# Notes on Calculus

# October 16, 2023

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# 1 Vectors

# 1.1 Parametric Equations in General

### 1.1.1 Cycloid

The parametric equation for  $\overrightarrow{AP}$  looks the way it does because the starting point if at  $\frac{3\pi}{2}$ .

### 1.1.2 Involute of a Circle

The length of  $\overrightarrow{BP}$  is  $a\theta$  which is the length of the arc!  $(s = \theta r)$ 

### 1.2 The Dot Product

# 1.3 Vector Projections

#### Example 4

The magnitude of the projection of  $\mathbf{F}$  onto  $\mathbf{a}$  is equivalent to  $\mathbf{F}\sin(30)$ . That is,

$$|\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{F}| = |\mathbf{F}|\sin 30$$

Remember that to convert degrees to radians you must multiply degrees by  $\pi/180$ . This works out so because gravity is only acting along a single direction.

#### 1.4 The Cross Product

## 1.5 Rotation of a Rigid Body

 $|\mathbf{r}(t)|$  and  $\theta$  are constant, but  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  changes direction as time changes. That change in direction corresponds to a change to the vector  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  and thats why it corresponds to the arc swept between t and  $t + \Delta t$ .

**Proposition 4.3**, its proof is similar to an exercise we did for Folland, see 2.1.1

# 1.6 Equations for Planes and Distance Problems

# 2 Setting the Stage

# 2.1 Euclidean Spaces and Vectors

#### 2.1.1 Exercises

The following exercises begin on page 8.

#### 1.1.2

Given  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$|\vec{x} + \vec{y}|^2 = (\vec{x} + \vec{y})(\vec{x} + \vec{y})$$

$$= \vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} + \vec{y} \cdot \vec{y} + 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$$

$$= |\vec{x}|^2 + |\vec{y}|^2 + 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$$

Similarly,

$$|\vec{x} - \vec{y}|^2 = (\vec{x} - \vec{y})(\vec{x} - \vec{y})$$

$$= \vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} + \vec{y} \cdot \vec{y} - 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$$

$$= |\vec{x}|^2 + |\vec{y}|^2 - 2\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$$

Hence

$$|\vec{x} + \vec{y}|^2 + |\vec{x} - \vec{y}|^2 = 2(|\vec{x}|^2 + |\vec{y}|^2)$$

# 1.1.7

Suppose  $\vec{a}, \vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ 

Show that if  $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{c} = \vec{b} \cdot \vec{c}$  and  $\vec{a} \times \vec{c} = \vec{b} \times \vec{c}$  for some non-zero  $\vec{c} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , then  $\vec{a} = \vec{b}$ .

We could try to simply stare at

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{c} = |\vec{a}| |\vec{c}| \cos \theta_1 = |\vec{b}| |\vec{c}| \cos \theta_2 = \vec{b} \cdot \vec{c}$$

Which tells us

$$|\vec{a}|\cos\theta_1 = |\vec{b}|\cos\theta_2$$

Let's try something else,

$$|a \times c|^2 = |a||c| - (a \cdot c)^2 = |b||c| - (b \cdot c)^2 = |b \times c|^2$$

We now have

$$|a||c| - (a \cdot c)^2 = |b||c| - (b \cdot c)^2$$

or

$$|a||c| = |b||c| \rightarrow |a| = |b|$$

So we can go back to our first attempt and see that

$$|a|\cos\theta_1 = |b|\cos\theta_2 \to \cos\theta_1 = \cos\theta_2$$

#### 1.1.8

To see that  $a \cdot (b \times c)$  is the determinant of the three vectors, simply write out the determinant for  $b \times c$  and note that the explicit version of it is a "normal" vector. Since the dot product is defined as  $x \cdot y = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \ldots + x_ny_n$ , when  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Putting these two facts together we can see how  $a \cdot (b \times c)$  can be computed via a single determinant operation.

## 2.2 Subsets of Euclidean Space

#### Proposition 1.4

Remember that to be a boundary point of  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  every ball centered at  $\vec{x}$  must contain points in S and in  $S^c$ .

If  $\vec{x}$  is an interior point, then for some  $\vec{x} \in S$ , there is a ball  $B(r, \vec{x}) \subset S$ ; but also, there is an  $B(r, \vec{x}) \not\subset S^c$  for some r > 0. This is why you ought to be an interior point in S, in  $S^c$ , or be a boundary point - because to be a boundary point every single  $B(r, \vec{x})$  must be in S AND in  $S^c$ .

This last statement is why it is also the case that if S is closed then  $S^c$  must be open: because any points must be interior points to either one or be a boundary point. So if S has all of the boundary points, then its compliment must be left with none and thus only have interior points and be an open set.

#### Example 1

The computation is broken into three scenarios:

- 1.  $|x| < \rho$ :  $r = \rho |x| > 0$
- 2.  $|x| > \rho$
- 3.  $|x| = \rho$

The interesting bit of the argument presented for the first case is that we are using  $|y| \leq |y-x| + |x| < \rho$ , so we make an argument for  $B(\rho, x) \subset S = B(\rho, 0)$  by looking for an x and for a corresponding y and seeing that these can be built in such a way that  $S \neq \emptyset$  and that any x that meets these conditions will be an interior point,  $x \in S^{int}$ .

For the second case, if  $r = \rho - |x|$ , then r < 0. So in this case |y - x| < r is not possible since we are in euclidean space.

For the last argument, we note that if 0 < c < 1, then we have interior points, whereas if we have  $c \ge 1$  then  $x \in S^c$ . The interesting point is that since balls have a positive radius, which makes them expand in all available directions, then

any small distance away from  $|x| = \rho$  will place part of the ball in both S and  $S^c$ .

A noteworthy thing to mention is that this example proves that balls are open.

### 2.2.1 Exercises

1

$$S = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 < x^2 + y^2 \le 4\}$$

x and y cannot be zero at the same time, so  $(0,0) \notin S$ . So the set is open there, but it is closed outside of it since the disk is contained in S.

$$S = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 - x \le y \le 0\}$$

Here,  $x^2-x\leq 0$  which implies  $x\in [0,1]$  since  $1^2-1\leq 0$  but any number smaller than 0 will not meet the same contrain. And since  $x\leq y\leq 0$ , then  $y\in [0,1]$ , as well. So S is closed.

**2** Show that for any  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $S^{int}$  is open and  $\partial S$  and  $\bar{S}$  are both closed. Hint: use the fact that balls are open.