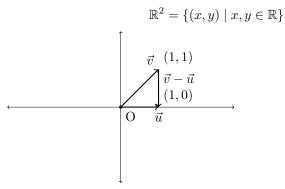
# Calculus II

## 1 Vectors

 $\mathbb R$  represents the set of real numbers.

 $\mathbb{R}^2$  represents a 2 dimensional real plane.



Normally elements of  $\mathbb R$  are known as scalers.

- $\cdot$  add (or subtract) two vectors
- $\cdot$  if  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $v \in \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $c\vec{v}$

## 1.1 Dot Product

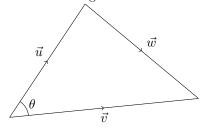
$$u = (u_1, u_2)$$
 and  $v = (v_1, v_2)$ 

$$u.v = u_1.v_1 + u_2.v_2$$

#### Theorem

$$u.v = |u||v|\cos(\theta)$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$  and |u| is the length of vector  $\vec{u}$ 



Proof:

$$w^2 = u^2 + v^2 - 2|u||v|\cos(\theta)\dots(1)$$

$$\vec{w} = \vec{v} - \vec{u}$$

$$w = (v_1 - u_1, v_2 - u_2)$$

$$w^2 = (v_1 - u_1)^2 + (v_2 - u_2)^2$$

$$w^2 = v_1^2 - 2v_1u_1 + u_1^2 + v_2^2 - 2v_2u_2 + u_2^2$$

$$w^2 = v^2 + u^2 - 2v_1u_1 - 2v_2u_2 \dots (2)$$

$$\text{now, as } (1) = (2)$$

$$u^2 + v^2 - 2|u||v|\cos(\theta) = v^2 + u^2 - 2v_1u_1 - 2v_2u_2$$

$$|u||v|\cos(\theta) = v_1u_1 + v_2u_2$$

$$|u||v|\cos(\theta) = \vec{u}.\vec{v}$$

Hence proved.

Extending the above theorem to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ : Consider  $\vec{u}=(u_1,u_2,\ldots,u_n), \vec{v}=(v_1,v_2,\ldots,v_n)\in\mathbb{R}$ 

$$\vec{u}.\vec{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \dots + u_nv_n$$

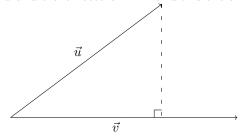
## 1.2 Unit Vectors

If  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  is a vector. then,

$$\hat{v} = \frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|}$$

## 1.3 Projections

If  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$  are vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\theta$  is the angle between them:



let  $\vec{w}$  be the projection of  $\vec{u}$  on  $\vec{v}$ 

$$\begin{split} \vec{w} &= |u| \cos(\theta) \hat{v} \\ \vec{w} &= \frac{|u| \cos(\theta) |v| \vec{v}}{|v|^2} \\ \vec{w} &= \frac{\vec{u}.\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|^2} \vec{v} \end{split}$$

## 1.4 Cross Product

Consider the vectors, u, v. Then the cross-product of u and v is defined as:

$$u \times v = |u||v|\sin(\theta)\hat{n}$$

where  $\hat{n}$  is the unit vector perpendicular to the plane containing u and v, and also  $(\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \hat{n})$  form a right handed system.

#### **Properties of Cross Product:**

- $\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = -(\vec{v} \times \vec{u})$
- $(r\vec{u}) \times (s\vec{v}) = rs\vec{u} \times \vec{v}$
- $\vec{u} \times (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = \vec{u} \times \vec{v} + \vec{u} \times \vec{w}$

 $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$  can also be represented as:

$$\vec{u} = u_1\hat{i} + u_2\hat{j} + u_3\hat{k}$$

$$\vec{v} = v_1 \hat{i} + v_2 \hat{j} + v_3 \hat{k}$$

$$\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = (u_2v_3 - u_3v_2)\hat{i} + (u_3v_1 - u_1v_3)\hat{i} + (u_1v_2 - u_2v_1)\hat{k}$$

$$ec{u} imes ec{v} = egin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

the above formula is only symbolic and meant to represent a cross product.

## 2 Multi-Variable Calculus

let  $r: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^3$  be a function. (It could be to any  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , r(t) is a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ 

$$r(t) = f(t)\hat{\imath} + g(t)\hat{\jmath} + h(t)\hat{k}$$

## 2.1 Continuity

r is continuous at a if:

$$\lim_{t \to a} r(t) = r(a)$$

i.e.  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$  such that  $|t-a| < \delta \implies |r(t)-r(a)| < \epsilon$  or, if f, g and h are continuous at a, r is continuous at a.

## 2.2 Differentiability

let  $r: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^3$  be a function. (We are taking  $mathbbR^3$  here, but it could be any  $\mathbb{R}^n$ )

the derivative of r at a is defined as:

$$r'(a) = \lim_{t \to a} \frac{r(t) - r(a)}{t - a}$$

if

$$r(t) = f(t)\hat{i} + g(t)\hat{j} + h(t)\hat{k}$$
  
$$r'(t) = f'(t)\hat{i} + g'(t)\hat{j} + h'(t)\hat{k}$$

### 2.3 Integration

let  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  be a function.

the integral of f from a to b is defined as:

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \text{Area under the curve } y = f(x) \text{ from } x = a \text{ to } x = b$$

**Anti-derivative** let  $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function.

$$\int f(t)dt = F(t) + c$$

such that F'(t) = f(t) and c is an arbitrary constant

**Fundamental Theorem of Calculus** let  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  be a function and F be its anti-derivative.

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt = F(b) - F(a)$$

## 2.3.1 Extending to a Vector Valued Function

Consider a function  $r: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^3$  (we are taking  $\mathbb{R}^3$  as an example, it could be any  $\mathbb{R}^n$ )

$$\begin{split} r(t) &= f(t)\hat{i} + g(t)\hat{j} + h(t)\hat{k} \\ \int_a^b r(t)dt &= \int_a^b f(t)dt\hat{i} + \int_a^b g(t)dt\hat{j} + \int_a^b h(t)dt\hat{k} \end{split}$$

#### Anti-derivative

$$\int r(t)dt = \left(\int f(t)dt + c_1\right)\hat{i} + \left(\int g(t)dt + c_2\right)\hat{j} + \left(\int h(t)dt + c_3\right)\hat{k}$$
$$\int r(t)dt = R(t) + C$$

where R'(t) = r(t) and C is an arbitrary constant vector.

$$R(t) = F(t)\hat{i} + G(t)\hat{j} + H(t)\hat{k}$$

where F'(t) = f(t), G'(t) = g(t) and H'(t) = h(t)

#### 2.3.2 Length of a Curve

let  $r:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^3$  be a function. (As usual, we are taking  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , but it can be any  $\mathbb{R}^n$ )

the length of the curve l from a to b is defined as:

$$l = \int_{a}^{b} |r'(t)| dt$$

## 3 Multi-Variable Functions

let  $f:D\to\mathbb{R}$  be a function. Let  $D\subseteq\mathbb{R}^n.$  Then f is called a Multi Variable Function

Eg:

$$f(x,y) = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}$$

Domain of f is  $\mathbb{R}^2 - \{(0,0)\}$ 

#### 3.1 Limits

let  $f:D\to\mathbb{R}$  be a function. and  $D\subseteq\mathbb{R}^2$ . (we are taking  $\mathbb{R}^2$  but it can be extended to any  $\mathbb{R}^n$ )

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(x_1,y_1)} f(x,y) = L$$

if  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$  such that  $|(x,y) - (x_1,y_1)| < \delta \implies |f(x,y) - L| < \epsilon$ 

Eg:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^2 - xy}{\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{y}}$$

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x(x-y)}{\sqrt{x}-\sqrt{y}}$$

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} x(\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y})$$

$$\therefore \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^2 - xy}{\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{y}} = 0$$

Eg:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{2x^2y}{x^4+y^2}$$

this limit does not exist.

#### 3.2 Derivatives

The usual definition of derivatives can't be extended to multi-variable functions. Eg:

$$f(x,y) = x$$
$$f'(x) = \lim_{(x,y)\to(x_1,y_1)} \frac{f(x,y) - f(x_1,y_1)}{|(x,y) - (x_1,y_1)|}$$

if we keep y constant, Then the above limit becomes:

$$f'(x, y_0) = \lim_{(x, y_0) \to (x_1, y_0)} \frac{x - x_1}{|x - x_1|}$$

which does not exist.

Hence, we define partial derivatives.

let  $f: D \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function. and  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ . (we are taking  $\mathbb{R}^2$  but it can be extended to any  $\mathbb{R}^n$ )

the partial derivative of f with respect to x at  $(x_0, y_0)$  is defined as:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\Big|_{(x_0,y_0)} = \frac{f(x,y) - f(x_0,y_0)}{x - x_0}$$

#### Example

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0, xy = 0\\ 1, xy \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

The above function seems to be continuous if we approach (0,0) along the x or y axes. But if we approach it along any other line passing through the origin, the limit doesn't exist. Therefore, f(x,y) is not continuous at (0,0).

But the partial derivatives wrt x and y still exist:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}|_{(0,0)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x,0) - f(0,0)}{x} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\Big|(0,0) = \lim_{y \to 0} \frac{f(0,y) - f(0,0)}{y} = 0$$

#### 3.2.1 Chain Rule

If w = f(x, y) is differentiable and x = x(t) and y = y(t) are differentiable functions of t, then the derivative of w with respect to t is given by:

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt}$$

Now, this can be extended to n variable function  $w = \psi(a, b, c, ...)$  by:

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial a} \frac{da}{dt} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial b} \frac{db}{dt} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial c} \frac{dc}{dt} + \dots$$

## 3.3 Differentiability

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  is said to be differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$  if  $\Delta z$  satisfies the following equation of the form:

$$\Delta z = f_x(x_0, y_0) \Delta x + f_y(x_0, y_0) \Delta y + \epsilon_1 \Delta x + \epsilon_2 \Delta y$$

in which both  $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 \to 0$  as both  $\Delta x, \Delta y \to 0$ 

#### 3.3.1 Directional Derivative

Let f(x, y) be a function in 2 variables and  $\vec{u} = u_1 \hat{i} + u_2 \hat{j}$  be a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . The directional derivative of f along u at  $P_0(x_0, y_0)$ :

$$(D_u f)_{P_0} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + tu_1, y_0 + tu_2) + f(x_0, y_0)}{t}$$

(The denominator should be t|u| but we don't take it at such for some unknown reason)

Taking the same example as before: if  $(u_1, u_2) \neq (0, 0)$ 

$$(D_u f)_{(0,0)} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(tu_1, tu_2) - f(0,0)}{t}$$
$$= \lim_{t \to 0} = \frac{1}{t}$$

But this limit doesn't exist.

Another method to evaluate the directional derivative is by using gradients: let  $u=u_1\hat{i}+u_2\hat{j}$ 

$$(D_u f)_{P_0} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)_{P_0} \frac{dx}{ds} + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)_{P_0} \frac{dy}{ds}$$

now,  $\frac{dx}{ds} = u_1$  and  $\frac{dy}{ds} = u_2$ 

$$(D_u f)_{P_0} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)_{P_0} u_1 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)_{P_0} u_2$$
$$(D_u f)_{P_0} = (\nabla f)_{P_0} \cdot u$$

#### 3.3.2 Gradients

The gradient vector of a function f(x,y) at a point  $P_0$  is given by:

$$\nabla_{P_0} f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Big|_{P_0} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Big|_{P_0} \hat{j}$$

Note: This formula can be extended to any  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Though the geometric meaning may not remain the same.

Also, at every point  $P_0$ , the gradient vector is perpendicular to the tangent plane to that curve at that point  $P_0$ .

## 4 Tangent Planes and Normal Lines

The Tangent Plane at the point  $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  on the level surface f(x, y, z) = c of a differentiable function f is the plane through  $P_0$  and perpendicular to  $\nabla_{P_0} f$ . The Normal Line of f at the point  $P_0$  is the line through  $P_0$  is the line parallel to  $\nabla_{P_0} f$  and passing through  $P_0$ .

#### 4.0.1 Estimation of change in a specific direction

let f be a function of 2 or more variables and u be a unit vector. Then the change in f in the direction of u is given by:

$$df = (\nabla_{P_0} f \cdot u) ds$$

where ds is the small change in the direction of u.

## 5 Extreme Values and Saddle Points

**Local Minima:** In 2D,  $f(x_0, y_0)$  is a local minima if  $f(x_0, y_0) \le f(x, y)$  for all (x, y) in some open disk centered at  $(x_0, y_0)$ 

**Local Maxima:** In 2D,  $f(x_0, y_0)$  is a local maxima if  $f(x_0, y_0) \ge f(x, y)$  for all (x, y) in some open disk centered at  $(x_0, y_0)$ 

Geometrically, local minima are valleys bottoms, and local maxima are peaks.

#### 5.1 First Derivative Test

If  $P_0(x_0, y_0)$  is a local extremum in the domain of f, and f is differentiable at  $P_0$ , and if the first partial derivatives of f exist at  $P_0$ , then:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 0$$