

For this purpose, we assume that Γ is described parametrically by a differentiable vector-valued function r defined on some interval J of \mathbb{R} . Since Γ lies on the level surface $L(c)$, the function r satisfies the equation

$$f(r(t)) = c \quad \text{for all } t \text{ in } J.$$

If $g(t) = f(r(t))$ for t in J , the chain rule states that $g'(t) = \nabla f(r(t)) \cdot r'(t)$.

Since g is constant on J , we have $g'(t) = 0$ on J . In particular, choosing t_1 so that $g(t_1) = a$

$$\text{we find that } \nabla f(a) \cdot r'(t_1) = 0$$

In other words, the gradient of f at a is perpendicular to the tangent vector $r'(t_1)$, as asserted.

Now, we take a family of curves on the level surface $L(c)$, all passing through the point a . According to the foregoing discussion, the tangent vectors of all these curves are perpendicular to the gradient vector $\nabla f(a)$.

If $\nabla f(a)$ is not the zero vector, these tangent vectors determine a plane, and the gradient $\nabla f(a)$ is normal to this plane (see figure 3). This particular plane is called the tangent plane of the surface $L(c)$ at a .

We know that a plane through a with normal vector N consists of all points x in \mathbb{R}^3

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satisfying $N \cdot (x-a) = 0$. Therefore the tangent plane to
the level surface $L(c)$ at a consists of all x in \mathbb{R}^3

satisfying $\nabla f(a) \cdot (x-a) = 0$

To obtain a Cartesian equation for this plane we express
 x , a and $\nabla f(a)$ in terms of their components.

Writing $x = (x, y, z)$, $a = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$, and

$$\nabla f(a) = D_1 f(a) \hat{i} + D_2 f(a) \hat{j} + D_3 f(a) \hat{k},$$

we obtain the Cartesian equation

$$D_1 f(a)(x-x_1) + D_2 f(a)(y-y_1) + D_3 f(a)(z-z_1) = 0$$

A similar discussion applies to scalar fields
defined in \mathbb{R}^2 . In example 3 of the foregoing
section we proved that the gradient vector $\nabla f(a)$
at a point a of a level curve is perpendicular
to the tangent vector of the curve at a . Therefore
the tangent line of the level curve $L(c)$ at a point
 $a = (x_1, y_1)$ has the Cartesian equation

$$D_1 f(a)(x-x_1) + D_2 f(a)(y-y_1) = 0.$$

1.13 Derivatives of vector fields.

Derivative theory for vector fields is a straightforward
extension of that for scalar fields. Let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a
vector field defined on a subset S of \mathbb{R}^n . If a
is an interior point of S and if v is any vector in

\mathbb{R}^n we define the derivative $f'(a; y)$ by the formula

$$f'(a; y) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+hy) - f(a)}{h},$$

whenever the limit exists. The derivative $f'(a; y)$ is a vector in \mathbb{R}^m .

Let f_k denote the k th component of f . We note that

the derivative $f'(a; y)$ exists if and only if

$f'_k(a; y)$ exists for each $k=1, 2, \dots, m$, in which

case we have

$$\begin{aligned} f'(a; y) &= (f'_1(a; y), f'_2(a; y), \dots, f'_m(a; y)) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^m f'_k(a; y) e_k, \end{aligned}$$

where e_k is the k th unit coordinate vector.

We say that f is differentiable at an interior point a if there is a linear transformation

$$T_a: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\text{such that } f(a+v) = f(a) + T_a(v) + \|v\| E(a, v) \quad \dots (1)$$

where $E(a, v) \rightarrow 0$ as $v \rightarrow 0$. The first order Taylor formula (1) is to hold for all v with $\|v\| < r$

for some $r > 0$. The term $E(a, v)$ is a vector in \mathbb{R}^m .

The linear transformation T_a is called the total derivative of f at a .

For scalar fields we proved that $T_a(y)$ is the

dot product of the gradient vector $\nabla f(a)$ with y ,

For vector fields we will prove that $T_a(y)$ is a vector whose k th component is the dot product

$$\nabla f_k(a) \cdot y.$$

Theorem 1.13.1 Assume f is differentiable at a with total derivative T_a . Then the derivative $f'(a; y)$ exists for every a in \mathbb{R}^n , and we have

$$T_a(y) = f'(a; y) \dots \quad (2)$$

Moreover, if $f = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m)$ and if $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$,

$$\text{we have } T_a(y) = \sum_{k=1}^m \nabla f_k(a) \cdot y e_k = \begin{pmatrix} \nabla f_1(a) \cdot y, \nabla f_2(a) \cdot y, \dots, \nabla f_m(a) \cdot y \\ \dots \end{pmatrix} \quad (3)$$

Proof: We argue as in the scalar case. If $y=0$, then

$$f'(a; y) = 0 \text{ and } T_a(0) = 0. \text{ Therefore we can assume}$$

that $y \neq 0$. Taking $u = hy$ in the Taylor formula (1),

$$\begin{aligned} \text{we have } f(a+hy) - f(a) &= T_a(hy) + \|hy\| E(a, u) \\ &= h T_a(y) + |h| \|y\| E(a, u). \end{aligned}$$

Dividing by h and letting $h \rightarrow 0$, we obtain (2).

To prove (3) we simply note that

$$f'(a; y) = \sum_{k=1}^m f'_k(a; y) e_k = \sum_{k=1}^m \nabla f_k(a) \cdot y e_k.$$

Equation (3) can also be written more simply as a matrix

$$\text{product, } T_a(y) = Df(a) y.$$

where $Df(a)$ is the $m \times n$ matrix whose k th