Post Calculus

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2021-2022

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1 Linear Algebra

§1.1 Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

Definition 1.1.1. A homogeneous linear system is one where Ax = 0.

The trivial solution is when $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. Non-trivial solutions exist iff $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 0$.

Theorem 1.1.2

Let $\mathbf A$ be a square matrix.

$$\mathbf{A}\overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}} = \lambda \overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}}$$

if and only if $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}}$ is an eigenvector and λ is an eigenvalue.

We notice that

$$\mathbf{A}\overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}} = \lambda \overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}} \implies \mathbf{A}\overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}} = \lambda \mathbf{I}\overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}}$$

$$\implies \overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}} (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\implies \det (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0.$$

The result above is known as the **characteristeric equation**.

Example 1.1.3

Let

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -4 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A.

We first notice that $\det (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0$. Meaning that

$$\det\left(\begin{bmatrix} -\lambda & 1\\ -4 & -\lambda \end{bmatrix}\right) = 0,$$

implying that $\lambda^2 + 4 = 0$. Thus, $\lambda = \pm 2i$. For $\lambda_1 = 2i$, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2i & 1 \\ -4 & -2i \end{bmatrix} \overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}} = \mathbf{0}.$$

By gaussian elimination we arrive at the first eigenvector

$$\overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}_1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2i \end{pmatrix}$$
.

Similarly

$$\overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2i \end{pmatrix}$$

for $\lambda_2 = -2i$.

§1.2 Diagonalization

For $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$, assume \mathbf{A} has a basis of eigenvectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$, with corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$, and let the matrix

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{x}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

be a transformation matix. Let

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{y}'$$
 and $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{x}'$.

We can then write a new linear system relating y' and x', giving

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{P}\mathbf{y}' &= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{x}' \implies \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{x}' \\ &\implies \mathbf{y}' = \left(\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}\right)\mathbf{x}', \end{split}$$

where $\mathbf{D} = (\mathbf{P^{-1}AP})$ is a diagonal matrix such that the diagonals turn out to be the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} .

Remark 1.2.1. In order to find the diagonalization matrix, begin by finding the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $\bf A$. Then find $\bf P$ from the eigenvectors. The diagonalization matrix follows.

Example 1.2.2

Diagonalize

$$\begin{bmatrix} 7/4 & -\sqrt{3}/4 \\ -\sqrt{3}/4 & 5/4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

§1.3 Rotating Conics

Let Q be a quadratic form such that

$$Q = ax_1^2 + (b+c)x_1x_2 + dx_2^2.$$

We can express this as

$$Q = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

where

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}.$$

We can convert the quadratic form to the canonical form by using the diagonalized matrix of \mathbf{A} :

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} x_1' & x_2' \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{D} \begin{bmatrix} x_1' \\ x_2' \end{bmatrix}.$$

Additionally, note that the transformation matrix is the rotation matrix, meaning that

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos x & -\sin x \\ \sin x & \cos x \end{bmatrix}.$$

Theorem 1.3.1

Let Q_n be a quadratic form with n dimensions and C_n the corresponding canonical form. Then, for an $n \times n$ matrix **A** and its diagonalized matrix **D**,

$$Q_n = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix},$$

$$C_n = \begin{bmatrix} x'_1 & x'_2 & \cdots & x'_n \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{D} \begin{bmatrix} x'_1 \\ x'_2 \\ \vdots \\ x'_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$C_n = \begin{bmatrix} x'_1 & x'_2 & \cdots & x'_n \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{D} \begin{bmatrix} x'_1 \\ x'_2 \\ \vdots \\ x'_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

If any linear terms are present, they can be expressed as the product of the coefficient matrix and the matrix with each variable. So,

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Exercise 1.3.2.

§1.4 Week 3

§1.4.1 Partial Derivatives

Let $f(x, y, z) = 2x^2 + 3y^2 + z^2$. Partial derivatives treat the other variables as constants. Thus,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 4x, \ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 6y, \ \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = 2.$$

Definition 1.4.1. The **gradient vector** for a function f is

$$\nabla f(p) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(p) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(p) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Definition 1.4.2. The **Hessian Matrix** is

$$\mathbf{H}_{f} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{1}^{2}} & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{n}} \\ \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{2} \partial x_{1}} & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{2}^{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{2} \partial x_{n}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{n} \partial x_{1}} & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{n} \partial x_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{n}^{2}} \end{bmatrix},$$

Theorem 1.4.3 (Schwarz's Theorem)

For a function $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ defined on a set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, if $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a point such that some neighborhood of \mathbf{p} is contained in Ω and f has continuous second partial derivatives at the point \mathbf{p} , then $\forall i, j \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} f(\mathbf{p}) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} f(\mathbf{p}).$$

Proof. The proof is left as a search on wikipedia :p.

Example 1.4.4

Find the gradient and hessian matrix of $f(x, y, z) = 2x^2 + 3y^2 + z^2$.

Proof. We find that

$$\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4x \\ 6y \\ 2z \end{bmatrix}$$

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and

$$\mathbf{H}_f = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example 1.4.5

Find the gradient and hessian matrix of $f(x,y) = x^2 - 3xy + y^2$.

Proof. We find that

$$\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x - 3y \\ 2y - 3x \end{bmatrix},$$
$$\mathbf{H}_f = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example 1.4.6

Find the gradient and hessian matrix $f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = 9x_1^2 + 7x_2^2 + 3x_3^2 - 2x_1x_2 + 4x_1x_3 - 6x_2x_3$.

Proof. We find that

$$\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix} 18x_1 - 2x_2 + 4x_3 \\ -2x_1 + 14x_2 - 6x_3 \\ 4x_1 - 6x_2 + 6x_3 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{H}_f = \begin{bmatrix} 18 & -2 & 4 \\ -2 & 14 & -6 \\ 4 & -6 & 6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example 1.4.7

Let x be a function of t. Find $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \dot{x}}$, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \ddot{x}}$, and $\frac{df}{dt}$.

Theorem 1.4.8 (Generalized Chain Rule)

Let $w = f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_m)$ be a differentiable function of m independent variables, and for each $i \in \{1, ..., m\}$, let $x_i = x_i(t_1, t_2, ..., t_n)$ be a differentiable function of n independent variables. Then

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial t_j} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t_j} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t_j} + \dots + \frac{\partial w}{\partial x_m} \frac{\partial x_m}{\partial t_j}$$

for any $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$.

Proof. Deez nutz

§1.4.2 Tangent Planes

We proceed by finding the equation of the tangent plane to $x^2 - y^2 - z^2 = 1$ at (1,0,0). To begin, we find the gradient of $f(x,y,z) = x^2 - y^2 - z^2$ to be

$$\nabla f(1,0,0) = \begin{bmatrix} 2\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then, the "point-slope" form of a plane is

$$m_x(x-x_1) + m_y(y-y_1) + m_z(z-z_1) = 0.$$

Thus, we obtain the following tangent plane for our scenario: 2(x-1)=0.

§1.4.3 Unconstrained Optimization

Definition 1.4.9. A **stationary point** is a critical point in higher dimensions. They can be found from the solution to the system of equations that results from letting the gradient equal zero.

Definition 1.4.10. A hessian is called **positive definite** if all the eigenvalues are positive.

Definition 1.4.11. A hessian is called **negative definite** if all the eigenvalues are negative.

Definition 1.4.12. A hessian is called **positive semidefinite** if all the eigenvalues are nonnegative and there exists at least one eigenvalue that is 0.

Definition 1.4.13. A hessian is called **negative semidefinite** if all the eignevalues are nonpositive and there exists at least one eigen value that is 0.

Definition 1.4.14. A point is a **saddle point** if the hessian has negative and positive eigenvalues.

As an alternative to the second derivative test in determining if a critical point is a max , min or an inflection point, the **hessian** will be used to determine if a stationary point is a max, min or inflection point.

Theorem 1.4.15 (Second Partial Derivative Test)

We can determine if the hessian is "positive" or "negative" by taking a look at its eigen values. Let \mathbf{H}_f be the hessian for f, a differentiable function of n independent variables. Also, let $\Lambda = \{\lambda_i | 1 \le i \le n\}$ be the set of the eigenvalues of \mathbf{H}_f . If all elements in Λ are positive, then the hessian is called **positive definite**, giving a minimum. If all elements in Λ are negative, then the hessian is called **negative definite**, giving a maximum. If $\lambda_i \ge 0$, \mathbf{H}_f is called **positive semidefinite**. If $\lambda_i \le 0$, \mathbf{H}_f is called **negative semidefinite**. If one eigenvalue is positive and one eigenvalue is negative, we have a **saddle point**.

Example 1.4.16

Find the critical points of $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - 2x_1x_2 + 4x_2^2$.

Proof. We begin by finding the gradient of f. This is

$$\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 - 2x_2 \\ -2x_1 + 8x_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Setting the gradient to zero, we get the following system of equations:

$$2x_1 - 2x_2 = 0$$
$$-2x_1 + 8x_2 = 0.$$

This gives $(x_1, x_2) = (0, 0)$. They hessian, \mathbf{H}_f of f is

$$\mathbf{H}_f = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since the eigen values of this hessian are both positive, we have a minimum.

Example 1.4.17

Find the critical points of $f(x_1, x_2) = -x_1^2 + 2x_1x_2 + 3x_2^2 + 8x_1$.

Proof. We begin by finding the gradient of f. This is

$$\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix} -2x_1 + 2x_2 + 8 \\ 2x_1 + 6x_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Setting the gradient to zero, we get the following system of equations:

$$-2x_1 + 2x_2 = -8$$
$$2x_1 + 6x_2 = 0.$$

Solving gives $(x_1, x_2) = (-3, 1)$. The hessian, \mathbf{H}_f , of f is

$$\mathbf{H}_f = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since one of the eignevalues of this hessian is positive and the other is negative, we have a saddle point. \Box

Example 1.4.18

Find the critical points of $f(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 - x_2^2)(x_1 - 3x_2^2)$.

Proof. To begin, we distribute to get $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - 4x_1x_2^2 + 3x_2^4$. The gradient of f is then

$$\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 - 4x_2^2 \\ -8x_1x_2 + 12x_2^3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Setting the gradient to zero and solving the resulting system of equations, we get the following critical point $(x_1, x_2) = (0, 0)$. The hessian of f is

$$\mathbf{H}_f = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -8x_2 \\ -8x_2 & -8x_1 + 36x_2^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since one eigenvalue is positive and the other is equal to 0, the hessian is positive semidefinite.

Example 1.4.19

Kartik and Monica invested \$20,000 in the design and the development of a new product. They can manufacture it for \$2 per unit. They hired marketing consultants to determine the relation between selling price, the amount spent on advertising, and the number of units that would be sold as a result of the first two combined. The company determined that units sold would follow the equation

$$2000 + 4\sqrt{a} - 20p$$
.

Determine the profit that Felicia and Megan will make as a function of the money spent on advertising, a, and the price of the product, p. Maximize that profit.

Proof. We first identify that the revenue gained from sales would be $p(2000 + 4\sqrt{a} - 20p)$. Then, the costs would be $20000 + 2(2000 + 4\sqrt{a} - 20p) + a$. Taking the difference, we get the profit P being

$$P(a,p) = p (2000 + 4\sqrt{a} - 20p) - 20000 - 2 (2000 + 4\sqrt{a} - 20p) - a$$

= 2040p + 4p\sqrt{a} - 20p^2 - 24000 - 8\sqrt{a} - a.

The gradient of P is

$$\nabla P = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2p-4}{\sqrt{a}} - 1 \\ -40p + 4\sqrt{a} + 2040 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Setting the gradient to 0 and solving the resulting system of equations, we get that p = 63.25 and a = 15006.25. The maximum profit is \$\frac{\$40025}{}\$.

§1.4.4 Constrained Optimization

Equality and Inequality constraints

Definition 1.4.20. The Lagrangian is

$$L(x,\lambda) = f(x) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i (b_i - g_i(x)),$$

where $g_i(x)$ are constraints.

Example 1.4.21

Maximize
$$f(x_1, x_2) = 5 - (x_1 - 2)^2 - 2(x_2 - 1)^2$$
 subject to $x_1 + 4x_2 = 3$.

Proof. We get

$$\mathcal{L}(x,\lambda) = f(x_1, x_2) + \lambda(x_1 + 4x_2 - 3)$$

$$= 5 - x_1^2 + 4x_1 - 4 - 2x_2^2 + 4x_2 - 2 + \lambda(x_1 + 4x_2 - 3)$$

$$= -x_1^2 - 2x_2^2 + 4x_1 + 4x_2 - 1 + \lambda(x_1 + 4x_2 - 3)$$

Thus

$$\nabla \mathcal{L} = \begin{bmatrix} -2x_1 + \lambda + 4 \\ -4x_2 + 4\lambda + 4 \\ x_1 + 4x_2 - 3 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

We get $(x_1, x_2, \lambda) = (5/3, 1/3, -2/3)$. Thus our critical point is |(5/3, 1/3, 4)|.

Example 1.4.22

Let the sun be located at the origin of a coordinate plane. How close does Halley's comet come to the sun on its orbit?

$$171.725x^2 + 171.725y^2 + 297.37xy + 557.178x - 557.178y - 562.867 = 0.$$

Proof. We seek to optimize the distance from the comet to the sun. Thus, we seek to optimize $f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$. Optimization with the lagrangian follows, where

$$\mathcal{L} = x^2 + y^2 - \lambda().$$

Example 1.4.23

Example 1.4.23 Minimize
$$L(x) = x_1 e^{-(x_1^2 + x_2^2)} + \frac{x_1^2 + x_2^2}{20}$$
 subject to $f(x) = \frac{x_1 x_2}{2} + (x_1^2 + 2)^2 + (x_1^2 - 2)^2 / 2 - 2 \le 0$.

Proof. We find that

$$\nabla L = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-(x_1^2 + x_2^2)} - 2x_1^2 e^{-(x_1^2 + x_2^2)} + x_1/10 \\ -2x_1x_2 e^{-(x_1^2 + x_2^2)} + x_2/10 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

We find that the critical points are $(-1/2, \sqrt{\ln(10) - 1/4})$ and $(-1/2, -\sqrt{\ln(10) - 1/4})$.