Vector Calculus

1 Euclidean space

We define the euclidean space in \mathbb{R}^N , $N \ge 1$ using cartesian coordinates. Any element $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$, $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$

Standard basis

$$e_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, e_N = (0, 0, \dots, 1)$$

Then, $x = \sum_{j=1}^{N} x_j \cdot e_j$

In particular, $B_{\mathbb{R}^3} = \{i, j, k\}$, the canonical basis.

Properties

- Addition: $(x_1, \dots, x_N) + (y_1, \dots, y_N) = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_N + y_N)$
- Multiplication by a scalar $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$: $\lambda x = \lambda(x_1, \dots, x_N) = (\lambda x_1, \dots, \lambda x_N)$
- Associative: $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}, (\lambda \mu)x = \lambda(\mu x)$
- Additive Identity: There exists a vector $\overline{0} = (0, \dots, 0)$ such that $x + \overline{0} = x$
- Additive Inverse: $\forall x = (x_1, \dots, x_N), \exists \overline{x} = (-x_1, \dots, -x_N) \text{ such that } x + \overline{x} = \overline{0}$
- Distributive Property (over vector addition):

$$\lambda((x_1, ..., x_N) + (y_1, ..., y_N)) = \lambda(x_1, ..., x_N) + \lambda(y_1, ..., y_N)$$

• Distributive Property (over scalar addition):

$$(\lambda + \mu)(x_1, \dots, x_N) = \lambda(x_1, \dots, x_N) + \mu(x_1, \dots, x_N)$$

- Scalar Multiplication Identity: $1 \cdot (x_1, \dots, x_N) = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$
- Zero Scalar Multiplication: $0 \cdot (x_1, \dots, x_N) = (0, \dots, 0)$

Norm

The euclidean space in \mathbb{R}^N is a normal space with an associated norm function.

$$\|\cdot\|: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}_+ \cup \{0\}$$

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_N) \to \|x\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_N^2}$$

Properties

The norm satisfies the following properties:

(a)
$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^N$$

$$- ||x|| > 0 \iff x \neq 0$$
$$- ||x|| = 0 \iff x = 0$$

(b)
$$\|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \|x\|$$

(c)
$$||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y|| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^N$$

- Triangular inequality.

Remark: Distance

We can define the distance between two elements in \mathbb{R}^N as

$$dist(x,y) = ||x - y|| = ||y - x||$$
$$dist(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$$

•
$$dist(x,y) = ||x-y|| > 0$$
 if $x \neq y$, and $dist(x,y) = 0$ if $x = y$

•
$$dist(x,y) = ||x-y|| = ||-(y-x)|| = ||-1|| \cdot ||y-x|| = dist(y,x)$$

•
$$dist(x,y) = ||x-y|| = ||x-z+z-y|| \le ||x-z|| + ||z-y|| = dist(x,z) + dist(z,y)$$

Remark

For \mathbb{R} such a distance is the absolute value, $|\cdot|:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$

2 Inner or scalar product

Let x, y be two vectors in \mathbb{R}^N , then

$$x \cdot y = x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_N y_N$$

$$x \cdot y = \langle x, y \rangle = (x, y)$$

2.1 Properties

The inner product satisfies the following properties:

$$\bullet \ \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^N \ \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$$

$$\langle x, x \rangle = 0$$
 if $x = 0$

• Symmetric:
$$\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$$

• Bilinear:
$$\langle \lambda x + \mu y, z \rangle = \lambda \langle x, z \rangle + \mu \langle y, z \rangle$$

2.2 Cauchy-Schwartz inequality

$$|x \cdot y| \le ||x|| ||y||$$

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Proof If $y = \lambda x$, $|\langle x, \lambda y \rangle| = |\lambda| ||x||^2 = ||x|| |\lambda| ||x|| = ||x|| ||y||$ If $y \neq \lambda x$ (x and y are linearly independent). Assume $z = \lambda x + y$

$$0 \le \langle z, z \rangle = \langle \lambda x + y, \lambda x + y \rangle = \langle \lambda x, \lambda x \rangle + \langle \lambda x, y \rangle + \langle y, \lambda x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle$$

Since $||x||^2 > 0$, $= \lambda^2 ||x||^2 + 2\lambda \langle x, y \rangle + ||y||^2$

If we represent it as a parabola in function of λ , it has no roots.

$$\lambda = \frac{-2\langle x, y \rangle \pm \sqrt{4(\langle x, y \rangle)^2 - 4\|x\|^2 \|y\|^2}}{2\|x\|^2}$$

So the discriminant ≤ 0

$$4(\langle x, y \rangle)^2 - 4||x||^2||y||^2 \le 0$$

$$\implies |\langle x,y\rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$$

2.3 Theorem

$$\langle x, y \rangle = ||x|| ||y|| \cos \varphi$$

Writing x and y in polar coordinates:

$$x_1 = ||x|| \cos \alpha, \quad x_2 = ||x|| \sin \alpha$$

 $y_1 = ||y|| \cos \beta, \quad y_2 = ||y|| \sin \beta$

$$\langle x, y \rangle = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 = ||x|| \cos \alpha ||y|| \cos \beta + ||x|| \sin \alpha ||y|| \sin \beta$$
$$= ||x|| ||y|| (\cos \alpha \cos \beta + \sin \alpha \sin \beta)$$
$$= ||x|| ||y|| \cos(\alpha - \beta) = ||x|| ||y|| \cos \varphi$$

Remark

$$\cos \varphi = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \|y\|}$$

Then $x \perp y \iff \langle x, y \rangle = 0$

Examples:

• $C((a,b)) \cong$ continuous functions in (a,b)

$$f, g \in C((a, b)), \quad then \langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(t)g(t) dt$$

We can add some weights:

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{a}^{b} w(t) f(t) g(t) dt$$

An example:

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b e^{-t} f(t)g(t) dt$$

• We might have an orthogonal family (with infinite elements) of functions.

$$\{\cos nx, \sin nx\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \quad \text{in } [0, 2\pi]$$

$$\|\cos nx\|^2 = \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 nx \, dx$$

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \cos nx \sin nx \, dx = \int_0^{2\pi} \cos nx \cos mx \, dx = 0 \quad \text{for } n \neq m$$

3 Vector Product (Only in \mathbb{R}^3)

Take $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^3$

$$x \times y = \begin{vmatrix} i & j & k \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ y_1 & y_2 & y_3 \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{vmatrix} x_2 & x_3 \\ y_2 & y_3 \end{vmatrix} i - \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & x_3 \\ y_1 & y_3 \end{vmatrix} j + \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{vmatrix} k$$

Recall:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

3.1 Triple product and properties

We take the triple product

$$a \cdot (b \times c) = (a_1, a_2, a_3) \cdot \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= a_1 \begin{vmatrix} b_2 & b_3 \\ c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} - a_2 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} + a_3 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \\ c_1 & c_2 \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

If $u \in \text{span}\{b,c\}$ then $a \cdot (b \times c) = 0$ and a,b,c are coplanar if $a \cdot (b \times c) = 0$

3.2 Geometric Interpretation

- The magnitude of $x \times y$ represents the area of the parallelogram formed by x and y.
- The direction of $x \times y$ is perpendicular to the plane spanned by x and y, following the right-hand rule.
- The cross product satisfies: $x \times y = -(y \times x)$.

4 Topology of \mathbb{R}^n

Definition of open spaces: we define an open ball in \mathbb{R}^n centered at x_0 and of radius R.

Denoted by
$$B_R(x_0) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \operatorname{dist}(x, x_0) < R\}$$

This set includes all points in \mathbb{R}^n whose distance from x_0 is less than R. Open sets are the building blocks of topological spaces, and they help define concepts such as convergence, continuity, and compactness.

4.1 Open set

A set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is open if $\forall x \in A$, $\exists R > 0$ such that $B_R(x) \subset A$. For example:

$$(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$$
, $A = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < 3\}$

4.2 Closed set

A set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed if its complement is open.

$$A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$
 is closed if $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus A$ is open.

4.3 Boundary of a set

The boundary of a set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ denoted by ∂A :

$$\partial A = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \forall R > 0, \quad B_R(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset \text{ and } B_R(x) \cap (\mathbb{R}^n \setminus A) \neq \emptyset\}$$

Following the previous example, the boundary of A is the circle of radius 3 centered at the origin:

$$\partial A = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = 3\}$$

Remark

A set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed if and only if it contains its boundary.

Example:

$$D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < 1 \text{ and } x > 0\}$$

$$D^C = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \ge 1 \text{ or } x \le 0\}$$

$$\partial D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = 1 \text{ and } x > 0\}$$

D is open, D^C is closed, and ∂D is the semicircle of radius 1 centered at the origin.

Example:

$$S = \{x = 1 \text{ and } 1 < y < 2\}$$

$$S^C = \{x \neq 1 \text{ or } y \leq 1 \text{ or } y > 2\}$$

$$\partial S = \{x = 1 \text{ and } y = 1 \text{ or } y = 2\}$$

S is neither open nor closed, as S^C , and ∂S is the line segment from (1,1) to (1,2).

4.4 Compact set

A set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded.

Example:

$$A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 = 4\}$$

 $A = \partial A$ so A is closed. A is also bounded, as all points in A are contained within the circle of radius 2 centered at the origin.

 \implies A is compact.

Example: (Exercise 11a)

$$A = xy - \text{plane in } \mathbb{R}^3 = \{(x, y, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^3\}$$

This set is closed, and $B_R(x,R) \cap A = \emptyset$ and $B_R(x,R) \cap (\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus A) = \emptyset$. Therefore, A is will not be compact.

Example: (Exercise 11b)

$$A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : xy \neq 0\}$$

For any point $(x, y) \in A$, we can find an open ball $B_R(x, R) \subset B$ that does not intersect the x or y axes.

$$R = \min\{x, y\}$$

4.5 Ball in \mathbb{R}^n

For a ball at any part of radius r in \mathbb{R}^n :

$$(x_1 - a_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n - a_n)^2 < r^2$$

 $\operatorname{dist}(x - a) = ||x - a|| = r$

Example: (Exercise 1a)

Sphere centered at (0,1,-1) with r=4

$$(x-0)^2 + (y-1)^2 + (z+1)^2 = 16$$

Intersection with the x, y, z-planes:

If
$$z = -1$$
, $x^2 + (y - 1)^2 = 16$
If $y = 1$, $x^2 + (z + 1)^2 = 16$
If $x = 0$, $(y - 1)^2 + (z + 1)^2 = 16$

Example: (Exercise 1b)

Sphere going through the origin and centered at (1, 2, 3):

$$(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2 + (z-3)^2 = r^2$$
$$dist(0, (1, 2, 3)) = \sqrt{1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{14}$$

So the sphere is $(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2 + (z-3)^2 = 14$

Example: (Exercise 1c)

Find center and radius of the sphere:

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 2x + 8y - 4z = 28$$

$$(x+1)^2 + (y+4)^2 + (z-2)^2 = 49$$

So the center is (-1, -4, 2) and the radius is 7.

Example: (Exercise 3)

Check if the vectors are orthogonal:

$$a = (-5, 3, 7), \quad b = (6, -8, 2)$$

$$a \cdot b = -30 - 24 + 14 = -40! = 0$$

So a and b are not orthogonal.

Example: (Exercise 4a)

Let P be a point not on the line L that passes through the points Q and R. Show that the distance d from the point P to the line L is:

$$d = \frac{\|a \times b\|}{\|a\|}$$

Let
$$a = R - Q$$
, $b = P - Q$

Then
$$d = \frac{\|a \times b\|}{\|a\|}$$

Area of parallelogram = $||a \times b|| = ||a|| \cdot d$

Example: (Exercise 4b)

Use the formula in part (a) to find the distance from the point P(1,1,1) to the line through Q(0,6,8) and R(-1,4,7).

$$\mathbf{a} = \overrightarrow{QR} = R - Q = (-1 - 0, 4 - 6, 7 - 8) = (-1, -2, -1)$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \overrightarrow{QP} = P - Q = (1 - 0, 1 - 6, 1 - 8) = (1, -5, -7)$$

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \\ 1 & -5 & -7 \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{i} \begin{vmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ -5 & -7 \end{vmatrix} - \mathbf{j} \begin{vmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -7 \end{vmatrix} + \mathbf{k} \begin{vmatrix} -1 & -2 \\ 1 & -5 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = (9, -8, 7)$$

$$\|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}\| = \sqrt{9^2 + (-8)^2 + 7^2} = \sqrt{81 + 64 + 49} = \sqrt{194}$$

$$\|\mathbf{a}\| = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + (-2)^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{1 + 4 + 1} = \sqrt{6}$$

$$d = \frac{\|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}\|}{\|\mathbf{a}\|} = \frac{\sqrt{194}}{\sqrt{6}} = \sqrt{\frac{194}{6}} = \sqrt{\frac{97}{3}}$$

Example: (Exercise 5)

Calculate the volume of the parallelepiped with edges adjacent to \overrightarrow{PQ} , \overrightarrow{PR} , and \overrightarrow{PS} , where

$$P(1,1,1), \quad Q(2,0,3), \quad R(4,1,7), \quad S(3,-1,-2).$$

The volume of the parallelepiped can be calculated using the scalar triple product of the vectors \overrightarrow{PQ} , \overrightarrow{PR} , and \overrightarrow{PS} .

$$\overrightarrow{PQ} = Q - P = (2 - 1, 0 - 1, 3 - 1) = (1, -1, 2)$$

$$\overrightarrow{PR} = R - P = (4 - 1, 1 - 1, 7 - 1) = (3, 0, 6)$$

$$\overrightarrow{PS} = S - P = (3 - 1, -1 - 1, -2 - 1) = (2, -2, -3)$$

$$\overrightarrow{PR} \times \overrightarrow{PS} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 3 & 0 & 6 \\ 2 & -2 & -3 \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{i}(0 \cdot (-3) - 6 \cdot (-2)) - \mathbf{j}(3 \cdot (-3) - 6 \cdot 2) + \mathbf{k}(3 \cdot (-2) - 0 \cdot 2)$$

$$= \mathbf{i}(0 + 12) - \mathbf{j}(-9 - 12) + \mathbf{k}(-6 - 0)$$

$$= 12\mathbf{i} + 21\mathbf{j} - 6\mathbf{k}$$

$$= (12, 21, -6)$$

$$\overrightarrow{PQ} \cdot (\overrightarrow{PR} \times \overrightarrow{PS}) = (1, -1, 2) \cdot (12, 21, -6)$$

$$= 1 \cdot 12 + (-1) \cdot 21 + 2 \cdot (-6)$$

$$= 12 - 21 - 12$$

The volume of the parallelepiped is the absolute value of this scalar triple product:

$$Volume = |-21| = 21$$

= -21

Example: (Exercise 6)

Use the scalar product to check if the following vectors are coplanar: a = 2i + 3j + k, b = i - j and c = 7i + 3j + 2k.

The vectors are coplanar if the scalar triple product of the vectors is zero.

$$\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 7 & 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = (-2, -2, 10)$$
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (-2, -2, 10) = (2 \times -2) + (3 \times -2) + (1 \times 10)$$
$$= -4 - 6 + 10 = 0$$

Since the scalar triple product is zero, the vectors are coplanar.

5 Functions of several variables

A function $f: A \to B$ is a correspondence between two sets A and B such that each element in A is associated with exactly one element in B.

Example:

$$f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$$
 , where
$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$(x,y) \to f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$$

The formula for that function:

$$z = x^2 + y^2$$

The graph results in a paraboloid (surface).

5.1 Domain for a function f

The domain is the set of points where the function is well defined.

5.2 Image of a function f

The image is the set of points in B that are associated with points in A.

Example: (Exercise 8)

• The function

$$x^2 + 2z^2 = 1$$

is a cylinder with an elipse section.

• The function

$$x^2 - y^2 + z^2 = 1$$

- If y = k, then $x^2 + z^2 = 1 + k^2$ is a circle.
- If z = 0, then $x^2 y^2 = 1$ is a hyperbola.
- If x = 0, then $z^2 y^2 = 1$ is a hyperbola.

5.3 Types of functions

- Scalar functions: $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}.$
- Vector functions: $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^m$. If $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$, then f is a vector field.

Example:

Paramatric equations for a line in \mathbb{R}^3 :

$$\begin{cases} x = x_0 + at \\ y = y_0 + bt \\ z = z_0 + ct \end{cases}$$

5.4 Level curves

The level curves of a function $f: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$ are the curves in the domain of f where f(x,y) = k for some constant k.

$$(x_1, \dots, x_N) \to f(x_1, \dots, x_N) \in \mathbb{R}$$

 $f(x, y) = c, \quad c \in \mathbb{R}$

The graph of a scalar function $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ is a surface in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Example:

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

The level curves are circles centered at the origin. They can be seen as the projection of the surface onto the xy-plane (from above).

5.5 Remark

In \mathbb{R}^3 , the level curves of a function $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$ are the curves in the domain of f where f(x,y,z) = c for some constant $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

They allow us to visualize a 3D graph of a function in 2D.

If the level curves are very close to each other, then the function is steep.

Two level curves never touch.

Example:

Find the level curves of the function f(x, y) = xy.

$$xy = c, \quad c = 1, -1, 2.$$

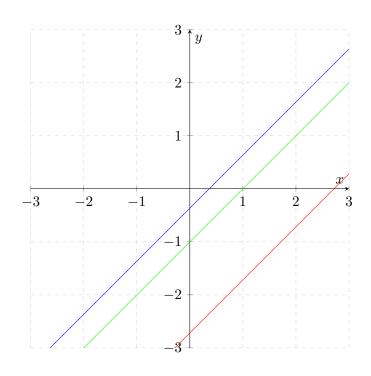


The level curves are a family of hyperbolas.

Example:

Find the level curves of the function f(x,y) = log(x-y).

$$log(x - y) = c, \quad c = 1, -1, 0.$$



The level curves are a family of straight lines.

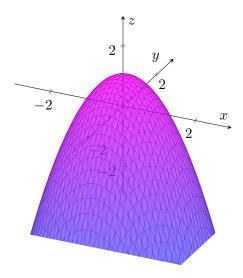
Example:

Find the level curves of the functions

$$f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$$
 and $g(x, y, z) = \frac{x^2}{25} + \frac{y^2}{16} + \frac{z^2}{9}$

The level curves for f are spheres centered at the origin.

The level curves for g are ellipsoids centered at the origin.





5.6 Graph of a function

$$\{(x, f(x)), x \in Dom(f)\}, \text{ where } f = 9y^2 + 4z^2 = x^2 + 36$$

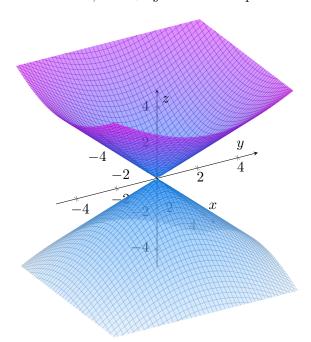
Intersection with the x, y, z-planes:

If
$$z=0$$
, $9y^2-x^2=36 \rightarrow$ Hyperbola
If $y=0$, $4z^2-x^2=36 \rightarrow$ Hyperbola
If $x=0$, $9y^2+4z^2=36 \rightarrow$ Ellipse

Example:

Plot the function $f = x^2 + 4y^2 = z^2$.

If
$$z = 0$$
, $x^2 + 4y^2 = 0 \rightarrow x = 0$, $y = 0$
If $y = 0$, $x^2 = z^2 \rightarrow x = z$, $x = -z$
If $x = 0$, $4y^2 = z^2 \rightarrow y = z/2$, $y = -z/2$
If $z = k$, $x^2 + 4y^2 = k^2 \rightarrow \text{Ellipses}$



The graph is a cone.

Problem 8

$$x^2+y^2+9z^2=1 \to \text{Ellipsoid}$$

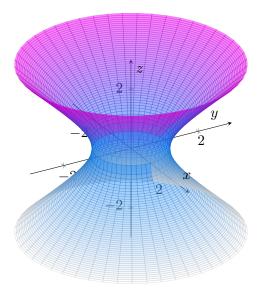
$$x^2-y^2+z^2=1 \to \text{Hyperboloid of one sheet}$$

$$y=2x^2+z^2 \to \text{Paraboloid}$$



Example:

$$-x^2+y^2-z^2=1 \rightarrow \text{Hyperboloid}$$
 If $z=0, \quad -x^2+y^2=1 \rightarrow \text{Hyperbola}$ If $y=0, \quad -x^2-z^2=1 \rightarrow \text{No solution}$ If $x=0, \quad y^2-z^2=1 \rightarrow \text{Hyperbola}$



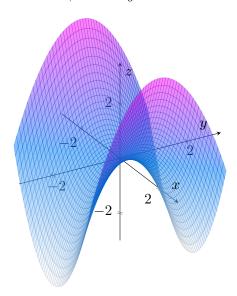
Example:

$$z = x^2 - y^2 \to \text{Paraboloid}$$

If
$$z=0, \quad x^2-y^2=0 \to {\rm Hyperbola}$$
 If $z=k, \quad x^2=y^2+k \to {\rm Hyperbola}$

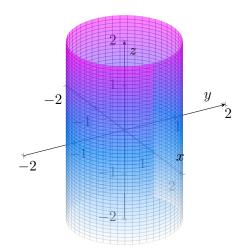
If
$$y=0, \quad z=x^2 \to \text{Parabola}$$

If $x=0, \quad z=-y^2 \to \text{Parabola}$



Example:

Plot the function $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.



6 Cartesian coordinates in \mathbb{R}^N

In \mathbb{R}^2 , the Cartesian coordinates are (x, y). In \mathbb{R}^3 , the Cartesian coordinates are (x, y, z).

6.1 Polar coordinates in \mathbb{R}^2

$$x = r\cos(\theta), \quad y = r\sin(\theta), \quad r \ge 0, \quad 0 \le \theta < 2\pi$$

Inverse transformation:

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \quad \theta = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

Lemma Let $A = (0, \inf) \times (0, 2\pi)$.

The function $g: A \to \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by $g(r, \theta) = (r\cos(\theta), r\sin(\theta))$ is a bijection,

continuous in a ball $B(0,\alpha)$ such that $\{g(r,\theta), 0 < r < \alpha, 0 - leq\theta < 2\pi\}$ is a subset of $B(0,\alpha)$. To see if the function is one-to-one, assume that $g(r_1,\theta_1) = f(r_2,\theta_2)$ for $r_1, r_2 \ge 0$ and $0 \le \theta_1, \theta_2 < 2\pi$.

Then $r_1 \cos(\theta_1) = r_2 \cos(\theta_2)$ and $r_1 \sin(\theta_1) = r_2 \sin(\theta_2)$. This implies that $r_1 = r_2$, since $r_1 \ge 0$ and $0 \le \theta_1, \theta_2 < 2\pi$.

As a consequence $\theta_1 = \theta_2$ so that g is one-to-one.

Now taking $(x, y) \in B(0, \alpha)$, and $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} > 0$.

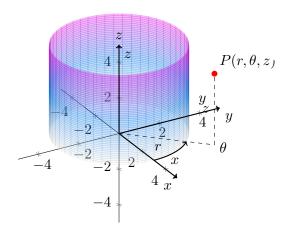
Then, the part $(\frac{x}{2}, \frac{y}{2})$ is in B(0, 1).

Therefore, there exists $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$ such that $\cos(\theta) = \frac{x}{r}$ and $\sin(\theta) = \frac{y}{r}$.

Which implies that $x = r\cos(\theta)$ and $y = r\sin(\theta)$. So g is onto.

6.2 Cylindrical coordinates in \mathbb{R}^3

$$x = r\cos(\theta), \quad y = r\sin(\theta), \quad z = z$$



Example:

Transform into cartesian coordinates:

$$(3, \frac{\pi}{2}, 1) = (3\cos(\frac{\pi}{2}), 3\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}), 1) = (0, 3, 1)$$

Example:

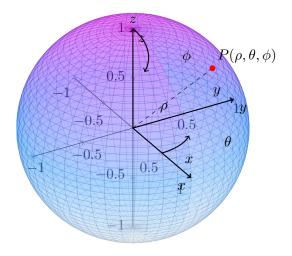
Transform into cartesian coordinates:

$$(4, -\frac{\pi}{3}, 5) = (4\cos(-\frac{\pi}{3}), 4\sin(-\frac{\pi}{3}), 5) = (2, -2\sqrt{3}, 5)$$

6.3 Spherical coordinates in \mathbb{R}^3

 $x = \rho \sin(\phi) \cos(\theta), \quad y = \rho \sin(\phi) \sin(\theta), \quad z = \rho \cos(\phi), \quad \rho \ge 0, \quad 0 \le \phi \le \pi, \quad 0 \le \theta < 2\pi$

 ρ is the distance from the origin, ϕ is the angle from the z-axis, and θ is the angle from the x-axis.



Example: (Problem 6)

Transform into spherical coordinates:

$$(1,0,0) = (1\sin(\phi)\cos(\theta), 1\sin(\phi)\sin(\theta), 1\cos(\phi)) = (0,0,1)$$

$$(2, \frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{4}) = (2\sin(\frac{\pi}{4})\cos(\frac{\pi}{3}), 2\sin(\frac{\pi}{4})\sin(\frac{\pi}{3}), 2\cos(\frac{\pi}{4})) = (\sqrt{3}, 1, \sqrt{2})$$

6.4 Parametric equation of a line in \mathbb{R}^3

Having two points $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $P_2(x_2, y_2, z_2)$, the parametric equation of the line passing through P_1 and P_2 is:

$$\begin{cases} x = x_1 + t(x_2 - x_1) \\ y = y_1 + t(y_2 - y_1) \\ z = z_1 + t(z_2 - z_1) \end{cases}$$

Example: (Problem 14)

Find the parametric equation of the line passing through P(1,0,1) and Q(2,3,1).

$$\begin{cases} x = 1 + t(2 - 1) = 1 + t \\ y = 0 + t(3 - 0) = 3t \\ z = 1 + t(1 - 1) = 1 \end{cases}$$

6.5 Parametric equation of a plane in \mathbb{R}^3

For a plane in parametric form:

$$\begin{cases} x = x_0 + a_1 t + a_2 s \\ y = y_0 + b_1 t + b_2 s \\ z = z_0 + c_1 t + c_2 s \end{cases}$$

Remark A line in \mathbb{R}^3 is a manifold of dimension 1. A plane in \mathbb{R}^3 is a manifold of dimension 2.

Example: (Problem 9)

Write $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ (Sphere) in parametric form.

$$\begin{cases} x = \lambda \\ y = \mu \\ z = \sqrt{4 - \lambda^2 - \mu^2} \end{cases}$$
 where $\lambda^2 + \mu^2 \le 4$

Using spherical coordinates:

$$\begin{cases} x = \rho \sin(\phi) \cos(\theta) \\ y = \rho \sin(\phi) \sin(\theta) & \text{where } 0 \le \phi \le \pi, \quad 0 \le \theta < 2\pi, \quad \rho = 2 \\ z = \rho \cos(\phi) \end{cases}$$
$$\rho^2 \cos^2(\theta) \sin^2(\phi) + \rho^2 \sin^2(\theta) \sin^2(\phi) + \rho^2 \cos^2(\phi) = 4$$
$$\rho^2 \sin^2(\phi) (\cos^2(\theta) + \sin^2(\theta)) + \rho^2 \cos^2(\phi) = 4$$
$$\rho^2 \sin^2(\phi) + \rho^2 \cos^2(\phi) = 4$$
$$\rho^2 = 4 \rightarrow \rho = 2$$

Example: (Problem 11)

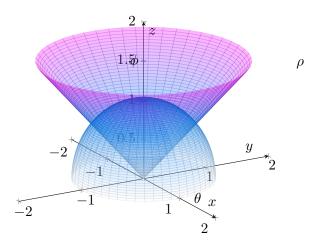
A solid above the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and below the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = z$.

Becase the solid is inside the cone, we have $z \ge \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ Because the solid is below the sphere, we have $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le z$

$$\begin{cases} x = \rho \sin(\phi) \cos(\theta) \\ y = \rho \sin(\phi) \sin(\theta) & \text{where } 0 \le \phi \le \pi, \quad 0 \le \theta < 2\pi \\ z = \rho \cos(\phi) & \end{cases}$$

$$\sqrt{\rho^2 \cos^2(\theta) \sin^2(\phi) + \rho^2 \sin^2(\theta) \sin^2(\phi)} \le \rho \cos(\phi)$$
$$\rho \sin(\phi) \le \rho \cos(\phi) \to \tan(\phi) \le 1 \to \phi \le \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$\rho^{2} \sin^{2}(\phi)(\cos^{2}(\theta) + \sin^{2}(\theta)) + \rho^{2} \cos^{2}(\phi) \leq \rho \cos(\phi)$$
$$\rho^{2} \sin^{2}(\phi) + \rho^{2} \cos^{2}(\phi) \leq \rho \cos(\phi)$$
$$\rho^{2} \leq \rho \cos(\phi) \rightarrow \rho \leq \cos(\phi)$$



Solid in cartesian coordinates:

$$\begin{cases} z \ge \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \le z \end{cases}$$

In spherical coordinates:

$$\begin{cases} \rho \le \cos(\phi) \\ \phi \le \frac{\pi}{4} \\ \theta \in [0, 2\pi) \end{cases}$$

6.6 Intersection of two bodies

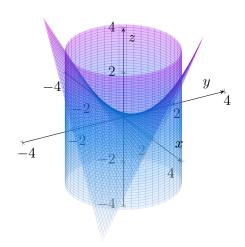
The intersection of two bodies gives (in general) a curve.

Example: (Problem 12)

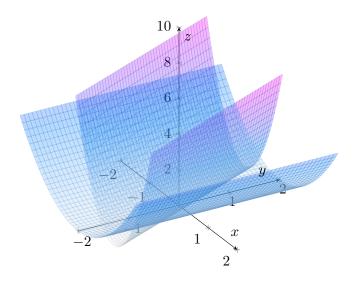
Parametrize the intersection (a curve $\gamma(t)=(\gamma_1(t),\gamma_2(t),\gamma_3(t)))$ of the two bodies:

$$\begin{cases} \text{Cylinder: } x^2 + y^2 = 4 \\ \text{Surface: } z = xy \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} x = 2\cos(t) = \gamma_1(t) \\ y = 2\sin(t) = \gamma_2(t) \\ z = 2\cos(t)\sin(t) = \gamma_3(t) \end{cases}$$
 where $t \in [0, 2\pi)$



$$\begin{cases} \text{Paraboloid: } z = 4x^2 + y \\ \text{Cylinder: } y = x^2 \end{cases} \implies \begin{cases} x = t \\ y = t^2 \\ z = 4t^2 + t^4 \end{cases}$$



7 Limit of functions

Assume a scalar $f: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$. We say that the limit of f(x) as x approaches x_0 is L and we denote it by:

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = L \quad \in \mathbb{R}, \quad x, x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^N$$

7.1 Definition of the limit

We say that $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = L$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that:

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^N, \quad 0 < ||x - x_0|| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

Theorem If the limit of f(x) as x approaches x_0 exists, then the limit is unique.

Proof Argue by contradiction. Assume that there are two limits L_1 and L_2 such that $L_1 \neq L_2$.

Actually, we can say that:

$$B(L_1, r_1) \cap B(L_2, r_2) = \emptyset$$

Where $B(L_1, r_1)$ is the ball of radius r_1 centered at L_1 and $B(L_2, r_2)$ is the ball of radius r_2 centered at L_2 .

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = L_1, \quad \text{for any } \epsilon_1 > 0, \quad \exists \delta_1 > 0 \text{ such that } |f(x) - L_1| < \epsilon_1 \text{ for } 0 < ||x - x_0|| < \delta_1$$

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = L_2, \quad \text{for any } \epsilon_2 > 0, \quad \exists \delta_2 > 0 \text{ such that } |f(x) - L_2| < \epsilon_2 \text{ for } 0 < ||x - x_0|| < \delta_2$$
 Indeed,

$$\begin{cases} |f(x) - L_1| < r_1 = \epsilon_1 \\ |f(x) - L_2| < r_2 = \epsilon_2 \end{cases} \implies \text{However, taking } \delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2) \text{ so that } ||x - x_0|| < \delta$$

such that
$$\begin{cases} |f(x) - L_1| < \min(r_1, r_2) \\ |f(x) - L_2| < \min(r_1, r_2) \end{cases} \implies L_1 = L_2, \text{ which is a contradiction}$$

7.2 Computing limits

Using the definition of the limit, we can compute the limit of a function f(x) as x approaches x_0 . To do so we must choose the value of L towards the function is going. The process is as follows:

For example in
$$\mathbb{R}^2$$
,
$$\begin{cases} f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R} \\ (x,y) \to f(x,y) \end{cases}$$

Then:

$$0 < \sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2} < \delta \implies |f(x, y) - L| < \epsilon$$

Hence, we must find $\delta \cong \delta(\epsilon)$.

Example:

Prove that

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}\right) = 0$$
Let $\epsilon > 0$, we must find $\delta > 0$ such that $\left|\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}\right)\right| < \epsilon$
Since $\left|\sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}\right)\right| \le 1$ and $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \ge 0$

We have
$$\left| \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \sin \left(\frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} \right) \right| \le \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < \epsilon$$

Therefore, we can choose $\delta = \epsilon$

Example:

Prove that

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,b)} y = b$$

Let
$$\epsilon>0$$
, we must find $\delta>0$ such that $||f(x)-b||=|y-b|<\epsilon$ when $||(x,y)-(a,b)||=\sqrt{(x-a)^2+(y-b)^2}<\delta$

We start from
$$|y - b| \le \sqrt{(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2} < \delta$$

Therefore, we can choose $\delta = \epsilon$

7.3 Iterative limits

In 2D,

$$\lim_{x \to a} \left(\lim_{y \to b} f(x, y) \right) = \lim_{y \to b} \left(\lim_{x \to a} f(x, y) \right)$$

However, this technique only gives us negative answers (non-existence of the limit). Since we are just following one direction.

7.4 Approach following families of functions

They might be straight lines, parabolas, etc. around the point of approach.

Example:

Compute the limit:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}$$

Let $y = \lambda x$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+\lambda^2x^2}} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x}{|x|\sqrt{1+\lambda^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\lambda^2}}$$

This limit depends on λ . Therefore, the limit does not exist.

Example:

Compute the limit:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^3}{x^2 + y^2}$$

Let $y = \lambda x$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^3}{x^2+y^2} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^3}{x^2+\lambda^2 x^2} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x}{1+\lambda^2} = 0$$

Following the family of functions $y = \lambda x$, the limit is 0. However, we cannot confirm that the value of the limit is 0 or that the limit exists using this method.

This method is necessary but not sufficient. It is a good way to check if the limit does not exist.

Problem 1a

Taking $y = \lambda x$ and knowing that $\sin x \approx x$ for $x \approx 0$:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^2 + \sin^2 y}{2x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^2 + \sin^2(\lambda x)}{2x^2 + \lambda^2 x^2} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^2 + \lambda^2 x^2}{2x^2 + \lambda^2 x^2} = \frac{1 + \lambda^2}{2 + \lambda^2}$$

This limit depends on λ . Therefore, the limit does not exist.

Problem 1d

Taking $y = \lambda x$:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x\lambda x}{\sqrt{x^2+\lambda^2 x^2}} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\lambda x^2}{\sqrt{x^2(1+\lambda^2)}} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{1+\lambda^2}} = 0$$

This limit does not depend on λ . Therefore, the limit exists and is 0. Using polar coordinates:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} = \lim_{r\to 0} \frac{r^2\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta)}{r} = \lim_{r\to 0} r\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta) = 0$$

7.5 Polar coordinates

In \mathbb{R}^2 , the polar coordinates are (r, θ) .

$$x = r\cos(\theta), \quad y = r\sin(\theta), \quad r > 0, \quad 0 < \theta < 2\pi$$

Theorem Let us consider two functions f and g such that

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = 0, \text{ and } g \text{ is bounded for } ||x - x_0|| < \delta$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x)g(x) = 0$$

Problem 1e

Taking $y = \lambda x$:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^2 y e^y}{x^4 + 4y^2} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^2 \lambda x e^{\lambda x}}{x^4 + 4\lambda^2 x^2} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\lambda x^3 e^{\lambda x}}{x^2 (x^2 + 4\lambda^2)} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\lambda x e^{\lambda x}}{x^2 + 4\lambda^2} = 0$$

Now taking $y = x^2$:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^2ye^y}{x^4+4y^2} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^2x^2e^{x^2}}{x^4+4x^4} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^4e^{x^2}}{5x^4} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{e^{x^2}}{5} = \frac{1}{5}$$

This limit depends on the direction of approach. Therefore, the limit does not exist.

Problem 1f

Applying generalized spherical coordinates:

$$\begin{cases} x = r \sin(\phi) \cos(\theta) \\ y = \frac{1}{2} r \sin(\phi) \sin(\theta) \\ z = \frac{1}{3} r \cos(\phi) \end{cases}$$

$$\lim_{(x,y,z)\to(0,0,0)}\frac{yz}{x^2+4y^2+9z^2}=\lim_{r\to0}\frac{\frac{1}{2}r\sin(\phi)\sin(\theta)\frac{1}{3}r\cos(\phi)}{r^2}=\lim_{r\to0}\frac{1}{6}\sin(\phi)\cos(\phi)\sin(\theta)$$

This limit depends on ϕ and θ . Therefore, the limit does not exist.

8 Continuity of functions

A function $f: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^N$ if:

- 1. $f(x_0)$ is defined.
- 2. $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x)$ exists.
- 3. $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$

Theorem Consider A a subset in \mathbb{R}^N and $f: A \to \mathbb{R}^M$ a vector function.

$$F(x) = (f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_M(x))$$

If f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_M are continuous at $x_0 \in A$, then F is continuous at x_0 .

Theorem Assume that f and g are continuous at $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and $f(x_0)$ respectively. Then, the composition $g \circ f$ is continuous at x_0 .

For example:
$$f(x) = x^2 y \sin(x+y)$$
, $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$

Since f is a composite function and $x^2, y, \sin(x+y)$ are continuous, then f is continuous.

Problem 2a

Prove the continuity:

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 y^3}{2x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 1 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

If $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$, then f(x,y) is a composition of continuous functions. So that

for any
$$(x_0, y_0) \neq (0, 0)$$
, $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y) = f(x_0, y_0) = \frac{x_0^2 y_0^3}{2x_0^2 + y_0^2}$

At (0,0), the function is well defined: f(0,0) = 1, so we must check that the limit exists.

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y) = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^2y^3}{2x^2+y^2} =$$

Using polar coordinates:

$$\begin{cases} x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}r\cos(\theta) \\ y = r\sin(\theta) \end{cases}$$

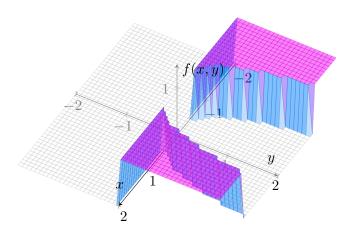
$$= \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{\frac{1}{2}r^3 \cos^2(\theta) \sin^3(\theta)}{r^2} = \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{1}{2}r \cos^2(\theta) \sin^3(\theta) = 0$$

The limit exists and is equal to 0. However, $f(0,0) = 1 \neq 0$. Therefore, the function is not continuous at (0,0).

Problem 3

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y \le 0 \text{ or } y \ge x^4 \\ 1 & \text{if } 0 < y < x^4 \end{cases}$$

a) $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y) = 0$ along any path going through $y = mx^{\alpha}$. $0 < \alpha < 4$



Let $\alpha = 1$: y = mx. Then

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y) = \lim_{x\to 0} f(x,mx) = \lim_{x\to 0} f(x,mx) = 0$$

In this case, the limit exists and is equal to 0.

b) Despite (a), prove that the function is not continuous.

Take any point (a,0), $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,0)} f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y \to 0^-\\ 1 & \text{if } y \to 0^+ \end{cases}$$

The limit depends on the direction of approach. Therefore, the function is not continuous.

c) f discontinuous on two entire curves: $\begin{cases} y = x^4 \\ y = 0 \end{cases}$

Take any point (a, a^4) on $y = x^4$, $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,a^4)} f(x,y) =$$

$$||(x,y) - (a,a^4)|| < \delta \implies \begin{cases} 0 < |f(x,y)| = 1 < \epsilon & \text{if } y < x^4 \\ 0 < |f(x,y)| = 0 < \epsilon & \text{if } y > x^4 \end{cases}$$

The limit depends on the direction of approach. Therefore, the function is not continuous.

Example:

Consider the function:

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^3y}{x^6 + y^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

Let $y = \lambda x$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

a)
$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^3y}{x^6 + y^2} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^3\lambda x}{x^6 + \lambda^2 x^2} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\lambda x^2}{x^4 + \lambda^2} = 0$$

Now taking $y = x^3$:

$$b) \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^3y}{x^6 + y^2} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^3x^3}{x^6 + x^6} = \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^6}{2x^6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Therefore the function is not continuous at (0,0), since the limit depends on the direction of approach.

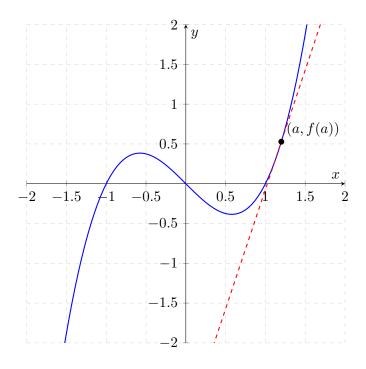
9 Differentiability of functions

In 1D when we consider a function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, the derivative of f at $a \in \mathbb{R}$ describes the ratio of the change of the function f at x = a and is denoted by:

$$f'(a) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(a+t) - f(a)}{t} = \frac{df(a)}{dt}$$

Geometrically, the derivative of a function at a point is the slope of the tangent line to the curve at that point. And this tangent line is defined as:

$$y = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$$



A way of seeing this is written by the Taylor polynomial:

$$f(x) = f(a) + M(x - a) + r(|x - a|)$$

Where M = f'(a) is the slope of the tangent line and r(|x-a|) is the remainder. If $x \to a$, then $r(|x-a|) \to 0$ but this only guarantees that the function is continuous at a. However, if

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{r(|x-a|)}{|x-a|} = 0$$

we actually find the existence of the tangent line at a.

$$\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = f'(a) + \frac{r(|x - a|)}{x - a}$$

9.1 Generalizing to several variables

$$z = f(x, y)$$

We would like to understand the derivative with respect to each variable. To do so, we use the knowledge of derivatives in 1 variable.

9.2 Partial derivatives

Let $f: A \subset \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$ be a scalar function. And let $x_0 \in A$. The partial derivative of f with respect to the variable x_i at x_0 is defined as:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x_0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + te_i) - f(x_0)}{t}$$

Where e_i is the unit vector in the direction of x_i .

Somehow, we are computing the ratio of the change of the function f in the direction of x_i , in other words, of the vector e_i .

$$e_i = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$$

 $B = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_N\}$ is the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^N

If $F: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}^M$ is a vector function, then the partial derivative of F with respect to the variable x_i at the point x is defined as:

$$\frac{\partial F(x)}{\partial x_i} = \left(\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_i}, \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_i}, \dots, \frac{\partial f_M}{\partial x_i}\right)$$

Example:

$$f(x,y) = xy + x - y$$
 at $(0,0)$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(0+te_1) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{t \cdot 0 + t - 0}{t} = 1$$

Where t is the norm of the vector te_1 :

$$t = t||e_1|| = t \cdot 1 = t$$

Now.

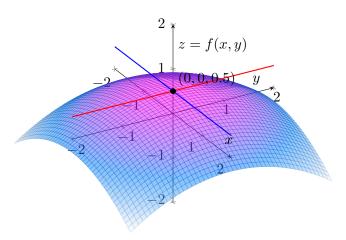
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0) = \lim_{k \to 0} \frac{f(0,k) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{k \to 0} \frac{0 \cdot k + 0 - k}{k} = -1$$

9.3 Geometrical interpretation of the partial derivative

The partial derivative of a function $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ at a point (x_0, y_0) is the slope of the tangent line to the curve z = f(x, y) at the point (x_0, y_0) in the direction of the variable x_i .

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) = \text{slope of the tangent line in the direction of } x$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) = \text{slope of the tangent line in the direction of } y$$



Obviously, we can apply the rules for derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x,y) = y+1, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x,y) = x-1$$

9.4 Directional derivative

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$ be a scalar function and $P \in A \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ and $v \in \mathbb{R}^N$ be a vector. The directional derivative of f at P in the direction of v is defined as:

$$D_v f(P) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(P + tv) - f(P)}{t||v||} = \frac{df(P + tv)}{dt}$$

Example:

$$f(x,y) = \sqrt{|xy|}$$
 at $(0,0)$ in the direction of $v = (1,1)$

$$D_{(1,1)}f(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(0+t,0+t) - f(0,0)}{t||(1,1)||} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\sqrt{|t^2|} - 0}{t||(1,1)||} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{|t|}{t\sqrt{2}} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \text{if } t \to 0^+ \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \text{if } t \to 0^- \end{cases}$$

Therefore, the directional derivative does not exist.

9.5 Remark

Existence of all directional derivatives at a point P does not guarantee the continuity of the function at P.

For example:
$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ or } y = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0) = 0 = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0)$$

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y) \text{ does not exist.}$$

Example:

$$f(x,y) = x^{1/3}y^{1/3} \quad \text{at } (0,0)$$

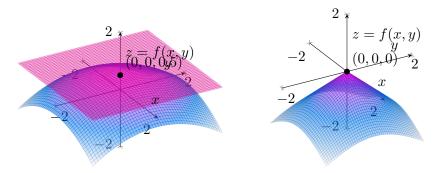
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{t^{1/3} \cdot 0^{1/3} - 0}{t} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(0,t) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{0 \cdot t^{1/3} - 0}{t} = 0$$

Derivatives exist and the function is also continuous at (0,0). However, there is no tangent plane at (0,0).

9.6 Differentiability

Heuristically it means the construction of a tangent plane.



Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ be an open subset in \mathbb{R}^2 such that $(x,y) \in A$, with $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$ a scalar function. We say that f is differentiable at (x_0, y_0) if:

1.
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0)$$
 and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)$ exist.

2.
$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(x_0,y_0)} \frac{f(x,y) - f(x_0,y_0) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0,y_0)(x-x_0) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0,y_0)(y-y_0)}{\sqrt{(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2}} = 0$$

To be differentiable we say that there exists a tangent plane at (x_0, y_0) :

$$z = f(x_0, y_0) + A(x - x_0) + B(y - y_0)$$

Following similar ideas to the 1D case, we can write:

$$f(x,y) = f(x_0, y_0) + A(x - x_0) + B(y - y_0) + r(\|(x,y) - (x_0, y_0)\|)$$

If $||(x,y) - (x_0,y_0)|| \to 0$ then $r(||(x,y) - (x_0,y_0)||) \to 0$, and the function is continuous at (x_0,y_0) .

However if we have:

$$\frac{f(x,y) - f(x_0, y_0) - A(x - x_0) - B(y - y_0)}{\|(x - x_0) + (y - y_0)\|} = \frac{r(\|(x,y) - (x_0, y_0)\|)}{\|(x - x_0) + (y - y_0)\|} \to 0$$

Then the function is differentiable at (x_0, y_0) if:

$$A = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0), \quad B = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)$$

Remark Taylor's polynomial around (x_0, y_0) of degree 1 is:

$$f(x,y) = f(x_0, y_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) + r(\|(x, y) - (x_0, y_0)\|)$$

Where $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0)$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)$ form $L((x - x_0), (y - y_0))$, the linearity function.

$$||f(x,y) - L((x-x_0), (y-y_0))|| < \varepsilon \text{ as } ||(x,y) - (x_0, y_0)|| < \delta$$

We can write L in terms of the derivative of the scalar function f:

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$$

We define such a derivative as the gradient of f:

$$D(f(x,y)) = \nabla f(x,y) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)$$

The gradient provides us with the direction of the maximum increase of the function f at (x, y).

Problem 4a

$$f(x,y) = xy, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = y, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x$$

Problem 4c

$$f(x,y) = \sqrt{2+y^2}, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}$$

Problem 5a

$$f(x,y,z) = (x+z)e^{x-y}, \quad \text{gradient at } (1,1,1)$$

$$\nabla f(x,y,z) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\right) = \left(e^{x-y} + (x+z)e^{x-y}, -(x+z)e^{x-y}, e^{x-y}\right)$$

$$\nabla f(1,1,1) = (e^0 + 2e^0, -2e^0, e^0) = (3, -2, 1)$$

10 Differentiability in \mathbb{R}^N

$$A \subset \mathbb{R}^N, \quad x_0 \in A, \quad f: A \to \mathbb{R}^M$$

We say that f is differentiable at x_0 if:

1.
$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(x_0)$$
 exists for $i = 1, 2, \dots, M$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$.

2.
$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0) - Jf(x_0)(x - x_0)}{||x - x_0||} = 0$$

Where $Jf(x_0)$ is the Jacobian matrix of f at x_0 :

$$Jf(x_0) = Df(x_0) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_N} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_M}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_M}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_M}{\partial x_N} \end{pmatrix}$$

Problem 6a

Compute the jacobian matrix:

$$F(x,y) = (y, x, xy, y^2 - x^2), \quad F: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^4$$

$$JF(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial xy}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial xy}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial y^2 - x^2}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial y^2 - x^2}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ y & x \\ -2x & 2y \end{pmatrix}$$

Now at (1, 2):

$$JF(1,2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1\\ 1 & 0\\ 2 & 1\\ -2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Problem 6c

$$F(x,y,z) = z^2 e^x \cos(y), \text{ at } (0, \frac{\pi}{2}, -1) \quad F: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$JF(x,y,z) = \left(\frac{\partial z^2 e^x \cos(y)}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial z^2 e^x \cos(y)}{\partial y} \quad \frac{\partial z^2 e^x \cos(y)}{\partial z}\right) =$$

$$= \left(z^2 e^x \cos(y) \quad -z^2 e^x \sin(y) \quad 2z e^x \cos(y)\right)$$

$$JF(0, \frac{\pi}{2}, -1) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example:

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{2xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

f is not differentiable at (0,0), the partial derivatives exist at (0,0).

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{2t \cdot 0}{t \cdot 0} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(0,t) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{2 \cdot 0 \cdot t}{t \cdot 0} = 0$$

However, the limit of the difference quotient does not exist:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{f(x,y) - f(0,0) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0)x - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0)y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} =$$

$$= \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{\frac{2xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} - 0 - 0 \cdot x - 0 \cdot y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{2xy}{x^2 + y^2}$$

If we use polar coordinates:

$$\begin{cases} x = r\cos(\theta) \\ y = r\sin(\theta) \end{cases}$$

$$= \lim_{r \to 0} \frac{2r^2 \cos(\theta) \sin(\theta)}{r^2} = \lim_{r \to 0} 2 \cos(\theta) \sin(\theta) = 2 \cos(\theta) \sin(\theta)$$

The limit depends on θ . Therefore, the function is not differentiable at (0,0).

Problem 7

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy^2}{x^2 + y^4} & \text{if } x \neq 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

The partial derivatives exist at (0,0):

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{0 - 0}{t} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(0,t) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{0 - 0}{t} = 0$$

Take the limit:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y) = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{xy^2}{x^2 + y^4} = \lim_{r\to 0} \frac{r^3\cos(\theta)\sin^2(\theta)}{r^2\cos^2(\theta) + r^4\sin^4(\theta)}$$

The limit does not exist, therefore the function is not continuous at (0,0). The function is not differentiable at (0,0), due to it not being continuous at that point. Direction of any vector at (0,0):

$$D_{(u,v)}f(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(tu,tv) - f(0,0)}{t||(u,v)||}$$

Assume ||(u, v)|| = 1:

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(tu,tv)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{t^3uv^2}{t(t^2u^2 + t^4v^4)} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{uv^2}{u^2 + t^2v^4} = \frac{v^2}{u}$$

Where $\frac{v^2}{u}$ is the slope of the tangent line in the direction of (u, v).

10.1 Proposition:

$$A \subset \mathbb{R}^N$$
, $x_0 \in A$, $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$

f is a scalar function, differentiable at x_0 and $v \in \mathbb{R}^N \setminus 0$ a vector. Then:

$$D_v f(x_0) = \langle \nabla f(x_0), v \rangle$$

Remark

$$\langle \nabla f(x_0), \alpha v \rangle = \alpha \langle \nabla f(x_0), v \rangle \neq \langle \nabla f(x_0), v \rangle$$

Using the properties of the scalar product:

$$D_v f(x_0) = \langle \nabla f(x_0), v \rangle = ||\nabla f(x_0)|| \cdot ||v|| \cdot \cos(\theta) = ||\nabla f(x_0)|| \cdot \cos(\theta)$$

Where θ is the angle between $\nabla f(x_0)$ and v, and we assume ||v|| = 1.

The directional derivative is maximum in the direction of $\nabla f(x_0)$ and minimum in the direction of $-\nabla f(x_0)$.

10.2 Proposition:

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$ be a scalar function and let $(x_0, y_0, z_0) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ be a point on the level surface $\{f(x, y, z) = k \in \mathbb{R}\} = S$.

Then, $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) \perp v = 0$ where v is the tangent vector to the trajectory c(t) at t = 0 over the surface S.

Proof

Since $c(t) \subset S$, we have f(c(t)) = k.

By construction, v = c'(0).

Now, applying the chain rule, we get:

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} f(c(t)) \right|_{t=0} = \nabla f(c(0)) \cdot c'(0) = \nabla f(c(0)) \cdot v = 0$$

This proves the orthogonality between ∇f and the tangent vector to the curve (to the level curve).

Remark

Take $P^*(p_1, p_2, p_3)$ as a point and (x, y, z) as any point on the tangent plane. Then,

$$n \cdot (x - p_1, y - p_2, z - p_3) = 0$$

where $n = \nabla f(P^*)$.

10.3 Tangent Plane to a Surface

The tangent plane to f(x, y, z) = k at p_0 is given by

$$\nabla f(p_0) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x - p_1 \\ y - p_2 \\ z - p_3 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

Example

Tangent plane of $3xy + z^2 = 4$ at (1, 1, 1):

- Gradient: $\nabla f(x, y, z) = (3x, 3y, 2z)$
- Gradient at (1, 1, 1): $\nabla f(1, 1, 1) = (3, 3, 2)$
- Tangent Plane:

$$\nabla f(1,1,1) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x-1\\y-1\\z-1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

• Equation: 3(x-1) + 3(y-1) + 2(z-1) = 03x + 3y + 2z = 8

Problem 11c

Find the tangent plane of $z = \frac{x}{y^2}$ at (-2,2,1):

- Gradient: $\nabla f(x,y,z) = \left(\frac{1}{y^2}, -\frac{2x}{y^3}, -1\right)$
- Gradient at (-2, 2, 1): $\nabla f(-2, 2, 1) = \left(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, -1\right)$
- Tangent Plane: $\nabla f(-2,2,1) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x+2 \\ y-2 \\ z-1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$
- Equation: $\frac{1}{4}(x+2) \frac{1}{2}(y-2) (z-1) = 0$ $\frac{1}{4}x \frac{1}{2}y z = -\frac{1}{2}$

10.4 Theorems

Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $x_0 \in A$, and $f : A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$. If f is differentiable at x_0 , f is continuous at x_0 . Let $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $x_0 \in A$, and $f : A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$. For $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$:

- a) $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$ exists for any i.
- b) $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$ is continuous at x_0 for any i.

Then, f is differentiable at x_0 .

Problem 9

Given $f(x,y) = e^{\left(\frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}\right)}$ for $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$ and f(0,0) = 0:

- a) Show that f is differentiable at (0,0).
- b) Prove the existence of the tangent plane at (0,0).

To show f is differentiable at (0,0), we need to check the limit:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{f(x,y) - f(0,0) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0)x - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0)y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{e^{\left(\frac{-1}{t^2}\right)}}{t} = 0 = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0)$$

Thus, f is differentiable at (0,0).

10.5 Properties

Let $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $x_0 \in A$, and $f, g : A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ be differentiable functions.

1. $\lambda f(x)$ is differentiable at x_0 , where $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. The derivative is given by:

$$D(\lambda f(x_0)) = \lambda D(f(x_0))$$

2. f(x) + g(x) is differentiable at x_0 . The derivative is given by:

$$D(f(x_0) + g(x_0)) = D(f(x_0)) + D(g(x_0))$$

3. $f(x) \cdot g(x)$ is differentiable at x_0 . The derivative is given by:

$$D(f(x_0) \cdot g(x_0)) = D(f(x_0)) \cdot g(x_0) + f(x_0) \cdot D(g(x_0))$$

4. $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is differentiable at x_0 , provided $g(x_0) \neq 0$. The derivative is given by:

$$D\left(\frac{f(x_0)}{g(x_0)}\right) = \frac{D(f(x_0)) \cdot g(x_0) - f(x_0) \cdot D(g(x_0))}{(g(x_0))^2}$$

10.6 Chain Rule

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ and $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^k$. If $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $f(x_0) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$ is differentiable at x_0 . The derivative is given by:

$$D(g \circ f)(x_0) = Dg(f(x_0)) \cdot Df(x_0)$$

Example

Given $g(x,y) = (x^2 + y, y^2)$ and $F(u,v) = (u + v, u, v^2)$, find $D(F \circ g)(1,1)$.

$$g: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$$
$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$g(x,y) = (x^2 + 1, y^2)$$
$$f(x,y) = (u + v, u, v^2)$$

$$(x,y) \to (g_1(x,y), g_2(x,y)) \to (f_1(g_1, g_2), f_2(g_1, g_2), f_3(g_1, g_2))$$

$$f(g_1(x,y),g_2(x,y)) = (x^2 + 1 + y^2, x^2 + 1, y^4) \to Df(x,y) = Jf(x,y)$$

$$Dg(x,y) = Jg(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} 2x & 0\\ 0 & 2y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Df(u,v) = Jf(u,v) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1\\ 1 & 0\\ 0 & 2v \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D(f \circ g)(x,y) = D(f(g(x,y))) \cdot Dg(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2v \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2x & 0 \\ 0 & 2y \end{pmatrix}$$
$$D(F \circ g)(1,1) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$D(F \circ g)(1,1) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example

$$f(x,y) = \left(\tan\frac{y}{x} - x + y, \log\frac{y+1}{x}\right), g(s,t) = \left(t \cdot \cos s, e^t, s - 2t\right) \text{ and } h(u,v,w) = uv^2 \cdot e^w$$

$$F = h \circ g \circ f$$

$$DF(x,y) = D(h(g(f)(x,y))) \cdot D(g(f(x,y))) \cdot D(f(x,y))$$

$$Df(x,y) = \left(-\frac{sec^2\frac{y}{x} \cdot y}{x^2} - 1 \cdot \frac{sec^2\frac{y}{x}}{x^2} + 1\right)$$

$$-\frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{1}{y+1}$$

$$Dg(s,t) = \begin{pmatrix} -t \cdot \sin s & \cos s \\ 0 & e^t \\ 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Dh(u,v,w) = \left(v^2 \cdot e^w - 2uv \cdot e^w - uv^2 \cdot e^w\right)$$

Example

Particle of mass m following a trajectory $s(t) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ According to Newton's law, the field force satisfies

$$F = -\nabla V$$
 with $V =$ potential function

Prove that the total energy is constant $E(t) = E_k + E_p = c$ Following s(t) we find $F(s(t)) = -\nabla V(s(t))$ Taking the arbitrary times t_1, t_2

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} F(s(t)) \cdot d(s(t)) = -\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \nabla V(s(t)) \cdot s'(t) dt \quad \text{(chain rule)}$$
$$-(V(s(t_2)) - V(s(t_1)))$$

Thanks to Newton's second law

$$F = m s''(t)$$

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} F(s(t)) \cdot s'(t) dt = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} m \, s''(t) \cdot s'(t) dt = \left[\frac{m \| s'(t) \|^2}{2} \right]_{t_1}^{t_2}$$

$$= \frac{m \| s'(t_2) \|^2}{2} - \frac{m \| s'(t_1) \|^2}{2}$$

$$E(t) = \frac{m \| s'(t) \|^2}{2} + V(s(t))$$

Example

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{2xy}{2x^2 + y^2} & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

Partial Derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial x} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial y} = \lim_{k \to 0} \frac{f(0,k) - f(0,0)}{k} = 0$$

Differentiability at (0,0):

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{\frac{2xy}{2x^2+y^2}}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{2xy}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}$$

$$\begin{cases} x = r\cos\theta\\ y = r\sin\theta \end{cases}$$

$$\lim_{r\to 0} \frac{2\cos\theta\sin\theta}{r\left(2\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta\right)} = \infty \quad f \text{ is not differentiable at } (0,0)$$

Directional derivative following $v = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$:

Using
$$D_v f(0,0) = \langle \nabla f(0,0), v \rangle = \left\langle (0,0), \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \right\rangle = 0$$

$$D_v f(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(0,0) + tv - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(tv) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{2t^2}{2}}{\frac{2t^2}{2} + \frac{t^2}{2}} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Problem 17

Use a tree diagram to write out the Chain Rule for the given case. Assume all functions are differentiable.

a)
$$u = f(x,y), \quad x = x(r,s,t), \quad y = y(r,s,t)$$

 $(r,s,t) \to (x(r,s,t),y(r,s,t)) \to f(x(r,s,t),y(r,s,t))$
 $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$

$$D(f \circ g)(r, s, t) = D(f(g(r, s, t))) \cdot Dg(r, s, t)$$

$$D(f \circ g)(r, s, t) = Df(x(r, s, t), y(r, s, t)) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D(f \circ g)(r, s, t) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D(f \circ g)(r, s, t) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \end{pmatrix}$$

b)
$$w = f(x, y, z), \quad x = x(u, v), \quad y = y(u, v), \quad z = z(u, v)$$

$$(u, v) \to (x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v)) \to f(x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v))$$

$$\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$D(f \circ g)(u, v) = D(f(g(u, v))) \cdot Dg(u, v)$$

$$D(f \circ g)(u, v) = Df(x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v)) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D(f \circ g)(u, v) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D(f \circ g)(u, v) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}|_{g(u,v)} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}|_{g(u,v)} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}|_{g(u,v)} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} \end{pmatrix}^{t}$$

$$D(f \circ g)(u, v) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}|_{g(u,v)} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}|_{g(u,v)} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}|_{g(u,v)} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} \end{pmatrix}^{t}$$

Problem 12

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable. Making the transformation to spherical coordinates, compute $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \rho}$, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta}$, and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \phi}$ in terms of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$, and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$. The transformation to spherical coordinates is given by:

$$\begin{cases} x = \rho \sin(\phi) \cos(\theta) \\ y = \rho \sin(\phi) \sin(\theta) \\ z = \rho \cos(\phi) \end{cases}$$

$$(\rho, \theta, \phi) \to (x(\rho, \theta, \phi), y(\rho, \theta, \phi), z(\rho, \theta, \phi)) \to f(x(\rho, \theta, \phi), y(\rho, \theta, \phi), z(\rho, \theta, \phi))$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \rho} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial \rho} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial \rho} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial \rho} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \sin(\phi)\cos(\theta) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \sin(\phi)\sin(\theta) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \cdot \cos(\phi)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial \theta} = -\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \rho \sin(\phi)\sin(\theta) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \rho \sin(\phi)\cos(\theta)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \phi} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial \phi} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \rho \cos(\phi)\cos(\theta) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \rho \cos(\phi)\sin(\theta) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \cdot \rho \sin(\phi)$$

11 Linearization

Recall: if
$$\exists \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$$
, then $\exists \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$

$$\lim_{\substack{(h_1,h_2)\to(x_0,y_0)}} \frac{f(x,y)-f(x_0,y_0)-\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\big|_{(x_0,y_0)}h_1-\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\big|_{(x_0,y_0)}h_2}{\sqrt{h_1^2+h_2^2}}=0$$

With $h_1 = x - x_0$ and $h_2 = y - y_0$, we have:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(x_0,y_0)} \frac{f(x,y) - f(x_0,y_0) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\big|_{(x_0,y_0)}(x-x_0) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\big|_{(x_0,y_0)}(y-y_0)}{\sqrt{(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2}} = 0$$

 $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is differentiable at $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0) - Df|_{x_0} \cdot h}{\|h\|} = 0$$

With $h \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $h = t \cdot v$, $t \to 0 \implies h \to 0$

$$\lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + t \cdot v) - f(x_0) - Df\big|_{x_0} \cdot t \cdot v}{t} = 0$$

With ||v|| = 1 and ||h|| = t

11.1 Proposition

If $f: U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, U open in \mathbb{R}^n is differentiable at $x_0 \in U$, then f is continuous at x_0 , then all the directional derivatives exist at x_0 .

$$D_v f(x_0) = Df \cdot v = Jf \cdot v$$

Proof

$$v \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
, $D_v f = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + t \cdot v) - f(x_0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{Df|_{x_0} \cdot t \cdot v}{t} = Df|_{x_0} \cdot v$

11.2 Special cases

 $f:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}$, differentiable at x_0 , scalar function

$$D_{v}f = \nabla f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{1}} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{n}} \end{pmatrix}^{t} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} v_{1} \\ \vdots \\ v_{n} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{1}} \cdot v_{1} + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{n}} \cdot v_{n} = \langle \nabla f, v \rangle$$

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$D_{(1,0)}f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}^t \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$$

$$D_{(0,1)}f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}^t \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

$$D_{v_1,v_2}f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}^t \cdot \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot v_1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot v_2$$
$$v_1 + v_2 = 1$$

$$f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$D_{(1,0,\dots,0)}f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} \end{pmatrix}^t \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D_{(0,1,\dots,0)}f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} \end{pmatrix}^t \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_2} \end{pmatrix}$$

11.3 Mean Value Theorem

$$f(b) - f(a) = f'(c) \cdot (b - a)$$

In vectorial calculus, the mean value theorem is only for scalar functions.

Theorem Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be open, $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable, and $[a, b] \subset U$. Then, $\forall x \in (a, b)$, $\exists c \in (a, b)$ such that

$$f(b) - f(a) = Df|_{c} \cdot (b-a) = \nabla f|_{c} \cdot (b-a)$$

Proof We need to use the chain rule:

$$(1-t) \cdot a + t \cdot b, \quad t \in [0,1], \quad [0,1] \to U$$

$$g(t) = f((1-t) \cdot a + t \cdot b)$$

We apply the mean value theorem for one variable in [0, 1]:

$$g(1) - g(0) = g'(t_0) \cdot (1 - 0)$$

$$g'(c) = Df\big|_{(1-t_0)\cdot a + t_0 \cdot b} \cdot (b-a)$$

Let $c = (1 - t_0) \cdot a + t_0 \cdot b$, then:

$$f(b) - f(a) = Df|_c \cdot (b-a) = \nabla f|_c \cdot (b-a)$$

11.4 Theorem

If $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is open, $f: U \to \mathbb{R}^m$ and all the partial derivatives exist and are continuous on a point a, then f is differentiable at a and $Df|_a = Jf|_a$.

Example

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} (x^4 + y^4) \cdot \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^4 + y^4}\right) & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

Is f continuous at (0,0)?

$$\left| \sin \left(\frac{1}{x^4 + y^4} \right) \right| \le 1, \quad \text{is bounded}$$

$$\implies \exists \lim_{(x,y) \to (0,0)} (x^4 + y^4) \cdot \sin \left(\frac{1}{x^4 + y^4} \right) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} |_{(0,0)} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(h,0) - f(0,0)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{h^4 \cdot \sin \left(\frac{1}{h^4} \right)}{h} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} |_{(0,0)} = \lim_{k \to 0} \frac{f(0,k) - f(0,0)}{k} = \lim_{k \to 0} \frac{k^4 \cdot \sin \left(\frac{1}{k^4} \right)}{k} = 0$$

$$\implies f \text{ is continuous at } (0,0)$$

Is f differentiable at (0,0)?

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{f(x,y) - f(0,0) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\big|_{(0,0)} x - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\big|_{(0,0)} y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} =$$

$$= \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{(x^4 + y^4) \cdot \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^4 + y^4}\right) - 0 - 0 \cdot x - 0 \cdot y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}, \quad \text{where } \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^4 + y^4}\right) \text{ is bounded}$$

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{(x^4 + y^4)}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^4 + y^4}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^4}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} + \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{y^4}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$

$$\frac{x^4}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \cdot x^3 = 0, \quad \text{because } \left|\frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}\right| \le 1$$

$$\frac{y^4}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \cdot y^3 = 0, \quad \text{because } \left|\frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}\right| \le 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{(x^4 + y^4)}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = 0 \implies f \text{ is differentiable at } (0,0)$$

11.5 Higher Order Partial Derivatives

Let $f: U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, then:

$$f(x,y)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x,y)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x,y)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = f_{xx} \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = f_{xy} \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = f_{yx} \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = f_{yy}$$

$$\nabla f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}$$

Hessian Matrix

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xy} \\ f_{yx} & f_{yy} \end{pmatrix}$$

11.6 Partial Differential Equations (PDEs)

Problem 2

$$u(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}, \quad (x, y, z) \neq (0, 0, 0)$$

Where u satisfies the PDE:

 $u_{xx} + u_{yy} + u_{zz} = 0$, which is $\Delta u = 0$, Laplace's equation

$$u = (x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2})^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$u_{x} = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot (x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2})^{-\frac{3}{2}} \cdot 2x$$

$$u_{xx} = \frac{3}{4} \cdot (x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2})^{-\frac{5}{2}} \cdot 2x^{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot (x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2})^{-\frac{3}{2}}$$

$$u_{yy} = \frac{3}{4} \cdot (x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2})^{-\frac{5}{2}} \cdot 2y^{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot (x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2})^{-\frac{3}{2}}$$

$$u_{zz} = \frac{3}{4} \cdot (x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2})^{-\frac{5}{2}} \cdot 2z^{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot (x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2})^{-\frac{3}{2}}$$

$$u_{xx} + u_{yy} + u_{zz} = \frac{6}{4} \left(3(x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2})^{-5} - (x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2})^{-\frac{3}{2}} \right) = 0$$

Problem 1

 $u_t = \alpha^2 u_{xx}$, where α^2 is known as the diffusion coefficient in the **heat equation**

$$u(x,t) = e^{-\alpha k^2 t} \cdot \sin(kx)$$

$$u_t = -\alpha k^2 e^{-\alpha k^2 t} \cdot \sin(kx)$$

$$u_x = e^{-\alpha k^2 t} \cdot k \cdot \cos(kx)$$

$$u_{xx} = -e^{-\alpha k^2 t} \cdot k^2 \cdot \sin(kx)$$

Problem 4c

$$u(x,t) = (x-at)^6 + (x+at)^6$$
 $u_{tt} = a^2 u_{xx}$ is known as the **Wave equation**

11.7 Cross Derivatives

When it is true that
$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$$

Theorem: Equality of Crossed Partial Derivatives

Let $f: U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be defined on an open set U and such that the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}$ exist and are differentiable at $a \in U$. Then, $\forall x_i, x_j \in U$, it is true that:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}, \quad \text{at } a$$

Example

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} xy \cdot \frac{x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2} & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} f \right) \Big|_{(0,0)} \neq \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f \right) \Big|_{(0,0)}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \begin{cases} \frac{4x^2y^3 + x^4y - y^5}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = 0 & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \begin{cases} \frac{x^5 - 4x^3y^2 - xy^4}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(0,t) - f(0,0)}{t} = 0 & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \Big|_{(0,0)} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(t,0) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{h^5}{h^4} - 0}{h} = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \Big|_{(0,0)} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,t) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{-\frac{h^5}{h^4} - 0}{h} = -1$$

11.8 Theorem

Let $f: U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be defined on an open set U and such that all the partial derivatives exist and are continuous at $a \in U$. Then, f is differentiable at a and its differential is given by the Jacobian matrix $Jf|_a$.

Proof

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a) - Jf|_{a} \cdot h}{\|h\|} = 0$$

$$a = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1} \\ a_{2} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n} \end{pmatrix}, \quad h = \begin{pmatrix} h_{1} \\ h_{2} \\ \vdots \\ h_{n} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$a + h = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1} + h_{1} \\ a_{2} + h_{2} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n} + h_{n} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} a_{1} \\ a_{2} + h_{2} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n} + h_{n} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} a_{1} \\ a_{2} + h_{2} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n} + h_{n} \end{pmatrix} + \dots - \begin{pmatrix} a_{1} \\ a_{2} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n} + h_{n} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} a_{1} \\ a_{2} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n} + h_{n} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(a+h) = f \begin{pmatrix} a_1 + h_1 \\ a_2 + h_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + h_n \end{pmatrix} - f \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 + h_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + h_n \end{pmatrix} + f \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 + h_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + h_n \end{pmatrix} + \dots - f \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + h_n \end{pmatrix} + f \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + h_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(a+h)-f(a) = f \begin{pmatrix} a_1 + h_1 \\ a_2 + h_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + h_n \end{pmatrix} - f \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 + h_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + h_n \end{pmatrix} + f \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 + h_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + h_n \end{pmatrix} + \dots - f \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + h_n \end{pmatrix} + f \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + h_n \end{pmatrix} - f \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + h_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(a+h) - f(a) = D_{v_1} f \cdot h_1 + D_{v_2} f \cdot h_2 + \dots + D_{v_n} f \cdot h_n$$

Where
$$v_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 is the *i*th unit vector

$$f(a+h) - f(a) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} \end{pmatrix} \cdot h_1 + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_2} \end{pmatrix} \cdot h_2 + \dots + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix} \cdot h_n$$

So:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} \Big|_{x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \Big|_{x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \Big|_{x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} \Big|_{x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} \Big|_{x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n} \Big|_{x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} \Big|_{x_1} & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_2} \Big|_{x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \Big|_{x_n} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ \vdots \\ h_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Finally:

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a) - Jf\big|_a \cdot h}{\|h\|} = \frac{Jfh - Jf\big|_a h}{\|h\|} = \frac{(Jf - Jf\big|_a) \cdot h}{\|h\|} = 0$$

$$Jf\big| \to Jf\big|_a \quad \text{as } h \to 0$$

11.9 Proof of the Chain Rule

Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$, $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be open sets. Let $g: U \to V$ and $f: V \to \mathbb{R}^p$ be mappings, and let a be a point in U. If g is differentiable at a and f is differentiable at g(a), then $f \circ g$ is differentiable at a and

$$D(f \circ g)(a) = Df(g(a)) \cdot Dg(a).$$

We define two "remainder" functions, r and s:

- r: difference between the increment to g and its linear approximation at a,
- s: difference between the increment to f and its linear approximation at g(a).

We know that g is differentiable at a:

$$g(a+h) = g(a) + Dg|_a h + r(h),$$

where

$$r(h) = g(a+h) - g(a) - Dg|_a h.$$

This represents the increase to g relative to its linear approximation at a. Then,

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{r(h)}{\|h\|} = 0.$$

We know that f is differentiable at g(a):

$$f(g(a) + k) = f(g(a)) + Df|_{g(a)} k + s(k),$$

where

$$s(k) = f(g(a) + k) - f(g(a)) - Df|_{g(a)} k.$$

This represents the increase to f relative to its linear approximation at g(a). Then,

$$\lim_{k \to 0} \frac{s(k)}{\|k\|} = 0,$$

we have:

$$f(g(a+h)) = f(g(a) + Dg|_a h + r(h)),$$

where we treat $Dg|_a h + r(h)$ as k.

Expanding further:

$$f(g(a+h)) = f(g(a)) + Df|_{g(a)}[Dg|_a h + r(h)] + s(Dg|_a h + r(h)),$$

= $f(g(a)) + Df|_{g(a)}Dg|_a h + [Df|_{g(a)}r(h) + s(Dg|_a h + r(h))].$

Subtract f(g(a)):

$$f(g(a+h)) - f(g(a)) = Df|_{g(a)}Dg|_ah + \text{remainder}.$$

Thus, the linear approximation of the composition is:

$$Df|_{g(a)}Dg|_ah,$$

with the remainder terms:

$$Df|_{q(a)}r(h) + s(Dg|_ah + r(h)).$$

Now, we need to prove that:

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(g(a+h)) - f(g(a)) - Df|_{g(a)} Dg|_a h}{\|h\|} = 0,$$

since:

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{Df|_{g(a)} r(h) + s(Dg|_a h + r(h))}{\|h\|} = 0.$$

For the first term:

$$||Df|_{g(a)}r(h)|| \le ||Df|_{g(a)}||||r(h)||,$$

and:

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\|Df|_{g(a)}r(h)\|}{\|h\|} \leq \|Df|_{g(a)}\|\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\|r(h)\|}{\|h\|} = 0.$$

For the second part:

$$\lim_{h\to 0}\frac{s(Dg|_ah+r(h))}{\|h\|}=0.$$

There exists $\delta > 0$ such that $||r(h)|| \leq ||h||$ when $||h|| \leq \delta$. Thus:

$$||Dg|_a h + r(h)|| \le ||Dg|_a h|| + ||r(h)|| \le (||Dg|_a|| + 1)||h||.$$

Also, for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $0 < \delta' \le \delta$ such that when $||k|| \le \delta'$:

$$\frac{\|s(h)\|}{\|k\|} \le \epsilon.$$

$$||Dg|_a h + r(h)|| \le \delta'$$

Substitute for ||k|| in the equation:

$$||s(k)|| \le \epsilon ||k||$$

$$||s(Dg|_a h + r(h))|| \le \epsilon ||Dg|_a h + r(h)||$$

where $||s(Dg|_a h + r(h))|| = s(k)$

$$s(k) \le \epsilon \left(\|Dg|_a \| + 1 \right) \|h\|$$

Divide by ||h||:

$$\frac{\|s(Dg|_ah + r(h))\|}{\|h\|} \le \epsilon \left(\|Dg|_a\| + 1\right)$$

since this is true for all $\epsilon > 0$, we have:

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\|s(Dg|_a h + r(h))\|}{\|h\|} = 0$$

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{Df|_{g(a)}r(h) + s(Dg|_ah + r(h))}{\|h\|} = 0$$

$$\lim_{h\to 0}\frac{f(g(a+h))-f(g(a))-Df|_{g(a)}Dg|_ah}{\|h\|}=0$$

$$Df|_{g(a)}Dg|_a = D(f \circ g)|_a$$