

MXB105

Lecture Notes



**MAXWELL
HANKS**

CALCULUS AND DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

Integration Techniques

SINE SUBSTITUTION

- When an integral contains $(a^2 - x^2)^n$; Sine substitution

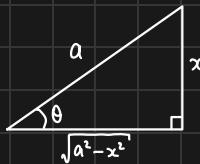
- Recall $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$

$$(a^2 - x^2)^n \rightarrow \text{Let } x = a \sin \theta$$

$$\therefore a^2 - x^2 = a^2 - a^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

$$= a^2 \cos^2 \theta$$

$$[\text{Domain: } \theta \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}], a \in [-x, x]]$$



TAN SUBSTITUTION

- When an integral contains $(a^2 + x^2)^n$; Tan substitution

$$(a^2 + x^2)^n \rightarrow \text{Let } x = a \tan \theta$$

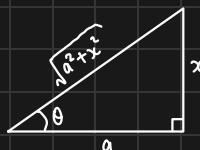
$$\therefore a^2 + x^2 = a^2 + a^2 \tan^2 \theta$$

$$= a^2 \sec^2 \theta$$

$$[\text{Domain: } \theta \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}], a \in [-x, x]]$$

Recall $\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{\cos^2 \theta} = \frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta} \Rightarrow 1 + \tan^2 \theta = \sec^2 \theta$$



SEC SUBSTITUTION

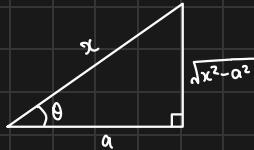
- When an integral contains $(x^2 - a^2)^n$; Sec substitution

$$(x^2 - a^2)^n \rightarrow \text{Let } x = a \sec \theta$$

$$\therefore x^2 - a^2 = a^2 \sec^2 \theta - a^2$$

$$= a^2 \tan^2 \theta$$

$$[\text{Domain: } \begin{cases} \forall x > a, \theta \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}] \\ \forall x < -a, \theta \in (\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi] \end{cases}]$$



↳ E.g., $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{9-x^2}} dx$

$$\text{Let } x = 3 \sin \theta, \theta \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$$

$$\frac{dx}{d\theta} = 3 \cos \theta, dx = 3 \cos \theta d\theta$$

$$\therefore \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{9-x^2}} dx = \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{9-9\sin^2 \theta}} 3 \cos \theta d\theta$$

$$= \int \frac{3 \cos \theta}{\sqrt{9\cos^2 \theta}} d\theta$$

$$= \int 1 d\theta = \theta + C = \sin^{-1}(\frac{x}{3}) + C$$

↳ E.g., $\int \frac{1}{(1+x^2)^2} dx$

$$\text{Let } x = \tan \theta, \theta \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$$

$$\frac{dx}{d\theta} = \frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta} = \sec^2 \theta$$

$$\therefore dx = \sec^2 \theta d\theta$$

$$\therefore \int \frac{1}{(1+x^2)^2} dx = \int \frac{1}{(1+\tan^2 \theta)^2} \sec^2 \theta d\theta$$

$$= \int \frac{\sec^2 \theta}{\sec^4 \theta} d\theta = \int \frac{1}{\sec^2 \theta} d\theta$$

$$= \int \cos^2 \theta d\theta = \int (\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos(2\theta)) d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\theta + \frac{1}{4}\sin(2\theta) + C$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\tan^{-1}(x) + \frac{x}{2(1+x^2)} + C$$

↳ E.g., $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2-16}} dx, a=4$, Sec sub

$$\text{Let } x = 4 \sec \theta$$

$$\frac{dx}{d\theta} = \frac{-4}{(4 \cos \theta)^2} (-\sin \theta) = \frac{4 \sin \theta}{\cos^2 \theta} = 4 \tan \theta \sec \theta$$

$$\therefore \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2-16}} dx = \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{16 \sec^2 \theta - 16}} 4 \tan \theta \sec \theta d\theta$$

$$= \int \frac{1}{4 \tan \theta} 4 \tan \theta \sec \theta d\theta$$

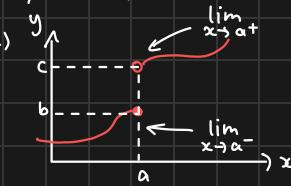
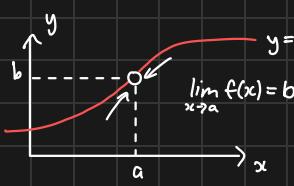
$$= \int \sec \theta d\theta = \ln |\sec \theta + \tan \theta| + C$$

$$= \ln \left| \frac{x}{4} + \frac{\sqrt{x^2-16}}{4} \right| + C$$

Limits, Continuity, Differentiability

LIMIT

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ iff $f(a) \rightarrow$ a single finite value as $x \rightarrow a$
- Three ways a limit can fail to exist;
 - The function is unbounded; not a finite value
- E.g., $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$
 - Two one-sided limits are not equal;
- E.g., $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = c \neq b = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$
 - Oscillations;
- E.g., $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ 0, & x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}$

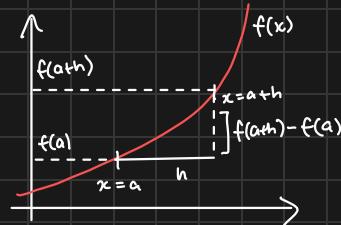


DIFFERENTIABILITY

- A function $f(x)$ is differentiable at $x=a$ iff $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$ exists. If so, the derivative:

$$f'(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}.$$

- f is differentiable on (a, b) if f is diff. $\forall x \in (a, b)$



L'HOPITAL'S RULE

- If $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ produces an indeterminant $(\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\pm\infty}{\pm\infty})$;

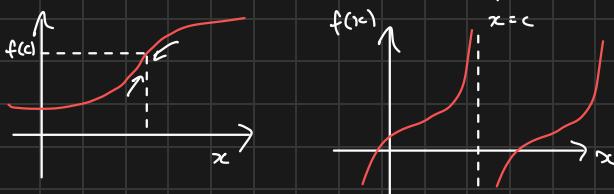
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}, \quad c \in \mathbb{R}$$

CONTINUITY

- A function $f(x)$ is continuous at a point $x=c$ iff;

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$$

- Piecewise can be considered discontinuous
- Two sided limits or undefined points

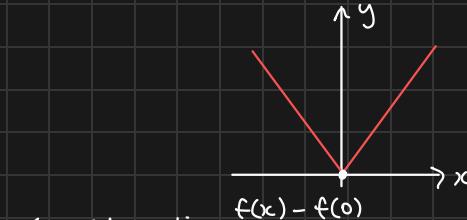


- $f(x)$ is continuous on (a, b) if x is cont $\forall x \in (a, b)$

- $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ if $f(x)$ is;

- continuous on (a, b)
- R cont. at a ; $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = f(a)$
- L cont. at b ; $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = f(b)$
- Continuous on $(-\infty, \infty)$; $x \in \mathbb{R}$; cont everywhere.

↳ E.g., consider $f(x) = |x|$; $= \begin{cases} x, & x \geq 0 \\ -x, & x < 0 \end{cases}$



$$\text{Consider } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0}$$

$$\text{From above; } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = \frac{x - 0}{x - 0} = 1$$

$$\text{From below; } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = \frac{-x - 0}{x - 0} = -1$$

Thus; $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0}$ DNE,
 f is not differentiable at $x=0$.

DIFFERENTIABILITY IMPLIES CONTINUITY

- $f(x)$ is differentiable at $x=x_0$
 \Rightarrow continuous at $x=x_0$ (Not diff \Rightarrow Not cont)
- Weierstrass function; continuous, not diff.

MEAN VALUE THEOREM

- If f is cont on $[a, b]$ and diff on (a, b) , $\exists c \in (a, b)$;

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$



INTERMEDIATE VALUE THEOREM

- If $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $k \in [f(a), f(b)]$, inclusive, then $\exists x \in [a, b]$ such that $f(x) = k$

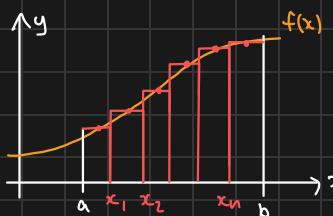
Definite Integrals/Taylor Maclaurin Polynomials

DEFINITE INTEGRALS

- Can be defined as limit of Riemann sums.
- $A = \text{area under } f(x) \text{ on interval } [a, b]$

$$A \approx \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) \Delta x_k, \quad \Delta x_k = \frac{b-a}{n}$$

- n - number of rectangles
- x_k - centre, Δx_k - width



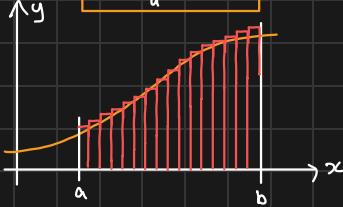
- More rectangles approximate A more closely:

$$A = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\max \Delta x_k \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) \Delta x_k$$

"Riemann Sum" integral

- If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then area is defined:

$$A = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$



- $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$
- $\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx$
- $\int_a^c c f(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx$
- $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$
- $\int_a^b (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$

FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF CALCULUS

- If $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, and F is any antiderivative of f on $[a, b]$ then;

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) \equiv F(x)$$

- If a is any point on the interval;

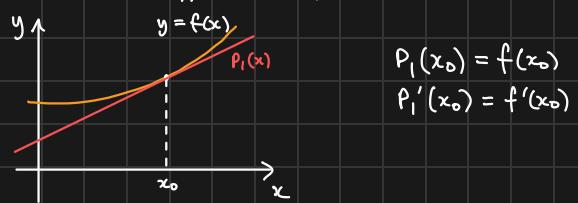
$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

$$f(-x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_x^a f(t) dt, \quad a \in \mathbb{R}$$

TAYLOR POLYNOMIALS

- Local constant approximation; $f(x) \approx f(x_0) = P_0(x)$
- Local linear approximation; $f(x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x-x_0) = P_1(x)$



$$P_1(x_0) = f(x_0)$$

$$P_1'(x_0) = f'(x_0)$$

- Local quadratic approximation.

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x-x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2} (x-x_0)^2 = P_2(x)$$

- If f can be differentiated n times at x_0 , n th Taylor;

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x-x_0)^n$$

- Where error in this approximation; $s \in [x, x_0]$

$$R_n(x) = f(x) - P_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(s)}{(n+1)!} (x-x_0)^{n+1}$$

MACLAURIN POLYNOMIAL

- MacLaurin polynomial; approximation where $x_0=0$, hence.

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$$

↳ E.g., Find the MacLaurin polynomial of e^x ; $P_n, n \in [0, 3]$

$$f(x) = e^x, \quad f'(x) = e^x, \dots f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$$

$$f(0) = 1, \quad f'(0) = 1, \dots f^{(n)}(0) = 1$$

$$P_0 = f(0) = 1$$

$$P_1 = f(0) + f'(0)x = 1+x$$

$$P_2 = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{1}{2!} f''(0)x^2 = 1+x+\frac{1}{2}x^2$$

$$P_3 = f(0) + \dots + \frac{1}{3!} f'''(0)x^3 = 1+x+\frac{1}{2}x^2+\frac{1}{6}x^3$$



Taylor and Maclaurin Series

SERIES

- Recall Taylor polynomial of deg. n for $f(x)$; x_0

$$P_n(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x-x_0) + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!}(x-x_0)^n.$$

- If f has derivatives at $x=x_0$, Taylor series:

$$P(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x-x_0)^n = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x-x_0) + \dots$$

- If $x=x_0$, a Maclaurin series exists:

$$P(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = f(0) + f'(0)x + \dots$$

↳ E.g., Find the Maclaurin series for $f(x) = \cos(x)$

Let $P(x) = C_0 + C_1x + C_2x^2 + \dots + C_nx^n$
where $C_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}$

$$f(x) = \cos(x), f(0) = 1$$

$$f'(x) = -\sin(x), f'(0) = 0$$

$$f''(x) = -\cos(x), f''(0) = -1$$

$$f'''(x) = \sin(x), f'''(0) = 0$$

$$f^{(n)}(0) = 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}; \quad f^{2n+1}(0) = 0, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$f^{2n}(0) = (-1)^n$$

$$\therefore \cos(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n)!} x^{2n}$$

CONVERGENCE

- Taylor/Maclaurin series are power series in $(x-x_0)$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (x-x_0)^k = C_0 + C_1(x-x_0) + \dots$$

- For any power series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (x-x_0)^k$, exactly one is true:

1. Converges only for $x=x_0$
2. Converges absolutely $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$
3. Converges absolutely $\forall x \in [x_0-R, x_0+R]$ (open interval)
 - Diverges for $(x < x_0-R) \cup (x > x_0+R)$
 - May converge or diverge on bound

CONVERGENCE TEST

- Let $\sum u_k$ be a non-zero series; suppose

$$\rho = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|u_{k+1}|}{|u_k|}$$

- Converges if $\rho < 1$
- Diverges if $\rho \in (1, +\infty)$
- Inconclusive if $\rho = 1$

ALTERNATING SERIES TEST

- If $a_k > 0$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - \dots - a_1 + a_2 - \dots$ converge if both:

$$(a) a_1 \geq a_2 \geq a_3 \quad (a_k \geq a_{k+1})$$

$$(b) \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = 0$$

↳ E.g., Determine the interval of convergence for $f(x) = e^x$.

For $f(x) = e^x$, $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$

Ratio test:

$$\rho = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left| \frac{x^{k+1}}{(k+1)!} \right|}{\left| \frac{x^k}{k!} \right|} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x^{k+1} k!}{x^k (k+1)!} \right| = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x}{k+1} \right| = 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Since $\rho < 1$, series converges for all x , $(-\infty, \infty)$.

CONVERGENCE REMAINDER

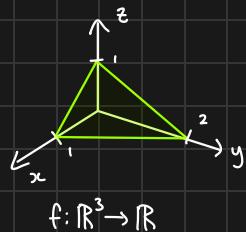
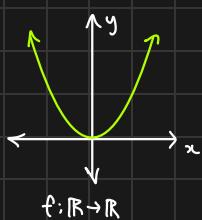
- To prove convergence of Taylor series to $f(x)$, prove that: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = 0$;

$$R_n(x) = f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x-x_0)^k = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(s)}{(n+1)!} (x-x_0)^{n+1}, \quad s \in (x_0, x)$$

Multivariable Calculus

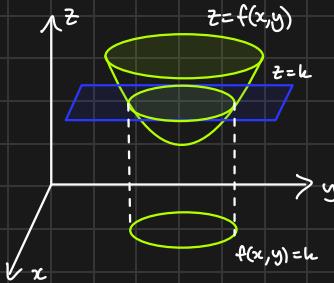
MULTIVARIABLE

- Single variable, let f be defined $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, e.g., $f(x) = x^2$
- Multivariable, let f be defined $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, e.g., $f(x, y) = 1 - x - \frac{1}{2}y^2$

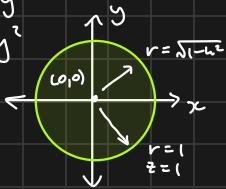


LEVEL CURVES

- Cut the surface $z = f(x, y)$ with the horizontal plane $z = k$, then at all points on the intersection, $f(x, y) = k$.
- Projection of intersection on xy -plane is level curve

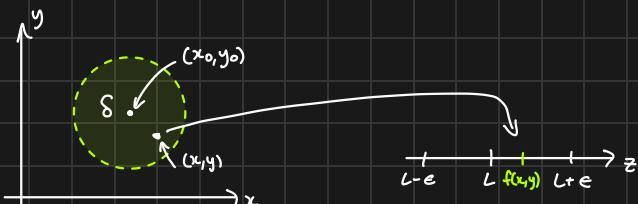


↳ E.g., Draw the level curves of $z = \sqrt{1-x^2-y^2}$
 Let $z = k$, $k = \sqrt{1-x^2-y^2} \Rightarrow k^2 = 1-x^2-y^2$
 $r = \sqrt{1-k^2}$, $k \in [0, 1]$



UNITS

- Notation: $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} f(x, y) = L$ or $\lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0, z_0)} f(x, y, z) = L$
- Formal definition: $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} f(x, y) = L$ if given any $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ such that $|f(x, y) - L| < \epsilon$ whenever $\sqrt{(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2} \in [0, \delta]$



- Consequences: $f(x, y) \rightarrow L$, $(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)$ on any smooth curve.
- If $f(x, y)$ has different limits, LDNE.

CONTINUITY

- A function $f(x, y)$ is continuous at (x_0, y_0) iff

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} f(x, y) = f(x_0, y_0)$$

CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS:

- Sum/diff/product of cont. func. ($3x^2y^5$)
- Quotient (den $\neq 0$) ($\frac{x^2}{y^3}$)
- Composition function. ($\sin(3x^2y^5)$)

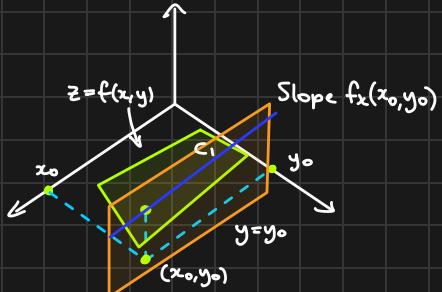
PARTIAL DIFFERENTIATION

- Partial derivative of f w.r.t x at (x_0, y_0) :

$$\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} = f_x(x_0, y_0) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x, y_0) - f(x_0, y_0)}{\Delta x}$$

- Partial derivative of f w.r.t y at (x_0, y_0) :

$$\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} = f_y(x_0, y_0) = \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0, y_0 + \Delta y) - f(x_0, y_0)}{\Delta y}$$



CHAIN RULE

- Recall chain rule for $y(x(t))$:

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{dy}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt}$$

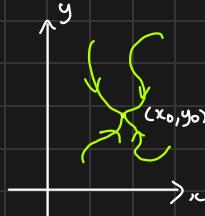
- Example: $z = \sin 2x \cos 3y$ ($x = s+t$, $y = s-t$)

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial s}$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = 2\cos 2x \cos 3y$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -3\sin 3y \sin 2x$$

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial s} = 1 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial z}{\partial s} = 2\cos 2x \cos 3y - 3\sin 3y \sin 2x.$$



Directional Derivatives/Critical Points

PARTIAL DERIVATIVES

- A function of two variables, x, y , is a rule $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that assigns a unique real number $f(x, y)$ to each point (x, y) within some set D in the xy -plane.
- $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ - PD of f wrt x . (f_x)
- $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ - PD of f wrt y . (f_y)

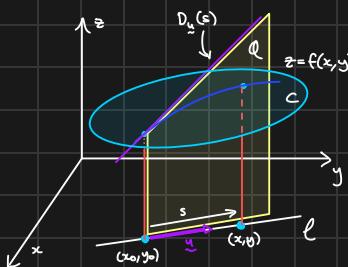
HIGHER-ORDER PDS

- $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$ (f_{xx}, f_{yy})
- $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$ (f_{yx}, f_{xy})
- Equality of mixed partials; if f is defined in some domain $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$, and f_{xy} and f_{yx} are continuous throughout D , then $f_{yx} = f_{xy} \forall (x, y) \in D$.

DIRECTIONAL DERIVATIVE

- If $f(x, y)$ is a function of two variables, x and y ;
- $\hat{u} = u_1 \hat{i} + u_2 \hat{j}$
- is a unit vector, then the directional derivative of f in the direction of \hat{u} at (x_0, y_0) is $D_{\hat{u}} f(x_0, y_0)$
- Provided that $f(x, y)$ is differentiable at (x_0, y_0) , DDer:

$$D_{\hat{u}} f(x_0, y_0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)} u_1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)} u_2$$



GRADIENT VECTOR

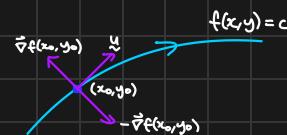
- If f is a function x, y , gradient of f is:
- $\vec{\nabla} f(x, y) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \hat{j}$
- Directional derivative in terms of gradient vector.

$$D_{\hat{u}} f(x_0, y_0) = f_x(x_0, y_0) u_1 + f_y(x_0, y_0) u_2$$

- But, $(f_x(x_0, y_0), f_y(x_0, y_0))$ is gradient vector $\vec{\nabla} f(x_0, y_0)$
- $\therefore D_{\hat{u}} f(x_0, y_0) = \|\vec{\nabla} f(x_0, y_0)\| \cos \theta$

GRADIENT VECTOR

- Maximum slope of $f(x_0, y_0)$ points towards $\vec{\nabla} f(x_0, y_0) \Rightarrow \|\vec{\nabla} f(x_0, y_0)\|$
- Minimum slope of $f(x_0, y_0)$ points towards $-\vec{\nabla} f(x_0, y_0) \Rightarrow -\|\vec{\nabla} f(x_0, y_0)\|$
- Assuming $\vec{\nabla} f(x_0, y_0) \neq 0$, $\vec{\nabla} f(x_0, y_0)$ is a normal vector to $f(x_0, y_0)$



CRITICAL POINTS

- $f(x)$ has a critical point at $f'(x) = 0$, or not differentiable.
 - Minimum: $f'(x) = 0, f''(x) > 0$
 - Maximum: $f'(x) = 0, f''(x) < 0$
 - Inconclusive: $f'(x) = f''(x) = 0$
- For $f(x_0, y_0)$ to have a critical point, $\vec{\nabla} f(x_0, y_0) = 0$ or DNE.

CLASSIFYING CRITICAL POINTS

- Let f be a function of two variables with continuous 2nd PDS in a neighbourhood of a critical point (x_0, y_0) :

$$D = \det |\vec{H}| = \det \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \right)^2$$

- $D < 0$, saddle point
- $D > 0, \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} > 0$, rel. minimum
- $D > 0, \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} < 0$, rel. maximum
- $D = 0$, inconclusive.

Double and Triple Integrals

DOUBLE INTEGRALS

- Recall a Riemann Sum integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\max \Delta x_k \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x_k$.
- Net area A of $f \in [a, b]$: $A = \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

- If f is a function of two variables that is continuous and nonnegative on a region R on xy -plane, volume of the solid enclosed between the surface $z = f(x, y)$ and R is defined to:

$$V = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*, y_k^*) \Delta A_k \equiv \iint_R f(x, y) dA$$

- If f is nonnegative on R , V is volume.
- If f is $+$ / $-$, difference volume or net volume.

PROPERTIES

- $\iint_R c f(x, y) dA = c \iint_R f(x, y) dA$
- $\iint_R [f(x, y) + g(x, y)] dA = \iint_R f(x, y) dA + \iint_R g(x, y) dA$
- $\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \iint_{R_1} f(x, y) dA + \iint_{R_2} f(x, y) dA \Rightarrow R = R_1 + R_2$
- $\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) dy dx = \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) dx dy \quad (x \in (a, b), y \in (c, d))$

E.g., Evaluate $\iint_R 40 - 2xy dA$, $R = \{(x, y) : x \in [1, 3], y \in [2, 4]\}$

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R 40 - 2xy dA &= \int_2^4 \int_1^3 (40 - 2xy) dx dy \\ &= \int_2^4 [40x - x^2 y]_{x=1}^{x=3} dy \\ &= \int_2^4 (120 - 9y - 40 + y) dy = \int_2^4 (80 - 8y) dy \\ &= [80y - 4y^2]_{y=2}^{y=4} \\ &= 112. \end{aligned}$$

TRIPLE INTEGRALS

- A triple integral of $f(x, y, z)$ is defined over a closed solid region \mathcal{L} in an xyz -coordinate system:

$$\iiint_{\mathcal{L}} f(x, y, z) dV = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*, y_k^*, z_k^*) \Delta V_k$$

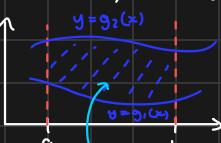
E.g., $\iiint_{\mathcal{L}} 12xy^2 z^3 dV$, $\mathcal{L} \in \{(x, y, z) : x \in [-1, 2], y \in [0, 3], z \in [0, 2]\}$

$$\begin{aligned} &\int_0^2 \int_0^3 \int_{-1}^2 12xy^2 z^3 dy dz dx \\ &= \int_0^2 \int_0^3 [6x^2 y^2 z^3]_{x=-1}^{x=2} dy dz \\ &= \int_0^2 \int_0^3 18y^2 z^3 dy dz \\ &= \int_0^2 [6y^3 z^3]_{y=0}^{y=3} dz \\ &= \int_0^2 162z^3 dz \\ &= \left[\frac{162z^4}{4} \right]_{z=0}^{z=2} \\ &= 664 \end{aligned}$$

NONRECTANGULAR REGIONS

- The limits of integration may not be constant, but $f(x, y)$.

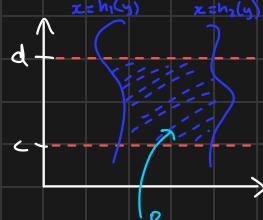
- Bounded by $x = a, x = b$, bounded below and above by $y = g_1(x), y = g_2(x)$, $g_1(x) \leq g_2(x) \forall x \in [a, b]$:



$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \int_a^b \int_{g_1(x)}^{g_2(x)} f(x, y) dy dx$$

- Bounded below/above $y = c, y = d$ bounded $x = h_1(y), x = h_2(y), h_1(y) \leq h_2(y)$

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \int_c^d \int_{h_1(y)}^{h_2(y)} f(x, y) dx dy$$



Vector-Valued Functions

VVF

- A VVF: $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a function that maps a number to a vector, using notation, $\underline{x}(t) = x(t)\hat{i} + y(t)\hat{j} + z(t)\hat{k}$, or; $\underline{x}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$ for $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

CALCULUS OF VVF

- For $\underline{x}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$, domain is set t for all defined.
 - E.g., $\underline{x}(t) = (\sqrt{t}, \ln(1-t), e^t)$.
 - $x(t): D = \{t: t > 0\}$
 - $y(t): D = \{t: t < 1\}$
 - $z(t): D = \{t: t \in \mathbb{R}\}$
 - Domain of $\underline{x}(t) = 0 \leq t < 1$, $t \in [0, 1]$
- Orientation of $\underline{x}(t)$, direction of increasing parameter.

LIMIT

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \underline{x}(t) = \left\langle \lim_{t \rightarrow a} x(t), \lim_{t \rightarrow a} y(t), \lim_{t \rightarrow a} z(t) \right\rangle.$$

- $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \underline{x}(t) = \vec{L}$ iff $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \|\underline{x}(t) - \vec{L}\| = 0$.

CONTINUITY

- $\underline{x}(t)$ is continuous at $t=a$ iff $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \underline{x}(t) = \underline{x}(a)$.
 - Each component must be continuous.

DIFFERENTIATION

- $\underline{x}'(t) = \langle x'(t), y'(t), z'(t) \rangle$.
- Indefinite; $\int \underline{x}(t) dt = \left\langle \int x(t) dt, \int y(t) dt, \int z(t) dt \right\rangle$
 - Own constant of integration (C_1, C_2, \dots)
- Definite: $\int_a^b \underline{x}(t) dt = \left\langle \int_a^b x(t) dt, \int_a^b y(t) dt, \int_a^b z(t) dt \right\rangle$

VVF OF A LINE

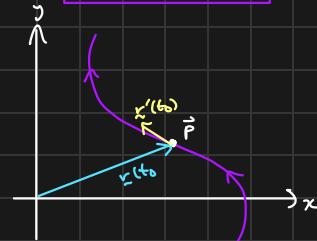
- Line is determined by point and vector. Passes through $\vec{P}_o(x_o, y_o, z_o)$ and parallel to $\underline{v} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$:

$$\underline{x}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \vec{P}_o + t\underline{v}$$

TANGENT LINE

- When $\underline{x}(t)$ is diff at t_0 and $\underline{x}'(t_0)$ is nonzero, $\underline{x}'(t_0)$ is tangent to $\underline{x}(t)$ at t_0 , points in direction increasing param.

$$\underline{l}(t) = \underline{x}(t_0) + t \underline{x}'(t_0)$$

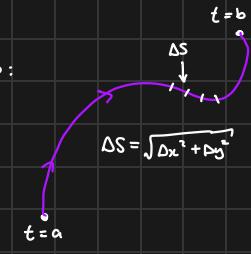


ARC LENGTH

- Distance along VVF between two points.
- Arc length S of $\underline{x}(t)$ between $t=a, t=b$:

$$S = \int_a^b \|\underline{x}'(t)\| dt$$

- 2D: $\|\underline{x}'(t)\| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}$
- 3D: $\|\underline{x}'(t)\| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2}$



$$\Delta s = \sqrt{\Delta x^2 + \Delta y^2}$$

First-Order ODEs

DE TERMINOLOGY

- A DE is an equation involving derivatives of one or more unknown dependent variables, wrt. to ind. var.
- E.g., $\frac{dy}{dt} = 3y, \frac{dv}{dt} = -mg$
- An ODE is single variable: $\frac{dy}{dt} = 4ty$
- A PDE is multivariable: $u = u(x,y) \Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = k \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$
- The order is the highest derivative:
 - 2nd order: $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4 \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$
 - 4th order: $y'''(t) + y''(t) = 4t$
- An autonomous DE does not depend explicitly on ind. var.
 - Autonomous: $\frac{dy}{dt} = 4y$
 - Nonautonomous: $\frac{dy}{dt} = yt$
- A linear DE does not have products of dependent variable with itself or derivatives, general form:

$$a_n(t) \frac{d^n y}{dt^n} + a_{n-1}(t) \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + a_1(t) \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0(t)y = F(t)$$

- Linear: $\frac{dy}{dt} = 2y, t \frac{dy}{dt} - y = \sin(t)$
- Nonlinear: $\frac{dy}{dt} = \sin(y), y^3 \frac{d^3y}{dt^3} = y$

- A solution is a function that satisfies the equation

SEPARABLE DES

- A separable 1st order ODE is in the form:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = p(x)q(y) \text{ or } \frac{1}{q(y)} \frac{dy}{dx} = p(x)$$

SPECIAL CASE - DIRECT INTEGRATION

- The even simpler form $\frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)$ can be solved $y(x) = \int g(x)dx$
 - General solution, has constant of int. ($+C$) or particular solution if initial condition is given ($y(x_0) = y_0$)

SOLVING A 1ST ORDER EQUATION

$$-\frac{1}{q(y)} \frac{dy}{dx} = p(x) \Rightarrow \int \frac{1}{q(y)} \frac{dy}{dx} dx = \int p(x)dx$$

$$\int \frac{1}{q(y)} dy = \int p(x)dx$$

INTEGRATING FACTOR METHOD

- IFM used for equations in the form:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + p(x)y = q(x)$$

- The integrating factor is given by $I(x) = e^{\int p(x)dx}$
- The solution is:

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{I(x)} \int I(x)q(x)dx$$

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

- With QA, understand behaviour of solutions of DE.
- We look for fixed/equilibrium points, sketch solution curves, draw a phase line diagram. For 1st auto-DEs:

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = f(y)$$

- To draw a phase line diagram for $y'(t) = f(y)$
 - Compute the fixed point, which are values of y for $f(y) = 0$.
 - Draw $f(y)$
 - If $f(y) > 0, y'(t) > 0, y(t)$ increases
 - If $f(y) < 0, y'(t) < 0, y(t)$ decreases
 - Determine stability of the fixed point
 - Draw the fixed points on a phase line and indicate stability.

EXAMPLE: $\frac{dy}{dt} = y(1-y)(3-y)$

- Fixed points: $y(1-y)(3-y) = 0, y=0, 1, 3$ are fixed
- Sketch:

3. Stability: unstable at 0, stable at 1, unstable at 3.



EXACT DES

- E.g., consider $x^2y^2 = 2$, derive/form DE $2xy^2 + 2x^2y \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$
- The general form of an exact DE is: $\psi(x, y(x)) = C$
 - Take derivative wrt x :

$$\frac{d\psi(x, y(x))}{dx} = \frac{\partial \psi(x, y)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \psi(x, y)}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

- Or:

$$P(x, y) + Q(x, y) \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \Rightarrow P(x, y) = \psi_x, Q(x, y) = \psi_y$$

- By equality of mixed partials: $\psi_{xy} = \psi_{yx} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}$

o Hence, the DE is exact if $P_y = Q_x (\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x})$

o We find $\psi(x, y)$ as

$$\psi(x, y) = \int P(x, y) dx + f(y) = \int Q(x, y) dy + g(x)$$

Second-Order ODEs

TERMINOLOGY

- Second-order DE in form:

$$y''(x) = f(y'(x), y(x), x).$$

- Linear second-order DE in form:

$$a_2(x)y''(x) + a_1(x)y'(x) + a_0(x)y = f(x)$$

- $f(x) = 0$, homogeneous
- $f(x) \neq 0$, non-homogeneous
- An initial value problem specifies the value for y and y' at a single value of the independent variable.

$$y(x_0) = y_0, y'(x_0) = y_1$$

- A boundary value problem specifies the value for y at 2 values for the independent variable.

$$y(x_0) = y_0, y(x_1) = y_1$$

FINDING SOLUTIONS

- Theorem: Superposition of solutions for homogeneous equations:

- Consider a homo-2nd ODE: $a_2(x)y''(x) + a_1(x)y'(x) + a_0(x)y(x) = 0$
- If $y_1(x), y_2(x), \dots, y_n(x)$ are solutions:
- $y(x) = c_1y_1(x) + c_2y_2(x) + \dots + c_ny_n(x)$ is also a solution.

- Theorem: General Solution for homogeneous equations

- Consider a 2nd-ODE w/ $a_i(x)$ cont on open interval I.
- This has a fundamental set of solutions on I. (2 lin ind.)
- General sol: $y(x) = c_1y_1(x) + c_2y_2(x)$, $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$

REDUCTION OF ORDER

- Suppose one solution already exists $y_1(x)$, $y_2(x)$ is:

$$y_2(x) = v(x)y_1(x)$$

- New DE $v(x)$ is formed.

2nd-ORDER ODES w/ CONSTANT COEFFICIENTS

- When linear 2nd-OPE has constant coeffs:

$$a_2y''(x) + a_1y'(x) + a_0y(x) = 0$$

- What functions can $y(x)$ be, such that sum of terms is 0?

- TRIAL SOLUTION:

- Step 1: Let $y = e^{mx}$ ($y' = me^{mx}$, $y'' = m^2e^{mx}$)
- Step 2: Substitute: ($a_2m^2e^{mx} + a_1me^{mx} + a_0e^{mx} = 0$)
- Step 3: Solve characteristic equation ($a_2m^2 + a_1m + a_0 = 0$)

$$m = \frac{-a_1 \pm \sqrt{a_1^2 - 4a_0a_2}}{2a_2}$$

- If $a_1^2 > 4a_0a_2$ ($\Delta > 0$), $y(x) = c_1e^{m_1x} + c_2e^{m_2x}$
 - If $a_1^2 = 4a_0a_2$ ($\Delta = 0$), $y(x) = c_1e^{mx} + c_2xe^{mx}$
 - If $a_1^2 < 4a_0a_2$ ($\Delta < 0$), $y(x) = e^{ax}(c_1\cos(bx) + c_2\sin(bx))$
- $m \in \mathbb{C} : m = a \pm bi \Rightarrow a = \operatorname{Re}(m), b = \operatorname{Im}(m)$

NONHOMOGENEOUS 2nd ODE w/ CONSTANT COEFFS

- For the ODE $a_2y'' + a_1y' + a_0y = f(x)$.
- Homogeneous solution $f(x) = 0 \Rightarrow y_H(x)$
- Suppose a particular solution, $y_P(x)$,

$$a_2y_P'' + a_1y_P' + a_0y_P = f(x)$$

- Is $y_H(x) + y_P(x)$ also a solution to the DE?
- $a_2(y_H''(x) + y_P''(x)) + a_1(y_H'(x) + y_P'(x)) + a_0(y_H(x) + y_P(x))$
 $= (a_2y_H'' + a_1y_H' + a_0y_H) + (a_2y_P'' + a_1y_P' + a_0y_P)$
- General solution $a_2y'' + a_1y' + a_0y = f(x) \Rightarrow y(x) = \underline{y_H(x)} + \underline{y_P(x)}$

METHOD OF UNDETERMINED COEFS

$f(x)$	$y_P(x)$
Constant	A
Linear	$A_1x + A_0$
Polynomial n	$\sum_{i=0}^n A_i x^i$
Exponential	Ae^{kx}
$\cos/\sin(\omega x)$	$A_0\cos(\omega x) + A_1\sin(\omega x)$
$e^{kx}\cos/\sin(\omega x)$	$e^{kx}(A_0\cos(\omega x) + A_1\sin(\omega x))$

HOMOGENEOUS SOLUTION AS FORCING TERM

- Consider $y'' - y = e^{-x}$; $y'' - y = 0 \Rightarrow y_H = c_1e^x + c_2e^{-x}$
- $y_P = Ae^{-x}$ does not work, e^{-x} part of homogeneous solution
- Multiply by factor of $x \Rightarrow Axe^{-x}$

2nd ODE APPLICATIONS

- Spring/mass systems:

$$\vec{F} = m\vec{a} \Rightarrow F = m \frac{d^2y}{dt^2}$$

$$F = F_s + F_d + f(t) \quad (f(t) - ky(t) - 2y'(t) = m \frac{d^2y}{dt^2})$$

$$my''(t) + 2y'(t) + ky(t) = f(t)$$



- RLC Circuits; $q = \text{charge} \Rightarrow \frac{dq}{dt} = i$ (current)

- Resistor: iR , Capacitor: $\frac{q}{C}$, Inductor: $L \frac{di}{dt}$

$$L \frac{di}{dt} + iR + \frac{q}{C} = e(t)$$

$$Lq'' + Rq' + \frac{1}{C}q = e(t)$$

