Multivariable Calculus

Vectors & Matrices

Vectors

Dot Product

Also called scalar product or inner product.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2\\3\\5 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 7\\8\\9 \end{pmatrix} = (2)(7) + (3)(8) + (5)(9)$$
vector
$$= 14 + 24 + 45$$

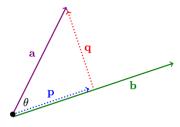
$$= 83.$$

- Important case: $a \cdot a = |a|^2$
- (Geometric interpretation) If θ is the angle between nonzero vector a and b, then

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta.$$

• $a \cdot b = 0 \Leftrightarrow \text{Vectors } a \text{ and } b \text{ are }$ perpendicular

Scalar Component of a in the direction of b



$$\operatorname{comp}_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{b}|} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{b}|}.$$

Matrices

Determinant

To each square matrix A is associated a number called its determinant.

$$det(a) = a$$

 $=\pm$ length of segment in the real line R determined by a

$$det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = ad - bc$$

= \pm area of parallelogram in R^2 formed by $\langle a, c \rangle$ and $\langle b, d \rangle$

$$det \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{pmatrix} = a_1b_2c_3 + a_2b_3c_1 \\ & + a_3b_1c_2 - c_1b_2a_3 - c_2b_3a_1 \\ & - c_2b_1a_2$$

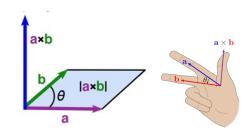
= \pm volume of parallelepiped in R^3 formed by $\langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$, $\langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$ and $\langle c_1, c_2, c_3 \rangle$

Geometrically, the factor by which a linear transformation changes in any area.

Cross Product

Defined only in \mathbb{R}^3 . **a x b** is:

- perpendicular to a and b
- with length equal the area of the parallelogram formed by a and b (|a||b|sin θ)
- The direction is given by the right-hand rule.



It is calculated as follows.

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} := \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1 & \mathbf{e}_2 & \mathbf{e}_3 \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}$$
$$:= + \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & a_3 \\ b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1 - \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{e}_2 + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{e}_3$$
$$= \langle a_2b_3 - a_3b_2, \quad a_3b_1 - a_1b_3, \quad a_1b_2 - a_2b_1 \rangle$$

Matrices as Linear Transformations

1-Dimension

Given a number, say 3, we get a function

$$x \longmapsto 3x$$

Higher dimension

Given the 2×3 matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$, we get a function

$$\mathbf{f} \colon \mathbb{R}^3 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$\mathbf{x} \longmapsto \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 2 & 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}$$

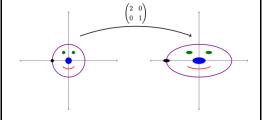
$$\mathbf{f} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6x + 7y + 8z \\ 2x + 3y + 5z \end{pmatrix}.$$

In general, an $m \times n$ matrix A gives rise to a function

$$\mathbf{f} \colon \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

 $f: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$\mathbf{x} \longmapsto A\mathbf{x}$$



area scaling factor = $|\det A|$.

Systems of Equations

To solve 3x = 5, multiply both sides by 3^{-1} .

Similarly, one way to solve

$$2x_1 + 3x_2 = 4$$

$$4x_1 + 5x_2 = 6,$$

is to rewrite as

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix},$$

which has the shape $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, and left multiply both sides by A^{-1} to get $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$.

Inverse

The inverse of a square matrix A is another matrix A^{-1} , such that

$$AA^{-1} = I$$
 and $A^{-1}A = I$.

It exists if and only if $det(A) \neq 0$; in that case, A is called invertible, or nonsingular.

Equation of Planes

The set of all vectors perpendicular to (1,2,3) is a plane with equation

$$\langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle \cdot \langle x, y, z \rangle = 0,$$

Which is

$$x + 2y + 3z = 0.$$

The vector $\mathbf{n} \coloneqq \langle 1,2,3 \rangle$ is called a **normal vector** to the plane.

Linear Algebra

Parametric Lines & Curves

There are two ways to describes lines in \mathbb{R}^3 :

- Intersection of two planes
- Parametric equations

Think of the trajectory of an airplane moving at constant velocity. Let r_0 be the position vector of the airplane at time t=0. Let v be the velocity.

$$r(t) \coloneqq r_0 + tv$$

Partial Differentiation

Definition

The partial derivative of a function f(x, y) with respect to x is a function $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ (also written as f_x) whose value at (x_0, y_0) is:

- The rate of change of f(x, y) when x is varying near $x = x_0$ and y is held constant at the value y_0 , or:
- More precisely,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) \coloneqq \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h, y_0) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h}$$

Linear Approximation

Question: How do you approximate f(x) for $x := x_0 + \Delta x$?

1-Variable

$$f(x_0 + \Delta x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0) \Delta x$$
starting value adjustment

2-Variables

$$f(x_0 + \Delta x, y_0 + \Delta y) \approx f(x_0, y_0) + \frac{1}{\text{starting value}} + \frac{$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)_0 \Delta x + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)_0 \Delta y .$$
djustment from Δx adjustment from Δy

Max/Min Problem

Solving unconstrained max/min problems

Second derivative test

More on Derivatives of Multivariable Function

Differentials

The total differential of f(x, y) is

$$df \coloneqq f_x dx + f_y dy$$

Chain Rule

In single variable calculus:

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{df}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dt}$$

In multi-variable calculus:

$$\frac{df}{dt} = f_x \frac{dx}{dt} + f_y \frac{dy}{dt}$$

Example (polar coordinates)

Find $\frac{df}{dx}$ given

$$f(x,y) = \cos\left(5 \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}\right) + \ln\left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\right)$$

Which is equivalent to

$$f(r, \theta) = \cos(5 \theta) + \ln(r)$$

Because

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$
$$\theta = tan^{-1}\frac{y}{x}$$

Using the chain rule:

$$\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{df}{dr}\frac{dr}{dx} + \frac{df}{d\theta}\frac{d\theta}{dx}$$

$$\frac{df}{dy} = \frac{df}{dr}\frac{dr}{dy} + \frac{df}{d\theta}\frac{d\theta}{dy}$$

Gradient ∇f

The direction of ∇f is the direction in which f is increasing the fastest (perpendicular to level curve/surface)

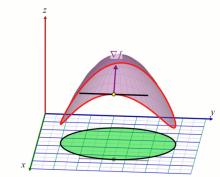
$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}i + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}j + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}k$$

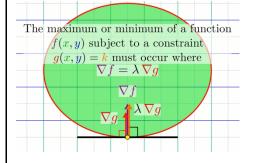
Lagrange Multipliers

A method for finding max/min of f(x, y) when x and y are required to satisfy a constraint g(x, y) = c.

- 1. Compute ∇f and ∇g .
- 2. Solve the system

$$g = c$$
$$\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g$$





Double Integrals & Line Integrals

Integrals

Double Integrals

Let R be a region in \mathbb{R}^2 cut into tiny regions R_1, \ldots, R_n . Choose (x_1, y_1) in $R_1, \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$ in R_n , Then

$$\iint\limits_R f(x,y) \, dA \approx f(x_1,y_1) \operatorname{Area}(R_1) + \cdots$$

 $+ f(x_n, y_n) \operatorname{Area}(R_n).$

<u>Double Integrals as iterated integrals</u> Suppose that R is a rectangle $[a, b] \times$

 $[\,c,d\,]$, then

$$\iint\limits_R f(x,y) dA = \int_{x=a}^{x=b} \left(\int_{y=c}^{y=d} f(x,y) dy \right) dx$$
$$=: \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x,y) dy dx.$$

Applications of Double Integrals

The average value of f(x,y) on a region R

$$\frac{\iint_R f \, dA}{\operatorname{Area}(R)}$$

The mass of a 2-dimensional object is

$$m := \iint\limits_R \underbrace{\delta(x,y) \, dA}_{dm}.$$

The centroid of a 2-dimensional object is the point (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) where

$$\bar{x} := \frac{\iint_R x \, dm}{m} = \frac{\iint_R x \, \delta(x, y) \, dA}{\iint_R \delta(x, y) \, dA}$$
$$\bar{y} := \frac{\iint_R y \, dm}{m} = \frac{\iint_R y \, \delta(x, y) \, dA}{\iint_R \delta(x, y) \, dA}$$

The moment of inertia of an object with respect to an axis measures how difficult it is to rotate it

$$I = \iint_{R} (\text{distance to axis})^2 \, dm.$$

Change of variables

When integrating over a region in the plane, we may want to transform our coordinate system to make the integral easier to compute.

When we change of variables, we are applying a linear transformation to the space and the areas are scaled by a factor that corresponds to the absolute value of the **Jacobian matrix** (J):

$$\left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} \right| = \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} x_u & x_v \\ y_u & y_v \end{pmatrix} \right|.$$

Example (gaussian integral)

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$$

(It's the PDF of the standard normal distribution)

Square it to make a double integral

$$I^{2} = \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}} dx \right) \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^{2}} dy \right)$$

2. Switch to polar coordinates by making the substitution

$$x = r \cos(\theta)$$
$$y = r \sin(\theta)$$

Our integral becomes

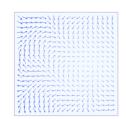
$$I^{2} = \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} e^{-r^{2}} r \, dr \, d\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

And

$$I = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$$

Vector Fields

A vector field is a function whose value at each point of a region is a vector.



$$\mathbf{F} \colon \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$(x,y) \longmapsto \begin{pmatrix} P(x,y) \\ Q(x,y) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= P(x,y)\mathbf{e}_1 + Q(x,y)\mathbf{e}_2$$

Line Integrals

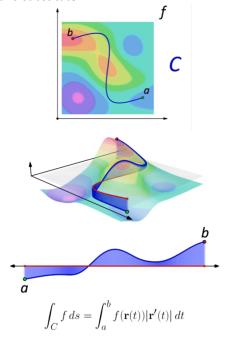
Integral of curve C in vector field F:

$$\int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_a^b \vec{F} \big(x(t), y(t) \big) \cdot \vec{r} \, '(t) \, dt$$
 And also:

$$= \int_C \vec{F} \cdot \hat{T} \ ds$$

Where \widehat{T} is the unit tangent vector and s the arc length.

Evaluate x, y in terms of a single variable and substitute.



Example

Triple Integrals & Surface Integrals