

Vector Analysis

Owen Cox

May 31, 2023

Contents

1 Sequences

1.1 SEQUENCE

Sequence ordered collection of numbers defined by function f . Usually denoted a_n .

$a_n = f_n$ known as **terms**

n is the **sequence**

1.2 CONVERGE AND DIVERGENCE

if $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$ exists, then $a_n = f(n)$ converges to the same limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) \quad (1)$$

generally testing this is straightforward.

1.3 FUNCTION RAISED TO A FUNCTION- INCOMPLETE

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{a}{n}\right)^n \quad (2)$$

take natural log, move exponent to coefficient, and find limit

$$n \ln\left(1 + \frac{a}{n}\right) \quad (3)$$

can be formatted as a fraction for L'Hopital's rule

$$\frac{\ln\left(1 + \frac{a}{n}\right)}{\frac{1}{n}} \quad (4)$$

$$e^n \quad (5)$$

1.4 GEOMETRIC SEQUENCE AND SERIES

for $a_n = cr^n$

1. if $|r| < 1$,
2. if $r > 1$ then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$
3. if $r = 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$

Geometric Series

1. if $|r| > 1$, diverges
2. if $|r| < 1$, converges to $a \frac{1}{1-r}$

1.5 TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS, DIVERGENCE BY OSCILLATION

$$\sin(x), \cos(x) \quad (6)$$

diverge by **oscillation**

1.6 SQUEEZE THEOREM

$$a_n = e^{-2n} \cos(n) \quad (7)$$

squeezing $\cos(n)$;

$$-1 \leq \cos(n) \leq 1 \quad (8)$$

$$-e^{-2n} \leq -e^{2n} \cos(n) \leq -3^{-2n} \quad (9)$$

because $-e^{2n}$ approaches 0 when $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty}$, the whole function converges

1.7 BOUNDED, MONOTONIC

Bounded, has a maximum or minimum value

Monotonic, either increasing or decreasing.

1. If increasing and bounded above, converges.
2. If decreasing and bounded below, converges.
3. If converges, bounded

To determine if a series is monotone, take derivative. This sometimes can indicate monotonicity.

2 Series

2.1 SERIES

Series, adding every term in a sequence.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

S_n corresponds to a_n , but rather than that place in the sequence, it is the sum of every previous term and that term in the series.

Some have infinite sums where the answer approaches a value.

$$S_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 0.1^n \rightarrow 0.11111 \dots \rightarrow \frac{1}{9} \quad (10)$$

Series can sometimes be written as sequences.

$$S_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4k^2 - 1} = \frac{n}{2n + 1} \quad (11)$$

If the sequence of sums, S_n diverges, then the series diverges.

Intuition can be deceiving

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \quad (12)$$

Diverges

2.2 SUM DOES NOT START AT N=0

$$\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} ar^k \quad (13)$$

equivalent to

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} ar^{k+2} \quad (14)$$

2.3 TELESOPING SERIES

A **telescoping series** is one in which the terms cancel. One is often left with an initial term and a final term that has not yet canceled. This latter will have n in it. not so if n goes to infinity.

Some things don't look like they're telescoping but require partial fractions

2.4 DIVERGE AND INTEGRAL TEST

If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$. Equivalently if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$, series diverges.

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \rightarrow 0$, inconclusive. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a \in \mathbb{R}$, converges

Integral Test let $a_n = f(n)$, where f is positive, decreasing, and continuous. If $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ converges, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges.

Ex.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \quad (15)$$

make sure positive, decreasing, continuous

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx \quad (16)$$

$$\ln(x) \Big|_1^{\infty} \quad (17)$$

$$\ln(\infty) - \ln(1) = \infty - 0 \quad (18)$$

diverges.

2.5 CONVERGENCE OF THE P-SERIES

The p-series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p} \quad (19)$$

converges when $p > 1$ and diverges when $p \leq 1$

2.6 COMPARISON TESTS

Assume there exists $M > 0$ such that $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$ for $n \geq M$. Past a certain value, M , b_n is forever greater than a_n .

1. if $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ converges, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ also converges.
2. If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ also diverges

2.7 LIMIT COMPARISON

Let a_n, b_n be positive sequences. Assume the following limit exists:

$$L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} \quad (20)$$

1. if $L > 0$ then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges iff $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ converges.
2. if $L = \infty$ and $\sum a_n$ converges, then $\sum b_n$ converges.
3. if $L = 0$ and $\sum b_n$ converges, then $\sum a_n$ converges.

2.8 ALTERNATING SERIES AND ABSOLUTE CONVERGENCE

Alternating Series, a series whose terms switch between positive and negative

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n b_n, \text{ or } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} b_n \quad (21)$$

for $b_n \geq 0$

Absolute Convergence The series $\sum a_n$ **converges absolutely** if $\sum |a_n|$ converges.

If a_n has absolute convergence, a_n converges

alternating series test if b_n is a positive sequence that is decreasing and converges to 0, then

$$S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n \quad (22)$$

converges.

Furthermore,

$$0 < S < b_1, \text{ and } S_{2N} < S < S_{2N+1}, N \geq 1 \quad (23)$$

2.9 CONDITIONAL CONVERGENCE

An infinite series $\sum a_n$ converges conditionally if $\sum a_n$ converges but $\sum |a_n|$ diverges.

2.10 RATIO AND ROOT TESTS

Ratio Test * good for factorials

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \quad (24)$$

1. if $\rho < 1$, $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely
2. if $\rho > 1$, $\sum a_n$ diverges
3. if $\rho = 1$, the test is inconclusive

Root Test

$$L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} \quad (25)$$

1. if $L < 1$, $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely
2. if $L > 1$, $\sum a_n$ diverges
3. if $L = 1$, the test is inconclusive

2.11 CONVERGENCE AND FUNCTION APPROXIMATION. POWER SERIES

Power series can sometimes be approximated by the less intensive solution to geometric series with $|r| < 1$

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^n \quad (26)$$

For

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (ax - b)^n \quad (27)$$

This approximation converges only when $|ax - b| < 1$. Solving this and finding mid point can find the radius of convergence

Not all power series have the form of a geometric series. Coefficients c_k might not be the same for all terms. The **Ratio Test** is often useful in these situations.

$$a_k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-7)^k}{k} \quad (28)$$

evaluate:

$$L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} \right| \quad (29)$$

1. if $L < 1$, convergence
2. if $L > 1$, divergence
3. if $L = 1$, inconclusive

The values that make $L = 1$ must be evaluated to find specific character

2.12 TAYLOR SERIES

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k \quad (30)$$

A Maclaurin series is a Taylor series centered at $x = 0$

3 Polar, Cylindrical and Spherical Coordinates

In a rectangular coordinate system: a point at (x,y) has length r and is above the horizontal axis at θ

x and y can be represented

$$x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta \quad (31)$$

and

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2 \quad (32)$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \quad (33)$$

3.1 GENERAL POLAR EQUATION FORMS

cardioid

$$r = a(1 \pm \cos \theta) \quad (34)$$

$$r = a(1 \pm \sin \theta) \quad (35)$$

rose

$$r = a \cos(b\theta), r = a \sin(b\theta) \quad (36)$$

3.2 CYLINDRICAL AND SPHERICAL COORDINATE SYSTEMS

Cylindrical Coordinate Systems, $P(x, y, z)$ is represented by $P(r, \theta, z)$.
if

$$z = r \quad (37)$$

A cone has been formed.

Spherical Coordinates $P(\rho, \theta, \phi)$

1. ρ is the distance between P and origin.
2. θ is the angle used in cylindrical or polar coordinates
3. ϕ is the angle between the z axis and the line segment OP, where is the origin and $0 \leq \phi \leq \pi$

3.3 BETWEEN SPHERICAL, CYLINDRICAL, AND RECTANGULAR COORDINATES

$$x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta \quad (38)$$

$$y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta \quad (39)$$

$$z = \rho \cos \phi \quad (40)$$

$$\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \rho \sin \phi \quad (41)$$

and

$$\rho^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \quad (42)$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \quad (43)$$

$$\phi = \arccos \left(\frac{z}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} \right) \quad (44)$$

Relationship between cylindrical and spherical coordinates

$$r = \rho \sin \phi \quad (45)$$

$$\theta = \theta \quad (46)$$

$$z = \rho \cos \phi \quad (47)$$

and

$$\rho = \sqrt{r^2 + z^2} \quad (48)$$

$$\phi = \arccos \left(\frac{z}{\sqrt{r^2 + z^2}} \right) \quad (49)$$

4 Vectors

$$r(t) = f(t)i + g(t)j = \langle f(t), g(t) \rangle \quad (50)$$

This makes a function. Following the vector across t makes its own curve.

Initial point: (x_0, y_0) .

Terminal point: (x_1, y_1)

A vector is in **standard position** if the initial point is at the origin. When graphing we usually graph vectors in the domain of the function in standard position.

A **plane curve** is created by a function of \hat{i}, \hat{j}

A **space curve** is created by a function of $\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$

4.1 PARAMETRIZATION PARAMETRIC

Line segment

$$\langle x_1 + t(x_2 - x_1), y_1 + t(y_2 - y_1) \rangle \quad (51)$$

Circle

$$\langle r \cos t, r \sin t \rangle \quad (52)$$

4.2 DIFFERENTIATING AND OPERATING ON VECTOR VALUED FUNCTIONS

Differentiating a vector value function at a point gives a tangent vector at that point

$$r(t) = f(t)i + g(t)j \quad (53)$$

$$r'(t) = f'(t)i + g'(t)j \quad (54)$$

dot product: given (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2)

$$u \cdot v = x_1x_2 + y_1y_2 \quad (55)$$

cross product: say $u_1 = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$, and $v_1 = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$. Magnitude of cross product is area bounded by vectors.

$$\begin{bmatrix} i & j & k \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (56)$$

$$u \times v = (a_2b_3 - b_2a_3)i - (a_1b_3 - b_1a_3)j + (a_1b_2 - b_1a_2)k \quad (57)$$

4.3 LENGTH OF A VECTOR VALUED FUNCTION

for $r(t) = f(t)i + g(t)j + \dots + z(t)z$

$$\int \sqrt{f'(t)^2 + g'(t)^2 + \dots + z'(t)^2} dt = \int ||r'(t)|| dt \quad (58)$$

Arclength Function

$$s(t) = \int ||r'(u)|| du \quad (59)$$

$$\frac{ds}{dt} \quad (60)$$

4.4 UNIT TANGENT VECTOR

$$T(t) = \frac{r'(t)}{||r'(t)||} \quad (61)$$

4.5 CURVATURE

often measured in relation to **radius of curvature**. If a circle were overlaid at that point, what would the radius be to match the curve.

$$\kappa = \frac{||T'(t)||}{||r'(t)||} = \frac{|y''|}{[1 + (y')^2]^{\frac{3}{2}}} = ||\frac{dT}{ds}|| = ||T'(s)|| \quad (62)$$

$$\kappa = \frac{||r'(x) \times r''(x)||}{||r'(x)||^3} \quad (63)$$

4.6 PRINCIPAL UNIT NORMAL VECTOR AND BINORMAL VECTOR

Principal Unit Normal Vector: vector of length one perpendicular to curve at a point.

$$N(t) = \frac{T'(t)}{\|T'(t)\|} \quad (64)$$

Binormal Vector is orthogonal to T and N

$$T(t) \times N(t) \quad (65)$$

$$\|B\| = \|T \times N\| = \|T\| \|N\| \sin \theta = 1 \quad (66)$$

4.7 ACCELERATION

$$a(t) = v'(t) \cdot T(t) + [v(t)]^2 \cdot \kappa \cdot N(t) \quad (67)$$

5 Integrals

for f continuous on a rectangular region $a \leq x \leq b$ and $c \leq y \leq d$. Either order of standard double integration will work

$$\iint f(x, y) dA = \lim_{m, n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n f(x, y) \quad (68)$$

$$\text{Volume} = \int A(x) dx \quad (69)$$

with $A(x)$ being a function for area, $A(x) = \int f(x) dy$

5.1 NON-RECTANGULAR

Some shapes are bounded by two functions. If they are functions of x , initially integrate with respect to y , with the functions as the bounds of the integral.

Let R be a region bounded below and above by the graphs of their continuous functions $y = g(x)$ and $y = h(x)$, and by the lines $a=x$ and $x=b$. If f is continuous of R , then

$$\iint f(x, y) dA = \iint f(x, y) dx dy \quad (70)$$

5.2 2 FUNCTIONS

$$\iint g(x, y) - f(x, y) A \quad (71)$$

use the intersection of these forms projected on xy axis as the bounds of integrals.

5.3 INTEGRATION WITH POLAR COORDINATES

$$R = (r, \theta) : 0 \leq a \leq r \leq b, \alpha \leq \theta \leq \beta$$

$$\iint f(r, \theta) dA = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \int_a^b f(r, \theta) \cdot r dr d\theta \quad (72)$$

where $f(r, \theta)$ is z

This can be used for overlapping circles and a lot of other things. The main difference being the bounds of the integrals. One may have to add further integrated integrals

5.4 TRIPLE INTEGRALS

$$\iiint f(x, y, z) dV \quad (73)$$

5.5 TRIPLE INTEGRALS IN CYLINDRICAL AND SPHERICAL COORDINATES

$$\Delta V = \rho^2 \sin \phi \cdot d\rho \cdot d\phi \cdot d\theta \quad (74)$$

$$\iiint = f(\rho, \theta, \phi) \rho^2 \sin \phi \quad (75)$$

6 Vector Fields

insane. Can be used to model all sorts of fields.

A vector field F in \mathbb{R}^n is an assignment of an n dimensional vector $F(x, y, \text{etc})$ to each point of a subset D in \mathbb{R}

A vector field is **continuous** if both components are continuous.

two kinds of vector fields. In a **radial field** all vectors either point toward or away from the origin

Rotational field is tangent to a circle with radius $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. **Dot Product** is zero.

a **Unit vector field** is a field in which every vector has magnitude 1.

6.1 NORMALIZING A VECTOR FIELD

$$F = \langle P, Q, R \rangle \quad (76)$$

unit field:

$$\frac{F}{\|F\|} \quad (77)$$

6.2 GRADIENT

$$\text{grad} f = \nabla f = \langle f'_x, f'_y \rangle \quad (78)$$

A field is a **gradient field** or **conservative vector field** if there is a single scalar function f such that $\nabla f = F$ f must be a function where if differentiated for each component $(x, y, \text{etc.})$, it yields the components of F in accordance to variable differentiated for.

f is called a **potential function**

Cross Partial Property of Conservative Vector fields

If $F(x, y) = \langle P(x, y), Q(x, y) \rangle$ is a conservative vector field then $\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}$.

This can be used to show a field is conservative, not vice versa.

6.3 VECTOR LINE INTEGRAL

the **Vector Line Integral** of a vector field F along an oriented smooth curve C is

$$\int_C F \cdot T ds = F(r(t)) \cdot \frac{r'(t)}{\|r'(t)\|} \cdot \|r'(t)\| dt \quad (79)$$

$$\int_C F \cdot T ds = \int_a^b F(r(t)) \cdot r'(t) dt \quad (80)$$

$$\int_C F \cdot T ds = \int_C F \cdot dr \quad (81)$$

Piecewise Smooth Function a function made of a finite number of smooth curves

$$\sum_{m=1}^n \int_{C_m} F \cdot ds \quad (82)$$

6.4 FLUX

$$\int_C F \cdot N ds \quad (83)$$

$$\int_C F(r(t)) \cdot n(t) dt \quad (84)$$

All these variables are vectors

$$n = \langle y', -x' \rangle \quad (85)$$

6.5 CIRCULATION

Circulation of F along C : line integral of F along oriented **closed** curve

$$\oint_C F \cdot T ds \quad (86)$$

$$\int F(r(t)) \cdot r'(t) \quad (87)$$

Simple Curves do not cross themselves.

A region D is a **connected region** for any two points if there is a path where the trace is entirely within D . A region is **simply connected** if you can shrink it to a straight line. If there is a hole/excepted area within the region it is not simply connected.

6.6 FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM FOR LINE INTEGRALS

C must be a piecewise smooth curve

$$\int_C \nabla f \cdot dr = f(r(b)) - f(r(a)) \quad (88)$$

Gradient fields are **path independent**

6.7 GREEN'S THEOREM

Let D be an open, simply connected region with a boundary curve C that is piecewise smooth, simple closed curve oriented counter-clockwise. Only for 2 dimensional vector fields.

$$\oint_C F \cdot dr = \oint_C P dx + Q dy = \iint_D (Q_x - P_y) dA = \int_C F \cdot T ds \quad (89)$$

$$\iint_D (Q_x - P_y) dA \quad (90)$$

Given an equation that satisfies, identify P , which is with dx , and Q , which is with dy , and then put them in the form. If it is going clockwise, make it negative.

If $Q_x - P_y = 1$, dA is integrated and is equal to the initial integral.

6.8 PARAMETRIZE AN ELLIPSE

$$\langle a \cos t, b \sin t \rangle \quad (91)$$

with a as top radius in x , b top radius in y

6.9 FLUX FORM OF GREEN'S THEOREM

Let D be an open, simply connected region with a boundary curve C that is piecewise smooth, simple closed curve oriented counter-clockwise. Only for 2 dimensional vector fields.

$$\oint_C F \cdot N ds = \iint_D (P_x + Q_y) dA \quad (92)$$

6.10 HARMONIC FUNCTIONS

A **source free vector field** is a conservative field but with flux instead.

Conservative and source free vector fields on simply connected domain: any potential function satisfied Laplace's Equation: $f_{xx} + f_{yy} = 0$. f is a harmonic function.

6.11 NON SIMPLY CONNECTED REGIONS

Split the integrals up until they are simply connected

6.12 DIVERGENCE

Divergence measures the 'genesis' of a certain point, $\text{div}F(x, y)$. Divergence is negative if it 'flows in', and positive if its generative

6.13 GRADIENT OPERATOR

$$\nabla = \left\langle \frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right\rangle \quad (93)$$

$$\text{div}F = \nabla \cdot F \quad (94)$$

Let $F = \langle P, Q \rangle$ be a simply connected vector field.

$$\text{div}F = 0 \quad (95)$$

iff F is source-free

6.14 CURL

for $F = \langle P, Q, R \rangle$, a vector field whose component derivatives all exist,

$$\text{curl}F = \nabla \times F \quad (96)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} i & j & k \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ P & Q & R \end{bmatrix} \quad (97)$$

$$\text{div}(\text{curl}(F)) = 0 \quad (98)$$

for a conservative vector field $\text{curl} F = 0$

divergence of a gradient is 0