Math, Multivariable Calculus

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1 Vectors

1.1 Vector Calculations

2 Vector functions

2.1 Vector Valued functions in multiple variables

Calculus of single variable is a study of y = f(x)

$$y = f(x)$$
, where $(x \in \mathbb{R}) \to (f(x) \in \mathbb{R})$ (1)

(2)

However, when we are dealing with multi-variable calculus, we have: an n variable vector valued function (if m > 1)

$$F = \begin{cases} (x_1, \dots x_n) & \to F(x_1, \dots x_n) \\ \in & \in \\ \mathbb{R}^n & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{R}^m \end{cases}$$
 (3)

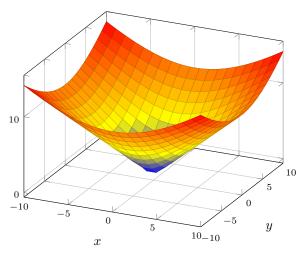
where $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = (F_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n), F_2(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \ldots, F_m(x_1, \ldots, x_n))$ The inputs and outputs are Vectors, for example

$$d(x,y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, (2variables)$$
(4)

$$(x,y)\mathbb{R}^2 \to (\sqrt{x^2 + y^2})\mathbb{R}$$
 (5)

$$distance = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \tag{6}$$

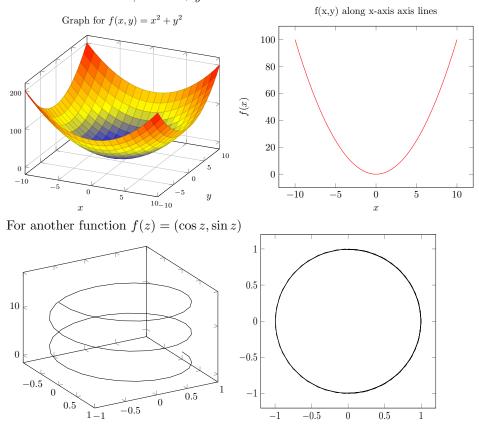
Graph for
$$f(x,y) = \sqrt{(x^2 + y^2)}$$



The graph should look like a cone

Similarly, we can have a function that takes all the x, y and z can calculate that distance. That would however be a four dimensional plot, which we cannot plot.

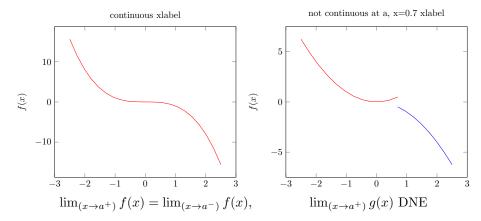
For a similar function, $z = x^2 + y^2$



2.2 Limits and continuity

Definition:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,b)} f(x,y) = L$$
 if $f(x,y)$ goes to L as (x,y) approaches (a,b)



Similarly, for $(x,y) \to (a,b)$ we need to look at all possible paths. If you can find 2 oaths to approach (a,b) such limits along these 2 paths are different, then the function is not continuous. For example:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{2xy}{x^2+y^2} = \text{DNE}(\text{do not exists}) \text{ since:}$$
 (8)

$$(x,0) \to (0,0), \lim \lim_{x \to 0} \lim \lim_{x \to 0} \lim \lim_{x \to 0} \lim_{$$

$$(x,x) \to (0,0), \lim \lim_{y\to 0} \lim \frac{2x * x}{x^2 + x^2} = 1$$
 (10)

 $1 \neq 0$ hence D.N.E.

Remember to take a look at all directions Definition: f(x,y) continuous at (a,b) if:

- 1. f(x,y) defined at (a,b)
- 2. $\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,b)} = f(a,b)$

How to tell if a function is continuous? $f(x, y, z) = e^{x-z} \sin(x + yz^2)$

- 1. (a) f(x, y, z) = x
 - (b) f(x, y, z) = y
 - (c) f(x, y, z) = zallcontinuous
- 2. f(x, y, z) = x z
- 3. $f(x,y,z) = e^{x-z}(composition of contin. funciscontin.)$
- 4. $g(x, y, z) = \sin(x + yz^2)$ continuous similarly

Test: $\lim_{(x,y,z)\to(0,1,-1)}=e^1\sin(1)$, hence continuous. A special case is when you have $\frac{f(x,y)}{g(x,y)}$, it will be continuous at (a,b) as long as $g(a,b)\neq 0$

For a vector function $F(\vec{v}) = (F_1(\vec{v}), F_2(\vec{v} \dots F_m(\vec{v})), \text{ where } \vec{v} \text{ is a vector or } \vec{v} \text{ or } \vec{v}$ \mathbb{R}^n , $(x_1, x_2 \dots x_n)$, is a continuous function at vector \vec{n} if all its component functions are continuous at \vec{n} Example:

$$f(x, y, z) = (e^{x+y}, z, \cos(x^2 - z))$$
 continuous everywhere (11)

since
$$\begin{cases} e^{x+y} \text{ continuous} \\ z \text{ continuous} \\ \cos(x^2 - z) \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$
 (12)

2.3 Partial Derivatives

The derivative of a function is the rate of change along the x axis. The partial derivatives of F(x,y) would be the rate of change of F as one of the axis is fixed (along one axis).

$$\frac{dF(x,y)}{dx} = F_x(x,y) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{F(x + \Delta x, y) - F(x,y)}{\Delta x}$$
 (13)

$$\frac{dF(x,y)}{dx} = F_x(x,y) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{F(x+\Delta x,y) - F(x,y)}{\Delta x}$$

$$\frac{dF(x,y)}{dy} = F_y(x,y) = \lim_{\Delta y \to 0} \frac{F(x,y+\Delta y) - F(x,y)}{\Delta y}$$
(13)

In order to compute the derivative, we treat all other variables as constants. Example:

$$f(x, y, z) = xe^{xy} - \sin(y^2 + z^2) \tag{15}$$

$$\frac{df}{dx} = e^{xy} + yxe^{xy} - 0 = e^{xy} + yxe^{xy}$$
 (16)

$$\frac{df}{dy} = x^2 e^{xy} - \cos(y^2 + z^2)(2y)\frac{df}{dz} = 0 - \cos(y^2 + z^2)(2z)$$
 (17)

Take a point (a, b) for example

- 1. $\frac{df}{dx}$ = gradient of tangent at that point along x axis
- 2. $\frac{df}{dy}$ = gradient of tangent at that point along y axis
- 3. These two direction can span the tangent plane of f at that point
 - (a) Tangent Vector
 - (b) along x direction = $(1, 0, \frac{df}{dx}(a, b)) = \vec{v}$
 - (c) along y direction = $(0, 1, \frac{df}{dy}(a, b)) = \vec{w}$
 - (d) Using these vectors we can find the plane's equation

Example, find the tangent plane of f(x, y) at (1,1):

$$f(x,y) = 1 - x^2 - 2y^2 (18)$$

$$f(x,y) = z = -2$$
, point at $(1,1,-2)$ (19)

$$\frac{df}{dx} = (1, 0, -2x|_{(1,1)}) = (1, 0, -2) \tag{20}$$

$$\frac{df}{dx} = (1, 0, -2x|_{(1,1)}) = (1, 0, -2)$$

$$\frac{df}{dy} = (1, 0, -4y|_{(1,1)}) = (0, 1, -4)$$
(20)

$$(1,0,-2)\times(0,1,-4) = (2,4,1) \tag{22}$$

$$2x + 4y + z = 4$$
 a linear approximation of $f(x, y)$ at $(1, 1)$ (23)

Definition of a vector function:

$$F(x_1, x_2 \dots, x_n) = F(\vec{x}) = (F_1(\vec{x}) \dots F_m(\vec{x})) \in \mathbb{R}^m$$
 (24)

Where each F_i is a component function. The derivative the size $(m \times n)$ matrix of F(Jacobian matrix) denoted by $DF(\vec{x})$

$$DF(\vec{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{dF_1}{dx_1} & \frac{dF_1}{dx_2} & \cdots & \frac{dF_1}{dx_n} \\ \frac{dF_2}{dx_1} & \frac{dF_2}{dx_2} & \cdots & \frac{dF_2}{dx_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{dF_m}{dx_1} & \frac{dF_m}{dx_2} & \cdots & \frac{dF_m}{dx_n} \end{pmatrix}$$
(25)

The function F transforms $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, $DF \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is a linear map, a linear approximation of F.

Example:

$$F(x, y, z) = (e^{x+yz}, x^2 + 1, \sin(y+z), 4y)$$
(26)

$$DF(x,y,z) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{x+yz} & ze^{x+yz} & ye^{x+yz} \\ 2x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(y+z) & \cos(y+z) \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \end{pmatrix} DF(1,1,2) = (27)$$

$$DF(1,1,2) = \begin{pmatrix} e^3 & 2e^3 & e^3 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(3) & \cos(3) \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (28)

Matrix of numbers, a linear map

$$F(x, y, z) = (e^{x+yz}, x^2 + 1, \sin(y+z), 4y)$$
(29)

2.4 Properties of Derivatives DF

Given two vector function F and G: $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ both differentiable at some point \vec{x}

$$D(f \pm G) = D(F) \pm D(G) \tag{30}$$

$$C \in \mathbb{R}, D(cF) = cD(F)$$
 (31)

suppose $f,g:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}$ a function in n variables, product rule still holds

$$D(f \cdot g) = D(F) \cdot g + f \cdot D(G) \tag{32}$$

where $D(f \cdot g)$ is a n^{th} dimension vector, D(f or g) is a vector function and f or g is a scalar function

$$D(\frac{f}{g}) = \frac{g \cdot D(F) - f \cdot D(G)}{g^2}, g(\vec{x}) \neq 0$$
(33)

Given two vector function $\vec{v}(t)$ and $\vec{w}(t)$: $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^n$ so $t \to \vec{v}(t)$

$$f(t) = \vec{v}(t) \cdot \vec{w}(t)$$
 scalar function (34)

$$f'(t) = \vec{v}(t)' \cdot \vec{w} + \vec{w}(t)' \cdot \vec{v} \tag{35}$$

$$u(t) = \vec{v}(t) \times \vec{w}(t)$$
 vector function (36)

$$u'(t) = \vec{v}(t)' \times \vec{w}(t) + \vec{w}(t)' \times \vec{v}(t)$$
(37)

$$\vec{v}(t) = \langle v_1(t), v_2(t), \dots v_n(t) \rangle \tag{38}$$

Chain rule, suppose $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$, $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^p$, $g \cdot f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^p$, $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$

$$D(g \circ f)(\vec{x})(\text{size } p \times m) = DG(F(\vec{x}))(\text{size } p \times n) \cdot DF\vec{x}(\text{size } n \times m)$$
(39)

$$(g \circ f)'(x) = g'(f(x)) \cdot f'(x) \tag{40}$$

Example:

$$f(x,y) = (x^3 + y, e^{xy}, 2 + xy)\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$$
 (41)

$$g(y, v, w) = (y^2 + v, uv + w^3) \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$$
 (42)

$$g(f(x,y)) = g \circ f = ((x^3 + y)^2 + e^{xy}, (x^3 + y)e^{xy} + (2 + xy)^3)$$
 (43)

$$D(g \circ f) = \begin{pmatrix} 2(x^3 + y)(3x^2) + ye^{xy} & 2(x^3 + y) + xe^{xy} \\ (3x^2e^xy + (x^3 + y)ye^{xy}) & (e^{xy} + (x^3 + y)xe^{xy} \\ +3(2+xy)^2y \end{pmatrix}$$
(44)

$$DG = \begin{pmatrix} 2u & 1 & 0 \\ v & u & 3w^2 \end{pmatrix} \tag{45}$$

$$(g \circ f)'(x) = g'(f(x)) \cdot f'(x) \tag{46}$$

$$DG = \begin{pmatrix} 2(x^3 + y) & 1 & 0 \\ e^{xy} & x^3 + y & 3(2 + xy)^2 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 3x & 1 \\ ye^{xy} & xe^{xy} \\ y & x \end{pmatrix}$$
(47)

Check that the equality holds.

2.5 Directional derivatives

Recall the Jacobian matrix, in the following context, the function F is not necessarily defined on the entire \mathbb{R}^n , but rather a subset $\subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$

$$F(x_1, x_2 \dots, x_n) = F(\vec{x}) = (F_1(\vec{x}) \dots F_m(\vec{x})) \in \mathbb{R}^m$$
 (48)

Where each F_i is a component function. The derivative the size $(m \times n)$ matrix of F(Jacobian matrix) denoted by $DF(\vec{x})$

$$DF(\vec{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{dF_1}{dx_1} & \frac{dF_1}{dx_2} & \cdots & \frac{dF_1}{dx_n} \\ \frac{dF_2}{dx_1} & \frac{dF_2}{dx_2} & \cdots & \frac{dF_2}{dx_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{dF_m}{dx_1} & \frac{dF_m}{dx_2} & \cdots & \frac{dF_m}{dx_n} \end{pmatrix}$$
(49)

Examples: 1)

$$f(x, y, z) = x^2 y + \ln z : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^1$$

$$\tag{50}$$

$$Df = (\frac{df}{dx}, \frac{df}{dy}, \frac{df}{dz})$$

$$=(2x,1,\frac{1}{z})$$
 (51)

2)

$$\vec{v}(t) = (\cos(t), \sin(t)); \text{ vector function}$$
 (52)

$$D\vec{v}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} -\sin(t) \\ \cos(t) \end{pmatrix} = (-\sin(t), \cos(t))^T$$
 (53)

$$D\vec{v}(t) \cdot \vec{v}(t) = -\sin(t)\cos(t) + \cos(t)\sin(t) = 0 \tag{54}$$

$$D\vec{v}(t) \perp \vec{v}(t)$$
; hence a tangent vector (55)

3)

$$g(t) = e^t \text{ scalar function}$$
 (56)

$$g(t) \cdot \vec{v}(t) = e^t(\cos(t), \sin(t)) = (e^t \cos(t), e^t \sin(t))$$
 (57)

$$D(g(t) \cdot \vec{v}(t)) = \begin{bmatrix} e^t \cos(t) - e^t \sin(t) \\ e^t \cos(t) + e^t \sin(t) \end{bmatrix}$$
(58)

4)

$$\vec{v}(t) = (t, \sin(t), \cos(t)), \vec{w}(t) = (3t, 0, 2) \tag{59}$$

$$f(t) = \vec{v}(t) \cdot \vec{w}(t)$$

$$= 3t^2 + 0 + 2\cos(t); \text{ scalar function}$$
 (60)

$$D(f(t)) = 6t - 2\sin(t) \tag{61}$$

$$\vec{w} \cdot D\vec{v} + \vec{v} \cdot D\vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 3t \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ +\cos(t) \\ -\sin(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} t \\ \sin(t) \\ \cos(t) \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(62)

$$= 6t - 2\sin(t) \tag{63}$$

2.6 Partial derivative along a direction

Definition: Given a function $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at (a, b), given a unit vector $\vec{u} = (u1, u2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ then the directional derivatives of F along \vec{u} is:

$$D_{\vec{u}}F(a,b) = \left[\frac{d}{dt}f((a,b) + t\vec{u})\right]_{t=0}$$
(64)

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a + hu_1, b + hu_2) - f(a, b)}{h}$$
 (65)

is the rate of change of F along the direction of \vec{u}

Two special cases would be when u are along the typical x or y direction, which would mean the class derivative along x-axis $\frac{df}{dx}$ or the y-axis $\frac{df}{dy}$

Theorum $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2)$ unit vector,

$$D_{\vec{u}}f(x,y) = (\frac{df}{dx}, \frac{df}{dy})\dot{\vec{u}} = (u_1, u_2)$$
(66)

since
$$\vec{u} = u_1(1,0) + u_2(0,1)$$
 (67)

$$D_{\vec{u}}f = u_1 \frac{df}{dx} + \frac{df}{dy} \tag{68}$$

Proof:

$$D_{\vec{u}}f = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{F(a + hu_1, b + hu_2) - F(a, b)}{h}$$
(69)

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{(F(a+hu_1, b+hu_2) - F(a, b+hu_2))}{h} \tag{70}$$

$$+\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{F(a,b+hu_2) - F(a,b)}{h}$$
 (71)

$$= \lim_{u_1 h \to 0} \frac{\left[F(a + hu_1, b + hu_2) - F(a, b + hu_2) \right] \cdot u_1}{hu_1}$$
 (72)

$$+\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{F(a,b+hu_2) - F(a,b)}{h}$$
 (73)

$$=\frac{df}{dx}(a,b+0)\cdot u_1 + \frac{df}{dy}\cdot u_s \tag{74}$$

Example: Find the directional Deriv of $f(x,y) = x^2 + 3xy$ along the direction

of (3,4) at the point p = (2,-1)

$$\vec{u} = \frac{(3,4)}{\sqrt{(3^2 + 4^2)}} = (\frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5}) \tag{75}$$

$$D_{\vec{u}}f(2,-1) = (2x+3y,3x)|_{(2,-1)} \cdot (\frac{3}{5},\frac{4}{5})$$
 (76)

$$=(1,6)\cdot(\frac{3}{5},\frac{4}{5})\tag{77}$$

$$=\frac{27}{5}\tag{78}$$

$$D_{\vec{u}}f = \nabla f \cdot \vec{u} = (\frac{df}{dx}, df dy) \cdot \vec{u}$$
(79)

Definition: Given $F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, then define the gradient.

$$\nabla f = D_{\vec{u}}f = (\frac{df}{x_1}, \frac{df}{x_2}, \dots, \frac{df}{x_n})$$
(80)

Hence the directional derivative of a function along a direction is:

$$D_{\vec{u}}f = \nabla f \cdot \vec{u} \tag{81}$$

The consequence of this:

1)

$$D_{\vec{u}}f \text{ max when } \vec{u}/\!\!/ \nabla f = (\frac{df}{dx}, \frac{df}{dy})$$
 (82)

since

$$\nabla f \cdot \vec{u} = |\nabla f| |\vec{u}| \cos(\theta) \tag{83}$$

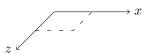
$$=|\nabla f| \cdot 1 \cdot \cos(\theta)\theta = ang(\nabla f, \vec{u}) \tag{84}$$

When maximized, //, $\theta = 0$

$$\nabla f \cdot \vec{u} = |\nabla f| = \sqrt{\frac{df^2}{dx^2 + \frac{df^2}{dy^2}}}$$
 (85)

2)

When
$$\vec{u} \perp \nabla f, D_{\vec{u}}f = 0$$
 (86)



Example: $f(x,y) = e^{-(x^2+y^2)}$, find the direction along this function which has the largest rate of increase/decrease at point (1,1)

Since at maximum, $\vec{u}/\!\!/ \nabla f$

$$\nabla f = (-2xe^{-(x^2+y^2)}, -2ye^{-(x^2+y^2)})|_{(1,1)}$$
(87)

$$=(-2e^{-2}, -2e^{-2}) (88)$$

$$\therefore \vec{u} /\!\!/ \nabla f /\!\!/ (1,1) \tag{89}$$

$$\vec{u} = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \tag{90}$$

Largest rate of increase at $(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$ Largest rate of decrease at $-(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$ The gradient ∇f tells us the direction along which F changes the most.

2.7Summary

Given a function $f(x,y)$	n-th dim analogue
Define Partial derivatives (deriv) $\frac{df}{dx}$, $\frac{df}{dy}$ or (f_x, f_y)	$f(x_1, x_2, \dots x_n)$
Define gradient $\frac{df}{dx}$, $\frac{df}{dy}$ or (f_x, f_y)	$f: \mathbb{R}^{\mathrm{n}} \to \mathbb{R}$
Directional deriv: given unit vector $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2)$	$\frac{df}{dx_1} \cdots \frac{df}{dx_n}$
$D_{\vec{u}f=\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{f((a,b)+h\vec{u})-f(a,b)}{h}}$	$\nabla f = (\uparrow)$
$if(\vec{u} = (1,0)), D_{\vec{u}}f = \frac{df}{dx}$	$\vec{u}f \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathrm{n}}$
$\mathrm{if}(\vec{u}=(0,1)),\ D_{\vec{u}}f=rac{\overline{df}}{du}$	$D_{\vec{u}}f = ?$
Theorem: $D_{\vec{u}} = \nabla f \cdot \vec{u} = u_1 \frac{df}{dx} + u_2 \frac{df}{dy}$	generalizations?
Remark: We can define $D_{\vec{u}}$ for any $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$	
in the exact same way	
$D_{ec{u}} = ec{v} D_{rac{ec{u}}{ ec{v} }f}$	

To each unit vector \vec{u} , we have a tangent vector associated to it:

$$(u1, u2, D_{\vec{u}}f) = u_1(1, 0, \frac{df}{dx}) + u_2(0, 1, \frac{df}{dy})$$
(91)

Two special cases: $(1,0,\frac{df}{dx})(0,1,\frac{df}{dy})$

The two tangent vector span a tangent plane at (a, b, f(a, b))

2.8 Gradients and level sets

Recall

$$\nabla f = (\frac{df}{dx}, \frac{df}{dy}) \tag{92}$$

$$\therefore D_{\vec{u}} = \nabla f \cdot \vec{u} = |\nabla f| |\vec{u}| \cos(\theta) \tag{93}$$

 $D_{\vec{u}}$ is the rate of change along \vec{u}

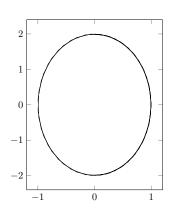
if $u/\!\!/ \nabla f$, $(\theta = 0)$ then $D_{\vec{u}}F$ max

$$|D_{\vec{u}}F| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{df}{dx}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{df}{dy}\right)^2} \tag{94}$$

In other words, along the direction of ∇F , the function F changes the most. Definition: A level set of F(x,y) is:

$$(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : f(x,y) = c$$
 (95)

Example:



$$f(x,y) = x^2 + \frac{y^2}{4} \tag{96}$$

$$\{f(x,y)=1\}$$
 (Level set) (97)

$$= \{(x,y)|x^2 + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1\} \quad (98)$$

Theorem: Given f(x,y) differentiable, then the gradient $\nabla f \perp$ the level set.

We can prove it by using the chain rule: let $\gamma(t)$ be a parametric function of my level set $\{f(x,y)=1\}$, $f(\gamma(t))=1$ and differentiate both sides.

$$0 = D(f(\gamma(t))) = Df(\gamma(t))D(\gamma(t))$$
(99)

$$=\nabla F(\gamma(t))_{1\times 2} \cdot (\gamma_1'(t), \gamma_2'(t))_{2\times 1} \tag{100}$$

Hence
$$\Rightarrow \nabla F(\gamma(t))_{1\times 2} \perp (\gamma'_1(t), \gamma'_2(t))_{2\times 1}$$
 (101)

Example: Look at a surface $\sin(xy) - 2\cos(yz) = 0$ Find the tangent plane of this surface at $(\frac{\pi}{2}, 1, \frac{\pi}{3})$. The idea is that consider the surface as a level set of $F(x, y, z) = \sin(xy) - 2\cos(yz)$, $\{F = 0\}$

Using the Theorem: ∇F is hence perpendicular to this surface, giving us the normal direction of our tangent plane.

$$\nabla F = (\frac{df}{dx}, \frac{df}{dy}, \frac{df}{dz}) = (y\cos(xy), x\cos(xy) + 2z\sin(yz), 2y\sin(tz))$$
 (102)

$$=(\cos(\frac{\pi}{2}), \frac{\pi}{2}\cos(\frac{\pi}{2}) + \frac{2\pi}{3}\sin(\frac{\pi}{3}), 2\sin(\frac{\pi}{3}))$$
 (103)

$$=(0, \frac{\sqrt{3}\pi}{3}, \sqrt{3})\tag{104}$$

$$0 = 0 \cdot (x - \frac{\pi}{2}) + \frac{\sqrt{3}\pi}{3}(y - 1) + \sqrt{3}(z - \frac{\pi}{3})$$
 (105)

Where the last equation above is the equation of the tangent plane.

2.9 Parametric Curves

... are vector functions in 1 variable.

Definition: A parametric curve in \mathbb{R}^n is a vector valued function where $\vec{c}(t)$: $R^1 \to \mathbb{R}^n$

All the component functions of $\vec{c}(t)$ are functions in 1 variable.

Example:

1) Draws a Circle

$$\vec{c}(t) = (\cos(t), \sin(t)), t \in [0, 2\pi]$$
 (106)

2) Draws a eclipse at plane z=3

$$\vec{c}(t) = (a\cos(t), b\sin(t), 3), t \in [0, 2\pi]$$
(107)

3) Eclipse spiraling up

$$\vec{c}(t) = (a\cos(t), b\sin(t), t), t \in [0, 2\pi]$$
(108)

Definition: Orientation of $\vec{c}(t)$, the direction corresponding to increasing t-value is called the positive orientation of $\vec{c}(t)$. The opposite direction is the negative orientation.

Example: Positive orientation = Clockwise

$$\vec{c}(t) = (\cos(t), -\sin(t), t), t \in [0, 2\pi]$$
(109)

Derivative of $\vec{c}(t)$

If
$$\vec{c}(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t)), \ \vec{c'}(t) = (x'(t), y'(t), z'(t))$$

- 1. $\vec{c}(t)$ is a vector function
- 2. $\vec{c}'(t)$ is a tangent to curve $\vec{c}(t)$

Terminology: $\vec{c'}(t)$ is the velocity of $\vec{c}(t)$, and $|\vec{c'}(t)|$ is the speed of $\vec{c}(t)$. The speed of the curve $\vec{c}(t) = (\cos(t), \sin(t))$ for example, is 1.

What is the length of curve $\vec{c}(t) = (\cos(t), \sin(t), t)$ between (0 to 2π)Given $\vec{c}(t)$ differentiable between range a and b, length of the curve would be

$$l = \int_{a}^{b} |\vec{c}'(t)| dt \tag{110}$$

$$|\vec{c}'(t)| = \sqrt{\sin(t)^2 + \cos(t)^2 + 1} = \sqrt{2}$$
 (111)

$$l = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{2}dt \tag{112}$$

Think of length as a function in t

$$l(t) = \int_{a}^{t} |\vec{c'}(x)| dx \tag{113}$$

If curve $\vec{c}(t)$ differentiable and $\vec{c}(t) \neq 0$,

- 1. $|\vec{c'}(t)| > 0$
- 2. l(t) strictly increasing.
- 3. I is one to one function so has inverse.

$$l[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}^1$$
, 1 has an inverse. (114)

$$t \to l(t)$$
, think of our parameter t (115)

(116)

t can now be expressed as a function in terms of length, $\vec{c}(t) = \vec{c}(t(l)) = \vec{c'}(l)$

Proof:

In our last example of calculating length, we can find an inverse for $l(t) = \sqrt{2}t$ resulting $t = \frac{l}{\sqrt{2}}$, by substitution we can reparameterize $\vec{c}(t)$ into $\vec{c}(l)$

$$c(l) = \vec{c}(t(l)) \tag{117}$$

$$\frac{d\vec{c}(l)}{dl} = \frac{\vec{c}(t(l))}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{dl}$$

$$= \vec{c}'(t) \cdot \frac{1}{|\vec{c}'(t)|}$$
(118)

$$=\vec{c'}(t) \cdot \frac{1}{|\vec{c'}(t)|} \tag{119}$$

$$\left| \frac{d\vec{c}(l)}{dl} \right| = \left| \vec{c'}(t) \right| \cdot \frac{1}{\left| \vec{c'}(t) \right|} = 1$$
 (120)

2.10 Acceleration

Acceleration is the second derivatives of length, hence the definition of second derivative can be expressed as below:

Definition: Given $\vec{c}(t)$, $\vec{a}(t) = \vec{c''}(t)$ the acceleration of \vec{c} .

Example:

1) Ellipse

$$\vec{c_1}(t) = (\cos(t), 2\sin(t)), t \in [0, 2\pi]$$
 (121)

$$\vec{c_1'}(t) = (-\sin(t), 2\cos(t)) \tag{122}$$

$$\vec{c_1''}(t) = (-\cos(t), -2\sin(t)) \tag{123}$$

2) Different para of the same Ellipse

$$\vec{c_2}(t) = (\cos(t^2), 2\sin(t^2)), t \in [0, \sqrt{2\pi}]$$
 (124)

$$\vec{c}_2'(t) = 2t(-\sin(t^2), 2\cos(t^2)) \tag{125}$$

$$\vec{c_2''}(t) = (-2\cos(t^2) - 4t^2\cos(t^2), 4\cos(t^2) - 8t^2\sin(t^2)) \tag{126}$$

Facts:

- 1. We can have different parameterations of a curve
- 2. Velocity, acceleration depend on the para we choose in general
- 3. For different parameterization $\vec{c_1}$, $\vec{c_2}$ of the same curve, $\vec{c_1}(t)/\!\!/ \vec{c_2}(t)$
- 4. "Unit Velocity" $\frac{\vec{c_1'}(t)}{|\vec{c_1'}(t)|} = \pm \frac{\vec{c_2'}(t)}{|\vec{c_2'}(t)|}$ are equal, the \pm depends on the orientations of the $\vec{c_1}$ and $\vec{c_2}$.

Definition:Given $\vec{c}(t)$, assume $|\vec{c'}(t)| \neq 0$, defined the unit tangent vector $\vec{T}(t) = \frac{\vec{c'}(t)}{|\vec{c'}(t)|}$. If $\vec{c_1}(t)$ and $\vec{c_2}(t)$ are two different parameter of a curve with the same orientation, their unit tangent vector equals.

2.11 Curvature

Idea: Curvature is a measure of how sharply a curve is bending at a point, it is the "rate of change" of directions along a curve. So a straight line has no curvature, and a slightly curved line has a small curvature.

Definition: Quantitatively, if $\vec{c}(t)$ is parametered by length, (namely, $|\vec{c}(t)| = 1$), then we define the curvature at $l = l_0$ to be $k(l_0) = |\vec{c''}(l_0)| = |\frac{d^2\vec{c}(l)}{dl^2}|_{l=l_0}$

Remark: IF $\vec{c}(t)$ not parametered by length, then $|\vec{c''}(t)|$ is not the curvature.

Explanation: a curve is like a highway and a parameterized function $\vec{c}(t)$ is like someone driving along this highway giving his position vector at a given time. Parameterized by length would be driving at a constant/normalized speed. A curvature is how sharp a turn is, measured by looking at how quickly the driver need to turn their steering wheel.

Generally, $|\vec{c'}(l)| = 1 \Rightarrow \vec{c'}(l)$ unit tangent, so $\vec{c''}(t)$ is curvature.

Example:

1) Find parameter by length

$$\vec{c}(t) = \vec{a} + t\vec{v} \tag{127}$$

Constant vectors: $\vec{a} = (1, 2, 3), \vec{v} = (0, 2, 1)$

Length function
$$l(t) = \int_0^t |\vec{c'}(x)| dx$$
 (128)

$$= \int_0^t |\vec{v}| dx, \quad \vec{v} = (0, 2, 1) \tag{129}$$

$$l = l(t) = \sqrt{5}t\tag{130}$$

$$t = t(l) = \frac{l}{\sqrt{5}} \tag{131}$$

Curvature would be zero since it is a line, its second derivative would be a zero.

2) Find the curvature for a circle

$$\vec{c}(t) = (r\cos(t), r\sin(t)), r > 0 \text{ circle } x^2 + y^2 = r^2$$
 (132)

length function
$$l(t) = \int_0^t |\vec{c'}(x)| dx = rt$$
 (133)

$$t(l) = \frac{l}{t} \tag{134}$$

$$\vec{c}(l) = (r\cos(\frac{l}{r}), r\sin(\frac{l}{r})) \tag{135}$$

$$\vec{c''}(l) = (-\frac{\cos(l/r)}{r}, -\frac{\sin(l/r)}{r})$$
 (136)

$$k(l) = |\vec{c''}(l)| \tag{137}$$

$$=\sqrt{(-\frac{\cos(l/r)}{r})^2 + (-\frac{\sin(l/r)}{r})^2} = \frac{1}{r}$$
 (138)

Curvature for circle of radius $r=\frac{1}{r}$

Second Definition of Curvature:

If $\vec{c}(t)$ any parameteric curve, $\vec{c'}(t) \neq 0$, recall the unit tangent vector $\vec{T} = \frac{\vec{c'}(t)}{|\vec{c'}(t)|}$, then define curvature $k(t)=\frac{|\vec{T'}(t)|}{|\vec{c'}(t)|}$ Theorem: Definition 1 and 2 of curvature are the same.

$$\vec{c'}(t) = \frac{d\vec{c}(t(l))}{dt} \tag{139}$$

$$=\frac{d\vec{c}(t)}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{dl} \tag{140}$$

$$=\frac{\vec{c'}(t)}{|\vec{c}(t)|} = \vec{T} \tag{141}$$

$$k(l(t)) = |\vec{c''}(t)| = |\frac{d^2\vec{c}}{dl^2}| = |\frac{d\vec{T}(t(l))}{dl}|$$
 (142)

$$= \frac{d\vec{c}(t)}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{dl}$$

$$= |T'(t)| \cdot \frac{|\vec{c}'(t)|}{|\vec{c}'(t)|} = k(t)$$
(143)

$$=|T'(t)| \cdot \frac{1}{|\vec{c'}(t)|} = k(t)$$
 (144)