# MAT237: Multivariable Calculus

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# Sunday 24<sup>th</sup> March, 2019

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# 1 Limits, continuity, and related topics

## 1.1 Open and Closed Sets, Boundary, Interior and Closure

**Definition 1.1.1.** Let  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and r > 0. The **open ball with centre a and radius** r is defined as

$$\mathcal{B}(r, \mathbf{a}) := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}|| < r \}. \tag{1.1.1}$$

**Definition 1.1.2.** The sphere with centre a and radius r is defined as

$$\partial \mathcal{B}(r, \mathbf{a}) := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}|| = r \}$$
(1.1.2)

**Definition 1.1.3.** Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , S is bounded if

$$\exists r > 0 \ s.t. \ S \subset \mathcal{B}(r, \mathbf{0}) \tag{1.1.3}$$

**Definition 1.1.4.** Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , then the **complement** of S is defined as

$$S^c := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{x} \notin S \} \tag{1.1.4}$$

**Definition 1.1.5.** Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , the **interior** of S is defined as

$$S^{int} := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \exists \varepsilon > 0 \text{ s.t. } \mathcal{B}(\varepsilon, \mathbf{x}) \subset S \}$$
 (1.1.5)

**Definition 1.1.6.** The **boundary** of S is defined as

$$\partial S := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \mathcal{B}(\varepsilon, \mathbf{x}) \cap S \neq \emptyset \land \mathcal{B}(\varepsilon, \mathbf{x}) \cap S^c \neq \emptyset \}$$
 (1.1.6)

**Theorem 1.1.1.** A point  $\mathbf{x} \in S$  is either a boundary point or a interior point.

**Definition 1.1.7.** The closure of S is defined as

$$\overline{S} := S^{int} \cup \partial S \tag{1.1.7}$$

**Theorem 1.1.2.** For any  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$S^{int} \subset S \subset \overline{S} \tag{1.1.8}$$

**Theorem 1.1.3.** For any  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$\partial S = \partial(S^c) \tag{1.1.9}$$

**Definition 1.1.8.** A set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is open if  $S = S^{int}$ . S is closed if  $S = \overline{S}$ .

Theorem 1.1.4.

$$S ext{ is closed} \iff S^c ext{ is open}$$
 (1.1.10)

Proof.

$$S ext{ is closed} \iff \partial S \subset S \iff \partial (S^c) \subset S$$
 (1.1.11)

$$\iff$$
 no point of  $S^c$  is a boundary point  $\iff S^c$  is open (1.1.12)

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## 1.2 Limits and Continuity

#### 1.2.1 Limits of Multivariable Functions

**Definition 1.2.1.** Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{f}: S \to \mathbb{R}^k$ , and  $\mathbf{a} \in S$ , then

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{L} \in \mathbb{R}^k \tag{1.2.1}$$

is defined as

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0 \ s.t. \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in S, \ \mathbf{0} < ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}|| < \delta \implies ||\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{L}|| < \varepsilon$$
 (1.2.2)

For this definition to be non-trivial, we need a not be an isolated point,

$$\forall \delta > 0, \ \exists \mathbf{x} \in S \ s.t. \ ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}|| \in (0, \delta) \tag{1.2.3}$$

**Theorem 1.2.1** (Limit Laws). Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfying (1.3.3) And  $f, g : S \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $L, M \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) = L \tag{1.2.4}$$

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) = M \tag{1.2.5}$$

then

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} [f(\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x})] = L + M \tag{1.2.6}$$

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} [f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot g(\mathbf{x})] = LM \tag{1.2.7}$$

**Theorem 1.2.2** (Squeeze Theorem). Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfies (1.3.3). Suppose that  $f, g, h : S \to \mathbb{R}$  and there exists p > 0 and  $L \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in S \cap \mathcal{B}(p, \mathbf{a}) \ f(\mathbf{x}) \le g(\mathbf{x}) \le h(\mathbf{x}) \tag{1.2.8}$$

and

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} h(\mathbf{x}) = L \tag{1.2.9}$$

then

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} g(\mathbf{x}) = L \tag{1.2.10}$$

Corollary 1.2.1. Let  $g, h : S \to \mathbb{R}$  and

$$|g(\mathbf{x})| \le h(\mathbf{x}) \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in S \tag{1.2.11}$$

and 
$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} h(\mathbf{x}) = 0$$
 (1.2.12)

then

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} g(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \tag{1.2.13}$$

**Theorem 1.2.3.** Assume that  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfying (1.3.3). Let  $\mathbf{f}: S \to \mathbb{R}^k$ , then

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{L} \iff \lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} f_j(\mathbf{x}) = L_j \ \forall j$$
 (1.2.14)

## 1.2.2 Continuity

**Definition 1.2.2.** Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{f}: S \to \mathbb{R}^k$ .  $\mathbf{f}$  is continuous at  $\mathbf{a} \in S$  if

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}) \tag{1.2.15}$$

and f is **continuous** if f is continuous at every point in S.

**Theorem 1.2.4** (Basic Properties of Continuity). Assume that  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{a} \in S$ ,

- (i) If  $\mathbf{f}: S \to \mathbb{R}^k$  is continuous at  $\mathbf{a}$ , then every component of  $\mathbf{f}, f_j: S \to \mathbb{R}$ , is continuous at  $\mathbf{a}$ .
- (ii) If  $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g}: S \to \mathbb{R}^k$  are continuous at  $\mathbf{a}$ , then  $\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{g}$  is continuous at  $\mathbf{a}$ .
- (iii) If  $f, g: S \to \mathbb{R}$  continuous, then fg is continuous and  $\frac{f}{g}$  is continuous given  $g(\mathbf{a}) \neq 0$ .
- (iv) A composition of continuous functions is continuous.
- (v) The elementary functions of a single variable (trigonometric functions and their inverses, polynomials, exponential and log) are continuous on their domains.

### 1.2.3 Continuous Functions and Open Sets

**Theorem 1.2.5.** Assume that  $\mathbf{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^k$ , then the following are equivalent

- (i) **f** is continuous;
- (ii) For every open set  $\mathcal{O} \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $\mathbf{f}^{-1}(\mathcal{O})$  is also open;
- (iii) For every closed set  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $\mathbf{f}^{-1}(\mathcal{C})$  is also closed.

### 1.3 Sequences and Completeness

**Definition 1.3.1.** A sequence  $\{\mathbf{a}_j\}_j$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  converges to the limit  $\mathbf{L} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists J \in \mathbb{N}, \ s.t. \ \forall j \ge J \implies ||\mathbf{a}_j - \mathbf{L}|| < \varepsilon \tag{1.3.1}$$

Theorem 1.3.1.

$$\lim_{j \to \infty} \mathbf{a}_j = \mathbf{L} \iff \lim_{j \to \infty} ||\mathbf{a}_j - \mathbf{L}|| = 0$$
 (1.3.2)

**Theorem 1.3.2.** Let  $\{a_{jk}\}_j$  be a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  where  $k \in [n]$ , and let  $\mathbf{L} = (L_1, \dots, L_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$$\lim_{j \to \infty} \mathbf{a}_j = \mathbf{L} \iff \lim_{j \to \infty} a_{jk} = L_k \ \forall k \in [n]$$
 (1.3.3)

Proof Idea.

$$\forall j \in [n], |a_j - L_j| \le ||\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{L}|| \le n \max_{k \in [n]} |a_k - L_k|$$
 (1.3.4)

**Axiom 1.1** (the Completeness Axiom). Every bounded and nonempty set of real numbers has a least upper bound (**supremum**) and a greatest lower bound (**infimum**).

**Theorem 1.3.3** (Monotone Sequence Theorem). Every bounded nondecreasing sequence of real numbers converges to a limit.

*Proof Idea.* Note that such sequence converges to its supremum S.

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $j^*$  such that

$$S - \varepsilon < a_{j^*} \le S \tag{1.3.5}$$

take such  $j^*$  and by the nondecreasing property,

$$\forall j \ge j^* \ a_i > S - \varepsilon \tag{1.3.6}$$

which implies  $|S - a_i| < \varepsilon$ .

**Definition 1.3.2.** A subsequence of a sequence  $\{\mathbf{a}_j\}_{j\geq j_0}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a sequence constructed as  $\{a_{k_j}\}_j$ , such that  $\{k_j\}_j$  is a *strictly increasing* sequence bounded below by  $j_0$ .

Remark 1.3.1. Subsequences can be constructed using strictly increasing transformations.

**Proposition 1.3.1.** If  $\{\mathbf{a}_j\}_j$  is a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  converges to  $\mathbf{L}$ , then (i) any subsequence of it converges to the (ii) same limit.

*Proof Idea.* Suppose not and reach a contradiction.

**Theorem 1.3.4** (Bounded Sequence Theorem in  $\mathbb{R}$ ). Every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$  has a convergent subsequence.

*Proof.* Let  $\{a_i\}_i$  be a bounded sequence.

For each  $j \in \mathbb{N}$ , define  $b_{k_i} := \inf_{k > k_i} a_k$ .

Note that  $\{b_j\}$  is non-decreasing and bounded, so it converges to some limit  $\ell$ .

Let  $\{a_{k_j}\}_j$  denote a subsequence of the original sequence, define  $k_0 = j_0$ , and indices are constructed in a recurrent way.

Suppose every index before  $k_j$  has been chosen, we choose  $k_{j+1}$  to be the index such that

$$b_{k_j} \le a_{k_{j+1}} < b_{k_j} + \frac{1}{j} \tag{1.3.7}$$

by construction,  $\{a_{k_j}\}_j$  is bounded by both  $\{b_{k_j}\}_j$  and  $\{b_{k_j}+\frac{1}{j}\}_j$ , and both bounding sequences converge to  $\ell$ . So  $\{a_{k_j}\}_j$  converges to  $\ell$  by squeeze theorem.

**Theorem 1.3.5** (Bounded Sequence Theorem). Every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has a convergent subsequence.

*Proof.* Let  $\{\mathbf{a}_j\}_j$  be a bounded sequence.

Applying the previous theorem iteratively, we can construct a subsequence of  $\{\mathbf{a}_{k_j}\}_j$  such that  $\{\mathbf{a}_{k_i} \cdot \mathbf{e}_1\}_j$  is bounded and convergent.

Then we apply the previous theorem iteratively on the constructed convergent subsequences to construct new subsequences with more convergent components.

## 1.4 Compactness

#### 1.4.1 Compactness

**Definition 1.4.1** (Heine-Borel Property). A set S is **compact** if every *open* covering of S has a *finite* sub-covering.

**Definition 1.4.2** (Sequentially Compact). A set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is **compact** if every sequence in S has a subsequence that converges to a limit in S.

**Proposition 1.4.1.** If  $\{\mathbf{x}_j\}_j$  is a *convergent* sequence in a *closed* set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , the then limit of this sequence is in S.

*Proof Idea.* Let  $\mathbf{x} := \lim_{j \to \infty} \mathbf{x}_j$ , and we wish to show  $\mathbf{x} \in S$ . Equivalently, we can show  $\mathbf{x} \in \overline{S}$ , and that's

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \mathcal{B}(\varepsilon, \mathbf{x}) \cap S \neq \varnothing \tag{1.4.1}$$

this is immediately true by the definition of sequence convergence. There must be some points in the sequence, thus in S, belongs to  $\mathcal{B}(\varepsilon, \mathbf{x})$ .

**Theorem 1.4.1** (Bolzano-Weierstrass). Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$S$$
 is compact  $\iff$   $S$  is closed and bounded (1.4.2)

Proof Idea.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose S is closed and bounded, boundedness ensures such sequence converges, and closeness ensures the limit point of sequence is in S.

 $(\Longrightarrow)$  Prove by modus tollens.

Case (i): S is not bounded, then

$$\forall R > 0 \ \exists \mathbf{x} \in S \backslash \mathcal{B}(R, \mathbf{0}) \tag{1.4.3}$$

and above  $\mathbf{x}(R)$  depends on R, we can construct a sequence using  $\mathbf{x}(j)$  such that the  $||\mathbf{x}||$  is ever increasing and it does not have a limit.

Case (ii): S is not closed, we can construct a sequence with subsequence converges to  $\mathbf{x} \in \partial S \backslash S$ , which is nonempty because S is not closed.

#### 1.4.2 the Extreme Value Theorem

**Theorem 1.4.2** (the Extreme Value Theorem). Assume K is a compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f: K \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous.

Then (i)

$$f(K)$$
 is compact  $(1.4.4)$ 

and (ii) the infimum and supremum of  $f(\mathbf{x})$  on K are attainable.

$$\exists \ \overline{\mathbf{x}}, \underline{\mathbf{x}} \in K \ s.t. \ \begin{cases} f(\overline{\mathbf{x}}) = \sup_{\mathbf{x} \in K} f(\mathbf{x}) \\ f(\underline{\mathbf{x}}) = \inf_{\mathbf{x} \in K} f(\mathbf{x}) \end{cases}$$
(1.4.5)

Proof. Let  $\{y_j\}_j$  be a sequence in f(K), and we can find a sequence  $\{\mathbf{z}_j\}_j$  in K such that  $y_j = f(\mathbf{z}_j)$  (by definition of image). Because K is compact, there exists a subsequence of  $\{\mathbf{z}_j\}_j$  converges to  $\mathbf{z}^* \in K$ . Since f is continuous, we can conclude there a subsequence, sharing the same indices, such that  $f(\mathbf{z}_j) \to f(\mathbf{z}^*)$  (Proposition 1.5.2). Obviously  $f(\mathbf{z}^*) \in f(K)$ , so f(K) is compact.

Since f(K) is compact, by Proposition 1.5.3,  $\sup_{\mathbf{x}\in K} f(\mathbf{x}) \in f(K)$ . By definition of image,  $\exists \mathbf{x}\in K$  such that  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \sup_{\mathbf{x}\in K} f(\mathbf{x})$ , supremum attainability shown.

Proof for infimum attainability is the same.

**Proposition 1.4.2.** Assume that  $\{\mathbf{z}_j\}_j$  is a sequence in a set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ , and f is a continuous real-valued function defined on S, then

$$\mathbf{z}_j \to \mathbf{z} \implies f(\mathbf{z}_j) \to f(\mathbf{z})$$
 (1.4.6)

**Proposition 1.4.3.** If S is a compact set in  $\mathbb{R}$ , then  $\sup S$  and  $\inf S$  both in S.

*Proof Idea.* Suppose  $\sup S \notin S$ , by definition of supremum,

$$\forall \varepsilon \ \exists x \in S \ s.t \ \sup S - \varepsilon < x \le \sup S \tag{1.4.7}$$

note that such  $x \in \mathcal{B}(\varepsilon, \sup S)$ . Also, similarly,

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists x \notin S \ s.t. \ \sup S < x < \sup S + \varepsilon \tag{1.4.8}$$

so such  $x \in \mathcal{B}(\varepsilon, \sup S)$ . We conclude

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \mathcal{B}(\varepsilon, \sup S) \cap S \neq \emptyset \land \mathcal{B}(\varepsilon, \sup S) \cap S^c \neq \emptyset$$
 (1.4.9)

which means  $\sup S \in \partial S$ . Thus if  $\sup S \notin S$ , S cannot be closed and this contradicts our assumption that S is compact.

The proof for 
$$\inf S \in S$$
 is similar.

#### 1.4.3 Uniform Continuity

**Definition 1.4.3.** Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , a function  $\mathbf{f}: S \to \mathbb{R}^k$  is uniformly continuous if

$$\forall \varepsilon \ \exists \delta > 0 \ s.t. \ \forall \mathbf{x}, \ \mathbf{y} \in S, \ ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|| < \delta \implies ||\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{y})|| < \varepsilon$$
 (1.4.10)

**Remark 1.4.1.** In the definition of *continuity*, value of  $\delta$  can depend on  $\mathbf{x}$ . But in the definition of *uniform continuity*, one  $\delta$  has to work for every  $\mathbf{x}$ .

**Theorem 1.4.3.** If K is a compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $\mathbf{f}: K \to R^k$  is continuous, then  $\mathbf{f}$  is uniformly continuous.

### 1.5 the Intermediate Value Theorem

**Definition 1.5.1.** A set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is path-connected (arcwise connected) pathwise connected) if for every  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S$ , there exists a continuous function  $\gamma : [0,1] \to S$  such that

$$\gamma(0) = \mathbf{x}, \ \gamma(1) = \mathbf{y} \tag{1.5.1}$$

**Example 1.5.1.** Convex sets are path-connected, a path can be constructed using the convex combination,

$$\gamma(t) := (1 - t)\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{y} \tag{1.5.2}$$

**Proposition 1.5.1.** Let  $S_1, S_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be two path-connected sets, and  $S_1 \cap S_2 \neq \emptyset$ . Then  $S_1 \cup S_2$  is path-connected.

*Proof.* Take  $\mathbf{z} \in S_1 \cap S_2$ , and let  $\tilde{\gamma}_1$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}_2$  be two connecting paths between  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{z}$  and  $\mathbf{z}$ ,  $\mathbf{y}$  respectively. Then define  $\gamma : [0,1] \to S_1 \cup S_2$  as

$$\gamma(t) := \mathbb{1}\left\{t \in [0, \frac{1}{2})\right\} \times \tilde{\gamma}_1(2t) + \mathbb{1}\left\{t \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1]\right\} \times \tilde{\gamma}_2(2(t - \frac{1}{2}))$$
(1.5.3)

**Theorem 1.5.1** (the intermediate Value Theorem). Assume that S is a path-connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and that  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous. Let  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in S$ .

Then for every  $t \in (\min\{f(\mathbf{a}), f(\mathbf{b})\}, \max\{f(\mathbf{a}), f(\mathbf{b})\})$ , there exists  $\mathbf{c} \in S$  such that  $f(\mathbf{c}) = t$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in S$ . WLOG, assume  $f(\mathbf{a}) < f(\mathbf{b})$ . Let t be an arbitrary value in  $(f(\mathbf{a}), f(\mathbf{b}))$ . Since S is path-connected, let  $\vec{\varphi} : [0,1] \to S$  be a continuous function such that  $\vec{\varphi}(0) = \mathbf{a}$  and  $\vec{\varphi}(1) = \mathbf{b}$ .

Then we can construct composite  $f \circ \vec{\varphi} : [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ , then apply the Intermediate Value Theorem in  $\mathbb{R}$ . We can conclude that  $\exists \eta \in (0,1) \ s.t. \ f \circ \vec{\varphi}(\eta) = t$ . And  $\vec{\varphi}(\eta) \in S$  is the point desired.

# 2 Differentiation and related topics

### 2.1 Differentiation of Real-Valued Functions

## 2.1.1 Single Variable Case

**Definition 2.1.1** (Equivalent Definitions of Differentiability). Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}$  open, and  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is said to be **differentiable at**  $x \in S$  if

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \text{ exists}$$
 (2.1.1)

or there exists  $m \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x) - mh}{h} = 0 \tag{2.1.2}$$

or there exists  $m \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $E(h) : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$f(x+h) = f(x) + mh + E(h), \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{E(h)}{h} = 0$$
 (2.1.3)

If f is differentiable at x, we define the **derivative** f'(x) := m.

#### 2.1.2 Differentiability of Real-valued Functions Defined on $\mathbb{R}^n$

**Definition 2.1.2.** Let S be an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x} \in S$  if

$$\lim_{\mathbf{h}\to\mathbf{0}} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{h}) - f(\mathbf{x})}{||\mathbf{h}||} \text{ exists}$$
 (2.1.4)

or there exists  $\mathbf{m} \in M_{1 \times n}$  such that

$$\lim_{\mathbf{h}\to\mathbf{0}} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{h}) - f(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{m}\cdot\mathbf{h}}{||\mathbf{h}||} = 0$$
 (2.1.5)

or there exists  $\mathbf{m} \in M_{1 \times n}$  and  $E(\mathbf{h})$  such that

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{h} + E(\mathbf{h}), \lim_{\mathbf{h} \to \mathbf{0}} \frac{E(\mathbf{h})}{||\mathbf{h}||} = 0$$
 (2.1.6)

If f is differentiable at x, we define its gradient as  $\nabla f(\mathbf{a}) := \mathbf{m}$ .

**Theorem 2.1.1.** Assume that  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$ , where S is an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and that  $\mathbf{x} \in S$ . If f is differentiable at  $\mathbf{x}$ , then f is continuous at  $\mathbf{x}$ .

Proof.

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{h} + E(\mathbf{h})$$
(2.1.7)

Note that when  $||\mathbf{h}|| \leq 1$ ,

$$E(\mathbf{h}) \le \frac{|E(\mathbf{h})|}{||\mathbf{h}||} \tag{2.1.8}$$

By the Squeeze Theorem,  $\lim_{\mathbf{h}\to\mathbf{0}} E(\mathbf{h}) = 0$ . Also,  $\lim_{\mathbf{h}\to\mathbf{0}} \mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{h} = 0$ . Thus

$$\lim_{\mathbf{h} \to \mathbf{0}} f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) - f(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \tag{2.1.9}$$

so f is continuous at  $\mathbf{x}$ .

## 2.1.3 Partial Differentiability

**Definition 2.1.3.** Let S be an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$ . The j-th partial derivative of f at x is defined as

$$\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j} := \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{e}_j) - f(\mathbf{x})}{h}$$
 (2.1.10)

**Theorem 2.1.2.** Let f be a function  $S \to \mathbb{R}$ , where S is an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If f is differentiable at a point  $\mathbf{x} \in S$ , then (i)  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}$  exists at  $\mathbf{x}$  for every  $j \in [n]$  and (ii)

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = (\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n})(\mathbf{x})$$
 (2.1.11)

**Theorem 2.1.3.** Assume f is a function  $S \to \mathbb{R}$  for some open  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . If all partial derivatives of f exist and are continuous at every point of S, then f is differentiable in S.

**Definition 2.1.4.** A function  $f: S \to R$  is said to be **of class**  $C^1$  if all partial derivatives of f exist and continuous at every point of S.

#### 2.1.4 Directional Derivatives

**Definition 2.1.5.** A direction in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is represented by a unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$ . And given such a unit vector, the directional derivative of f at  $\mathbf{x}$  in the direction of  $\mathbf{u}$  is defined as

$$\partial_{\mathbf{u}} f(\mathbf{x}) := \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{u}) - f(\mathbf{x})}{h}$$
 (2.1.12)

**Theorem 2.1.4.** If f is differentiable at a point  $\mathbf{x}$ , then  $\partial_{\mathbf{u}} f(\mathbf{x})$  exists for every unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$ , and moreover

$$\partial_{\mathbf{u}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \tag{2.1.13}$$

#### 2.2 Differentiation

**Definition 2.2.1.** Assume S is an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Given function  $\mathbf{f}: S \to \mathbb{R}^m$ , we say that  $\mathbf{f}$  is differentiable at a point  $\mathbf{a} \in S$  if there exists  $M \in M_{m \times n}$  such that

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{h}) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}) = M\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{h}), \lim_{\mathbf{h} \to \mathbf{0}} \frac{\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{h})}{||\mathbf{h}||} = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^m$$
 (2.2.1)

If such M exists, we define the **Jacobian matrix** of  $\mathbf{f}$  at  $\mathbf{a}$  as

$$D\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}) := M \tag{2.2.2}$$

**Definition 2.2.2.** Given a differentiable function  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$ , where S is an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , at a point **a** we define the **differential of** f **at a** as

$$df|_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{h}) := \nabla f(\mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{h} \tag{2.2.3}$$

**Remark 2.2.1.** The differential is discussed only for real-valued functions here.

Remark 2.2.2. The differential can be used for linear approximations for small h.

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}) + df|_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{h})$$
 (2.2.4)

## 2.3 the Chain Rule

**Theorem 2.3.1** (the Chain Rule). Let  $S_n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $T_m \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ , given functions  $\mathbf{g}: S_n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\mathbf{f}: T_m \to \mathbb{R}^\ell$ . Also let  $\mathbf{a} \in S_n$  such that  $\mathbf{g}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{f}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a})^1$ . Then

$$\underline{D(\mathbf{f} \circ \mathbf{g})(\mathbf{a})}_{\ell \times n} = \underline{D(\mathbf{f})(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a}))}_{\ell \times m} \underline{D\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a})}_{m \times n} \tag{2.3.1}$$

Example 2.3.1.

$$\frac{d}{d\mathbf{x}}||\mathbf{x}|| = \frac{\mathbf{x}}{||\mathbf{x}||} \tag{2.3.2}$$

**Definition 2.3.1.** A function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is called **homogeneous of degree**  $\alpha$  if

$$f(\lambda \mathbf{x}) = \lambda^{\alpha} f(\mathbf{x}) \ \forall \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}, \ \lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{++}$$
 (2.3.3)

**Theorem 2.3.2** (the Euler's Theorem of Homogeneous Functions). If  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is a homogeneous equation of degree  $\alpha$ , then

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \alpha f(\mathbf{x}) \tag{2.3.4}$$

Proof.

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial f(\lambda \mathbf{x})}{\partial \lambda} = \nabla f(\lambda \mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \frac{\partial f(\lambda \mathbf{x})}{\partial \lambda} = \frac{\partial \lambda^{\alpha} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \lambda} = \alpha \lambda^{\alpha - 1} f(\mathbf{x}) \end{cases}$$
(2.3.5)

$$\implies \nabla f(\lambda \mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \alpha \lambda^{\alpha - 1} f(\mathbf{x}) \tag{2.3.6}$$

$$\implies \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \alpha f(\mathbf{x}) \text{ evaluated at } \lambda = 1$$
 (2.3.7)

**Definition 2.3.2.** Let C be the level set of  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  at  $\mathbf{a} \in S$  defined as

$$C := \{ \mathbf{x} \in S : f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{a}) \}$$

$$(2.3.8)$$

and a vector **v** is **tangent to** C **at a** if there exists a function  $\gamma: I \to C$  defined on interval I containing 0, such that

$$\gamma(0) = \mathbf{a} \tag{2.3.9}$$

and

$$\mathbf{v} = \gamma'(0) \tag{2.3.10}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Also all functions  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{g}$  and  $\mathbf{f} \circ \mathbf{g}$  are well-defined near  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a})$ .

**Theorem 2.3.3.** Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set, and  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at **a**. Then  $\nabla f(\mathbf{a})$  is orthogonal to the level set of f passes through **a**.

*Proof Idea.* Let **v** be an arbitrary tangent vector to C at **a**, there must exists a function  $\gamma: I \to C$ . And define

$$h(t) := f \circ \gamma(t) \tag{2.3.11}$$

by definition of  $\gamma$ ,  $h(I) = \{f(\mathbf{a})\}$ . Thus

$$\frac{d}{dt}h(t) = \frac{d}{dt}f \circ \gamma(t) \tag{2.3.12}$$

$$= \nabla f(\gamma(0)) \cdot \gamma'(0) \tag{2.3.13}$$

$$= \nabla f(\mathbf{a}) \cdot \gamma'(0) \tag{2.3.14}$$

$$= \nabla f(\mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0 \tag{2.3.15}$$

So  $\nabla f(\mathbf{a})$  is orthogonal to any tangent vector of C at  $\mathbf{a}$ , which means  $\nabla f(\mathbf{a})$  is orthogonal to C.

#### 2.4 the Mean Value Theorem

**Theorem 2.4.1** (the Mean Value Theorem). Assume  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$ , where S is a convex and open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , of class  $C^1$ , then

$$\forall \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in S, \ \exists \lambda \in [0, 1] \ s.t. \ \mathbf{c} = \lambda \mathbf{a} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{b}$$
 (2.4.1)

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{c}) \cdot (\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}) = f(\mathbf{b}) - f(\mathbf{a}) \tag{2.4.2}$$

Proof Idea. Define  $\gamma(t) := t\mathbf{a} + (1-t)\mathbf{b}$ . Construct  $h : [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$  defined as  $h := f(\gamma(t))$  then apply one dimensional mean value theorem on h.

**Definition 2.4.1.** A set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is **convex** if

$$\forall \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in S, \lambda \in [0, 1], \ \lambda \mathbf{a} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{b} \in S \tag{2.4.3}$$

**Theorem 2.4.2.** Assume that S is an <u>open and convex</u> subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and that  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable in S such that

$$||\nabla f(\mathbf{x})|| \le M \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in S \tag{2.4.4}$$

then for every  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in S$ ,

$$|f(\mathbf{b}) - f(\mathbf{a})| \le M||\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}|| \tag{2.4.5}$$

Proof Idea. Use Cauchy's Inequality.

**Theorem 2.4.3.** Assume that S is an <u>open and convex</u> subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is a function differentiable on S. If  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0} \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in S$ , then f is constant on S.

*Proof Idea.* Take two arbitrary  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in S$ , then use mean value theorem to show  $f(\mathbf{a}) = f(\mathbf{b})$ .

**Theorem 2.4.4.** Assume that S is an open and path-connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is a function differentiable on S. If  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0} \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in S$ , then f is constant on S.

*Proof.* Any path-connected set can be written as a countable union of convex sets  $S = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{A}} C_i$  such that

$$\forall \alpha \subset \mathcal{A} \ s.t. \ \alpha \neq \emptyset, \ \cup_{i \in \alpha} C_i \cap \cup_{i \in \alpha^c} C_i \neq \emptyset$$
 (2.4.6)

then apply the previous theorem.

## 2.5 Higher Order Derivatives

**Definition 2.5.1.** A function f defined on S is **of class**  $C^k$  if all of its  $k^{th}$  order partial derivatives exists and continuous everywhere in S.

**Theorem 2.5.1.** Assume that S is an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and that  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is  $C^k$ . Let  $\alpha \in [n]^k$ , and let  $\beta$  be any permutation of  $\alpha$ ,

$$\partial^{\alpha} f = \partial^{\beta} f \tag{2.5.1}$$

**Definition 2.5.2.** A multi-index is an *n*-tuple of nonnegative integers. And we define

$$\partial^{\alpha} f := \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}\right)^{\alpha_1} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_2}\right)^{\alpha_2} \cdots \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}\right)^{\alpha_n} f, \quad \text{for } \alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$$
 (2.5.2)

where the **order** of multi-index is defined as

$$|\alpha| := \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \tag{2.5.3}$$

**Theorem 2.5.2** (the Multinomial Theorem).

$$(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n)^k = \sum_{|\alpha| = k} \frac{k!}{\alpha!} \mathbf{x}^{\alpha}$$

$$(2.5.4)$$

*Proof Idea.* Prove by induction on n, with Binomial Theorem.

**Definition 2.5.3.** Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a  $C^2$  function, then its **Hessian matrix** is defined as

$$H_f := \begin{pmatrix} \partial_1 \partial_1 f & \cdots & \partial_n \partial_1 f \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \partial_1 \partial_n f & \cdots & \partial_n \partial_n f \end{pmatrix}$$
 (2.5.5)

2.6

2.7

## 2.8 Optimization

**Theorem 2.8.1.** Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set and  $f, g : S \to \mathbb{R}$  be  $C^1$  functions. If  $\mathbf{x}$  is a *local extremal* satisfying  $g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ , and  $\nabla g(\mathbf{x}) \neq 0$ , then

$$\exists \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \ s.t. \begin{cases} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda \nabla g(\mathbf{x}) \\ g(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \end{cases}$$
 (2.8.1)

**Lemma 2.8.1.**  $\nabla g(\mathbf{x})$  is orthogonal to the constraint set  $g^{-1}(0)$ .

**Proposition 2.8.1.** Equations (2.8.1)  $\implies \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \perp g^{-1}(0)$  at  $\mathbf{x}$ .

**Theorem 2.8.2.** Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set, and  $f, \{g_i\}_{i=1}^k : S \to \mathbb{R}$  be  $C^1$  functions. Define  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^k \equiv (g_1(\mathbf{x}), g_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, g_k(\mathbf{x})).$ 

If  $\mathbf{x} \in S$  is a local extremal of f such that  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ , and  $\{\nabla g_i(\mathbf{x})\}$  are <u>linearly independent</u> (i.e.  $rank(D\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})) = k$ ), then

$$\exists \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^k \ s.t. \begin{cases} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda^T D \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0} \end{cases}$$
 (2.8.2)

## **Remark 2.8.1.** Procedure of optimization on *open sets*:

- (i) Find all critical points.
- (ii) Find optimizers among critical points.

#### **Remark 2.8.2.** Procedure of optimization with *inequality constraints*:

- (i) Find critical points without the constraints.
- (ii) Find critical points on the constraints.
- (iii) Find optimizers among candidates.

# 3 The Implicit and Inverse Function Theorems

## 3.1 The Implicit Function Theorem I

**Theorem 3.1.1** (Implicit Function Theorem). Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$  be an open set, and function  $F: S \to \mathbb{R}^k$  be a  $C^1$  function. Suppose there exists point  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  such that

$$F(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{0} \tag{3.1.1}$$

If

$$det(D_{\mathbf{v}}(F(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}))) \neq 0 \tag{3.1.2}$$

then there exists  $r_0, r_1 > 0$  and a  $C^1$  function  $\mathbf{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^k$  such that

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{B}(r_0, \mathbf{a}), \ \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathcal{B}(r_1, \mathbf{b}) \land F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{0}$$
(3.1.3)

and define  $\mathbf{y} \equiv \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ , the derivative of  $\mathbf{f}$  can be found as

$$D\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = -[D_{\mathbf{y}}F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})]^{-1}D_{\mathbf{x}}F(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$
(3.1.4)

**Remark 3.1.1.** Procedure to prove solvability of non-linear equations

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{0} \tag{3.1.5}$$

near  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$ .

- (i) Verify  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{0}$ .
- (ii) Assert

$$det(D_{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})) \neq 0 \tag{3.1.6}$$

(iii) Approximate solution  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$  using

$$f(x + h) \approx a + Df(a)h$$
 (3.1.7)

$$= \mathbf{a} - [D_{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})]^{-1}D_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$$
(3.1.8)

## 3.2 Geometric content of the Implicit Function Theorem

**Definition 3.2.1.** Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{a} \in S$ . S is singular at  $\mathbf{a}$  if

$$\forall r > 0 \ S \cap \mathcal{B}(r, \mathbf{a}) \text{ cannot be represented as a } C^1 \text{ graph.}$$
 (3.2.1)

S is **regular** at **a** is its not singular there.

**Theorem 3.2.1** (k dimensional manifold as level set). Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $\mathbf{F}: U \to \mathbb{R}^{n-k}$  be a  $C^1$  function.

$$S \equiv \mathbf{F}^{-1}(\mathbf{0}) \tag{3.2.2}$$

Let  $\mathbf{a} \in U$ , if

$$rank(D\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{a})) = n - k \tag{3.2.3}$$

then  $\exists r > 0$  such that the level set of F near a

$$\mathcal{B}(r, \mathbf{a}) \cap S \tag{3.2.4}$$

can be represented as a  $C^1$  graph.

**Theorem 3.2.2** (k dimensional manifold as parameterization). Let  $T \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$  and let  $\mathbf{f}: U \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a  $C^1$  function.

$$S \equiv \mathbf{f}(T) \tag{3.2.5}$$

Let  $\mathbf{t} \in T$ , if

$$rank(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{t})) = k \tag{3.2.6}$$

then  $\exists r > 0$  such that the parameterization of f near t

$$\mathbf{f}(T \cap \mathcal{B}(r, \mathbf{t})) \tag{3.2.7}$$

can be represented as a  $C^1$  graph.

## 3.3 Transformations, and the Inverse Function Theorem

**Example 3.3.1** (Polar coordinate in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ). Let

$$U \equiv \{(r,\theta) : r > 0 \land \theta \in (-\pi,\pi)\}$$

$$(3.3.1)$$

$$V \equiv \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(x,0) : x \le 0\}$$

$$\tag{3.3.2}$$

Define  $\mathbf{f}: U \to V$  as

$$\mathbf{f}(r,\theta) \equiv \begin{pmatrix} r\cos(\theta) \\ r\sin(\theta) \end{pmatrix} \tag{3.3.3}$$

**Example 3.3.2** (Spherical coordinate in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ). Define

$$\mathbf{f}(r,\theta,\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} r\cos(\theta)\sin(\varphi) \\ r\sin(\theta)\sin(\varphi) \\ r\cos(\varphi) \end{pmatrix}$$
(3.3.4)

**Example 3.3.3** (Cylindrical coordinate in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ). Define

$$\mathbf{f}(r,\theta,z) = \begin{pmatrix} r\cos(\theta) \\ r\sin(\theta) \\ z \end{pmatrix}$$
 (3.3.5)

**Theorem 3.3.1** (Inverse Function Theorem). Let U and V be open subsets in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $\mathbf{f}: U \to V$ . Let  $\mathbf{a} \in U$  and define  $\mathbf{b} \equiv \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}) \in V$ . If

$$det(D\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a})) \neq 0 \tag{3.3.6}$$

then there exists  $M\subseteq U$  and  $N\subseteq V$  such that

- (i)  $\mathbf{a} \in M$  and  $\mathbf{b} \in N$ ,
- (ii)  $\mathbf{f}$  is bijective between M and N,
- (iii)  $\mathbf{f}^{-1}: N \to M \text{ is } C^1,$

and for all  $\mathbf{x} \in M$  such  $\mathbf{y} \equiv \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \in N$ ,

$$D\mathbf{f}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}) = [D\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})]^{-1} \tag{3.3.7}$$

# 4 Integration

## 4.1 Basics

**Theorem 4.1.1** (Properties of infimum and supremum). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $A \neq \emptyset$ , and  $f, g : A \to \mathbb{R}$  are bounded functions. Let m and M denote the infimum and supremum respectively, then

- (i)  $m_A f + m_A g \le m_A (f+g) \le M_A (f+g) \le M_A f + M_A g$
- (ii) If  $A' \subseteq A$ , then  $m_A f \leq m_{A'} f \leq M_{A'} f \leq M_A f$
- (iii) If  $f(\mathbf{x}) \leq g(\mathbf{x}) \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in A$ , then  $m_A f \leq m_A g$  and  $M_A f \leq M_A g$
- (iv)  $|M_A f| \leq M_A |f|$
- (v)  $M_A |f| m_A |f| < M_A f m_A f$
- (vi)  $\forall c \in \mathbb{R}, M_A(cf) m_A(cf) = |c|(M_A f m_A f)$
- (vii)  $M_A f m_A f = \sup\{f(x) f(y) : x, y \in A\}$

### 4.2 Integration on Higher Dimensions

**Definition 4.2.1.** A rectangle  $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined as

$$\mathcal{R} \equiv \prod_{i=1}^{n} [a_i, b_i] \tag{4.2.1}$$

where  $a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $a_i < b_i$ .

**Definition 4.2.2.** A partition P of rectangle  $\mathcal{R} = \prod_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i]$  is a list of n finite and increasing list of real numbers

$$P = \{L_1, L_2, \dots, L_n\} \tag{4.2.2}$$

where  $L_i = \{e_j\}_{j=0}^{T_i}$  such that

$$a_i = e_0 < e_1 < \dots < e_{T_i} = b_i$$
 (4.2.3)

and such partition induces a set of rectangles(boxes)  $\mathcal{B}(P) \equiv \{B_j\}_{j=1}^J \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ .

**Definition 4.2.3.** Let P and P' be two partitions of  $\mathcal{R}$ . Then P' is a **refinement** of P if

$$\forall B_j \in \mathcal{B}(P), B_j' \in \mathcal{B}(P') \quad B_j' \subseteq B_j \vee B_j^{'int} \cap B_j^{int} = \emptyset$$
(4.2.4)

**Definition 4.2.4.** Define the volume of rectangle  $\mathcal{R} = \prod_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i]$  as

$$V^n(\mathcal{R}) \equiv \prod_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i) \tag{4.2.5}$$

**Definition 4.2.5.** The lower Riemann sum of f with partition P on  $\mathcal{R}$  is defined as

$$L_P f \equiv \sum_{B_j \in \mathcal{B}(P)} \inf_{\mathbf{x} \in B_j} f(\mathbf{x}) V^n(B_j)$$
(4.2.6)

and the upper Riemann sum is defined as

$$U_P f \equiv \sum_{B_j \in \mathcal{B}(P)} \sup_{\mathbf{x} \in B_j} f(\mathbf{x}) V^n(B_j)$$
(4.2.7)

**Definition 4.2.6.** The upper integral and lower integral of f on  $\mathcal{R}$  are defined as

$$\bar{I}_{\mathcal{R}}f \equiv \inf_{P} U_{P}f \tag{4.2.8}$$

$$\underline{L}_{\mathcal{R}}f \equiv \sup_{P} L_{P}f \tag{4.2.9}$$

**Definition 4.2.7.** A bounded real-valued function f defined on  $\mathcal{R}$  is **integrable** if

$$\underline{I}_{\mathcal{R}}f = \bar{I}_{\mathcal{R}}f \tag{4.2.10}$$

and the integral is defined as

$$\int \cdots \int_{\mathcal{R}} f \ dV^n \equiv \underline{I}_{\mathcal{R}} f = \bar{I}_{\mathcal{R}} f \tag{4.2.11}$$

**Lemma 4.2.1.** Let f be a bounded real-valued function defined on  $\mathcal{R}$ , f is integrable if and only if  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ , there exists a partition P of  $\mathcal{R}$  such that

$$U_P f - L_P f < \epsilon \tag{4.2.12}$$

**Theorem 4.2.1.** Let f and g be two integrable functions on  $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , let  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

- (i)  $f + g : \mathcal{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is integrable and  $\int_{\mathcal{R}} (f + g) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f + \int_{\mathcal{R}} g$
- (ii)  $c \cdot f$  is integrable and  $\int_{\mathcal{R}} c \cdot f = c \int_{\mathcal{R}} f$
- (iii)  $f(\mathbf{x}) \ge g(\mathbf{x}) \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R} \implies \int_{\mathcal{R}} f \ge \int_{\mathcal{R}} g$
- (iv) |f| is integrable and  $|\int_R f| \le \int_R |f|$

**Definition 4.2.8.** Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be a bounded set, and there exists rectangle  $\mathcal{R}$  covers S, the indicator function of S is  $\chi_S : \mathcal{R} \to \{0,1\}$ , defined as

$$\chi_S(\mathbf{x}) \equiv \mathbb{I}(\mathbf{x} \in S) \tag{4.2.13}$$

**Definition 4.2.9.** Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be a bounded set, and there exists rectangle  $\mathcal{R}$  covers S. Let  $f: \mathcal{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a bounded function, then f is **integrable on** S if  $\chi_S f$  is integrable on  $\mathcal{R}$ . And

$$\int \cdots \int_{S} f \ dV^{n} \equiv \int \cdots \int_{\mathcal{R}} \chi_{S} f \ dV^{n} \tag{4.2.14}$$

**Definition 4.2.10.** Let  $Z \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , Z has **zero content** if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a <u>finite</u> set of rectangles  $\{R_\ell\}_{\ell=1}^L$  covers Z and

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{L} V^n(R_\ell) < \epsilon \tag{4.2.15}$$

**Proposition 4.2.1.** Let  $Z \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  has zero content, then

- (i) For any  $Z' \subseteq Z$ , Z' has zero content.
- (ii) Finite union of content zero sets has zero content.
- (iii) Let  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  be an integrable function, it's graph  $\{(x,f(x)):x\in[a,b]\}$  has zero content.
- (iv) Let  $\mathbf{f}:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^2$  be a  $C^1$  function, the parameterization  $\mathbf{f}([a,b])$  has zero content.

**Theorem 4.2.2.** Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a rectangle in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and f is integrable on  $\mathcal{R}$  if

$$\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R} : f \text{ is discontinuous at } \mathbf{x}\}$$
 (4.2.16)

has zero content.

**Proposition 4.2.2** (Folland 4.22). Suppose  $Z \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  has zero content. If  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is bounded, then f is integrable on Z and  $\int_Z f \ dV^n = 0$ .

#### 4.3 Iterated Integrals

**Theorem 4.3.1** (Fubini's Theorem). Let  $\mathcal{R} = [a,b] \times [c,d] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  and  $f: \mathcal{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is bounded. Assuming that

- (i) f is integrable on  $\mathcal{R}$ .
- (ii) for each  $y \in [c, d]$ , the function  $f_y(x) \equiv f(x, y)$  is integrable on [a, b].
- (iii) Define  $g(y) \equiv \int_a^b f(x,y)dy$  is integrable on [c,d].

Then

$$\iint_{\mathcal{R}} f \ dA = \int_{c}^{d} \left( \int_{a}^{b} f(x, y) \ dx \right) dy \tag{4.3.1}$$

**Proposition 4.3.1.** Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be an unbounded set, and  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$ . Then improper integral  $\int \cdots \int_S f \ d^n \mathbf{x}$  is absolutely convergent on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if and only if  $\int \cdots \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \chi_S f \ d^n \mathbf{x}$  is absolutely convergent.

## 4.4 Change of Variables

**Theorem 4.4.1** (Change of Variable). Let U and V be two open subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and let  $\mathbf{G}: U \to V$  be a  $C^1$  bijection. Let  $T \subset U$  and  $S \subset V$ . Suppose  $\mathbf{G}(T) = S$ , then

$$\int \cdots \int_{S} f \ d\Omega = \int \cdots \int_{T} f \circ \mathbf{G} \ |\mathrm{det} D\mathbf{G}| \ d\Theta \tag{4.4.1}$$

Corollary 4.4.1. Let S be a region in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , suppose S can be parameterized by  $\mathbf{G}: T \to S$ . By the change of variable formula, consider the special case  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 1$ ,

$$|S| = \int \cdots \int_{S} 1 \ d\Omega = \int \cdots \int_{T} 1 \ |\det D\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{u})| \ d\Theta$$
 (4.4.2)

**Example 4.4.1** (Polar Coordinate). Define the coordinate transformation mapping from polar to Cartesian,

$$\mathbf{P}(r,\theta) \equiv (x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} r\cos\theta\\r\sin\theta \end{pmatrix}, \ \theta \in [0,2\pi] \ r \in \mathbb{R}_+$$
 (4.4.3)

and  $|\det D\mathbf{P}(r,\theta)| = r$ .

**Example 4.4.2** (Cylindrical Coordinate). Define the coordinate transformation mapping from cylindrical to Cartesian as

$$\mathbf{C}(r,\theta,z) \equiv (x,y,z) = \begin{pmatrix} r\cos\theta\\r\sin\theta\\z \end{pmatrix}, \ \theta \in [0,2\pi] \ r \in \mathbb{R}_+ \ z \in \mathbb{R}$$
 (4.4.4)

and  $|\det D\mathbf{C}(r, \theta, z)| = r$ .

**Example 4.4.3** (Spherical Coordinate). Define the coordinate transformation mapping from spherical to Cartesian as

$$\mathbf{S}(r,\theta,\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} r\cos\theta\sin\varphi\\r\sin\theta\sin\varphi\\r\cos\varphi \end{pmatrix} \tag{4.4.5}$$

and  $|\det D\mathbf{S}(r,\theta,\varphi)| = r^2 \sin \varphi$ 

# 4.5 Further Aspects

### 4.5.1 Exchanging Differentiation and Integration

**Theorem 4.5.1** (Exchanging Differentiation and Integration). Let  $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) : S \times T \to \mathbb{R}$  and define  $F(\mathbf{x}) : S \to \mathbb{R}$  as

$$F(\mathbf{x}) \equiv \int \cdots \int_{T} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) \ d\Omega \tag{4.5.1}$$

If

- (i) S is open and T is compact and bounded;
- (ii) f and F are continuous on their domains;
- (iii) and  $\forall x_j \in \mathbf{x}, \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})}{\partial x_j}$  is continuous,

then F is  $C^1$  in S and for every j,

$$\frac{\partial F(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j} = \int \cdots \int_T \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})}{\partial x_j} d\Omega$$
 (4.5.2)

Corollary 4.5.1. By the definition of partial derivative, above theorem is equivalent to

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \int \cdots \int_{T} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{e}_{j}, \mathbf{t})}{h} \ d\Omega = \int \cdots \int_{T} \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{e}_{j}, \mathbf{t})}{h} \ d\Omega \tag{4.5.3}$$

## 4.5.2 Improper Integrals

**Definition 4.5.1** (Unbounded Domains). An **improper integral** with unbounded domain  $\int \cdots \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f \, d\Omega$  is **absolutely convergent** if there exists  $L \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists R > 0 \ s.t. \ \forall S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \ B(R, \mathbf{0}) \subset S \implies \left| \int \cdots \int_S f \ d\Omega - L \right| < \varepsilon$$
 (4.5.4)

**Theorem 4.5.2.** Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function, and that

$$\lim_{R \to \infty} \int \cdots \int_{B(R,\mathbf{0})} |f| \ d\Omega \text{ exists}$$
 (4.5.5)

then  $\int \cdots \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f \ d\Omega$  is absolutely convergent.

Corollary 4.5.2 (Equivalence). Above improper integral  $\int \cdots \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f \ d\Omega$  is absolutely convergent if set

$$\left\{ \int \cdots \int_{B(R,\mathbf{0})} |f| \ d\Omega : R \in \mathbb{R}_{++} \right\} \tag{4.5.6}$$

is bounded.

Corollary 4.5.3. Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be an continuous function, if

$$\exists p > n, \ C > 0 \ s.t. \ |f(\mathbf{x})| \le \frac{1}{||\mathbf{x}||^p} \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
 (4.5.7)

then  $\int \cdots \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f \ d\Omega$  is absolutely convergent.

**Definition 4.5.2** (Unbounded Function). Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Consider a function  $f: S \setminus \{\mathbf{a}\} \to \mathbb{R}$ . Then the improper integral  $\int \cdots \int_S f d\Omega$  is absolutely convergent if

$$\exists L \in \mathbb{R} \ s.t \ \forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists r > 0 \ s.t. \ \forall U \subset S \ s.t. \ \mathbf{a} \in U^{int} \land U \subset B(r, \mathbf{a}), \ \left| \int \cdots \int_{S \backslash U} f \ d\Omega - L \right| < \varepsilon \ (4.5.8)$$

**Theorem 4.5.3.** Let  $f: S \setminus \{a\} \to \mathbb{R}$ , if

$$\lim_{r \to 0} \int \cdots \int_{S \setminus B(r, \mathbf{a})} |f| \ d\Omega \text{ exists}$$
 (4.5.9)

then  $\int \cdots \int_S f \ d\Omega$  is absolutely convergent.

Corollary 4.5.4 (Equivalence). If the set

$$\left\{ \iint_{S \setminus B(r,\mathbf{a})} |f| \ d\Omega : r \in \mathbb{R}_{++} \right\} \tag{4.5.10}$$

is bounded, then  $\int \cdots \int_S f \ d\Omega$  is absolutely convergent.

Corollary 4.5.5. Let  $f: S \setminus \{a\} \to \mathbb{R}$ , if

$$\exists p < n, \ C > 0 \ s.t. |f(\mathbf{x})| \le \frac{C}{||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}||^p} \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in S \setminus \{\mathbf{a}\}$$
 (4.5.11)

then the improper integral  $\int \cdots \int_S f \ d\Omega$  is absolutely convergent.

## 5 Vector Calculus

## 5.1 Line Integrals

#### 5.1.1 Arc Length

**Definition 5.1.1.** Let C be a smooth curve in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  parameterized by  $C^1$  function  $\mathbf{g}$  such that  $\mathbf{g}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$  for every appropriate t.

$$C \equiv \{\mathbf{g}(t) : t \in [a, b]\} \tag{5.1.1}$$

and the arc length of C is defined as

$$\int_C d^n \mathbf{x} \equiv \int_C ds \equiv \int_a^b ||\mathbf{g}'(t)|| dt$$
 (5.1.2)

**Proposition 5.1.1.** The arc length of a curve C is an intrinsic property of the geometric object C and should not depend on the particular parameterization we use.

*Proof.* Let  $\varphi:[c,d]\to [a,b]$  be a bijection, so that  $\mathbf{h}\equiv\mathbf{g}\circ\varphi$  is also a valid parameterization of C such that

$$C \equiv \{\mathbf{h}(u) : u \in [c, d]\}\tag{5.1.3}$$

The arc length of C can be computed using

$$\int_C ds = \int_C^d ||\mathbf{h}'(u)|| \ du \tag{5.1.4}$$

$$= \int_{c}^{d} ||\mathbf{g}'(\varphi(u))|| \times ||\varphi'(u)|| \ du \tag{5.1.5}$$

$$= \int_{a}^{b} ||\mathbf{g}'(t)|| \ dt \text{ by change of variable formula.}$$
 (5.1.6)

**Remark 5.1.1** (Interpretations). Suppose  $\mathbf{g}$  is a parameterization of C.

- (i)  $\int_a^b \mathbf{g}'(t) dt = \mathbf{g}(b) \mathbf{g}(a)$  measures the distance between two endpoints of C.
- (ii) Choosing a parameterization is effectively choosing an **orientation** for the curve C.

**Definition 5.1.2.** A function  $\mathbf{g}:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^n$  is called **piecewise smooth** if

- (i) it's *continuous*, and
- (ii) it's derivate exists and is continuous except at finitely many points  $t_j$ , at which the one-sided limits exists.

#### 5.1.2 Line Integrals of Scalar Functions

**Definition 5.1.3.** Let smooth curve  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f: C \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{g}$  be a parameterization of C, then

$$\int_{C} f \ ds = \int_{a}^{b} f(\mathbf{g}(t)) \ ||\mathbf{g}'(t)|| \ dt \tag{5.1.7}$$

**Remark 5.1.2.** The line integrals of scalar functions are also independent from the choices of parameterizations.

Definition 5.1.4.

Average of 
$$f$$
 over  $C \equiv \frac{\int_C f \, ds}{\int_C \, ds}$  (5.1.8)

### 5.1.3 Line Integrals of Vector Fields

**Definition 5.1.5.** Let smooth  $C \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with parameterization  $\mathbf{g}$  and  $\mathbf{F}: C \to \mathbb{R}^n$  defined on it, the line integral of  $\mathbf{F}$  over C is defined as

$$\int_{C} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x} = \int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{g}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{g}'(t) dt$$
 (5.1.9)

**Proposition 5.1.2.** The line integral  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x}$  is independent of the parameterization as long as the orientation is unchanged.

**Theorem 5.1.1** (The Fundamental Theorem of Line Integral). Let  $f: C \to \mathbb{R}$  defined on smooth curve C parameterized by  $\mathbf{g}: [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$$\int_{C} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot d^{n} \mathbf{x} = f(\mathbf{g}(b)) - f(\mathbf{g}(a))$$
(5.1.10)

Proof.

$$\int_{C} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot d^{n} \mathbf{x} = \int_{a}^{b} \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{g}(t))}{\partial \mathbf{g}(t)} \cdot \mathbf{g}'(t) dt$$
(5.1.11)

$$= \int_{a}^{b} \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{g}(t))}{\partial t} dt = f(\mathbf{g}(b)) - f(\mathbf{g}(a))$$
(5.1.12)

#### 5.1.4 Rectifiable Curves

**Remark 5.1.3.** Let C be a curve in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  parameterized by injection  $\mathbf{g}:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\mathbf{g}'(t)\neq\mathbf{0}$ . Let P be a partition of [a,b]. Denote

$$L_P(C) \equiv \sum_j ||\mathbf{g}(t_j) - \mathbf{g}(t_{j-1})||$$
 (5.1.13)

**Definition 5.1.6.** A curve C is **rectifiable** if the set  $\{L_P(C): P\}$  is bounded. And the arc length of C s defined as

$$L(C) \equiv \sup\{L_P(C): P\} \tag{5.1.14}$$

**Theorem 5.1.2.** The supremum found above, L(C) is the precisely the arc length of C:

$$L(C) = \int_{a}^{b} ||\mathbf{g}'(t)|| dt$$
 (5.1.15)

## 5.2 Green's Theorem

## 5.2.1 Preliminary Definitions

**Definition 5.2.1.** A simple closed curve is a curve with parameterization  $\mathbf{g}:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^n$  where

- (i) **g** is continuous;
- (ii) g(a) = g(b);
- (iii)  $\mathbf{g}$  is injective with its domain restricted to (a,b).

**Definition 5.2.2.** A simple closed curve is **piecewise smooth** if it has a parameterization **g** such that

- (i) **g** is continuously differentiable with  $\mathbf{g}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$  except finitely many breakpoints;
- (ii)  $\mathbf{g}'(t)$  is one side continuous at breakpoints of the curve.

**Definition 5.2.3.** A regular region  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a set satisfying both

- (i) S is compact;
- (ii)  $\overline{S^{int}} = S$ .

**Definition 5.2.4.** Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ , S has **piecewise smooth boundary** if  $\partial S$  consists of one or more disjoint, piecewise smooth, simple closed curve.

**Definition 5.2.5.** Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ , then **positive orientation** on  $\partial S$  is the orientation on each of the closed curves that make up the boundary such that the region is on the *left* with respect to the positive direction on the curve.

**Theorem 5.2.1** (Green's Theorem). Suppose  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  is a regular region with piecewise smooth region  $\partial S$ . Suppose **F** is a  $C^1$  vector field defined on  $\overline{S}$ , then

$$\int_{\partial S} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x} = \iint_{S} \left( \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x_1} - \frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x_2} \right) dA \tag{5.2.1}$$

Corollary 5.2.1. Suppose S is a regular region in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with piecewise smooth boundary  $\partial S$ , and let  $\mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x})$  be the *unit outward normal* vector to  $\partial S$  at  $\mathbf{x} \in \partial S$ . Suppose also that  $\mathbf{F}$  is a vector field defined on  $\overline{S}$ , then

$$\int_{\partial S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \ ds = \iint_{S} \left( \frac{\partial F_{1}}{\partial x_{1}} + \frac{\partial F_{2}}{\partial x_{2}} \right) \ dA \tag{5.2.2}$$

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{g}(t)$  be a parameterization of boundary  $\partial S$ . Then the tangent vector would be  $\mathbf{g}'(t)$  and we can conclude the *outer normal vector*  $\mathbf{n}$  is  $\frac{(g_2'(t), -g_1'(t))}{||(g_2'(t), -g_1'(t))||}$ . Then

$$\int_{\partial S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \ ds = \int_{T} \mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{g} \cdot \frac{(g'_{2}(t), -g'_{1}(t))}{\|(g'_{2}(t), -g'_{1}(t))\|} \|\mathbf{g}'(t)\| \ dt$$
 (5.2.3)

$$= \int_{T} F_1 g_2'(t) - F_2 g_1'(t) dt$$
 (5.2.4)

$$= \int_{T} \begin{pmatrix} -F_2 \\ F_1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} g_1'(t) \\ g_2'(t) \end{pmatrix} dt \tag{5.2.5}$$

$$= \int_{\partial S} \begin{pmatrix} -F_2 \\ F_1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot d^2 \mathbf{x} \tag{5.2.6}$$

$$= \iint_{S} \frac{\partial F_{1}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F_{2}}{\partial y} dA \text{ By Green's Theorem}$$
 (5.2.7)

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## 5.3 Surface Integrals

## 5.3.1 Surface Areas and Surface Integrals

**Definition 5.3.1.** Suppose S is a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and parameterized by

$$\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{u}): R \to S \tag{5.3.1}$$

where  $rank(D\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{u})) = 2$  for every  $\mathbf{u} \in R \setminus Z$  where Z is a probably empty set with zero content. If  $||\frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v}||$  is integrable, then

$$Area(S) \equiv \iint_{\mathbf{R}} ||\frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v}|| \ d\Theta$$
 (5.3.2)

**Definition 5.3.2.** Let  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  be a real-valued continuous function defined on a super set of S, the **integral of a real-valued function on a surface** is defined as

$$\iint_{S} f(\mathbf{x}) \ dA \equiv \iint_{\mathbf{R}} f(\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{u})) || \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v} || \ d\Theta$$
 (5.3.3)

**Definition 5.3.3.** Let  $\mathbf{F}: S \to \mathbb{R}^3$  be a continuous vector field defined on a super set of S, the integral of vector field on a surface is defined as

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA \equiv \iint_{\mathbf{R}} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{u})) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v}\right) \ d\Theta \tag{5.3.4}$$

**Remark 5.3.1.** Surface integrals of real-valued functions are independent of the choice of parametrization.

**Remark 5.3.2.** But the choice of parameterization can change the sign of surface integrals of vector fields. We need to choose the direction of the normal, **n**.

**Definition 5.3.4.** Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  be a two dimensional sub-manifold, and f is a real-valued function defined on a super set of S. Define the **average of** f **over** S as

aver of 
$$f$$
 over  $S \equiv \frac{\iint_S f \ dA}{\iint_S 1 \ dA}$  (5.3.5)

**Remark 5.3.3.** A note on the relation between integrals of a vector field and a real-valued function. The surface of vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  on S is defined by reducing  $\mathbf{F}$  to a real-valued function  $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$  and then follow the definition of conventional real-valued function on S. Define  $h \equiv \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ ,

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA = \iint_{S} h \ dA \tag{5.3.6}$$

$$\equiv \iint_{R} h(\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{u})) || \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v} || d\Theta$$
 (5.3.7)

$$= \iint_{R} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{u})) \cdot \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{u})) || \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v} || d\Theta$$
 (5.3.8)

$$= \iint_{R} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{u})) \cdot \frac{\frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v}}{\left|\left|\frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v}\right|\right|} \left|\left|\frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v}\right|\right| d\Theta$$
(5.3.9)

$$= \iint_{R} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{u})) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v}\right) d\Theta$$
 (5.3.10)

### 5.3.2 An invariance property

Remark 5.3.4. As mentioned above, given  $\mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x})$  fixed, we can define the surface integral of vector field as the surface integral of a real-valued function defined as  $h(\mathbf{x}) \equiv \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x})$ . And as argued before, one  $\mathbf{n}$  is fixed (i.e. orientation is fixed), the value of integral is deterministic. Therefore we can conclude the integral of a vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  over a surface S depends on the **orientation** of S but otherwise independent of the parameterization.

**Remark 5.3.5.** Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  be a two dimensional sub-manifold parameterized by  $\mathbf{G} : R \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $rank(\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{u})) = 2$  for all but zero-content sets on its domain.

Let  $\varphi: W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \to R$  be a bijection such that  $\mathbf{H} \equiv \mathbf{G} \circ \varphi: W \to \mathbb{R}^3$  is another parameterization of S.

Now consider the integral of vector field **F** under parameterization **H**,

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{u} \ dA = \iint_{W} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{H}) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial s} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t}\right) \ d\Theta \tag{5.3.11}$$

$$= \iint_{W} \mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G} \circ \varphi \cdot \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v} \right) det \ D\varphi \ d\Theta$$
 (5.3.12)

$$= \pm \iint_{R} \mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G} \cdot \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v} \right) d\Theta \text{ (change of variable)}$$
 (5.3.13)

**Theorem 5.3.1** (Invariance). Let  $\mathbf{G}: R \to \mathbb{R}^3$  and  $\mathbf{H} \equiv \mathbf{G} \circ \varphi : W \to \mathbb{R}^3$  be two parameterizations of S, then

$$\iint_{\mathcal{B}} f \circ \mathbf{G} || \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v} || \ d\Theta = \iint_{W} f \circ \mathbf{H} || \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial s} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t} || \ d\Theta$$
 (5.3.14)

and

$$\iint_{R} \mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{G} \cdot \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial v}\right) d\Theta = \pm \iint_{W} \mathbf{F} \circ \mathbf{H} \cdot \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial v}\right) d\Theta \tag{5.3.15}$$

## 5.3.3 Volume and Area

**Theorem 5.3.2.** Let R be an arbitrary regular region in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , and let S be the boundary surface of R, define

$$S_h \equiv \{ \mathbf{x} + \delta \mathbf{n} : \mathbf{x} \in S \land \delta \in [0, h] \}$$
 (5.3.16)

where  $S_h$  can be interpreted as a shell of region R with thickness h. Then the surface area of S is

$$\operatorname{area}(S) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{|S_h|}{h} \tag{5.3.17}$$

### 5.4 Divergence, Gradient and Curl

**Definition 5.4.1.** Let  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set, and define real-valued function  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$  and vector field  $\mathbf{F}: U \to \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then we define

- 1. The **gradient** of f as  $\nabla f$ ;
- 2. The **divergence** of  $\mathbf{F}$  as  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ ;
- 3. The **curl** of **F** as  $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ .

**Definition 5.4.2.** Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a  $C^1$  real-valued function, define the **Laplacian** of f as a mapping from real-valued functional space to real-valued functional space defined as

$$\operatorname{div}(\operatorname{grad})f \equiv \sum_{j} \partial_{j}^{2} f = \Delta f = \nabla^{2} f \tag{5.4.1}$$

**Theorem 5.4.1.** For every  $C^2$  real valued function  $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\operatorname{curl}(\operatorname{grad} f) = \mathbf{0} \tag{5.4.2}$$

For every  $C^2$  vector field defined in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  or a subset of it,

$$\operatorname{div}(\operatorname{curl}\mathbf{F}) = 0 \tag{5.4.3}$$

Note that the domain of f and  $\mathbf{F}$  must be  $\mathbb{R}^3$  or a subset of it, otherwise the curl operation is not well-defined.

Theorem 5.4.2 (Product rules).

$$\operatorname{grad}(fg) = f \operatorname{grad}g + \operatorname{grad}f g \tag{5.4.4}$$

$$\operatorname{div}(f\mathbf{G}) = f \operatorname{div}G + \operatorname{grad}f \cdot \mathbf{G} \tag{5.4.5}$$

$$\operatorname{curl}(f\mathbf{G}) = f \operatorname{curl}G + \operatorname{grad}f \times \mathbf{G}$$
(5.4.6)

## 5.5 Divergence Theorem

**Remark 5.5.1.** vector field integral on boundary (2-dimensional sub-manifold) of region in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  ( $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA$  2-form) and scalar valued function (div( $\mathbf{F}$ ) dV3-form) in a region (3-dimensional sub-manifold).

**Theorem 5.5.1** (Divergence Theorem). Let  $R \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  be a regular region with piece-wise smooth boundary  $\partial S$ . And **n** is the outer normal vector on  $\partial S$ , then,

$$\iint_{\partial S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA = \iiint_{S} \operatorname{div}(\mathbf{F}) \ dV \tag{5.5.1}$$

Proof.

**Definition 5.5.1.** A region  $R \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  is said to be xy-simple if and only if it can be expressed as the following form

$$R = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : (x, y) \in W, \varphi_1(x, y) \le z \le \varphi_2(x, y)\}$$
 (5.5.2)

Suppose S is simple in terms of all combinations of x,y,z. Then

$$\iint_{\partial S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA = \iint_{\partial S} F_1 n_1 + F_2 n_2 + F_3 n_2 \ dA \tag{5.5.3}$$

Consider  $\iint_{\partial S} F_3 n_3 dA$ , since R is xy-simple,

$$\iint_{\partial S} F_3 n_3 \ dA = \iint_{\partial S} F_3 \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA \tag{5.5.4}$$

Note that except the bottom and top sides, which are parameterized by  $\mathbf{G}_1(x,y) = (x,y,\varphi_1(x,y))$  and  $\mathbf{G}_2(x,y) = (x,y,\varphi_2(x,y))$ , the outer normal vector of those region has form  $(\cdot,\cdot,0)$ , and therefore  $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{k} = 0$  for every  $\mathbf{x}$  on those regions, and contribute nothing to the integral.

Therefore, to evaluate  $\iint_{\partial S} F_3 \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA$ , we only need to consider the upper and bottom surfaces. Also note that  $\mathbf{n}$  has opposite z component on those two surfaces.

Moreover, the undirected **n** on those two surfaces is

$$\tilde{\mathbf{n}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \partial_x \varphi_i \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \partial_y \varphi_i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\partial_x \varphi_i \\ \partial_x \varphi_i - \partial_y \varphi_i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (5.5.5)

$$\implies \iint_{\partial S} F_3 \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA = \iint_{\partial S} F_3 \ dA \tag{5.5.6}$$

$$= \iint_{upper \ \partial S} F_3 \ dA - \iint_{lower \ \partial S} F_3 \ dA \tag{5.5.7}$$

$$= \iint_{W} F_3(x, y, \varphi_2(x, y)) \ dxdy - \iint_{W} F_3(x, y, \varphi_1(x, y)) \ dxdy$$
 (5.5.8)

$$= \iint_{W} \int_{\varphi_{1}(x,y)}^{\varphi_{2}(x,y)} \partial_{3}F_{3} \ dzdxdy = \iiint_{S} \partial_{3}F_{3} \ dV$$
 (5.5.9)

We can prove the equalities involving the other two components, and the proof is completed by the fact that any open set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  can be written as a countable union of almost disjoint cubes, which are simple and the boundary of S has zero content.

**Proposition 5.5.1** (Geometric Interpretation of Divergence). Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ ,  $\mathbf{F}: S \to \mathbb{R}^3$ ,  $\mathbf{a} \in S$ ,

$$\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{F})(\mathbf{a}) = \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{3}{4\pi r^2} \iiint_{\mathcal{B}(\mathbf{a},r)} \operatorname{div}(\mathbf{F})(\mathbf{x}) \ d\mathbf{x}$$
 (5.5.10)

$$= \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{3}{4\pi r^2} \underbrace{\iint_{\partial \mathcal{B}(\mathbf{a},r)} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, d\mathbf{x}}_{\text{flux through boundary}}$$
(5.5.11)

thus  $\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{F})(\mathbf{a}) > 0$  if and only if at point  $\mathbf{a}$ , matters are flowing away from this point.

Corollary 5.5.1 (Green's Formula). Suppose  $R \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  and  $f, g : R \to \mathbb{R}$  are  $C^2$  functions, then

$$\iint_{\partial S} f \nabla g \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA = \iiint_{S} \nabla f \cdot \nabla g + f \nabla^{2} g \ dV$$
 (5.5.12)

$$\iint_{\partial S} (f\nabla g - g\nabla f) \ dA = \iiint_{S} (f\nabla^{2}g - g\nabla^{2}) \ dV \tag{5.5.13}$$

Proof.

$$\iint_{\partial S} f \nabla g \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA = \iiint_{S} \operatorname{div}(f \nabla g) \ dA \tag{5.5.14}$$

$$= \iiint_{S} f \operatorname{div}(\nabla g) + \nabla f \cdot \nabla g \ dV = \iiint_{S} f \nabla f \cdot \nabla g + \nabla^{2} g \ dV$$
 (5.5.15)

The second formula can be proved directly using divergence theorem the first formula.

#### 5.6 Stokes Theorem

## 5.6.1 Stokes Theorem in $\mathbb{R}^3$

**Theorem 5.6.1** (Stokes Theorem, Special Case). Let S be a 2 dimensional sub-manifold in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , and let  $\mathbf{F}$  be a vector field defined on some neighbour of S, then

$$\int_{\partial S} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x} = \iint_{S} \operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA \tag{5.6.1}$$

**Remark 5.6.1.** In above theorem,  $\omega \equiv \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x}$  is a 1-form in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and  $d\omega \equiv \text{curl}(\mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA$  is a 2-form in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

Corollary 5.6.1. Let S be a closed surface in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , that's,  $\partial S = \emptyset$ , and let **n** denote the outer normal vector, and **F** is a  $C^1$  vector field. Then

$$\iint_{S} \operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA = 0 \tag{5.6.2}$$

*Proof.* We can construct a *small* simple closed curve C on S and divide S into two regions sharing the same boundary. And note that given orientation fixed on S, the orientation on  $\partial S_1$  and  $\partial S_2$  are opposite. Then

$$\iint_{S} \operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA = \iint_{S_{1}} \operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA + \iint_{S_{2}} \operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \ dA$$
 (5.6.3)

$$= \int_{\partial S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x} - \int_{\partial S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x} = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x} - \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x} = 0$$
 (5.6.4)

**Proposition 5.6.1** (Geometric Interpretation of Curl). Let  $R \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  be a 2 dimensional submanifold with **n** as outer normal vector on it, and  $\mathbf{a} \in R$ ,

$$\operatorname{curl}(F)(\mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{a}) = \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{1}{2\pi r^2} \iint_{\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{a}, r)} \operatorname{curl}(F)(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x}) \ dA$$
 (5.6.5)

$$= \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{1}{2\pi r^2} \int_{\partial \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{a}, r)} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x}$$
 (5.6.6)

(5.6.7)

If we think of **F** as a force field, then  $\int_{\partial \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{a},r)} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{x}$  represents the work done by **F** on a particle moves around  $\partial \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{a},r)$ . Thus  $\operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{u}$  represents the tendency of the force **F** to push the particle around  $\partial \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{a},r)$  in a direction compatible with **n**.

#### 5.6.2 The Generalization

**Proposition 5.6.2** (Properties of Exterior Products). Let  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$  and  $\beta$  be 1-forms on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f_1, f_2$  are continuous functions defined on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,

#### 1. Distributive

$$(f_1\alpha_1 + f_2\alpha_2) \wedge \beta = f_1(\alpha_1 \wedge \beta) + f_2(\alpha_2 \wedge \beta)$$
(5.6.8)

$$\beta \wedge (f_1 \alpha_1 + f_2 \alpha_2) = f_1(\beta \wedge \alpha_1) + f_2(\beta \wedge \alpha_2) \tag{5.6.9}$$

#### 2. Anti-commutative

$$\beta \wedge \alpha = -\alpha \wedge \beta \tag{5.6.10}$$

**Theorem 5.6.2** (Divergence Theorem in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ). Let R be a regular region in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  bounded by a piecewise smooth hyper-surface  $\partial R$ . Note here R is a n dimensional sub-manifold and  $\partial R$  is a n-1 dimension sub-manifold. Then

$$\int \cdots \int_{\partial R} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dV^{n-1} = \iint \cdots \int_{R} \operatorname{div}(\mathbf{F}) \ dV^{n}$$
 (5.6.11)

where if  $\partial R$  is parameterized by  $\mathbf{G}(u_1,\ldots,u_{n-1})$ , then

$$\mathbf{n}dV^{n-1} = \det \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{e}_n \\ \partial_1 G_1 & \dots & \partial_1 G_n \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \partial_{n-1} G_1 & \dots & \partial_{n-1} G_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(5.6.12)$$

**Definition 5.6.1.** A 0-form on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a real valued function f.

**Remark 5.6.2.** While writing the basis elements  $dx_i \wedge dx_j$  with the variables in *cyclic order*. That's dx before dy before dz before dx in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  case.

**Definition 5.6.2.** A k-form in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  takes the expression of linear combination of C(n,k) basis elements  $\{\beta_i\}_i$ .

**Example 5.6.1.** A 2-form  $\omega$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  can be expressed using a 3-element basis

$$\omega = \sum_{1 \le i < j \le 3} C_{ij}(\mathbf{x})\beta_{ij} \tag{5.6.13}$$

$$\beta_{ij} \in \{dx \land dy, dy \land dz, dx \land dz\} \tag{5.6.14}$$

**Definition 5.6.3.** Let  $\omega = \sum_{j=1}^{C(n,k)} f_j \beta_j$  be a k-form in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then it's **exterior derivative** is defined to be the (k+1)-form in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  defined as

$$d\omega \equiv \sum_{j} df_j \wedge \beta_j \tag{5.6.15}$$

where  $df_j$  can be computed using total derivative.

**Example 5.6.2.** In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , the *exterior derivative* for a 0-form f is its **gradient**, which is a 1-form. And the exterior derivate of a 1-form in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is its curl

$$\omega := F_1 dx + F_2 dy + F_3 dz \tag{5.6.16}$$

$$\implies d\omega = dF_1 \wedge dx + dF_2 \wedge dy + dF_3 \wedge dz \tag{5.6.17}$$

$$= (\partial_1 F_1 dx + \partial_2 F_1 dy + \partial_3 F_1 dz) \wedge dx \tag{5.6.18}$$

$$+(\partial_1 F_2 dx + \partial_2 F_2 dy + \partial_3 F_2 dz) \wedge dy \tag{5.6.19}$$

$$+(\partial_1 F_3 dx + \partial_2 F_3 dy + \partial_3 F_3 dz) \wedge dz \tag{5.6.20}$$

$$= (\partial_1 F_2 - \partial_2 F_1) dx \wedge dy + (\partial_2 F_3 - \partial_3 F_2) dy \wedge dz + (\partial_3 F_1 - \partial_1 F_3) dz \wedge dx$$
 (5.6.21)

$$= \operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{F}) \tag{5.6.22}$$

The exterior derivate of a 2-form in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is its divergence

$$\omega := Ady \wedge dz + Bdz \wedge dx + Cdx \wedge dy \tag{5.6.23}$$

$$\implies d\omega = (\partial_1 A dx + \partial_2 A dy + \partial_3 A dz) \wedge dy \wedge dz \tag{5.6.24}$$

$$+(\partial_1 B dx + \partial_2 B dy + \partial_3 B dz) \wedge dz \wedge dx \tag{5.6.25}$$

$$+(\partial_1 C dx + \partial_2 C dy + \partial_3 C dz) \wedge dx \wedge dy \tag{5.6.26}$$

$$= (\partial_1 A + \partial_2 B + \partial_3 C) dx \wedge dy \wedge dz \tag{5.6.27}$$

$$= \operatorname{div}(\mathbf{F}) \tag{5.6.28}$$

**Theorem 5.6.3** (Stokes Theorem, 5.77). Let M be a smooth, oriented k dimensional sub-manifold of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with a piecewise smooth boundary  $\partial M$ , and let  $\partial M$  carry the orientation that is (in a suitable sense) compatible with the one on M. If  $\omega$  is a (k-1)-form of class  $C^1$  on an open set containing M, then

$$\int \cdots \int_{\partial M} \omega = \iint \cdots \int_{M} d\omega \tag{5.6.29}$$

**Theorem 5.6.4.** The *boundary* of a (smoothly bounded) region M in a k dimensional manifold is a (k-1) dimensional manifold with no boundary.

That's let M be a k dimensional manifold with piecewise smooth boundary  $\partial M$ , then

$$\partial(\partial M) = \varnothing \tag{5.6.30}$$

**Theorem 5.6.5.** For any k-form  $\omega$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$d(d\omega) = 0 \tag{5.6.31}$$

*Proof.* Let M be a k dimensional sub-manifold in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with piecewise smooth boundary, and  $\omega$  is a (k-2)-form on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , so  $d(d\omega)$  is a k-form on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . And

$$\iiint \cdots \int_{M} d(d\omega) = \iint \cdots \int_{\partial M} d\omega \qquad (5.6.32)$$

$$= \int \cdots \int_{\partial(\partial M)} \omega = \int \cdots \int_{\varnothing} \omega = 0 \tag{5.6.33}$$