RIEMANN INTEGRAL

Example: Use n equal partitions of [0,1] to estimate the "area" under the curve $f(x) = x^2$ using

- 1. left corner of the intervals
- 2. right corner of the intervals
- 3. midpoint of the interval
- 4. line joining the left and right corners of the interval

Definitions:

P is a **partition** of [a,b] iff it is a ordered set of the form $P=\{x_0,x_1,\cdots,x_n\}$ with $x_0=a,x_n=b$ and $x_{k+1}>x_k$ P^* is a **refinement** of P iff $P^*\supseteq P$

P is a **common refinement** of P_1 , P_2 iff $P = P_1 \cup P_2$

 $\mathcal{P}[a,b]$ is the set of all partitions of [a,b]

Definition: Upper and Lower Riemann Sums $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is a bounded function, $\Delta x_k = x_{k+1} - x_k$

$$U(P,f) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} M_k \Delta x_k$$
 where $M_k = \sup\{f(x) | x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]\}$
 $L(P,f) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} m_k \Delta x_k$ where $m_k = \inf\{f(x) | x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]\}$

Definition: Upper and Lower Riemann Integrals

$$\overline{\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx} = \inf \{ U(P,f) | P \in \mathcal{P}[a,b] \}$$

$$\underline{\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx} = \sup \{ L(P,f) | P \in \mathcal{P}[a,b] \}$$

Definition:

f is **Riemann Integrable** on [a,b] or $f\in\Re[a,b]$ iff $\int_a^bf(x)dx=\overline{\int_a^bf(x)dx}$

Riemann Integral of f is the common value denoted by $\int_a^b f(x)dx$

Theorem: P^* is a refinement of P

- 1. $L(P, f) \leq L(P^*, f)$
- $2. \quad U(P^*, f) \le U(P, f)$

Theorem: $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \le \overline{\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx}$

Theorem: $f \in \mathcal{R}[a,b]$ iff $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists P \in \mathcal{P}[a,b]$; $U(P,f) - L(P,f) < \varepsilon$

Theorem: If $f \in \mathcal{R}[a,b]$ and $P \in \mathcal{P}[a,b]$ such that $t_i \in [x_{i-1},x_i]$ then $\left|\sum_{i=1}^n f(t_i) \Delta x_i - \int_a^b f(x) dx\right| < U(P,f) - L(P,f)$

Theorem: $f \in \mathcal{C}[a,b] \Rightarrow f \in \mathcal{R}[a,b]$

Theorems: $f, g \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$

- 1. $f+g \in \mathcal{R}[a,b]$ and $\int_a^b (f(x)+g(x))dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_a^b g(x)dx$
- 2. $fg \in \mathcal{R}[a,b]$
- 3. $|f| \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ and $\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \le \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$
- 4. $f \le g \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx \le \int_a^b g(x) dx$
- 5. $f \le M \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x)dx \le M(b-a)$
- 6. $c \in [a,b] \Rightarrow f \in \mathcal{R}[a,c], f \in \mathcal{R}[c,b] \text{ and } \int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_a^c f(x)dx + \int_c^b f(x)dx$

Definition: f(x) is **Uniformly continuous** on $I \subset \mathbb{R}$

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0, \forall x_1, x_2 \in I; |x_1 - x_2| < \delta \Longrightarrow |f(x_1) - f(x_2)| < \varepsilon$$

Definition: f(x) is **Lipschitz continuous** on $I \subset \mathbb{R}$

$$\exists L > 0, \forall x_1, x_2 \in I; |f(x_1) - f(x_2)| \le L|x_1 - x_2|$$

Theorem: Lipschitz continuous ⇒ Uniformly continuous ⇒ Continuous

Example: Show that $\frac{1}{x}$ is not uniformly continuous on (0,1] but x^2 is.

Theorem: Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

If $f \in \mathcal{R}[a,b]$ and there is a differentiable function F such that F'=f then $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a)$

Theorem: Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

If $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ and $x \in [a, b]$ and $F(x) = \int_a^x f(x) dx$ then

- 1. F is continuous on [a, b].
- 2. If f is continuous at a point $x_0 \in [a, b]$ then F is differentiable at x_0 and $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$.

Theorem: Integration by Parts

F,G differentiable on [a,b], $F'=f\in\mathcal{R}[a,b]$ and $G'=f\in\mathcal{R}[a,b]$ then $\int_a^b F(x)g(x)dx=F(b)G(b)-F(a)G(a)-\int_a^b f(x)G(x)dx$

Theorem: Change of Variable

g has continuous derivative g' on [c,d]. f is continous on g([c,d]) and let $F(x) = \int_{g(c)}^{x} f(t)dt$, $x \in g([c,d])$. Then for each $x \in [c, d]$, $\int_{c}^{x} f(g(t))g'(t)dt$ exixts and has value F(g(x)).

Theorem: Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

 $f \in \mathcal{R}[a,b]$ with $m \le f \le M$. Then $\exists \ c \in [m,M]$ such that $\int_a^b f(x) dx = c(b-a)$. If also $f \in \mathcal{C}[a,b]$ then $\exists x_0 \in (a,b)$ such that $\int_a^b f(x)dx = f(x_0)(b-a)$.

Definition: Improper Integrals of the first kind

Suppose $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ exists for each $b \ge a$. If $\lim_{b \to \infty} \int_a^b f(x)dx$ exists and equal to $I \in \mathbb{R}$ we say that $\int_a^\infty f(x)dx$ converges and has value I. Otherwise we say that $\int_a^\infty f(x)dx$ diverges

$$\begin{split} & \underset{a}{\text{Definition: Improper Integrals}} \\ & \int_{a}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx, f \colon [a, \infty) \to \mathbb{R} \\ & \int_{-\infty}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{a \to -\infty} \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx, f \colon (-\infty, b] \to \mathbb{R} \\ & \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{c} f(x) dx + \int_{c}^{\infty} f(x) dx, f \colon (-\infty, \infty) \to \mathbb{R}, c \in \mathbb{R} \\ & \int_{a^{+}}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{t \to a^{+}} \int_{t}^{b} f(x) dx, f \colon (a, b] \to \mathbb{R} \\ & \int_{a}^{b^{-}} f(x) dx = \lim_{t \to b^{-}} \int_{a}^{t} f(x) dx, f \colon [a, b) \to \mathbb{R} \\ & \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{c^{-}} f(x) dx + \int_{c^{+}}^{b} f(x) dx, f \colon [a, c) \cup (c, b] \to \mathbb{R}, c \in (a, b) \end{split}$$

Example: Find $\int_{-1}^{1} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ if it exists

Example:

Prove that if f is bounded above and increasing, then $\lim_{x\to\infty}f(x)$ is existing and finite Prove that $\int_a^\infty |f(x)| dx$ converges $\Longrightarrow \int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ converges Prove that if $|f(x)| \le Me^{ax}$, then the **Laplace Transform** of f(x), $\overline{f}(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-sx} f(x) dx$ exists for all s > a.

Theorem: Comparison Test

Assume that the proper integral $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ exists for each $b \ge a$ and suppose that $0 \le f(x) \le g(x)$ for all $x \ge a$, then $\int_a^\infty g(x)dx$ converges $\implies \int_a^\infty f(x)dx$ converges

Theorem: Limit Comparison Test

Assume both proper integrals $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ and $\int_a^b g(x)dx$ exist for each $b \ge a$, where $f(x) \ge 0$ and g(x) > 0If $\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = c$, then

- 1. $c \neq 0, \infty \Rightarrow \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$ converges $\Leftrightarrow \int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$ converges 2. c = 0 and $\int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$ converges $\Rightarrow \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$ converges 3. $c = \infty$ and $\int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$ diverges $\Rightarrow \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$ diverges

Note: There are similar comparison tests for other improper integrals

Example: Gamma Function is defined by $\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{x-1} dt$. Show that

- 1. $\Gamma(x)$ exists for all x > 0
- 2. $\Gamma(x) = (x-1)\Gamma(x-1)$
- 3. $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$ for integer $n \ge 1$
- 4. we can use 2. to define $\Gamma(x)$ for x < 0
- 5. $\Gamma(x)$ does not exist for x = 0, -1, -2, -3, ...
- 6. Show that $\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}$ and $\int_0^\infty e^{-t^2} dt = \sqrt{\pi}$ using $\Gamma(x)\Gamma(1-x) = \frac{\pi}{\sin \pi x}$
- 7. Use the formula for the the n dimesional ball $V_n(r) = \frac{\pi^{\frac{n}{2}}}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{n}+1)} r^n$ to find volumes of 2,3,4,5 dimesional balls
- 8. Use the fact that $\Gamma(x+1) \sim \sqrt{2\pi x} \left(\frac{x}{\rho}\right)^x$ as mptotically as $t \to \infty$ to find 10! approximately
- 9. What is $-\Gamma'(1)$? It is called the Euler Constant γ and no one knows if it is rational or irrational! Prove that the **Beta function** $B(x,y) = \int_0^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt$ exists for all x,y>0. It can be shown that $B(x,y) = \frac{\Gamma(x)\Gamma(y)}{\Gamma(x+y)}.$

MULTIVARIATE CALCULUS

Definition: Function of two variables $f: A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$

Example: Draw the graphs of the following functions/surfaces

1.
$$f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$$

2.
$$f(x,y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

2.
$$f(x,y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

3. $\frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{9} - \frac{z^2}{16} = 1$

Definition: Limit

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,b)} f(x,y) = L \Longleftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0 \\ \exists \delta > 0, \\ 0 < d\big((x,y),(a,b)\big) < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x,y)-L| < \varepsilon$$

Note: Matric

 $0 < d((x,y),(a,b)) < \delta$ is a region around and excluding (a,b). Some options for the matric d are

1.
$$\sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2}$$

2.
$$|x - a| + |y - b|$$

3.
$$\max\{|x-a|, |y-b|\}$$

We will use the first matric. One can show that they are equivalent, what is needed is a region around (a, b).

Example: Use the definition to show that $\lim_{(x,y)\to(1,2)} x^2y = 6$

Example: Investigate the existence of the limit, $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y)$ for the following functions

1.
$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2} &, & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 &, & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$
2.
$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2y^2}{x^2y^2 + (x-y)^2} &, & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 &, & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$
3.
$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} x\sin\frac{1}{y} &, & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 &, & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

3.
$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} x\sin{-y}, & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0, & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$

Theorem:

If
$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,b)} f(x,y) = L$$
, $\lim_{x\to a} f(x,y)$ and $\lim_{y\to b} f(x,y)$ exists then $\lim_{x\to a} \lim_{y\to b} f(x,y) = \lim_{y\to b} \lim_{x\to a} f(x,y) = L$.

Example:

Use the above theorem to prove that $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y)$ is not existing for $f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2-y^2}{x^2+y^2} &, & (x,y)\neq(0,0)\\ 0 &, & (x,y)=(0,0) \end{cases}$.

Prove by definition that if $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y)$ along y=x and y=2x are different, then the limit is not existing.

Definition: Continuity of f ($f \in \mathcal{C}$) at (a, b) $\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,b)} f(x,y) = f(a,b)$

Definition: Partial derivatives

$$\begin{split} f_{\chi}(a,b) &= f_1(a,b) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b) = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x,b) - f(a,b)}{x - a} = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(a + \Delta x,b) - f(a,b)}{\Delta x} \\ f_{y}(a,b) &= f_2(a,b) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b) = \lim_{y \to b} \frac{f(a,y) - f(a,b)}{y - b} = \lim_{\Delta y \to 0} \frac{f(a,b + \Delta y) - f(a,b)}{\Delta y} \end{split}$$

Definition: $f \in \mathcal{C}^1 \Leftrightarrow f_x \in \mathcal{C}$ and $f_y \in \mathcal{C}$

Theorem: Mean Value

1.
$$f_x$$
 and f_y exists

2.
$$\mathbb{D} = \{(x, y) | (x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 < \delta^2\} \subset A$$

3. $\Delta x^2 + \Delta y^2 < \delta^2$

3.
$$\Delta x^2 + \Delta y^2 < \delta^2$$

1.
$$f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) - f(a, b) = \Delta x f_x(a + \theta \Delta x, b) + \Delta y f_y(a + \Delta x, b + \alpha \Delta y)$$

2.
$$0 < \theta, \alpha < 1$$

Definition: **Differentiability** of f ($f \in \mathcal{D}$) at (a, b)

- 1. f_x and f_y exists at (a, b)
- 2. $f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) f(a, b) = \Delta x f_x(a, b) + \Delta y f_y(a, b) + \Delta x \phi(\Delta x, \Delta y) + \Delta y \psi(\Delta x, \Delta y) \text{ for all } \Delta x^2 + \Delta y^2 < \delta^2$ 3. $\lim_{(\Delta x, \Delta y) \to (0,0)} \phi(\Delta x, \Delta y) = \lim_{(\Delta x, \Delta y) \to (0,0)} \psi(\Delta x, \Delta y) = 0$

Theorem: $f \in \mathcal{C}^1 \Rightarrow f \in \mathcal{D} \Rightarrow f \in \mathcal{C}$

Example: Let $f(x,y) = g(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}), g(x) = x \sin \frac{1}{x}, g(0) = 0$. Show that $f \in \mathcal{D}$ but $f \notin \mathcal{C}^1$

Definition: Higher order derivatives

$$f_{xx} = (f_x)_x = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$$

$$f_{xy} = (f_x)_y = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$$

$$f_{yx} = (f_y)_x = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}$$

$$f_{yy} = (f_y)_y = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \text{ and so on}$$

- 1. We write $f \in C^2$ to mean $f_{xx}, f_{xy}, f_{yx}, f_{yy} \in C$
- 2. In a similar manner we write $f \in \mathcal{C}^n$ to mean that all the n th order partial derivatives are continuous. There are 2^n
- 3. There are $\binom{n}{m} = {n \choose m} = \frac{n!}{m!(n-m)!}$, n th order partial derivatives that contains x, m times.

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} xy\frac{x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2} &, & (x,y) \neq (0,0) \\ 0 &, & (x,y) = (0,0) \end{cases}$$
 Show that $f_{xy}(0,0) \neq f_{yx}(0,0)$.

Theorem: $f \in \mathcal{C}^2 \Rightarrow f_{xy} = f_{yx}$

Example: If $u = u(x,y) \in \mathcal{C}^2$ then prove that the **Laplace operator** $\nabla^2 u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}$ becomes $\nabla^2 u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \theta^2} \text{ when } x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta.$

Theorem: Chain rule

- 1. f = f(x,y), y = y(t), x = x(t) all in \mathcal{C}^1 . Then $\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt}$
- 2. f = f(x, y), y = y(u, v), x = x(u, v) all in \mathcal{C}^1 . Then $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}$

Note: The above may be written as

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{dx}{dt} \\ \frac{dy}{dt} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial (x,y)} \frac{\partial (x,y)}{\partial t} \text{ and } \frac{\partial f}{\partial (u,v)} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial (x,y)} \frac{\partial (x,y)}{\partial (u,v)}$$

The determinant, $\det \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} \end{bmatrix}$ is called the **Jacobian** or J

With $\underline{x}=\binom{x}{v}$ and $\underline{u}=\binom{u}{v}$, the above may also be written as $(f \circ x)'(t) = (f' \circ x)(t)x'(t)$ and $(f \circ x)'(u) = (f' \circ x)(u)x'(u)$

We also see that $\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial (x,y)} = f'(\underline{x})$ is acting as the true first derivative of f = f(x,y). Therefore it is also called $\nabla f = \operatorname{grad} f$ or the **Gradient** of f.

Example: Assume all functions are \mathcal{C}^1

Show that if
$$x = x(u, v)$$
, $y = y(u, v)$, $u = u(r, s)$, $v = v(r, s)$ then $\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(r, s)} = \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(r, s)}$.

Show that if u = f(x, y), v = g(x, y) then a functional relation of the form h(u, v) = 0 exists iff $\det \frac{\partial (u, v)}{\partial (x, v)} \equiv 0$.

Definition: **Directional Derivative** of f in the direction of the unit vector $\underline{u} = (u, v)$ at (a, b).

$$D_{\underline{u}}f(a,b) = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{f(a+u\Delta t, b+v\Delta t) - f(a,b)}{\Delta t}$$

Theorem: $f \in \mathcal{C}^1$, $\nabla f(a, b) \neq 0$

1.
$$D_{\underline{u}}f(a,b) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b)u + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b)v = \nabla f(a,b) \cdot \underline{u}$$

2.
$$\max_{\underline{u}} D_{\underline{u}} f(a, b) = D_{\nabla f(a, b)} f(a, b) = \|\nabla f(a, b)\|$$

3.
$$\min_{\underline{u}} D_{\underline{u}} f(a, b) = D_{-\nabla f(a, b)} f(a, b) = -\|\nabla f(a, b)\|$$

Theorem: Normal vector to a surface at (a, b)

$$\underline{n}(a,b) = (f_x(a,b), f_x(a,b), -1) = (\nabla f(a,b), -1)$$

Proof: Let $\underline{r} = \underline{r}(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t)) \in \mathcal{C}^1$ be a curve on the surface of $z = f(x, y) \in \mathcal{C}^1$ and $\underline{r}(t_0) = (x(t_0), y(t_0), z(t_0)) = (a, b, f(a, b))$.

Note that $\underline{r}'(t_0) = (x'(t_0), y'(t_0), z'(t_0))$ is the tangent vector to the curve at (a, b).

Now
$$\underline{n}(a,b) \cdot \underline{r}'(t_0) = f_x(a,b)x'(t_0) + f_y(a,b)y'(t_0) - z'(t_0) = \frac{df}{dt}(t_0) - z'(t_0) = 0$$

le $n(a,b) = (f_x(a,b), f_y(a,b), -1) = (\nabla f(a,b), -1)$ is a vector perpendicular to the surface z = f(x,y) at (a,b).

Theorem: Equation of the **tangent plane** to the surface $z = f(x, y) \in \mathcal{C}^1$ at (a, b).

$$z = f_{x}(a,b)(x-a) + f_{y}(a,b)(y-b) = \nabla f(a,b) {x-a \choose y-b} = \nabla f(a,b) {x \choose y} - {a \choose b}$$

Example: Let $f(x, y) = x^4 + y^4 - x^2 - y^2 + 1$. At the point (1,2) find

- 1. Direction in which the function increases most rapidly
- 2. Directional derivative in that direction
- 3. Equation of the tangent plane.

Theorem: **Taylor's expansion** for one variable $f: I \in \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$

If
$$f \in C^{n+1}$$
 and $a, a + h \in I$

then
$$f(a+h) = \sum_{m=0}^{n} \frac{1}{k!} \frac{d^m f}{dx^m}(a) h^m + \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \frac{d^{n+1} f}{dx^{n+1}}(c) h^{n+1}$$

where c is between a and a + h.

Note: We can also write the above as

If
$$f \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$$
 and $a + th \in I$ for all $t \in [0,1]$

Then
$$f(a+h) = \sum_{m=0}^{n} \frac{1}{k!} \left(h \frac{d}{dx} \right)^m f(a) + \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \left(h \frac{d}{dx} \right)^{n+1} f(c)$$

for some $c = a + \theta h$ with $\theta \in (0,1)$

We agree to use the notation
$$\left(h\frac{d}{dx}\right)^m f(a) \equiv h^m \frac{d^m f}{dx^m}(a)$$

Note: The first two terms are the equation of the tangent line.

Proof: Use generalized mean value theorem on

$$F(t) = \sum_{m=0}^{n} \frac{1}{m!} f^{(m)}(t) (x-t)^m$$
 and $G(t) = (x-t)^{n+1}$

Example: When n=1

$$f(a + h) = f(a) + \frac{1}{1!}f'(a)h + \frac{1}{2!}f''(c)h^2$$

Example: Write the Taylor's expansion for $f(x) = e^x$ at a = 0.

Example: Derive the second derivative test to find the extrema of f(x). What to do when f''(a) = 0?

Theorem: Taylor's for two variables $f: A \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ $f \in \mathcal{C}^{n+1}$ and $(a+th,b+tk) \in A$ for all $t \in [0,1]$ Then $f(a+h,b+k) = \sum_{m=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} \left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)^m f(a,b) + \frac{1}{(m+1)!} \left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)^{m+1} f(c)$ for some $c = (a+\theta h,b+\theta k)$ with $\theta \in (0,1)$.

Proof: Use Taylor'r expansion for F(t) = f(a + th, b + tk)

Example: When
$$n = 1$$
 $f(a + h, b + k)$ $= \sum_{m=0}^{1} \frac{1}{k!} \left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^m f(a, b) + \frac{1}{(1+1)!} \left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^{1+1} f(a + \theta h, b + \theta k)$ $= f(a, b) + \frac{1}{1!} \left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) f(a, b) + \frac{1}{2!} \left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^2 f(c)$ $= f(a, b) + \frac{1}{1!} \left(h \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) f(a, b) + \frac{1}{2!} \left(h^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + 2hk \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} + h^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) f(c)$ $= f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)h + f_y(a, b)k + \frac{1}{2!} \left(f_{xx}(c)h^2 + 2f_{xy}(c)hk + f_{yy}(c)k^2 \right)$ $= f(a, b) + (f_x(a, b) - f_y(a, b)) \binom{h}{k} + \frac{1}{2!} (h - k) \binom{f_{xx}(c)}{f_{yx}(c)} - f_{yy}(c) \binom{h}{k}$ $= f(a, b) + \nabla f(a, b) \binom{h}{k} + \frac{1}{2!} (h - k) Hf(c) \binom{h}{k}$ $= f(a, b) + \frac{1}{1!} f'(a, b) \binom{h}{k} + \frac{1}{2!} (h - k) f''(c) \binom{h}{k}$

Note: The first two terms are the equation of the tangent plane.

Definition:
$$f'' = Hf = \begin{pmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xy} \\ f_{yx} & f_{yy} \end{pmatrix}$$
: **Hessian** of f det $Hf = f_{xx}f_{yy} - f_{xy}^2$: determinant $trHf = f_{xx} + f_{yy}$: **trace**

Note: $\det Hf > 0$ and $f_{xx} > 0 < 0 \Rightarrow f_{yy} > 0 < 0 \Rightarrow \operatorname{tr} Hf > 0 < 0$

Example:

Write the Taylor's expansion for $f(x, y) = e^{xy}$ and $f(x, y) = \sin(\sin x + xe^y)$ at (a, b) = (0,0). Get the same answer by applying multiple one variable Taylor series expansions at 0.

Definition: (a,b) is a **critical point** of $f \in \mathcal{C}^1 \iff \nabla f(a,b) = \mathbf{0}$ or f is not defined

Definition:

- 1. f has a **relative maximum** at $(a,b) \Leftrightarrow f(a,b) \geq f(a+h,b+k)$ in a neighbourhood of (a,b)
- 2. f has a **relative minimum** at $(a,b) \Leftrightarrow f(a,b) \leq f(a+h,b+k)$ in a neighbourhood of (a,b)
- 3. f has a **saddle point** at $(a,b) \Leftrightarrow f$ is both above and below its tangent plane at (a,b).

Theorem: $f \in C^1$ and (a, b) is a relative maximum/minimum/saddle point of $f \Rightarrow \nabla f(a, b) = \mathbf{0}$

Theorem: $f \in C^2$ and $\nabla f(a,b) = \mathbf{0}$ then

- 1. $\det Hf(a,b) > 0$ and $\operatorname{tr} Hf(a,b) > 0$ then (a,b) is a relative minimum
- 2. $\det Hf(a,b) > 0$ and $\operatorname{tr} Hf(a,b) < 0$ then (a,b) is a relative maximum
- 3. $\det Hf(a,b) < 0$ then (a,b) is a saddle point
- 4. $\det Hf(a,b) = 0$ inconclusive(why?)

Example: Find the critical points and determine the nature of them (relative maxima/minima/saddle points).

$$f(x,y) = x^3 - 12x + y^3 - 27y + 5$$

$$f(x,y) = x^4 + y^4 - x^2 - y^2 + 1$$

$$f(x,y) = x^4 + y^4$$

Example: Propose a method to determine the nature of critical points when $\det Hf = 0$.

MA1023-Methods of Mathematics-14S2-www.math.mrt.ac.lk/UCJ-20151221-Page 8 of 11

Theorem: Lagrange Multipliers

If $f,g \in \mathcal{C}^1$ and $\nabla g \neq \mathbf{0}$ then the maxima/minima of f(x,y) subjected to g(x,y)=0 are included in the set of solutions of $\nabla f(x,y) = \lambda \nabla g(x,y)$ and g(x,y) = 0.

Example:

Find the shortest distance from the point (1,0) to the parabola $y^2 = 4x$.

Find the directions of the axes of the ellipse $5x^2 - 6xy + 5y^2 - 4x - 4y - 4 = 0$. Find the absolute maximum/minimum of $f(x,y) = x^4 + y^4 - x^2 - y^2 + 1$ on the closed disk $(x-1)^2 + y^2 \le 4$.