $t_0 \in (a, b)$  is a point where  $x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots$  are differentiable functions and  $f$  is differentiable at  $\vec{r}(t_0)$ . Then  $h(t)$  is differentiable at  $t_0$  and  $h'(t_0) = \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t_0)), \vec{r}'(t_0) \rangle = \nabla_{\vec{r}'(t_0)} f(\vec{r}(t_0))$ .

Examples:

- If a path is a *regular* path, i.e.,  $\vec{r}'(t) \neq 0 \forall t$ , then  $\frac{1}{\|\vec{r}'(t)\|} \langle \nabla f(\vec{r}(t_0)), \vec{r}'(t_0) \rangle$  is called the *directional derivative along the curve* and denoted as  $\frac{df}{ds}$  (the change in  $f$  per metre of the curve). For instance, if  $f(x, y) = x^2 - 3xy$  and the path is  $(t, t^2 - t + 2)$ , and we want to find  $\frac{df}{ds}|_{t=1}$ , then we calculate as follows.  $\nabla f = (f_x, f_y) = (2x - 3y, -3x)$  which at  $t = 1$  is  $\nabla f(\vec{r}(1)) = (-4, -3)$  and  $\vec{r}'(t) = (1, 2t - 1)$  which leads to  $\vec{r}'(1) = (1, 1)$ . Thus  $\frac{df}{ds}|_{t=1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \langle \nabla f, \vec{r}'(t) \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-4, -3) \cdot (1, 1) = \frac{-7}{\sqrt{2}}$ .