VECTOR CALCULUS NOTES NICHOLAS HAYEK

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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. $\langle au + bw, v \rangle = a \langle u, v \rangle + v \langle w, v \rangle$
- 3. $\langle u, u \rangle \ge 0$, and $= 0 \iff u = 0$

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

DEF 1.2

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

PROP 1.1

Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality PROP 1.2

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

Triangle Inequality

The *cross product* of $u, v \in \mathbb{R}$, with respect to \mathbb{R}^3 , is the determinate of the following DEF 1.3 "matrix":

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

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 $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^n$, 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 an 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 $Rl(\alpha)$ 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 dist $(l_1(t), l_2)$ for fixed t.

Idea 4 Find t and s such that $[l_1(t) - l_2(s)] \cdot \overrightarrow{d_1} = 0$ and $[l_1(t) - l_2(s)] \cdot \overrightarrow{d_2} = 0$

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

PROP 1.4

DEF 1.5

DEF 1.6

PLANES

A plane r(s,t) is a function $[0,1]^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 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*.

The *point-normal* form is a function $\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 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 $\lambda : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$.

Dimension	Linear	Affine
	$\lambda(0) = 0$	$\lambda(0) = P$
n = 1		$\lambda(t) = P + t\vec{d}$
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	$\lambda(t, s, r) = t\vec{d_1} + s\vec{d_2} + r\vec{d_3}$	$\lambda(t, s, r) = P + t\vec{d}_1 + s\vec{d}_2 + r\vec{d}_3$

Type	Explicit Form	Parametric Form
Ellipse	$x^2 + y^2 = 1$	$r(t) = \left\langle t, \sqrt{1 - t^2} \right\rangle_{t \in [-1, 1]} = \left\langle \cos(t), \sin(t) \right\rangle_{t \in [-\pi, \pi]}$
Hyperbola	$x^2 - y^2 = 1$	$r(t) = \left\langle \sqrt{1 + t^2}, t \right\rangle_{t \in \mathbb{R}} = \left\langle \cosh(t), \sinh(t) \right\rangle_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$
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 $r : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^m$, e.g. $[a, b] \to \mathbb{R}^m$.

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 DEF 1.8 the statement "paths parameterize curves."

For example, the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is parameterized by the path $r : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^2$ 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 $l : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^m$ satisfying the following:

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

2.
$$\lim_{t\to a} \frac{\|r(t)-l(t)\|}{|t-a|} = 0$$

- 🛊 Examples 🛊 ------

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:

$$\lim_{t \to a} \frac{\|r(t) - l(t)\|}{|t - a|} = \lim_{t \to a} \frac{1}{|t - a|} \sqrt{(\cos(t) - \cos(a) - (t - a)d_1)^2 + (\sin(t) - \sin(a) - (t - a)d_2)^2}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to a} \sqrt{\left(\frac{\cos(t) - \cos(a)}{t - a} - d_1\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sin(t) - \sin(a)}{t - a} - d_2\right)^2}$$

$$= \int_{t \to a} \sqrt{(-\sin(a) - d_1)^2 + (\cos(a) - d_2)^2} = 0$$

$$\iff d_1 = -\sin(a) \land d_2 = \cos(a)$$

$$\implies l(t) = \langle -\sin(a), \cos(a) \rangle \quad \Box$$

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:

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

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

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 $l(t) = r(a) + \lambda(t - a)$.

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

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

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.

- 🌢 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 $\alpha' \ge 0$.

$$r(\alpha(s)) = \left\langle \alpha(s), \sqrt{1 - \alpha(s)^2} \right\rangle$$

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

$$= \alpha'(s) \left\langle 1, \frac{-\alpha(s)}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha(s)^2}} \right\rangle$$
Then $1 = ||r'(\alpha(s))|| = \alpha'(s) \sqrt{1 + \frac{\alpha(s)^2}{1 - \alpha(s)^2}}$

$$= \frac{\alpha'(s)}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha(s)^2}}$$

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

DEF 1.9

DEF 1.10

DEF 1.11

SURFACES

We note the following quadric surfaces:

Туре	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 $\lambda : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

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

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

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

$$0 \leq \frac{|F(a+h,b+k) - F(a,b) - \lambda(h,k)|}{\|\langle h,k \rangle\|} = \frac{|(a+h)(b+k) - ab - (uk+vk)|}{\|\langle h,k \rangle\|}$$

$$= \frac{|bh + ak + hk - uh - vk|}{\|\langle h,k \rangle\|} = \frac{|(b-u)h + (a-v)k + hk|}{\|\langle h,k \rangle\|}$$

$$\leq \frac{|b-u||h|}{|h|} + \frac{|a-v||k|}{|k|} + \frac{|h||k|}{|h|} \quad \text{since } |h|, |k| \leq \|\langle h,k \rangle\|$$

$$= |b-u| + |a-v| + |k| \to |b-u| + |a-v|$$

$$= 0 \quad \text{when } b = u, a = v$$

Thus, the desired limit is always \geq and \leq 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.

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

This is called the *gradient*. Similarly, $\alpha(x, y) = F(a, b) + \lambda(x - a, y - b)$ is called the DEF 1.13 *affine approximation* at (a, b).

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

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

PROP 1.5

1.1 Partial Converse

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

PROOF FOR n = 2.

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

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

Let n = 2. Then

$$|F(\vec{a} + \vec{h}) - F(\vec{a}) - \lambda(\vec{h})| = |F(a_1 + h_1, a_2 + h_2) - F(a_1 + h_1, a_2) + F(a_1 + h_1, a_2) - F(a_1, a_2) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a}) h_1 - \partial_2 F(\vec{a}) h_2|$$

$$\leq |F(a_1 + h_1, a_2 + h_2) - F(a_1 + h_1, a_2) - \partial_2 F(\vec{a}) h_2|$$

$$+ |F(a_1 + h_1, a_2) - F(a_1, a_2) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a}) h_1|$$

$$= |\partial_2 F(\vec{c}) h_2 - \partial_2 F(\vec{a}) h_2| + |\partial_1 F(\vec{d}) h_1 - \partial_1 F(\vec{a}) h_1|$$
by mean value thm.
$$= |\partial_2 F(\vec{c}) - \partial_2 F(\vec{a})| |h_2| + |\partial_1 F(\vec{d}) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a})| |h_1|$$

$$\frac{|F(\vec{a} + \vec{h}) - F(\vec{a}) - \lambda(\vec{h})|}{||\vec{h}||} = |\partial_2 F(\vec{c}) - \partial_2 F(\vec{a})| \frac{|h_2|}{||\vec{h}||} + |\partial_1 F(\vec{d}) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a})| \frac{|h_1|}{||\vec{h}||}$$

$$\leq |\partial_2 F(\vec{c}) - \partial_2 F(\vec{a})| \frac{|h_2|}{|h_2|} + |\partial_1 F(\vec{d}) - \partial_1 F(\vec{a})| \frac{|h_1|}{|h_1|}$$
since $|h_i| < ||\vec{h}||$

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

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

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

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

 $F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ 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. $x \ne 0$ and 0 otherwise.

DEF 1.14

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

$$F(\vec{a} + \vec{h}) - F(\vec{a}) = \lambda(\vec{h}) + ||\vec{h}|| E(\vec{h})$$
 $\vec{h} \rightarrow \vec{0}$ (??? $\forall h$)

implies differentiability.

- 📤 Examples 📤 –

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

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

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

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

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

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 $\vec{F}: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m = \langle F_1, ..., F_m \rangle$ using a DEF 1.15 *Jacobian* matrix, denoted $F'(\vec{a})$, and defined as follows:

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ be differentiable at $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $g: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^l$ be differentiable at PROP 1.7 Chain Rule

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

– 📤 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 $h = g \circ f$: $\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ 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?

$$f'(a) = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_1 f_1 & \partial_2 f_1 \\ \partial_1 f_2 & \partial_2 f_2 \end{bmatrix} \Big|_{(a_1, a_2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarly, for *g* we have

$$g'(b) = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_1 g & \partial_2 g \end{bmatrix} \Big|_{(a_1 + a_2, a_1 - a_2)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2}(a_1 + a_2) - \frac{1}{2}(a_1 - a_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

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

2. Let *S* be a surface in 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

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

Let $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, \vec{a} , $\vec{h} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Let l(t) = a + th. Then the *directional derivative* of F along h at a is given by $(F \circ l)'(0)$. The chain rule dictates that

$$(F \circ l)'(0) = F'(a)l'(0)$$
$$= \nabla F(a) \cdot h$$

which is a more useful form.