
VECTOR CALCULUS NOTES

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I Curves and Surfaces

PRODUCTS ON VECTOR SPACES

Recall the definition of the *inner product* over a vector space V :

DEF 1.1

1. $\langle u, v \rangle = \overline{\langle v, u \rangle} = \langle v, u \rangle$ in \mathbb{R} (where we'll be in this class)
2. $\langle au + bw, v \rangle = a \langle u, v \rangle + b \langle w, v \rangle$
3. $\langle u, u \rangle \geq 0$, and $= 0 \iff u = \mathbf{0}$

From this, we define the *norm* of $u \in V$ to be $\|u\| := \sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle}$. This is well-defined, since $\langle u, u \rangle \geq 0$.

DEF 1.2

$$\forall u, v \in V, |\langle u, v \rangle| \leq \|u\| \|v\|$$

PROP 1.1

Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality

$$\forall u, v \in V, \|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$$

PROP 1.2

Triangle Inequality

The *cross product* of $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^3$, with respect to \mathbb{R}^3 , is the determinate of the following “matrix”:

DEF 1.3

$$u \times v := \begin{pmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

where $u = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$ and $v = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3 \rangle$. We observe the following two properties of the cross product in \mathbb{R}^3 :

PROP 1.3

1. $(u \times v) \cdot u = 0$
2. $\|u \times v\| = \|u\| \|v\| \sin(\theta)$, where θ is the angle found between u and v . A conceptualization of this property is that “ u -cross- v is equal to the area created by the parallelogram bounded by u and v .”

LINES

Define a *line* $l(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ to be a function from $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, with the primary form $l(t) = P + td$, with $P, d \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$. We call P the “point vector” and d the “direction vector”. An alternate form, with two points $P, Q \in \mathbb{R}^n$, would be $l(t) = (1-t)P + tQ$, where $l(t)$ lies along the path between P and Q for $t \in [0, 1]$.

DEF 1.4

Distance between a point and line Using this definition, how can we find the shortest path between a point R and a line $l(t)$, which lies between P and Q ?

Idea 1 We know the desired vector $w = PR \sin(\theta)$, the angle between PR and PQ . To find this value, note that $\|PR \times PQ\| = \|PR\| \|PQ\| \sin(\theta)$.

Idea 2 We can project R onto PQ , and then subtract this projection from PR .

Idea 3 We can minimize a distance function between R and a point on l , i.e. $l(t)$. Thus, we take $\min_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \|R - l(t)\| = \alpha$, and then take $RI(\alpha)$ to be the shortest path.

Idea 4 We can find when $(R - l(t)) \cdot d = 0$.

Sometimes called “skew lines”

Distance between 2 lines Consider two lines, l_1 and l_2 , which do not intersect but are not necessarily parallel. What is the minimal distance between l_1 and l_2 ?

Idea 0 Conceptualize this problem as finding the distance between the parallel planes defined by $\{l_1, l_2\}$.

Idea 1 We can minimize $\|l_1(t) - l_2(s)\|$ (really, one should minimize the square to make one's life easier).

Idea 2 Pick any two points, say $l_1(T)$ and $l_2(S)$, and project $l_1(T)l_2(S)$ onto $l_1 \times l_2$.

Idea 3 Minimize $\text{dist}(l_1(t), l_2)$ for fixed t .

Idea 4 Find t and s such that $[l_1(t) - l_2(s)] \cdot \vec{d}_1 = 0$ and $[l_1(t) - l_2(s)] \cdot \vec{d}_2 = 0$

PROP 1.4

$\|u \times v\| = \|u\| \|v\| \sin(\theta) = \text{Area of parallelogram defined by } u \text{ and } v.$

PLANES

DEF 1.5

A plane $r(s, t)$ is a function $[0, 1]^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ defined by $d_1, d_2 \in \mathbb{R}^3$, two vectors, and $P \in \mathbb{R}^3$, a point. In particular, $r(s, t) = P + s\vec{d}_1 + t\vec{d}_2$. This is called the *parametric form*.

DEF 1.6

The *point-normal* form is a function $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is given by $a(x - x_0) + b(y - y_0) + c(z - z_0) = 0$, where $\vec{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ is a vector normal to the plane, and $P = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$ is a point lying on the plane.

Distance between a point R and a plane r

Idea 1 Minimize $\|R - r(s, t)\|$ (or the square)

Idea 2 $\|\text{proj}_{\vec{n}}(P - R)\|$, where \vec{n} and P are as given in the point-normal form.

TRANSFORMATIONS AND PARAMETERIZATIONS

The following table give general examples of linear transformations $\lambda : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$.

Dimension	Linear	Affine
$n = 0$	$\lambda(0) = 0$	$\lambda(0) = P$
$n = 1$	$\lambda(t) = t\vec{d}$	$\lambda(t) = P + t\vec{d}$
$n = 2$	$\lambda(t, s) = t\vec{d}_1 + s\vec{d}_2$	$\lambda(t, s) = P + t\vec{d}_1 + s\vec{d}_2$
$n = 3$	$\lambda(t, s, r) = t\vec{d}_1 + s\vec{d}_2 + r\vec{d}_3$	$\lambda(t, s, r) = P + t\vec{d}_1 + s\vec{d}_2 + r\vec{d}_3$

We also define the following important curves in \mathbb{R}^2 :

Type	Explicit Form	Parametric Form
Ellipse	$x^2 + y^2 = 1$	$r(t) = \langle t, \sqrt{1-t^2} \rangle_{t \in [-1,1]} = \langle \cos(t), \sin(t) \rangle_{t \in [-\pi, \pi]}$
Hyperbola	$x^2 - y^2 = 1$	$r(t) = \langle \sqrt{1+t^2}, t \rangle_{t \in \mathbb{R}} = \langle \cosh(t), \sinh(t) \rangle_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$
Parabola	$x = y^2$	
Double Cone	$x^2 = y^2$	
Any Function	$y = F(x)$	$r(t) = \langle t, F(t) \rangle$

Define a *path* in \mathbb{R}^m to be a continuous function $r : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, e.g. $[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$. DEF 1.7

Define a *curve* in \mathbb{R}^m to be the image of a path (i.e. a set of points in \mathbb{R}^m). Recall the statement “paths parameterize curves.” DEF 1.8

For example, the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is parameterized by the path $r : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ given by $r(t) = \langle \cos(t), \sin(t) \rangle$.

Define the *tangent* line of \vec{r} at $a \in \mathbb{R}$ to be an affine transformation $l : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ satisfying the following:

1. $l(t) = r(a) + (t - a)\vec{d} : \vec{d} \neq 0$
2. $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \frac{\|r(t) - l(t)\|}{|t - a|} = 0$

♠ Examples ♣

E.G. 1.1

We'll now find the derivative of the unit circle at a point $a \in \mathbb{R}$: we have $r(a) = \langle \cos(a), \sin(a) \rangle$. Thus:

$$l(t) = \langle \cos(t), \sin(t) \rangle + (t - a)\langle d_1, d_2 \rangle$$

Where $\langle d_1, d_2 \rangle \neq 0$. Consider now the limit in question 2:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{t \rightarrow a} \frac{\|r(t) - l(t)\|}{|t - a|} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{|t - a|} \sqrt{(\cos(t) - \cos(a) - (t - a)d_1)^2 + (\sin(t) - \sin(a) - (t - a)d_2)^2} \\
 &= \lim_{t \rightarrow a} \sqrt{\left(\frac{\cos(t) - \cos(a)}{t - a} - d_1\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sin(t) - \sin(a)}{t - a} - d_2\right)^2} \\
 &\stackrel{t \rightarrow a}{=} \sqrt{(-\sin(a) - d_1)^2 + (\cos(a) - d_2)^2} = 0 \\
 &\iff d_1 = -\sin(a) \wedge d_2 = \cos(a) \\
 &\implies l(t) = \langle -\sin(a), \cos(a) \rangle \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

DIFFERENTIATION AND CONTINUITY

Frequently, $l(t)$ is referred to as the “velocity vector” of $r(t)$, and is notated as $r'(t)$. Notice that $r'(t)$ is equivalent to the component-wise derivative of the coordinates of $r(t)$ w.r.t. t . Formally:

DEF 1.9

Given $\vec{r} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, the *derivative* of \vec{r} at $a \in \mathbb{R}$ is a linear transformation $\vec{\lambda} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfying

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \frac{\|r(t) - r(a) - \lambda(t - a)\|}{|t - a|} = 0 \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\|r(a + h) - r(a) - \lambda(h)\|}{|h|} = 0$$

It is denoted $D\vec{r}_a$, and represented by the $n \times 1$ matrix $r'(a)$. One may now rewrite the tangent line in the form $l(t) = r(a) + \lambda(t - a)$.

DEF 1.10

The *arc length* of a curve $r(t)$ is given by

$$s = \int_a^b \|r'(t)\| dt$$

DEF 1.11

An *arc length parameterization* of $r(t)$ is some $t = \alpha(s)$ such that $r(\alpha(s))$ has a unit velocity vector, i.e. $\|r'(\alpha(s))\| = 1$. Alternatively, one could find an expression for arc length, and then parameterize $r(t)$ in terms of its arc length. The resultant will be equivalent.

DEF 1.12

$\lambda : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is *continuous* at \vec{a} if, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, we can find $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\|\vec{x} - \vec{a}\| < \delta \implies \|\lambda(\vec{x}) - \lambda(\vec{a})\| < \varepsilon \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

E.G. 1.2

♠ Examples ♣

We'll do an arc length parameterization of a semicircle of radius 1 with its center at the origin, i.e. $y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$. We get the natural parameterization $r(t) = \langle t, \sqrt{1 - t^2} \rangle$, where $t \in [-1, 1]$. We'd like to find a change of parameters $t = \alpha(s)$ such that $\|r(\alpha(s))\| = 1$ and $\alpha' \geq 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} r(\alpha(s)) &= \langle \alpha(s), \sqrt{1 - \alpha(s)^2} \rangle \\ r'(\alpha(s)) &= \left\langle \alpha'(s), \frac{1}{2}(1 - \alpha(s)^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \cdot (-2\alpha(s)\alpha'(s)) \right\rangle \\ &= \alpha'(s) \left\langle 1, \frac{-\alpha(s)}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha(s)^2}} \right\rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } 1 = \|r'(\alpha(s))\| &= \alpha'(s) \sqrt{1 + \frac{\alpha(s)^2}{1 - \alpha(s)^2}} \\ &= \frac{\alpha'(s)}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha(s)^2}} \end{aligned}$$

Integrating with respect to s , we get $s = \arcsin(\alpha(s)) = \arcsin(t)$. Thus, $t = \sin(s)$, and $s \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$, and we yield the parameterization $\langle \sin(s), \cos(s) \rangle : s \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$.

SURFACES

We note the following quadric surfaces:

Type	Explicit Form
Ellipsoid	$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$
Elliptic Hyperboloid	$x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 1$
Elliptic Paraboloids	$x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = -1$
Hyperbolic Paraboloids	$x = y^2 - z^2$
Double Cones	$x^2 = y^2 + z^2$

A surface $F(x, y)$ is called *differentiable* at (a, b) if there exists some linear transformation $\lambda : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that DEF 1.13

$$\lim_{(h,k) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{|F(a+h, b+k) - F(a, b) - \lambda(h, k)|}{\|\langle h, k \rangle\|}$$

One may represent $\lambda(h, k) = \begin{bmatrix} u & v \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h \\ k \end{bmatrix} = uh + vk$

♠ Examples ♣

E.G. 1.3

Let $F(x, y) = xy$. We consider F at (a, b) . Then

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq \frac{|F(a+h, b+k) - F(a, b) - \lambda(h, k)|}{\|\langle h, k \rangle\|} &= \frac{|(a+h)(b+k) - ab - (uk + vk)|}{\|\langle h, k \rangle\|} \\ &= \frac{|bh + ak + hk - uh - vk|}{\|\langle h, k \rangle\|} = \frac{|(b-u)h + (a-v)k + hk|}{\|\langle h, k \rangle\|} \\ &\leq \frac{|b-u||h|}{|h|} + \frac{|a-v||k|}{|k|} + \frac{|h||k|}{|h|} \quad \text{since } |h|, |k| \leq \|\langle h, k \rangle\| \\ &= |b-u| + |a-v| + |k| \rightarrow |b-u| + |a-v| \\ &= 0 \quad \text{when } b = u, a = v \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the desired limit is always \geq and ≤ 0 , so especially it is 0. Our derivative at (a, b) is then $\lambda(x, y) = bx + ay$.

One may also find these coefficients as the partial derivative of F , i.e.

$$\nabla F(a, b) = \left\langle \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} \right\rangle \bigg|_{(a,b)}$$

DEF 1.14

This is called the *gradient*. Similarly, $\alpha(x, y) = F(a, b) + \lambda(x - a, y - b)$ is called the *affine approximation* at (a, b) .

PROP 1.5

Note that the converse is *false* (as a counterexample, see $F = \sqrt{|xy|}$)

If $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at \vec{a} , then all partial derivatives of F at \vec{a} exist. Furthermore, $\lambda(\vec{a}) = F'(\vec{a}) = \left[\partial_1 F \cdots \partial_n F \right] \Big|_{\vec{a}}$.

1.1 Partial Converse

If all partial derivatives of $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ exist near \vec{a} and are continuous at \vec{a} , then F is differentiable at \vec{a} .

PROOF FOR $n = 2$.

Let $\lambda : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a linear transformation defined by $\left[\partial_1 F \cdots \partial_n F \right] \Big|_{\vec{a}}$. Then

$$\lambda(\vec{h}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \partial_i F(\vec{a}) h_i$$

Let $n = 2$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} |F(\vec{a} + \vec{h}) - F(\vec{a}) - \lambda(\vec{h})| &= |F(a_1 + h_1, a_2 + h_2) - F(a_1 + h_1, a_2) + F(a_1 + h_1, a_2) \\ &\quad - F(a_1, a_2) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a}) h_1 - \partial_2 F(\vec{a}) h_2| \\ &\leq |F(a_1 + h_1, a_2 + h_2) - F(a_1 + h_1, a_2) - \partial_2 F(\vec{a}) h_2| \\ &\quad + |F(a_1 + h_1, a_2) - F(a_1, a_2) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a}) h_1| \\ &= |\partial_2 F(\vec{c}) h_2 - \partial_2 F(\vec{a}) h_2| + |\partial_1 F(\vec{d}) h_1 - \partial_1 F(\vec{a}) h_1| \\ &\quad \text{by mean value thm.} \\ &= |\partial_2 F(\vec{c}) - \partial_2 F(\vec{a})| |h_2| + |\partial_1 F(\vec{d}) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a})| |h_1| \\ \frac{|F(\vec{a} + \vec{h}) - F(\vec{a}) - \lambda(\vec{h})|}{\|\vec{h}\|} &= |\partial_2 F(\vec{c}) - \partial_2 F(\vec{a})| \frac{|h_2|}{\|\vec{h}\|} + |\partial_1 F(\vec{d}) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a})| \frac{|h_1|}{\|\vec{h}\|} \\ &\leq |\partial_2 F(\vec{c}) - \partial_2 F(\vec{a})| \frac{|h_2|}{|h_2|} + |\partial_1 F(\vec{d}) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a})| \frac{|h_1|}{|h_1|} \\ &\quad \text{since } |h_i| < \|\vec{h}\| \\ &= |\partial_2 F(\vec{c}) - \partial_2 F(\vec{a})| + |\partial_1 F(\vec{d}) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a})| \end{aligned}$$

Then, as $\vec{h} \rightarrow 0$, $\vec{c}, \vec{d} \rightarrow \vec{a}$. Since F , is continuous, we know $F(\vec{c}) \rightarrow F(\vec{a})$ and similarly for $F(\vec{d})$. Thus,

$$|\partial_2 F(\vec{c}) - \partial_2 F(\vec{a})| + |\partial_1 F(\vec{d}) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a})| \rightarrow |\partial_2 F(\vec{a}) - \partial_2 F(\vec{a})| + |\partial_1 F(\vec{a}) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a})| = 0$$

And we conclude that the limit, as \leq and ≥ 0 , is 0. \square

DEF 1.15

$F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called C^1 continuous (or *continuously differentiable*) at \vec{a} if all partial

exists near \vec{a} and are continuous at \vec{a} .

Note that the converse to our partial converse is *not* true: i.e. if F is differentiable at \vec{a} , it is not necessarily continuously differentiable at \vec{a} . Some counter examples include $F(x, y) = |y|$ and $F(x) = x^2 \sin(\frac{1}{x})$ s.t. $x \neq 0$ and 0 otherwise.

We have an alternative and equivalent definition of differentiability. Let E be continuous and $= 0$ at 0. Let $\lambda : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a linear transformation. Then PROP 1.6

$$F(\vec{a} + \vec{h}) - F(\vec{a}) = \lambda(\vec{h}) + \|\vec{h}\|E(\vec{h}) \quad \forall h$$

implies differentiability.

♠ Examples ♣

E.G. 1.4

In our previous example, we prove (laboriously) that $F(x, y) = xy$ is differentiable for all (a, b) . We can now use Thm 1.1 to show this result: the partial derivatives $F_x = y$ and $F_y = x$ exist and are continuous $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, so F is differentiable $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.

1.2 Characterization of the Derivative

Let $\vec{F} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$. The derivative at \vec{a} exists if:

1. \exists a linear transformation $\vec{\lambda} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ satisfying

$$\lim_{\vec{h} \rightarrow \vec{0}} \frac{\|F(\vec{a} + \vec{h}) - F(\vec{a}) - \vec{\lambda}(\vec{h})\|}{\|\vec{h}\|} = 0$$

2. \exists a linear transformation $\vec{\lambda} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and a function E such that

$$F(\vec{a} + \vec{h}) - F(\vec{a}) = \vec{\lambda}(\vec{h}) + \|\vec{h}\|E(\vec{h})$$

and $E(0) = 0$ is continuous at 0.

Such a λ is unique when found, and is called the derivative. We denote it by $D\vec{F}_{\vec{a}}$.

This follows from Def 1.12 and Thm 1.1. □

PROOF.

We may represent the partial derivatives of $\vec{F} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m = \langle F_1, \dots, F_m \rangle$ using a *Jacobian* matrix, denoted $F'(\vec{a})$, and defined as follows: DEF 1.16

$$[TBD]$$

PROP 1.7
Chain Rule

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be differentiable at $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $g : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^l$ be differentiable at $\vec{b} = f(\vec{a}) \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then

$$h = g \circ f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^l \text{ is differentiable at } \vec{a}$$

and $D\vec{h}_{\vec{a}} = D\vec{g}_{\vec{b}} \circ D\vec{f}_{\vec{a}}$. Furthermore, their Jacobians obey

$$h'(a) = g'(b)f'(a)$$

(matrix multiplication)
E.G. 1.5

♠ Examples ♣

1. Consider $f(x, y) = \langle x + y, x - y \rangle$ and $g(x, y) = \frac{1}{4}x^2 - \frac{1}{4}y^2$. Then $h = g \circ f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is given by

$$\frac{1}{4}(x + y)^2 - \frac{1}{4}(x - y)^2$$

Let $\vec{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$. Then $f(a) = b = \langle a_1 + a_2, a_1 - a_2 \rangle$. What about the Jacobian of f ?

$$f'(a) = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \partial_1 f_1 & \partial_2 f_1 \\ \partial_1 f_2 & \partial_2 f_2 \end{array} \right] \Big|_{(a_1, a_2)} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{array} \right]$$

Similarly, for g we have

$$g'(b) = \left[\partial_1 g \quad \partial_2 g \right] \Big|_{(a_1 + a_2, a_1 - a_2)} = \left[\frac{1}{2}(a_1 + a_2) - \frac{1}{2}(a_1 - a_2) \right]$$

Then, by the chain rule, we multiple these two matrices to yield

$$\left[\frac{1}{2}(a_1 + a_2) - \frac{1}{2}(a_1 - a_2) \right] \cdot \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{array} \right] = \left[a_2 \quad a_1 \right]$$

One can (less) manually find that $h = g \circ f$ is xy , and conclude the same.

2. Let S be a surface in \mathbb{R}^3 given by $F(x, y, z) = 0$ (this is called a “level surface,” e.g. $xy - z = 0$). Let $P = (a, b, c)$ be a point on F , and let C be a curve in S containing P , parameterized by $r(t)$.

Denote $r(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$. Then $g = F \circ r = F(x(t), y(t), z(t)) = 0$. By chain rule, we have $0 = g'(t_0) = F'(P) \cdot r'(t_0)$, where we choose t_0 such that $r(t_0) = \langle a, b, c \rangle$. Then, we observe that

$$0 = \nabla F(P) \cdot \vec{v}(t_0) \implies \nabla F(P) \perp \vec{v}(t_0)$$

Where $\vec{v} = r'$ is the velocity vector of r . By considering all curves that satisfy our construction $C \subset S$, we yield the tangent plane of S at P with normal vector $\vec{n} = \nabla F(P)$. In particular, the point-normal form of the tangent plane of a surface F at $P = (a, b, c)$ is given by

$$\partial_x F(P)(x - a) + \partial_y F(P)(y - b) + \partial_z F(P)(z - c) = 0$$

3. Generally, we can consider $S^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ of $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. (This is called a *hypersurface*). Suppose this is differentiable at $P \in S$. Let $C \subset S$ be a curve in S through P , parameterized by $r : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ and differentiable at t_0 with $r(t_0) = P$.

Then, by the chain rule, $v(t_0) \perp \nabla F(P)$. If $v(t_0) \neq 0$, then the tangent line to C at P has derivative $r(t_0)$. If $\nabla F(P) \neq 0$, then the tangent hyperplane to S at P has a normal vector $n = \nabla F(P)$.

Let $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\vec{a}, \vec{h} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $l(t) = a + th$. Then the *directional derivative* of F along h at a , denoted $\partial_{\vec{h}} F(\vec{a})$, is given by

DEF 1.17

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(a + th) - F(a)}{t}$$

Then, if F is differentiable at a , we have the more useful form

Thus, if $h = e_1$, then $\partial_{e_1} F(\vec{a}) = \partial_1 F(\vec{a})$.

$$\partial_{\vec{h}} F(\vec{a}) = \vec{h} \cdot \nabla F(\vec{a}) = \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \partial_i F(\vec{a})$$

Let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable, and let $a, h \in \mathbb{R}^n$, with $h \neq 0$. Then

PROP 1.8
Mean Value Thm.

$$F(a + h) - F(a) = \partial_{\vec{h}} F(c_h) = h \nabla F(c_h) \quad c_h \in [a, a + h]$$

Note that, since a, h are vectors, by $c_h \in [a, a + h]$ we mean that c_h lies along the line segment connecting a and $a + h$.

We now restate the chain rule:

1.3 Chain Rule

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be differentiable at \vec{a} . Let $g : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^l$ be differentiable at $\vec{b} = f(\vec{a})$. Then

$$h = g \circ f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^l$$

is differentiable at \vec{a} and $h'(\vec{a}) = g'(\vec{b}) \circ f'(\vec{a})$.

Let λ be the derivative of f . Let \vec{t}, \vec{s} be arbitrary. Then we have

PROOF.

$$f(\vec{a} + \vec{t}) - f(\vec{a}) = \lambda(\vec{t}) + \|\vec{t}\| \varepsilon_1(\vec{t})$$

where $\varepsilon_1 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is continuous and $\vec{0} @ \vec{0}$. Similarly, for g :

$$g(\vec{b} + \vec{s}) - g(\vec{b}) = \mu(\vec{s}) + \|\vec{s}\| \varepsilon_2(\vec{s})$$

where μ is the derivative of g , and ε_2 is as above. Our goal is to write $h = g \circ f$

in the same manner. Let $\nu = \mu \circ \lambda$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 h(\vec{a} + \vec{t}) - h(\vec{a}) &= g(f(\vec{a} + \vec{t})) - g(f(\vec{a})) \\
 &= g(f(\vec{a}) + \underbrace{\lambda(\vec{t}) + \|\vec{t}\|\varepsilon_1(\vec{t})}_{:=\vec{s}}) - g(f(\vec{a})) \\
 &= \mu(\vec{s}) + \|\vec{s}\|\varepsilon_2(\vec{s}) \\
 &= \mu(\lambda(\vec{t}) + \|\vec{t}\|\varepsilon_1(\vec{t})) + \|\vec{s}\|\varepsilon_2(\vec{s}) \\
 &= \mu(\lambda(\vec{t})) + \|\vec{t}\|\mu(\varepsilon_1(\vec{t})) + \|\vec{s}\|\varepsilon_2(\vec{s}) \\
 &= \nu(\vec{t}) + \|\vec{t}\|\underbrace{\left(\mu(\varepsilon_1(\vec{t})) + \frac{\|\vec{s}\|}{\|\vec{t}\|}\varepsilon_2(\vec{s})\right)}_{=\varepsilon_3(\vec{t})} \quad \text{if } \vec{t} \neq 0 \\
 \vec{t} \neq 0 \implies 0 \leq \|\varepsilon_3(\vec{t})\| &\leq \|\mu(\varepsilon_1(\vec{t}))\| + \frac{\|\lambda(\vec{t})\| + \|\vec{t}\|\|\varepsilon_1(\vec{t})\|}{\|\vec{t}\|}\|\varepsilon_2(\vec{s})\| \\
 &\leq M\|\varepsilon_1(\vec{t})\| + (L + \|\varepsilon_1(\vec{t})\|)\|\varepsilon_2(\vec{s})\| \\
 &\quad (\text{where } \lambda(\vec{t}) \leq L\|\vec{t}\| \text{ and } \mu(\vec{x}) \leq M\|\vec{x}\|) \\
 \implies \lim_{\vec{t} \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon_3(\vec{t}) &= 0 \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

DEF 1.18
Iterated Partial Derivatives

Suppose $g = \partial_i f$ is defined near $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, where $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then if $\partial_j g$ exists at \vec{a} , we call it a 2^{nd} order partial derivative of f at \vec{a} . We denote this $\partial_j \partial_i f(\vec{a})$, where $i, j \in [1, n]$.

1.4 Mixed Partial Derivatives are Equal

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\vec{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$. Let $\partial_1 f, \partial_2 \partial_1 f$ exist near \vec{a} , with $\partial_2 \partial_1 f$ continuous at \vec{a} . Suppose further that $\partial f(x, a_2)$ is defined near $x = a_1$.

$\implies \partial_1 \partial_2 f$ is defined at \vec{a} and $\partial_1 \partial_2 f(\vec{a}) = \partial_2 \partial_1 f(\vec{a})$.

PROOF.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \partial_1 \partial_2 f(\vec{a}) &= \lim_{h_1 \rightarrow 0} \underbrace{\frac{\partial_2 f(a_1 + h_1, a_2) - \partial_2 f(a_1, a_2)}{h_1}}_{\beta(h_1): \mathbb{R}_{\neq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}} \\
 \implies \beta(h_1) &= \frac{\lim_{h_2 \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a_1 + h_1, a_2 + h_2) - f(a_1 + h_1, a_2)}{h_2} - \lim_{h_2 \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a_1, a_2 + h_2) - f(a_1, a_2)}{h_2}}{h_1} \\
 &= \lim_{h_2 \rightarrow 0} \underbrace{\frac{1}{h_2} \frac{(f(a_1 + h_1, a_2 + h_2) - f(a_1 + h_1, a_2)) - (f(a_1, a_2 + h_2) - f(a_1, a_2))}{h_1}}_{\alpha(h_1, h_2): \mathbb{R}_{\neq 0}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, for a break...

If $\lim_{\vec{h} \rightarrow \vec{0}} \alpha(\vec{h})$ exists, then $\lim_{h_1 \rightarrow 0} \beta(h_1)$ exists, where $\beta(h_1) = \lim_{\vec{h} \setminus h_1 \rightarrow 0} \alpha(h_1, (\vec{h} \setminus h_1))$. Furthermore, we conclude PROP 1.9

$$\lim_{h_1 \rightarrow 0} \beta(h_1) = \lim_{\vec{h} \rightarrow \vec{0}} \alpha(\vec{h})$$

Now, it's enough to show that $\lim_{\vec{h} \rightarrow \vec{0}} \alpha(\vec{h}) = \partial_2 \partial_1 f(\vec{a})$. By the Mean Value Thm, we have PROOF (CONTINUED).

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha(\vec{h}) &= \frac{1}{h_2} (\partial_1 f(c_1, a_2 + h_2) - \partial_1 f(c_1, a_2)) \\ &= \partial_2 \partial_1 f(c_1, c_2) : c_2 \in [a_2, a_2 + h] \end{aligned}$$

Let $\vec{c} = \langle c_1, c_2 \rangle$. Then as $\vec{h} \rightarrow \vec{0}$, we have $\vec{c} \rightarrow \vec{a}$. Thus

$$\lim_{\vec{h} \rightarrow \vec{0}} \alpha(\vec{h}) = \lim_{\vec{c} \rightarrow \vec{a}} \partial_2 \partial_1 f(\vec{c}) = \partial_2 \partial_1 f(\vec{a}) \quad \square$$

$f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is k -times continuously differentiable at \vec{a} if all k^{th} -order partial derivatives exist near \vec{a} and are continuous at \vec{a} . DEF 1.19

We say that f is k -times continuously differentiable *near* \vec{a} if it is continuously differentiable at \vec{a} and all k -th order partial derivatives are continuous near \vec{a} .

If $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is twice continuously differentiable at \vec{a} , then all mixed partial derivatives are equal at \vec{a} . PROP 1.10

If f is k -times continuously differentiable at \vec{a} , then the $(k-1)$ -order partial derivatives are continuously differentiable (hence differentiable and continuous) at \vec{a} . PROP 1.11

is the following a proof? proposition?

Let $\vec{h} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \vec{l} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ given by $\vec{l}(t) = \vec{a} + t\vec{h}$. Set $g := f \circ \vec{l} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, i.e. $g(t) = f(\vec{a} + t\vec{h})$. PROOF.

Then let f be k -times continuously differentiable at \vec{a} . Then g is k -times differentiable at 0, and we have

$$\partial_{\vec{h}}^i f(\vec{a}) = g^{(i)}(0) \underset{\text{CR}}{=} (\vec{h} \cdot \nabla)^i f \Big|_{\vec{a}}$$

For example, with $n = 2$, we have

$$\partial_{\vec{h}}^2 = (\vec{h} \cdot \nabla)(\vec{h} \cdot \nabla) = (h_1 \partial_1 + h_2 \partial_2)(h_1 \partial_1 + h_2 \partial_2)$$

□

1.5 Multivariable Taylor's Theorem

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be k -times continuously differentiable near \vec{a} with $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $\alpha_j : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a degree j homogeneous polynomial, i.e. all non-zero terms have the same degree.

Let $E : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be such that

$$\begin{cases} \bullet f(\vec{a} + \vec{h}) - f(\vec{a}) = \alpha_1(\vec{h}) + \dots + \underbrace{\alpha_k(\vec{h}) + \overbrace{\|h\|^k E(\vec{h})}^{R_{k-1}(\vec{h})}}_{R_k(\vec{h})} \quad \forall \vec{h} \\ \bullet E(\vec{0}) = 0 \end{cases}$$

To find such an E , we can take

$$E(\vec{h}) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\|h\|^k} (f(\vec{a} + \vec{h}) - f(\vec{a}) - \alpha_1(\vec{h}) - \dots - \alpha_k(\vec{h})) & \vec{h} \neq 0 \\ \vec{0} & \vec{h} = 0 \end{cases}$$

Then Taylor's Theorem states:

$$E \text{ continuous at } \vec{0} \iff \alpha_j(\vec{h}) = \frac{1}{j!} \partial_{\vec{h}}^j f(\vec{a}) = \frac{1}{j!} (\vec{h} \cdot \nabla)^j f(\vec{a}) \quad \forall j \in [1, k]$$

If E is continuous at \vec{a} and $\vec{h} \neq \vec{0}$ is near $\vec{0}$, then:

$$R_{k-1}(\vec{h}) = \frac{1}{k!} \partial_{\vec{h}}^k f(\vec{c}_h)$$

where $\vec{c} \in [\vec{a}, \vec{a} + \vec{h}]$.

MIDTERM REVIEW

Recall that the directional derivative is defined as follows

$$\partial_{\vec{h}} f(\vec{a}) := \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\vec{a} + t\vec{h}) - f(\vec{a})}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(t) - g(0)}{t} = g'(0) \quad g(t) := f(\vec{a} + t\vec{h})$$

An iterated directional derivative, denoted $\partial_{\vec{h}}^i f(\vec{a})$, is then

$$g^{(i)}(0)$$

If f is i -times continuously differentiable at \vec{a} , then we can write

$$\partial_{\vec{h}}^i(\vec{a}) = (\vec{h} \cdot \nabla)^i f(\vec{a})$$

II Integration

RIEMANN INTEGRATION

On Hypercubes

DEF 2.1

Let \mathcal{B} be a box in \mathbb{R}^n . Choose $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is bounded on the box. Then, informally, F is *integrable* if the limit of its Riemann summation is equivalent across all orderings of tagged partitions.

PROP 2.1

By the extreme value theorem, if F is continuous on \mathcal{B} , then F is bounded on \mathcal{B} .

2.1 Integrability Criterion

If F is continuous on \mathcal{B} , then F is integrable over \mathcal{B} .

2.2 Fubini

Let $\mathcal{B} = [a_1, b_1] \times \cdots \times [a_n, b_n]$. Let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous on \mathcal{B} . Then

$$\int_{\mathcal{B}} F dV^n = \int_{x_n=a_n}^{x_n=b_n} \cdots \left(\int_{x_1=a_1}^{x_1=b_1} F(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \right) \cdots dx_n$$

Furthermore, the order of integration doesn't matter.

PROP 2.2

$$\int_a^b g(x) dx = g(c)(b-a) \text{ where } a < c < b.$$

PROOF.

$$\frac{G(b)-G(a)}{b-a} = G'(c) = g(c) \text{ by the mean value theorem and the FTC.}$$

□

2.3

The set of discontinuities of F in \mathcal{B} has zero measure $\iff F$ is integrable over \mathcal{B} .

Note that this theorem is not useful in MATH 248, and its proof is out of the scope of this course.

Point-Set Topology

DEF 2.2

A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ has *zero measure* if $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ we can choose a set of open balls such that

$S \subseteq \bigcup B(x_i, \varepsilon_i)$ where $\sum \text{vol}(B(x_i, \varepsilon_i)) < \varepsilon$.

In general, hypersurfaces in \mathbb{R}^n have zero measure. Thus, if $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous except on a hypersurface, F is still integrable.

$\vec{p} \in \text{Int}(S)$ is called an *interior point* of S if $\exists \varepsilon > 0$ such that $B(\vec{p}, \varepsilon) \subseteq S$.

DEF 2.3

1. If $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ has zero measure and $S' \subseteq S$, then S' has zero measure.

PROP 2.3

2. If $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ has zero measure, then S has no interior points.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

DEF 2.4

1. $\text{Int}(S)$, the *interior* of S , is the set of all interior points of S

2. S is called *open* if $S = \text{Int}(S)$.

3. S^c , the *compliment* of S , is $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus S$.

4. $p \in S^c$ is called an *exterior point* of S if $\exists \varepsilon > 0$ with $B(p, \varepsilon) \subseteq S^c$.

5. $\text{Ext}(S)$, the *exterior* of S , is the set of all exterior points of S .

6. S is *closed* if $S^c = \text{Ext}(S)$.

7. $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a *boundary point* of S if $p \notin \text{Int}(S) \wedge p \notin \text{Ext}(S)$.

8. The *boundary* of S , denoted ∂S , is the set of all boundary points of S .

9. S is *bounded* if $\exists \mathcal{B}$ with $S \subseteq \mathcal{B} \subsetneq \mathbb{R}^n$.

S is closed $\iff S^c$ is open $\iff S$ contains its boundary.

PROP 2.4

On Arbitrary \mathbb{R}^n Subsets

Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be closed and bounded. Let $f : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be some function. $\hat{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$\hat{f}(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & x \in \mathcal{D} \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

is called the *trivial extension* of f .

f is integrable over \mathcal{D} if its trivial extension is integrable over a box $\mathcal{B} \supseteq \mathcal{D}$.

PROP 2.5

2.4

Let $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be closed and bounded, with a boundary that has zero measure. Then, if $f : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous on \mathcal{D} , then f is integrable.

PROOF.

If f is continuous on \mathcal{D} , then \hat{f} is continuous on both $\text{Int}(\mathcal{D})$ and $\text{Ext}(\mathcal{D})$ (for any point in either of these sets, we can find epsilon balls centered at the point and contained in the set—within these intervals $\hat{f} = f$). Thus, since $\mathcal{D} = \text{Int}(\mathcal{D}) \cup \text{Ext}(\mathcal{D}) \cup \partial D$, the set of discontinuities of \hat{f} has at most measure 0. Hence, \hat{f} is integrable over any box containing \mathcal{D} , and hence f is integrable over \mathcal{D} by Prop 2.5. \square

DEF 2.5

$\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ is called *y-simple* if, for $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $g_1, g_2 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous, we may write

$$\mathcal{D} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a \leq x \leq b \\ g_1(x) \leq y \leq g_2(x) \end{array} \right.$$

Similarly, \mathcal{D} is *x-simple* if

$$\mathcal{D} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a \leq y \leq b \\ g_1(y) \leq x \leq g_2(y) \end{array} \right.$$

Note that, since $x \in [a, b]$ is closed (hence compact), $g_1(x)$ and $g_2(x)$ are bounded. We reason similarly for *x-simple* domains.

DEF 2.6

$\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ is *elementary* if it is *y-* or *x-simple*. It is *simple* if it is both.

2.5 Fubini

If $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is elementary and $f : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, then

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \text{ } \mathcal{D} \text{ is } y\text{-simple} &\implies \iint_{\mathcal{D}} f dA = \int_{x=a}^{x=b} \int_{y=g_1(x)}^{y=g_2(x)} f(x, y) dy dx \\ \bullet \text{ } \mathcal{D} \text{ is } x\text{-simple} &\implies \iint_{\mathcal{D}} f dA = \int_{y=a}^{y=b} \int_{x=g_1(y)}^{x=g_2(y)} f(x, y) dx dy \end{aligned}$$

E.G. 2.1

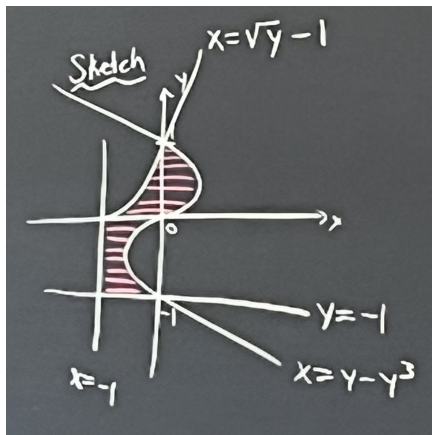
♠ Examples ♣

1. Consider $\iint_{\mathcal{D}} (1 + 2y) dA$, where \mathcal{D} is bounded by $y = 2x^2$ and $y = 1 + x^2$. We first find the intersection between these two curves: $2x^2 = 1 + x^2 \implies x = \pm 1$.

Then, by Thm 2.5 (\mathcal{D} is y -simple), we write

$$\begin{aligned}
 \iint_{\mathcal{D}} (1+2y) dA &= \int_{x=-1}^{x=1} \int_{2x^2}^{1+x^2} (1+2y) dy dx = \int_{-1}^1 y + y^2 \Big|_{2x^2}^{1+x^2} \\
 &= \int_{-1}^1 (1+x^2) + (1+x^2)^2 - 2x^2 - 4x^4 \\
 &= \int_{-1}^1 1 + x^2 + 1 + x^4 + 2x^2 - 2x^2 - 4x^4 \\
 &= \int_{-1}^1 -3x^4 + x^2 + 2 = \left. -\frac{3}{5}x^5 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 2x \right|_{-1}^1 = 2\frac{-3}{5} + 2\frac{1}{3} + 4 \\
 &= 2\left(\frac{-9}{15} + \frac{5}{15} + \frac{30}{15}\right) = \frac{52}{15}
 \end{aligned}$$

2. Consider $\iint_{\mathcal{D}} y dA$, where \mathcal{D} is bounded by $x = y - y^3$, $x = \sqrt{y} - 1$, $x = -1$, and $y = -1$ (OOF). By Thm 2.5 (y -simple):



We split this up into two x -simple graphs, one in $y \in [-1, 0]$, and one in $y \in [0, 1]$. Then we have $\iint_{\mathcal{D}} = I_1 + I_2$, with

$$I_1 = \int_0^1 \int_{\sqrt{y}-1}^{y-y^3} y dx dy \quad I_2 = \int_{-1}^0 \int_{-1}^{y-y^3} y dx dy$$

Computing this integral a hassle. Try it yourself.

3. We may also flip the bounds of integration using Thm 2.5. For example, consider $\int_0^3 \int_y^3 \sin(x^2) dx dy$. This is a non-elementary integral to evaluate in x . But observe that our bounds are equivalent to $y \in [0, x]$ and $x \in [0, 3]$, so we may re-write this as $\int_0^3 \int_0^x \sin(x^2) dy dx$.

We pick up an x , not, after integrating WRT y , so this is easy to evaluate!

DEF 2.7

A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is called *path-connected* if, for every $a, b \in S$, there exists a continuous mapping containing a and b (i.e., there exists a path between them).

DEF 2.8

This is distinct from elementary-ness of $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$, which we characterized by y and x simple-ness.

DEF 2.9

DEF 2.10

In $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, we call \mathcal{D} *elementary* if it is closed, bounded, and both its interior and boundary are path-connected.

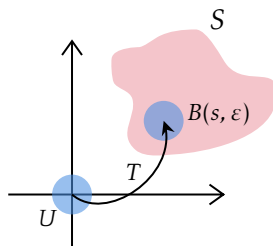
Let $\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}^*$ be elementary subsets of \mathbb{R}^n . Let $T : \mathcal{D}^* \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$. We call T *onto*, or *surjective*, if the whole of \mathcal{D} is mapped to, i.e. $\forall d^* \in \mathcal{D}^* \exists d \in \mathcal{D} : T(d) = d^*$.

Using the same notation, we call T *one-to-one*, or *injective*, if no two points share a mapping, i.e. $\forall d_1^*, d_2^* \in \mathcal{D}^*$, we have $T(d_1^*) = T(d_2^*) \implies d_1^* = d_2^*$.

DEF 2.11

$S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a *hypersurface* if, $\forall s \in S$, $\exists \varepsilon > 0$, an open set $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, and a function $T : U \rightarrow B(s, \varepsilon)$ such that

- T is injective on $\text{Int}(\mathcal{D}^*)$ and also surjective
- $T(U \cap \{s = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle : x_n = 0\}) = S \cap B(s, \varepsilon)$



2.6 Change of Variables

Let $T : \mathcal{D}^* \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be continuously differentiable on $\text{Int}(\mathcal{D}^*)$ (i.e. all partial derivatives exist and are continuous on $\text{Int}(\mathcal{D}^*)$). Let T' be the Jacobian induced by T . Let $F^* = F \circ T$.

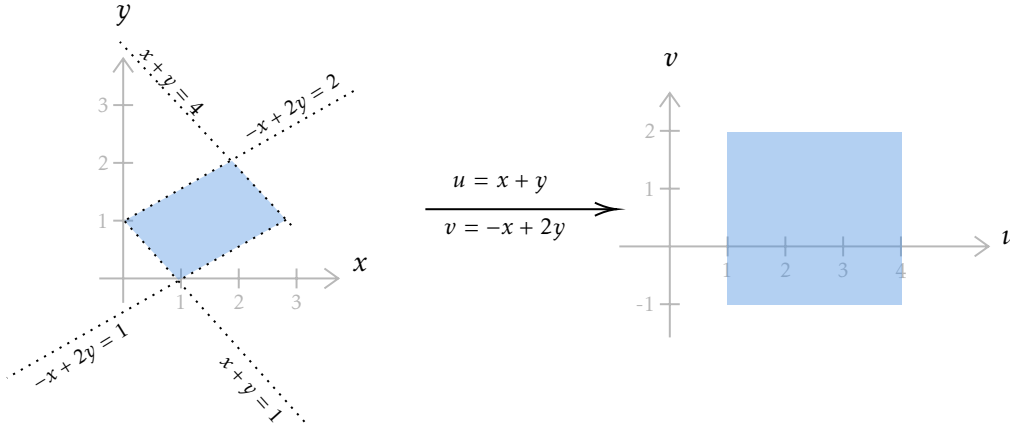
If $F : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable over \mathcal{D} , then F^* is integrable over \mathcal{D}^* and

$$\int_{\mathcal{D}} F dV = \int_{\mathcal{D}^*} F^* |\det(T)| dV$$

For example, in $n = 2$ polar coordinates, $\int_{\mathcal{D}} F dA = \int_{\mathcal{D}^*} F^* r dA$. For this, see that the relevant Jacobian is

$$T' = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_r x & \partial_\theta x \\ \partial_r y & \partial_\theta y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -r \sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & r \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow |\det(T')| = |r| = r$$

Consider the area of the following parallelogram:



Then, $x = \frac{2u-v}{3}$ and $y = \frac{u+v}{3}$. Hence, we compute our Jacobian and conclude that $\det(T') = \frac{1}{3}$. However, we may also compute the determinate of the *inverse's* Jacobian, i.e. $u = x + y$ and $v = -x + 2y$, which will yield 3, and invert the result.

Hence, since the area of the left rectangle is 9, we get an area of 3 for the parallelogram.

2.7 Mean Value Theorem in \mathbb{R}^n

Let $F : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be integrable over an elementary region $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $\bar{F} := \int_{\mathcal{D}} F dV \frac{1}{\text{vol}(\mathcal{D})}$ be the mean value of F . Then

$$\exists c \in \mathcal{D} : F(c) = \bar{F}$$

Let $\delta : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ be a density function (which is integrable). Then define $\text{mass}(\mathcal{D}) = \int_{\mathcal{D}} \delta dV$. Then the center of mass $x \in \mathcal{D}$ is given by

$$x_i = \frac{\int_{\mathcal{D}} x_i \delta dV}{\text{mass}(\mathcal{D})}$$

The mean value theorem gives the fact that $\exists c : \delta(c) = \bar{\delta}$, where $\bar{\delta} = \frac{\text{mass}(\mathcal{D})}{\text{vol}(\mathcal{D})}$

ORTHONORMAL CURVILINEAR SYSTEM

DEF 2.12 Let $T : U^* \rightarrow U$ be given by $T(\vec{u}) = \langle x_1(\vec{u}), \dots, x_n(\vec{u}) \rangle$. Then we call T *orthogonal* if $\partial_j T \perp \partial_i T \ \forall i \neq j$. We then call the Jacobian of T an *orthonormal system*. Intuitively, we have the grid-lines in U^* being mapped to (not necessarily straight) lines in U , such that all their intersections are perpendicular.

PATH INTEGRALS

DEF 2.13 $\vec{r} : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a *regular path* if it is C^1 continuous and $\|r'(t)\| > 0 \ \forall a < t < b$

DEF 2.14 $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a *regular curve* if it is the image of a regular path. Thus, since $\|r'(t)\| > 0$ on (a, b) , there exists some arc length parameterization $p : [0, l] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.

Regular curves have zero measure, and hence zero n -dimensional volume, but we *can* measure 1-dimensional volume, i.e. length. Hence, $\text{vol}_1(C) := \int_C 1 ds = l$.

In practice, we have

$$\text{mass}(C) = \int_C \delta ds = \int_0^l \delta(p(s)) ds \stackrel{\text{ch. of var's}}{=} \int_a^b \delta(r(t)) \|r'(t)\| dt$$

where $p(s)$ is an arc length parameterization.

Hence, the center of mass across a curve is going to be given by

$$x_i = \left(\int_C x_i \delta ds \right) \frac{1}{\text{mass}(C)}$$

DEF 2.15 A regular path r is *simple* if it is injective (except possibly $r(a) = r(b)$). r is called *closed* if, in particular, $r(a) = r(b)$.

DEF 2.16 A regular curve C is simple or closed if its pre-image path r is simple or closed, respectively.

PROP 2.6 If a curve is regular, there exists a unique arc length parameterization $p : [0, l] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ of it.

VECTOR FIELDS

DEF 2.17 An *orientation* on a simple, regular curve C is a function $\mu : C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ which gives the tangent vector to C at a . Two orientations are equivalent if they differ by a positive scaling function. C then has exactly two orientations (\mathcal{O} for “forwards”

and \bar{O} for “backwards”). Given an orientation, there exists a unique equivalent unit orientation T . (The other unique unit will be $-T$).

The boundary of the oriented curve will be a pair of “oriented points,” i.e. $\{A^+, B^-\}$.

A *vector field* is a function $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.

DEF 2.18

Fix an orientation on a simple curve C . The *integral* of F over C , $\int_C F \cdot T ds := \int_{[0,l]} (F \circ \rho) \cdot \rho'$, where ρ is some arc length parameterization of C .

DEF 2.19

$\int_C F \cdot T ds = \int_a^b (F \circ r) \cdot r' dt$, where r is *any* parameterization of C .

PROP 2.7

♠ Examples ♣

E.G. 2.2

Let $F : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be defined by $F(x, y, z) = \langle 2x, 2y, 2z \rangle = 2\langle x, y, z \rangle$. Hence, at any point, the vector generated by F will go through the line between the origin and that point (away).

We want to integrate over the triangle $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$ bounded by $(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)$. We orient this path as $(1, 0, 0) \rightarrow (0, 1, 0) \rightarrow (0, 0, 1)$.

Then, we split C up into 3 parts (the lines traversing each point)

$$\begin{aligned} C_1 &= r_1(t) \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle + t \langle -1, 1, 0 \rangle \\ C_2 &= r_2(t) = \langle 0, 1, 0 \rangle + t \langle 0, -1, 1 \rangle \\ C_3 &= r_3(t) = \langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle + t \langle 1, 0, -1 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{C_1} F \cdot T ds &= \int_0^1 \langle 2(1-t), 2t, 2(0) \rangle \cdot \langle -1, 1, 0 \rangle dt = \int_0^1 4t - 2 dt \\ &= [2t^2 - 2t]_0^1 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

By symmetry, the integral across C_2, C_3 will be the same, i.e. $3 \cdot 0 = 0$.

2.8

Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be open and $\varphi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by C^1 continuous. Then $\nabla \varphi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a continuous gradient field. Let $C \subseteq U$ be a regular oriented curve with a parameterization $r : [a, b] \rightarrow U$ and an orientation T . Let $A = r(a)$ and $B = r(b)$.

$$\implies \int_C \nabla \varphi \cdot T ds = \varphi(B) - \varphi(A)$$

PROOF.

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_C \nabla \varphi \cdot T ds &= \int_a^b \nabla \varphi(r(t)) \cdot r'(t) dt \\
&\stackrel{\text{CR}}{=} \int_a^b (\varphi \circ r)'(t) dt \stackrel{\text{FTC}}{=} [\varphi \circ r]_a^b \\
&= \varphi(r(b)) - \varphi(r(a)) = \varphi(B) - \varphi(A)
\end{aligned}$$

□

Differential Forms

DEF 2.20 A differential 0-form on C (or any open set U) is a scalar function $F : C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (or $F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$).

DEF 2.21 A differential 1-form on C (or U) is a set of functions such that, for fixed $a \in C$ (or U), $\omega_a : T_a C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is linear.

E.G. 2.3

♠ Examples ♣

1. Consider dx on $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$. Then $\forall a \in U$, we define $dx_a : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $dx_a(u, v) = u$. We also have dy on U , with $dx_a : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $dy_a(u, v) = v$.
 2. Any differential 1-form ω can be written as $\omega = g ds$ for some scalar function $g : C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where ds is the length element of the oriented curve.
 3. Let ω be a 1-form on $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$. Then $\omega = \alpha dx + \beta dy$ for some scalar functions α, β .
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