

Calculus III

UT Knoxville, Spring 2023, MATH 341

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February 2, 2023

Contents

1	Introduction	2
2	Three-Dimensional Space	3
2.1	Points	3
2.2	Vectors	4
2.3	Gradient	7
2.4	Projecting Vectors	9
	Index	9

Introduction

Much of our focus will be on Stoke's Theorem.

Three-Dimensional Space

In past math classes, we have been used to dealing in \mathbb{R}^2 where we work with two degrees of freedom: x and y . Now, we will be working in \mathbb{R}^3 with three degrees of freedom: x , y , and z .

2.1 Points

Definition 2.1.1 ► Point

A **point** in \mathbb{R}^n space is an n -tuple that specifies a location in that space.

$$p = (p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Definition 2.1.2 ► Distance

Given two points $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the **distance** between the two points is defined as:

$$d(a, b) := \sqrt{(b_1 - a_1)^2 + \dots + (b_n - a_n)^2}$$

Example 2.1.1 ► Distance Between Points

Find the distance between $p_1 = (-1, -1, 4)$ and $p_2 = (-1, 4, -1)$.

$$\begin{aligned} d(p_1, p_2) &= \sqrt{(-1 - (-1))^2 + (4 - (-1))^2 + (-1 - 1)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{0^2 + 5^2 + (-5)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{50} \end{aligned}$$

Definition 2.1.3 ► Sphere

Given a point $c = (h, k, l) \in \mathbb{R}^3$, a **sphere** is the set of all points $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ that are a distance r from the point $c = (h, k, l)$.

$$(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 + (z - l)^2 = r^2$$

Note that all the points of the sphere are equidistant to the center of the sphere. This means

the sphere is really a hollow shell.

Example 2.1.2 ► Circle

Show that the following quadratic equation represents a circle by rewriting it in standard form. Find the center $c = (h, k)$ and the radius r .

$$x^2 + y^2 + x = 0$$

To solve this, we will have to complete the square:

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 + x + y^2 &= 0 \\ \implies x^2 + x + \frac{1}{4} + y^2 &= \frac{1}{4} \\ \implies \left(x + \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + y^2 &= \frac{1}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Definition 2.1.4 ► Cylinder

Given a planar curve c , the surface in \mathbb{R}^3 defined by all parallel lines crossing the curve c is called a **cylinder**.

Similarly, the set of all points (x, y, z) such that x and y satisfy $(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 = r^2$ forms a circular cylinder. Note that our broad definition of cylinder does not require the cylinder to be circular.

Regarding the quadrants:

$$Q1 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x > 0, y > 0\}$$

$$Q4 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x > 0, y < 0\}$$

2.2 Vectors

Definition 2.2.1 ► Vector

A **vector** is a mathematical object that contains multiple objects of the same type.

$$\vec{v} = \langle v_1, \dots, v_n \rangle \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

As customary in most mathematics textbooks, we will always denote vectors using the little

arrow thing. In the context of three-dimensional space, we will only be working with vectors with three components. In addition, we will think of vectors as having a magnitude and direction.

Definition 2.2.2 ► Scalar Multiplication

Given a vector \vec{v} and scalar k , we define **scalar multiplication** as:

$$k \cdot \vec{v} := \langle kv_1, \dots, kv_n \rangle$$

Note that scalar multiplication is associative, commutative, and distributive.

- $a(b\vec{v}) = b(a(\vec{v})) = (ab)\vec{v}$
- $(k_1 + k_2)\vec{v} = k_1\vec{v} + k_2\vec{v}$
- $k(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = k\vec{v} + k\vec{w}$

Definition 2.2.3 ► Norm

A vector's **norm** is its magnitude or length.

$$\|\vec{v}\| := \sqrt{v_1^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$$

Definition 2.2.4 ► Unit Vector

A **unit vector** is a vector whose magnitude is 1.

We will introduce shorthand notation for the three standard unit vectors:

- $\hat{i} := \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle$
- $\hat{j} := \langle 0, 1, 0 \rangle$
- $\hat{k} := \langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle$

These three vectors form the **standard basis** for \mathbb{R}^3 . That is, we can express any vector in \mathbb{R}^3 as a linear combination of $\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$.

Technique 2.2.1 ► Finding a Unit Vector from a Given Vector

Given a vector $\vec{v} = \langle x, y, z \rangle \in \mathbb{R}^3$, we can find the **unit vector** \vec{u} with the same direction

by:

$$\vec{u} = \frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|} = \left\langle \frac{x}{\|\vec{v}\|}, \frac{y}{\|\vec{v}\|}, \frac{z}{\|\vec{v}\|} \right\rangle$$

Definition 2.2.5 ► Dot Product

Given two vectors \vec{a} and \vec{b} whose cardinality are both n , we define the **dot product** of \vec{a} and \vec{b} as:

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} := a_1 b_1 + \cdots + a_n b_n$$

Like scalar multiplication, dot product is also associative, commutative, and distributive.

Theorem 2.2.1 ► Angle Between Vectors

If \vec{a} and \vec{b} are vectors and θ is the angle between \vec{a} and \vec{b} , then:

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cdot \cos(\theta)$$

Proof. TODO: finish proof

□

Definition 2.2.6 ► Parallel, Perpendicular

- Two vectors are **parallel** if the angle between the vectors is 0 deg.
- Two vectors are **perpendicular** if the angle between the vectors is 90 deg.

Definition 2.2.7 ► Orthogonal

\vec{a} and \vec{b} are **orthogonal** if $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$.

Given a vector $\vec{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$, we have:

$$\frac{\vec{a}}{\|\vec{a}\|} = \langle \cos \alpha, \cos \beta, \cos \gamma \rangle$$

where:

- $\alpha = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{a_1}{\|\vec{a}\|} \right)$ (angle between \vec{a} and the x-axis)
- $\beta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{a_2}{\|\vec{a}\|} \right)$ (angle between \vec{a} and the y-axis)
- $\gamma = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{a_3}{\|\vec{a}\|} \right)$ (angle between \vec{a} and the z-axis)

Definition 2.2.8 ► Work

If F is a force moving a particle from a point p to a point q , the **work** performed by the force is given by:

$$W = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{PQ}$$

Example 2.2.1 ► Finding Work

Find the work done by a force $\vec{F} = \langle 3, 4, 5 \rangle$ in moving an object from $p = (2, 1, 0)$ to $q = (4, 6, 2)$.

First, we find \vec{pq} as such:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{pq} &= \langle 4 - 2, 6 - 1, 2 - 0 \rangle \\ &= \langle 2, 5, 2 \rangle\end{aligned}$$

Then, we can find work:

$$\begin{aligned}W &= \vec{F} \cdot \vec{PQ} \\ &= \langle 3, 4, 5 \rangle \cdot \langle 2, 5, 2 \rangle \\ &= 6 + 20 + 10 \\ &= 36\end{aligned}$$

2.3 Gradient

Definition 2.3.1 ► Gradient**Example 2.3.1 ► Gradient**

$$f(T, L, \rho) = \frac{1}{2L} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\rho}}$$

The gradient of $f(T, L, P)$ is denoted

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla f(T, L, \rho) &= \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial T}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial L}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial \rho} \right\rangle \\ &= \left\langle \frac{1}{4L\sqrt{T\rho}}, -\frac{1}{2L^2}\sqrt{\frac{T}{\rho}}, -\frac{1}{4L}\sqrt{\frac{T}{\rho^3}} \right\rangle\end{aligned}$$

We can then calculate gradient as such:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla f(2, 1, 1) &= \left\langle \frac{1}{4(1)\sqrt{(2)(1)}}, -\frac{1}{2(1)}\sqrt{\frac{2}{1}}, -\frac{1}{(4)(1)}\sqrt{\frac{2}{1}} \right\rangle \\ &= \left\langle \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{4} \right\rangle\end{aligned}$$

Definition 2.3.2 ► Directional Derivative

The **directional derivative** of $f(x, y, z)$ in the direction of \vec{u} is defined as:

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) \cdot \vec{u}$$

The dot product of the gradient $\nabla f(x, y, z)$ with a unit vector $\frac{\vec{a}}{\|\vec{a}\|}$

Example 2.3.2 ► Directional Derivative

If $f(x, y, z) = xy^2z^5$, find the directional derivative of $f(x, y, z)$ at the point $(1, 0, -2)$ in the direction of the unit vector $\vec{u} = \frac{\vec{a}}{\|\vec{a}\|}$, $\vec{a} = \langle 1, 2, -2 \rangle$.

For this, we calculate $\nabla f(1, 0, -1)$, then calculate the dot product of $\nabla f(1, 0, -1)$ with the unit vector $\vec{u} = \langle 1/3, 2/3, -2/3 \rangle$. Thus, the directional derivative of $f(x, y, z)$ at $(1, 0, -1)$ denoted by $Df(1, 0, -1)$ in the direction of \vec{u} is:

$$\begin{aligned}Df(1, 0, -1) &= \nabla f(1, 2, -2) \cdot \vec{u} \\ &= \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right\rangle \cdot \vec{u} \\ &= \langle 0, 0, 0 \rangle \cdot \left\langle \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{2}{3} \right\rangle \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

2.4 Projecting Vectors

Definition 2.4.1 ► Vector Projection

Given \vec{a} and \vec{b} that are non-zero vectors, the *vector projection* of \vec{b} over the vector \vec{a} is denoted by:

Index

Definitions

2.1.1 Point	3
2.1.2 Distance	3
2.1.3 Sphere	3
2.1.4 Cylinder	4
2.2.1 Vector	4
2.2.2 Scalar Multiplication	5
2.2.3 Norm	5
2.2.4 Unit Vector	5
2.2.5 Dot Product	6
2.2.6 Parallel, Perpendicular	6
2.2.7 Orthogonal	6
2.2.8 Work	7
2.3.1 Gradient	7
2.3.2 Directional Derivative	8
2.4.1 Vector Projection	9

Examples

2.1.1 Distance Between Points	3
2.1.2 Circle	4
2.2.1 Finding Work	7
2.3.1 Gradient	7
2.3.2 Directional Derivative	8

Techniques

2.2.1 Finding a Unit Vector from a Given Vector	5
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Theorems

2.2.1 Angle Between Vectors	6
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