

Analysis II

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TITLE PAGE COMING SOON

“*Multiply it by ai* ”
- Özlem Imamoglu, 2025

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1 Introduction

This Cheat-Sheet does not serve as a replacement for solving exercises and getting familiar with the content. There is no guarantee that the content is 100% accurate, so use at your own risk. If you discover any errors, please open an issue or fix the issue yourself and then open a Pull Request here:

<https://github.com/janishutz/eth-summaries>

This Cheat-Sheet was designed with the HS2025 page limit of 10 A4 pages in mind. Thus, the whole Cheat-Sheet can be printed full-sized, if you exclude the title page, contents and this page. You could also print it as two A5 pages per A4 page and also print the [Analysis I summary](#) in the same manner, allowing you to bring both to the exam.

And yes, she did really miss an opportunity there with the quote... But she was also sick, so it's not as unexpected

This summary also uses tips and tricks from this [Exercise Session](#)

2 Differential Equations

2.1 Introduction

Ex 2.1.1: $f'(x) = f(x)$ has only solution $f(x) = ae^x$ for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$; $f' - a = 0$ has only solution $f(x) = \int_{x_0}^x a(t) dt$

T 2.1.2: Let $F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a differential function of two variables. Let $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}^2$. The Ordinary Differential Equation (ODE) $y' = F(x, y)$ has a unique solution f defined on a “largest” interval I that contains x_0 such that $y_0 = f(x_0)$

2.2 Linear Differential Equations

An ODE is considered linear if and only if the ys are only scaled and not part of powers.

D 2.2.1: (Linear differential equation of order k) (order = highest derivative) $y^{(k)} + a_{k-1}y^{(k-1)} + \dots + a_1y' + a_0y = b$, with a_i and b functions in x . If $b(x) = 0 \ \forall x$, **homogeneous**, else **inhomogeneous**

T 2.2.2: For open $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $k \geq 1$, for lin. ODE over I with continuous a_i we have:

1. Set \mathcal{S} of $k \times$ diff. sol. $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{C}(\mathbb{R})$ of the eq. is a complex (real) subspace of complex (real)-valued func. over I
2. $\dim(\mathcal{S}) = k \ \forall x_0 \in I$ and any $(y_0, \dots, y_{k-1}) \in \mathbb{C}^k$, exists unique $f \in \mathcal{S}$ s.t. $f(x_0) = y_0, f'(x_0) = y_1, \dots, f^{(k-1)}(x_0) = y_{k-1}$. If a_i real-valued, same applies, but \mathbb{C} replaced by \mathbb{R} .
3. Let b continuous on I . Exists solution f_0 to inhom. lin. ODE and \mathcal{S}_b is set of funct. $f + f_0$ where $f \in \mathcal{S}$

The solution space \mathcal{S} is spanned by k functions, which thus form a basis of \mathcal{S} . If inhomogeneous, \mathcal{S} not vector space.

Finding solutions (in general)

- (1) Find basis $\{f_1, \dots, f_k\}$ for \mathcal{S}_0 for homogeneous equation (set $b(x) = 0$) (i.e. find homogeneous part, solve it)
- (2) If inhomogeneous, find f_p that solves the equation. The set of solutions is then $\mathcal{S}_b = \{f_h + f_p \mid f_h \in \mathcal{S}_0\}$.
- (3) If there are initial conditions, find equations $\in \mathcal{S}_b$ which fulfill conditions using SLE (as always)

2.3 Linear differential equations of first order

P 2.3.1: Solution of $y' + ay = 0$ is of form $f(x) = ze^{-A(x)}$ with A anti-derivative of a

Imhomogeneous equation

1. Plug all values into $y_p = \int b(x)e^{A(x)}$ ($A(x)$ in the exponent instead of $-A(x)$ as in the homogeneous solution)
2. Solve and the final $y(x) = y_h + y_p$. For initial value problem, determine coefficient z

2.4 Linear differential equations with constant coefficients

The coefficients a_i are constant functions of form $a_i(x) = k$ with k constant, where $b(x)$ can be any function.

Homogeneous Equation

1. Find **characteristic polynomial** (of form $\lambda^k + a_{k-1}\lambda^{k-1} + \dots + a_1\lambda + a_0$ for order k lin. ODE with coefficients $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$).
2. Find the roots of polynomial. The solution space is given by $\{z_j \cdot x^{\nu_j-1}e^{\gamma_i x} \mid \nu_j \in \mathbb{N}, \gamma_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$ where ν_j is the multiplicity of the root γ_i . For $\gamma_i = \alpha + \beta i \in \mathbb{C}$, we have $z_1 \cdot e^{\alpha x} \cos(\beta x)$, $z_2 \cdot e^{\alpha x} \sin(\beta x)$, representing the two complex conjugated solutions.

Inhomogeneous Equation

1. (**Case 1**) $b(x) = cx^d e^{\alpha x}$, with special cases x^d and $e^{\alpha x}$: $f_p = Q(x)e^{\alpha x}$ with Q a polynomial with $\deg(Q) \leq j + d$, where j is multiplicity of root α (if $P(\alpha) \neq 0$, then $j = 0$) of characteristic polynomial
2. (**Case 2**) $b(x) = cx^d \cos(\alpha x)$, or $b(x) = cx^d \sin(\alpha x)$: $f_p = Q_1(x) \cdot \cos(\alpha x) + Q_2(x) \cdot \sin(\alpha x)$, where $Q_i(x)$ a polynomial with $\deg(Q_i) \leq d + j$, where j is the multiplicity of root αi (if $P(\alpha i) \neq 0$, then $j = 0$) of characteristic polynomial

Other methods

- **Change of variable** Apply substitution method here, substituting for example for $y' = f(ax + by + c)$ $u = ax + by$ to make the integral simpler. Mostly intuition-based (as is the case with integration by substitution)
- **Separation of variables** For equations of form $y' = a(y) \cdot b(x)$ (NOTE: Not linear), we transform into $\frac{y'}{a(y)} = b(x)$ and then integrate by substituting $y'(x)dx = dy$, changing the variable of integration. Solution: $A(y) = B(x) + c$, with $A = \int \frac{1}{a} \frac{dy}{dx} dx$ and $B(x) = \int b(x) dx$. To get final solution, solve for the above equation for y .

3 Differential Calculus in Vector Space

3.2 Continuity

D 3.2.1: (Convergence in \mathbb{R}^n) Let $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ where $x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $x_k = (x_{k,1}, \dots, x_{k,n})$ and let $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$. (x_k) converges to y as $k \rightarrow +\infty$ if $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists N \geq 1$ s.t. $\forall n \geq N$ we have $\|x_k - y\| < \varepsilon$

L 3.2.2: (x_k) converges to y as $k \rightarrow +\infty$ iff one of following equiv. statements holds: (1) $\forall 1 \leq i \leq n$, the sequence $(x_{k,i})$ with $x_{k,i} \in \mathbb{R}$ converges to y_i (2) $(\|x_k - y\|)$ converges to 0 as $k \rightarrow +\infty$

D 3.2.3: (Continuity) Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$. (1) Let $x_0 \in X$. f continuous in \mathbb{R}^n if $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0$ s.t. if $x \in X$ satisfies $\|x - x_0\| < \delta$, then $\|f(x) - f(x_0)\| < \varepsilon$ (2) f continuous on X if continuous at $x_0 \ \forall x_0 \in X$ **P 3.2.4:** Let X and f as prev. Let $x_0 \in X$. f continuous at x_0 iff $\forall (x_k)_{k \geq 1}$ in X s.t. $x_k \rightarrow x_0$ as $k \rightarrow +\infty$, $(f(x_k))_{k \geq 1}$ in \mathbb{R}^m converges to $f(x_0)$

D 3.2.5: (Limit) Let X , f and x_0 as prev. and $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$. f has limit y as $x \rightarrow x_0$ with $x \neq x_0$ if $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $\forall x \neq x_0 \in X, \|x - x_0\| < \delta$ we have $\|f(x) - y\| < \varepsilon$. We write $\lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow x_0 \\ x \neq x_0}} f(x) = y$ **R 3.2.6:** Also possible without ass. that $x_0 \in X$

P 3.2.7: Let X , f , x_0 and y as prev. We have $\lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow x_0 \\ x \neq x_0}} f(x) = y$ iff $\forall (x_k)$ in X s.t. $x_k \rightarrow x$ as $k \rightarrow +\infty$ and $x_k \neq x_0$ ($f(x_k)$) in \mathbb{R}^m converges to y **P 3.2.9:** Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$, $p \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ be cont. Then $g \circ f$ is continuous

Remark: To find the limits, we have two tricks (for $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)}$):

1. **(Substitution)** Substitute $y = x + (b - a)$, then limit is $\lim_{x \rightarrow (a-b)}$

2. **(Polar coordinates)** Substitute $x = r \cos(\varphi)$ and $y = r \sin(\varphi)$ and the limit is $\lim_{r \rightarrow 0}$

Ex 3.2.10: (1) $f_1 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m_1}$ and $f_2 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m_2}$ continuous $\Rightarrow f = (f_1, f_2) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m_1+m_2}$ is continuous (Cartesian product)

(2) Any linear map $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is continuous. In particular, the identity map is continuous (3) If f_1, \dots, f_n continuous, then $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f_1(x_1) \cdot \dots \cdot f_n(x_n)$ is continuous (4) Polynomials in x_1, \dots, x_n are continuous (5) $f_1 \circ f_2$ is continuous if f_1 and f_2 are continuous and if $f_2(x) \neq 0 \ \forall x \in X$, then $f_1 \circ f_2$ is continuous. (see Theorem 2.1.8 in Analysis I)

(6) If both f and g have limits, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f(x) + g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x)$ and analogous for \times (7) If $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous, then $g(x) = f(x, y_0)$ for $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. The converse is not true

D 3.2.11: (1) $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is **bounded** if the set of $\|x\|$ for $x \in X$ is bounded in \mathbb{R} (2) $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is **closed** if $\forall (x_k)$ in X that converge in \mathbb{R}^n to some vector $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have $y \in X$ (3) $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is **compact** if it is bounded and closed

Ex 3.2.12: (1) \emptyset and \mathbb{R}^n are closed. (2) The **open disc** $D = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x - x_0\| < r\}$ for $r > 0$ and $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is bounded and not closed. (3) The **closed disc** $\Delta = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x - x_0\| \leq r\}$ is bounded and closed. In particular, a closed interval is a closed set. An interval is compact if it is bounded (4) If $X_1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $X_2 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ are bounded (also closed or compact), then so is $X_1 \times X_2 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$

P 3.2.13: Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a continuous map. For any closed $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$, the set $f^{-1}(Y) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(x) \in Y\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is closed

Ex 3.2.14: The **zero set** $Z = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(x) = 0\}$ is closed in \mathbb{R}^n because $\{0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is closed. More generally: for any $r \geq 0$, $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |f(x)| \leq r\}$ is $f^{-1}([-r, r])$ and is closed, since $[-r, r]$ is closed. Furthermore: $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^3 : \|x - x_0\| = r\}$ is closed

T 3.2.15: Let $(X \neq \emptyset) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ compact and $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ continuous. Then f bounded, has max and min, i.e. $\exists x_+, x_- \in X$ s.t. $f(x_+) = \sup_{x \in X} f(x)$ and $f(x_-) = \inf_{x \in X} f(x)$

3.3 Partial derivatives

D 3.3.1: $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ **open** if for any $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in X \ \exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $\{y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x_i - y_i| < \delta \ \forall i\}$ is contained in X . (= changing a coordinate of x by $< \delta \rightarrow x' \in X$) **P 3.3.2:** $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open \Leftrightarrow **complement** $Y = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x \notin X\}$ is closed

C 3.3.3: If $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ cont. and $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ open, then $f^{-1}(Y)$ is open in \mathbb{R}^n **Ex 3.3.4:** (1) \emptyset and \mathbb{R}^n are both open and closed. (2) Open ball $D = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x - x_0\| < r\}$ is open in \mathbb{R}^n (x_0 the center and r radius) (3) $I_1 \times \dots \times I_n$ is open in \mathbb{R}^n for I_i open (4) $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open $\Leftrightarrow \forall x \in X \exists \delta > 0$ s.t. open ball of center x and radius δ is contained in X

D 3.3.5: (Partial derivative) Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open, $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then f has partial derivative on X with respect to the i -th variable (or coordinate), if $\forall x_0 = (x_{0,1}, \dots, x_{0,n}) \in X$, $g(t) = f(x_{0,1}, \dots, x_{0,i-1}, t, x_{0,i+1}, x_{0,n})$ on set $I = \{t \in \mathbb{R} : (x_{0,1}, \dots, x_{0,i-1}, t, x_{0,i+1}, \dots, x_{0,n}) \in X\}$ is differentiable at $t = x_{0,i}$. The derivative $g'(x_{0,i})$ at $x_{0,i}$ is denoted: $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x_0)$, $\partial_{x_i} f(x_0)$ or $\partial_i f(x_0)$

P 3.3.7: Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open, $f, g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then: (1) If f & g have ∂_i on X , then so does $f + g$ and $\partial_{x_i}(f + g) = \partial_{x_i}(f) + \partial_{x_i}(g)$ (2) If $m = 1$ (i.e. \mathbb{R}^1) and f & g have ∂_i on X , then so does fg and $\partial_{x_i}(fg) = \partial_{x_i}(f)g + f\partial_{x_i}(g)$ and if $g(x) \neq 0 \ \forall x \in X$, then if $f \div g$ has ∂_i on X , then so does $f \div g$ and $\partial_{x_i}(f \div g) = (\partial_{x_i}(f)g - f\partial_{x_i}(g)) \div g^2$

D 3.3.8: (Jacobi Matrix J) Element $J_{i,j} = \partial_{x_j} f_i(x)$ for function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ with $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open. x_j is the j -th variable, f_i is the i -th component of the equation (i.e. in the vector of the function). J has m rows and n columns.

D 3.3.10: (Gradient, Divergence) for $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open, the **gradient** is given by $\nabla f(x_0) = \begin{pmatrix} \partial_{x_1} f(x_0) \\ \vdots \\ \partial_{x_n} f(x_0) \end{pmatrix}$ and the trace of the Jacobi Matrix, $\text{div}(f)(x_0) = \text{Tr}(J_f(x_0)) = \sum_{i=1}^n \partial_{x_i} f_i(x_0)$ is called the **divergence** of f at x_0 .

3.4 The differential

D 3.4.2: (*Differentiable function*) We have function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, linear map $u : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and $x_0 \in X$. f is differentiable at x_0 with differential u if $\lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow x_0 \\ x \neq x_0}} \frac{1}{\|x - x_0\|} (f(x) - f(x_0) - u(x - x_0)) = 0$ where the limit is in \mathbb{R}^m . We denote $df(x_0) = u$. If f is differentiable at every $x_0 \in X$, then f is differentiable on X .

- f is continuous on X
- f admits partial derivatives on X with respect to each variable
- Assume $m = 1$, let $x_0 \in X$ and let $u(x_1, \dots, x_n) = a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_n$ be diff. of f at x_0 . Then $\partial_{x_i} f(x_0) = a_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$

P 3.4.6: Let $f, g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ with $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open

- The function $f + g$ is differentiable with differential $df + dg$. If $m = 1$, then fg is differentiable
- If $m = 1$ and if $g(x) \neq 0 \forall x \in X$, then $f \div g$ is differentiable

P 3.4.7: If f as above has all partial derivatives on X and if they are all continuous on X , then f is differentiable on X . The differential is the Jacobi Matrix of f at x_0 . This implies that most elementary functions are differentiable.

P 3.4.8: (*Chain Rule*) For $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ both open and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ are both differentiable. Then $g \circ f$ is differentiable on X and for any $x \in X$, its differential is given by $d(g \circ f)(x_0) = dg(f(x_0)) \circ df(x_0)$. The Jacobi matrix is $J_{g \circ f}(x_0) = J_g(f(x_0)) J_f(x_0)$ (RHS is a matrix product)

D 3.4.11: (*Tangent space*) The graph of the affine linear approximation $g(x) = f(x_0) + u(x - x_0)$, or the set

$$\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m : y = f(x_0) + u(x - x_0)\}$$

D 3.4.13: (*Directional derivative*) f has a directional derivative $w \in \mathbb{R}^m$ in the direction of $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, if the function g defined on the set $I = \{t \in \mathbb{R} : x_0 + tv \in X\}$ by $g(t) = f(x_0 + tv)$ has a derivative at $t = 0$ and is equal to w . **R 3.4.14:** Because X is open, the set I contains an open interval $]-\delta, \delta[$ for some $\delta > 0$. **P 3.4.15:** Let f as previously be differentiable. Then for any $x \in X$ and non-zero $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, f has a directional derivative at x_0 in the direction of v , given by $df(x_0)(v)$. **R 3.4.16:** The values of the above directional derivative are linear with respect to the vector v . Suppose we know the dir. der. w_1 and w_2 in directions v_1 and v_2 , then the directional derivative in direction $v_1 + v_2$ is $w_1 + w_2$

3.5 Higher derivatives

D 3.5.1: f is in class C^1 if f is differentiable and all its partial derivatives are continuous. f is of class C^k if it is differentiable and each of its partial derivatives are in C^{k-1} . If $f \in C^k(X; \mathbb{R}^m)$ for all $k \geq 1$, then $f \in C^\infty(X; \mathbb{R}^m)$

P 3.5.4: (*Mixed derivatives commute*) $\partial_{x,y} f = \partial_{y,x} f$, as well as $\partial_{x,y,z} = \partial_{x,z,y} = \dots$, etc (all mixed derivatives commute) Since we have symmetry, we can use the notation $\partial_{x_1^{m_1}, \dots, x_n^{m_n}} f = \frac{\partial^k}{\partial x^m} f = D^m f = \partial^m f$, where $m = (m_1, \dots, m_n)$ and $m_1 + \dots + m_n = k$. There are $\binom{n+k-1}{k}$ possible values for m and e.g. $(1, 1, 2)$ corresponds to the derivative $\frac{\partial^4 f}{\partial x \partial y \partial^2 z}$

R 3.5.6: Due to linearity of the partial derivative $\partial_x^m (af_1 + bf_2) = a\partial_x^m f_1 + b\partial_x^m f_2$

Ex 3.5.8: (*Laplace operator*) $f \in C^2(X)$, $\nabla f \in C_1(X; \mathbb{R}^n)$, so $\operatorname{div}(\nabla f) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i^2}$ (called **Laplacian**, Δf)

D 3.5.9: (*Hessian*) $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ in C^2 . For $x \in X$, the **Hessian matrix** of f at x is the symmetric square matrix

$$\operatorname{Hess} f(x) = (\partial_{x_i, x_j} f)_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} = H_f(x) \quad (i\text{-th row, } j\text{-th column})$$

3.6 Change of variable

The idea is to substitute variables for others that make the equation easier to solve. A common example is to switch to polar coordinates from cartesian coordinates, as already demonstrated with continuity checks

3.7 Taylor polynomials

D 3.7.1: (*Taylor polynomials*) Let $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $f \in C^k(X, \mathbb{R})$ and $y \in X$. The Taylor-Polynomial of order k of f at y is:

$$T_k f(y; x - y) = \sum_{|i| \leq k} \frac{\partial_i f(y)(x - y)^i}{i!}$$

where i is a *multi-index*, so:

- $i = (i_1, \dots, i_n)$ (each $i_j \geq 0$)
- $|i| = i_1 + \dots + i_n$
- $\partial_i = \partial_1^{i_1} \dots \partial_n^{i_n}$
- $(x - y)^i = (x_1 - y_1)^{i_1} \dots (x_n - y_n)^{i_n}$
- $i! = i_1! \dots i_n!$

The concept this formula uses is that we iterate through all possible partial derivatives of f and assigns each a multi-index i . To denote that we want to take the partial derivative ∂_{112} , we use $i = (2, 1, 0)$, since we take the derivative of the first variable twice, of the second variable once and never of the third variable. So the expression is thus now:

$$\frac{\partial_{112} f(y)(x_1 - y_1)^2 (x_2 - y_2)^1 (x_3 - y_3)^0}{2!1!0!} = \frac{\partial_{112} f(y)(x_1 - y_1)^2 (x_2 - y_2)^1}{2}$$

3.8 Critical points

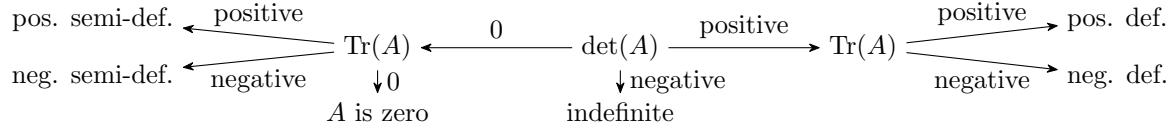
D 3.8.2: (*Critical Point*) For $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ differentiable, $x_0 \in X$ is called a ***critical point*** of f if $\nabla f(x_0) = 0$ **R 3.8.3:** As in 1 dimensional case, check edges of the interval for the critical point.

To determine the kind of critical point, we need to determine if $H_f(x_0)$ is definite:

- positive definite $\Rightarrow x_0$ local max
- negative definite $\Rightarrow x_0$ local min
- indefinite $\Rightarrow x_0$ point of inflection

D 3.8.6: (*Non-degenerate critical point*) If $\det(H_f(x_0)) \neq 0$ (if $H_f(x_0)$ is semi-definite, then $\det(H_f(x_0)) = 0$, thus degenerate) To figure out if a matrix is definite, we can compute the eigenvalues. A is positive (negative) definite, if and only if all eigenvalues are greater (lower) than 0. A is indefinite if and only if it has both positive and negative eigenvalues. A is positive (negative) semi-definite if and only if all eigenvalues are greater (lower) or equal to 0. (Compute Eigenvalues using $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$)

For 2×2 matrices, we can use the following scheme:



4 Integral Calculus in Vector Space

- 4.1 Line integrals
- 4.2 Riemann integral in Vector Space
- 4.3 Improper integrals
- 4.4 Change of Variable Formula
- 4.5 The Green Formula