

**Reminder:** The second Mathematica Lab is due on October 22 and is ready to be downloaded.

**Suggested Problems:**

- pgs 127 number 21
- pgs 134-136 number 5,7,9

**DIRECTIONAL DERIVATIVE.** If  $F$  is a function of several variables and  $v$  is a vector, then  $\nabla F \cdot v$  is called the **directional derivative** of  $F$  in the direction  $v$ . We write  $\nabla_v F$ .

$$\nabla_v F(x, y, z) = \nabla F(x, y, z) \cdot v$$

**EXAMPLE. PARTIAL DERIVATIVES ARE SPECIAL DIRECTIONAL DERIVATIVES.** If  $v = (1, 0, 0)$ , then  $\nabla F \cdot v = F_x$ .

If  $v = (0, 1, 0)$ , then  $\nabla F \cdot v = F_y$ .

If  $v = (0, 0, 1)$ , then  $\nabla F \cdot v = F_z$ .

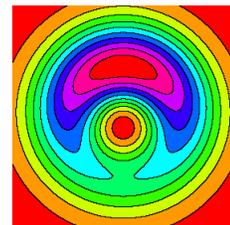
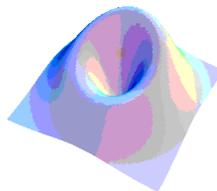
The directional derivative is a generalization of the partial derivatives. Like the partial derivatives, it is a **scalar**.

**EXAMPLE. DIRECTIONAL DERIVATIVE ALONG A CURVE.** If  $F$  is the temperature in a room and  $r(t)$  is a curve with velocity  $r'(t)$ , then  $\nabla F(r(t)) \cdot r'(t)$  is the temperature change, the body moving on a curve  $r(t)$  experiences because we have seen that the directional derivative is in this case  $d/dt F(r(t))$ .

**EXAMPLE: LINEAR APPROXIMATION.** Assume  $G(\vec{x}) = F(\vec{x}_0) + \nabla F(\vec{x}_0) \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_0)$  is the linear approximation of  $F$  near a point  $\vec{x}_0$ . Lets see what this means if  $\vec{x}$  lies on a line  $\vec{x} = \vec{x}_0 + t\vec{v}$ . The function  $f(t) = F(\vec{x}_0 + t\vec{v})$  is then a function of one variable,  $t$ . Also  $g(t) = F(\vec{x}_0) + tD_v F(\vec{x}_0)$  is a function of  $t$ . The function  $g$  is just the linear approximation of  $f$  and  $g' = D_v F$  at  $\vec{x}_0$ .

The linear approximation  $G$  of  $F$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$  satisfies  $D_v F(x_0, y_0) = D_v G(x_0, y_0)$  for all  $v$ .

**RECALL.** Gradients are orthogonal to the level surfaces. Do you remember why? The level surface of the linear approximation is tangent at the point and the tangent surface  $\nabla F \cdot (x - x_0)$  has every vector  $x - x_0$  in the surface orthogonal to  $\nabla F$ .



**STEEPEST DECENT.** The directional derivative satisfies

$$|D_v F| \leq |\nabla F| |v|$$

because  $\nabla F \cdot v = |\nabla F| |v| \cos(\phi) \leq |\nabla F| |v|$ . The direction  $v = \nabla F$  is the direction, where  $F$  increases most, the direction  $-\nabla F$  is the direction of steepest decent.

**IN WHICH DIRECTION DOES F INCREASE?** If  $v = \nabla F$ , then the directional derivative is  $\nabla F \cdot \nabla F = |\nabla F|^2$ . This means that  $F$  **increases**, if we move into the direction of the gradient!

EXAMPLE. You are on a trip in a zeppelin at  $(1, 2)$  and want to avoid a thunderstorm, a region of low pressure. The pressure is given by a function  $p(x, y) = x^2 + 2y^2$ . In which direction do you have to fly so that the pressure change is largest?



Parameterize the direction by  $v = (\cos(\phi), \sin(\phi))$ . The pressure gradient is  $\nabla p(x, y) = (2x, 4y)$ . The directional derivative in the  $\phi$ -direction is  $\nabla p(x, y) \cdot v = 2 \cos(\phi) + 4 \sin(\phi)$ . This is maximal for  $-2 \sin(\phi) + 4 \cos(\phi) = 0$  which means  $\tan(\phi) = 1/2$ .

ZERO DIRECTIONAL DERIVATIVE. The rate of change in every direction is zero if and only if  $\nabla F(x, y) = 0$  because if  $\nabla F$  is not 0, we can choose  $v = \nabla F$  and get  $D_{\nabla F} F = |\nabla F|^2$ .

We will see later that points with  $\nabla F = 0$  are candidates for local maxima or minima of  $F$ . Points  $(x, y)$  where  $\nabla F(x, y) = (0, 0)$  are called **stationary points** or **critical points**. Knowing the critical points is important to understand the function  $F$ .

LINE INTEGRALS AND RATE OF CHANGE. A reformulation for lineintegrals of conservative fields:

The line integral  $\int_a^b \nabla F(r(t)) \cdot r'(t) dt$  integrates up the rate of change  $F$  along the curve.

PROPERTIES OF THE DIRECTIONAL DERIVATIVE. The directional derivative  $D_v$  has all the properties of all derivatives:

$$\begin{aligned} D_v(F + G) &= D_v(F) + D_v(G) \\ D_v(FG) &= D_v(F)G + FD_v(G) \end{aligned}$$

THE MATTERHORN is a popular climbing mountain in the Swiss alps. Its height is 4478 meters (14,869 feet). It is quite easy to climb with a guide. There are ropes and ladders at difficult places. Even so, about 3 people die each year from climbing accidents at the Matterhorn, this does not stop you from trying an ascent. In suitable units on the ground, the height  $F(x, y)$  of the Matterhorn is approximated by  $F(x, y) = 4000 - x^2 - y^2$ . At height  $F(-10, 10) = 3800$ , at the point  $(-10, 10, 3800)$ , you rest. The climbing route continues into the north-east direction  $v = (1, -1)$ . Calculate the rate of change in that direction. We have  $\nabla F(x, y) = (-2x, -2y)$ , so that  $(20, -20) \cdot (1, -1) = 40$ . This is a place, with a ladder, where you climb 40 meters up when advancing 1m forward.



THE VAN DER WAALS (1837-1923) equation for real gases is

$$(p + a/V^2)(V - b) = RT(p, V),$$

where  $R = 8.314 J/Kmol$  is a constant called the Avogadro number. This law relates the pressure  $p$ , the volume  $V$  and the temperature  $T$  of a gas. The constant  $a$  is related to the molecular interactions, the constant  $b$  to the finite restvolume of the molecules.



The **ideal gas** law  $pV = nRT$  is obtained when  $a, b$  are set to 0. The level curves or **isotherms**  $T(p, V) = const$  tell much about the properties of the gas. The so called **reduced van der Walls law**  $T(p, V) = (p + 3/V^2)(3V - 1)/8$  is obtained by scaling  $p, T, V$  depending on the gas. Calculate the directional derivative of  $T(p, V)$  at the point  $(p, V) = (1, 1)$  into the direction  $v = (1, 2)$ . We have  $T_p(p, V) = (3V - 1)/8$  and  $T_V(p, V) = 3p/8 - (9/16)1/V^2 - 3/(4V^3)$ . Therefore,  $\nabla T(1, 1) = (1/4, 0)$  and  $D_v T(1, 1) = 1/4$ .

