

# Calc in 3d Notes

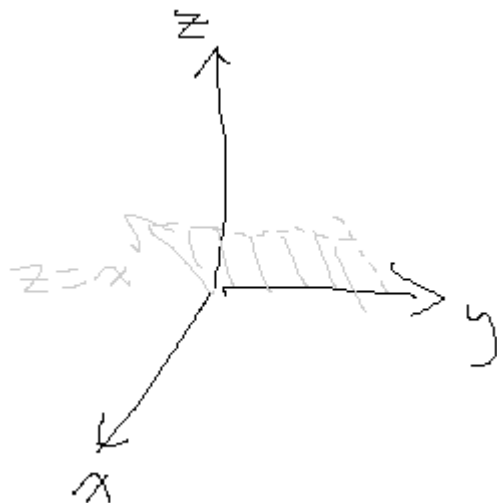
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## Chapter 2: Vectors in Space

### Graphing



*convention*



*sphere:*  $(x - 1)^2 + (y - 2)^2 + (z + 3)^2 = 9$

### The Vector

$$\vec{v} = \langle -3, 4 \rangle \quad \|\vec{v}\| = 5$$

$\theta \approx 127^\circ$

$$\hat{u} = \left\langle -\frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5} \right\rangle$$

- a quantity with a magnitude and direction
- unit vector  $\hat{u} = \frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|}$

## Vector Operations

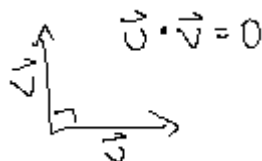
- Addition

- $\vec{a} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle, \vec{b} = \langle 3, 4 \rangle$

- $\vec{a} + \vec{b} = \langle 4, 6 \rangle$

- Dot Product (also 2d!)

- geom.:



$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta$$

- alg.:

$$\vec{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle, \vec{v} = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3 \rangle$$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \sum u_i v_i$$

- $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{v}\|^2$

- two vectors are orthogonal aka  $\perp$  iff their dot product is 0

- $\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|}$  wtf is equation 2.5  
"unique over this range" on abt

- work =  $\vec{F} \cdot \vec{D}$

- comp (scalar projection)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{comp}_{\vec{u}} \vec{v} &= \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta \\ &= \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\|} \end{aligned}$$

- proj (vector projection)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{proj}_{\vec{u}} \vec{v} &= \text{comp}_{\vec{u}} \vec{v} \cdot \frac{\vec{u}}{\|\vec{u}\|} \\ &= \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\|^2} \vec{u} \end{aligned}$$

- Scalar Multiplication

- $\vec{v} = \langle 1, 3 \rangle, c = 2$

- $c\vec{v} = \langle 2, 6 \rangle$

simple inverses for subtraction and scalar division exist.

- Cross Product (3d)

- geom.:



$$\|\vec{u} \times \vec{v}\| = \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \sin \theta$$

- alg.:

$$\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = \det \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

- result is  $\perp$  to both input vectors, direction by right hand rule

- triple scalar product:

$$\vec{u} \cdot (\vec{v} \times \vec{w})$$

$$= (\vec{u} \times \vec{v}) \cdot \vec{w}$$

$$= \det \begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \\ w_1 & w_2 & w_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

- if  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$  are the sides of a parallelogram, then its area is  $\|\vec{u} \times \vec{v}\|$

- if a parallelepiped has edges  $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w}$ , its volume is the absolute value of its triple scalar product

- torque =  $\vec{\tau} = \vec{r} \times \vec{F}$

## Lines

### (1) Vector Equation Form

$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}_0 + t\vec{v}$$

$$\text{eg } \langle x, y, z \rangle = \langle 1, 2, -5 \rangle + t \langle 3, -4, -1 \rangle$$

### (2) Parametric Equation Form

$$x = 1 + 3t$$

$$y = 2 - 4t$$

$$z = -5 - t$$

### (3) Symmetric Equation Form

solve for  $t$

$$\frac{x-1}{3} = \frac{y-2}{-4} = \frac{z+5}{-1}$$

### (4) Edge Case: 0-component

Let a line be defined by the point and vector  $(1, -2, 6)$  and  $\langle 3, 7, 0 \rangle$ . We say the line is:

$$\frac{x-1}{3} = \frac{y+2}{7}, z = 6$$

- point to line distance: use parallelogram area trick

## Planes

### (1) Vector Equation Form

$$(\vec{r} - \vec{r}_0) \cdot \vec{n} = 0$$

$$\text{eg } (\langle x, y, z \rangle - \langle 1, 0, 1 \rangle) \cdot \langle 1, 2, -3 \rangle = 0$$

### (2) Scalar Equation, "General" Form

$$ax + by + cz + d = 0$$

- point to plane distance: use  $\text{comp}_{\vec{u}} \vec{v}$  trick
- angle between planes: same as angle between their normal vectors

## Quadric Surfaces

- cylinder: 3d shape consisting of all parallel lines (eg  $y = 3x^2$ )
- see `quadric_surfaces.pdf`

## Chapter 3: Vector-Valued Functions

### Vector-Valued Function

$$\vec{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle, i < t < j$$

### Unit Circle Parameterization

temp

### Limits of VVFs

- pass them into the vec. pretty intuitive
- a VVF  $\vec{r}(a)$  is cont. at  $a$  iff  $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \vec{r}(t) = \vec{r}(a)$  (and both are defined)

### Calc with VVFs

- derivatives are intuitive. use the corresponding dot/cross/scalar in deriving  $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}$
- unit tangent vector is the derivative's unit vector
- integrals are intuitive. consider constant vector  $C$  instead of scalar constant

Consult exam 1 cheatsheet for notes on the rest of the chapter

## Chapter 4: Differentiation

### Functions of Multiple Variables

- domain: analyze what values are invalid
- range: image of domain
- level planes/level surfaces/contour maps: setting the function to some constant and drawing out the resulting shape

### Limits and Continuity

- limit rules are identical to 2d, including
- limits must be unique. ie, the  $\delta$  disk around a point must only contain one value. (disprove limit by finding different values through different “paths” to the limit)
- as in 2d,  $f(x, y)$  is continuous at  $(a, b)$  iff

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y) = f(a, b)$$

with both defined.

- sum, product, comp of cont functions: cont

### Partial Derivatives

- slope of line in a direction, at a point
- Limit definition:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h, y) - f(x, y)}{h}$$

- four second order partials exist

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right] = f_{xx} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right] = f_{yx} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right] = f_{xy} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right] = f_{yy} \end{aligned}$$

- Clairaut's Thrm: if  $f_{xy}$  and  $f_{yx}$  are cont near a point, they are equal

### Tangent Planes

- if all tangent lines to a point are in the same plane, call that the tangent plane
  - (not true if there is a point)
  - maybe theres a correlation somewhere with differentiability? (p393)

- the tangent plane to  $z = f(x, y)$  at  $(a, b)$  is

$$z = f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b)$$

- find an approx at  $(a, b)$  via the linear approximation plane  $L(x, y) = \text{RHS}$  (above)
- a function is differentiable at  $(a, b)$  iff

$$f(x, y) = \text{RHS} + E(x, y)$$

where the error term  $E$  satisfies

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} \frac{E(x, y)}{\sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2}} = 0.$$

alternatively, if  $f$ ,  $f_x$ , and  $f_y$  exist near  $(a, b)$  and are cont. at  $(a, b)$ , then  $f$  is differentiable there.

- let  $z = f(x, y)$  with  $(a, b)$  in the domain of  $f$ , and let  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  be chosen such that  $(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y)$  is also in the domain of  $f$ . then

$$dx = \Delta x$$

$$dy = \Delta y$$

$$dz = f_x(a, b)dx + f_y(a, b)dy.$$

$dx$  and  $dy$  are differentials,  $dz$  the “total differential,” and we estimate error with it. notice the similarity to the tangent plane equation.

## The Chain Rule

- consider

$$w = f(x, y, z)$$

$$x = x(t, u, v)$$

$$y = y(t, u, v)$$

$$z = z(t, u, v)$$



then,

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial t}.$$

others are left as an exercise to the reader.

## Implicit Differentiation

- consider  $x^2 + 3y^2 + 4y - 4 = 0$ .  
to find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ , we may implicitly differentiate  
this by taking  $\frac{d}{dx}$  of both sides and solving.  
but we may also define

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + 3y^2 + 4y - 4, f(x, y) = 0.$$

with this in mind, suppose  $f(x, y) = 0$ .  
then,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{\partial f / \partial x}{\partial f / \partial y}$$

and if  $f(x, y, z) = 0$ ,

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial f / \partial x}{\partial f / \partial z}, \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial f / \partial y}{\partial f / \partial z}.$$

these can be derived from the chain rule.

## Directional Derivatives and the Gradient

- the directional derivative of  $f(x, y)$  in the direction  $\hat{u} = \langle \cos \theta, \sin \theta \rangle$  is

$$D_{\hat{u}}f(a, b) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h \cos \theta, b + h \sin \theta) - f(a, b)}{h}$$

alternatively, if the partials exist,

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\hat{u}}f(x, y) &= f_x(x, y) \cos \theta + f_y(x, y) \sin \theta \\ &= \langle f_x(x, y), f_y(x, y) \rangle \cdot \hat{u} \\ &= \nabla f(x, y) \cdot \hat{u}. \end{aligned}$$

- $\nabla f(x, y)$  is called the gradient and points toward the greatest increase of a function. it's perpendicular to the graph's level curves (if the partials are cont. near the points)
- suppose  $z = f(x, y)$  diffbl at  $(a, b)$ .
  - if  $\nabla f(a, b) = \vec{0}$ , then  $D_{\hat{u}}f(a, b) = 0$  for any  $\hat{u}$
  - if  $\nabla f(a, b) \neq \vec{0}$ , then  $D_{\hat{u}}f(a, b)$  is max when  $\hat{u}$  is in the same direction as  $\nabla f(a, b)$ .  
max of  $D_{\hat{u}}f(a, b)$  is  $\|\nabla f(a, b)\|$
  - if  $\nabla f(a, b) \neq \vec{0}$ , then  $D_{\hat{u}}f(a, b)$  is min when  $\hat{u}$  is in the opposite direction as  $\nabla f(a, b)$ .  
min of  $D_{\hat{u}}f(a, b)$  is  $-\|\nabla f(a, b)\|$
- yes, these work for multivar funcs.

## Finding Maxima/Minima

- like 2d, critical points  $(a, b)$  exist iff
  - $f_x(a, b) = f_y(a, b) = 0$
  - or the partials there don't exist
- local extrema are crit points
- Second Derivative Test (for 3d calc)  
let  $z = f(x, y)$  where the first and second order partials are cont near a point  $(a, b)$

$$D = f_{xx}(a, b)f_{yy}(a, b) - (f_{xy}(a, b))^2$$

- $D > 0$  and  $f_{xx}(a, b) > 0$   
 $\Rightarrow f$  has a local min at  $(a, b)$
- $D > 0$  and  $f_{xx}(a, b) < 0$   
 $\Rightarrow f$  has a local max at  $(a, b)$
- $D < 0$   
 $\Rightarrow f$  has a saddle point at  $(a, b)$
- $D = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow$  the test is inconclusive
- to find local extrema:
  1. find crit points. discard if a partial DNE
  2. find discriminant  $D$  for each point
  3. apply 2nd derivative test
- Extreme Value Theorem  
a cont function on a closed and bounded set has an abs min and abs max in the set
- the abs max and abs min will be either at a critical point or on a boundry
- to analyze the boundry, consider parameterizing line segments/ellipses or using Lagrange multipliers

## Lagrange Multipliers

- Theory: consider an objective function and a constraint function. when they are tangent, their gradients must be in the same direction. so, we say they are different by  $\lambda$ , the Lagrange multiplier.
- Let  $f(x, y)$  and  $g(x, y)$  have cont partials along  $g(x, y) = 0$ . if  $f$  has a local extrema on  $g(x, y) = 0$  at  $(a, b)$  and  $\nabla g(a, b) \neq 0$ , then

$$\nabla f(a, b) = \lambda \nabla g(a, b)$$

- to use  $\lambda$  (yes,  $f$  and  $g$  may be fn of 3 vars):
  1. find the objective function  $f(x, y)$ , constraint function  $g(x, y)$ .
  2. solve for  $a$  and  $b$  using
 
$$\nabla f(a, b) = \lambda \nabla g(a, b)$$

$$g(a, b) = 0$$
  3. largest value of  $f$  will be largest among all  $f(a, b)$  found. similar for smallest.

- alternatively, with two constraints:  
let obj fn be  $w = f(x, y, z)$ , and constraint fns  $g(x, y, z) = 0$ ,  $h(x, y, z) = 0$ . solve for

$$\nabla f(a, b, c) = \lambda_1 \nabla g(a, b, c) + \lambda_2 \nabla h(a, b, c)$$

$$g(a, b, c) = 0$$

$$h(a, b, c) = 0.$$

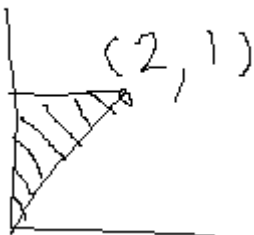
## TODO CLOSED/OPEN SETS AND STUFF

- $S$  is called an open set if every point of  $S$  is an interior point.
- $S$  is called a closed set if it contains all its boundary points.

## Chapter 5: Multiple Integration

### Double Integration

- Consider



- its area via a double integral:

$$\int_{x=0}^{x=2} \int_{y=\frac{1}{2}x}^2 1 dy dx.$$

- notice the order of bounds variables.
- to change order of integration, graph the region to get the bounds ( $x=$ ,  $y=$ ) correct
- for improper integrals that come from unbounded functions, adapting the above is fine.
- but for improper integrals that come from unbounded regions, consider  $\iint xy e^{-x^2-y^2} dA$  for the first quadrant. then we set up and solve

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{(b,d) \rightarrow (\infty, \infty)} \int_0^b \int_0^d xy e^{-x^2-y^2} dy dx \\ &= \lim_{(b,d) \rightarrow (\infty, \infty)} \int_0^b \int_0^d x e^{-x^2} y e^{-y^2} dy dx \\ &= \lim_{(b,d) \rightarrow (\infty, \infty)} \int_0^b x e^{-x^2} dx \int_0^d y e^{-y^2} dy \\ &= \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \end{aligned}$$

- converting to polar from rectangular? use

$$\begin{aligned} x &= r \cos \theta \\ y &= r \sin \theta \\ dA &= r dr d\theta \end{aligned}$$

### Triple Integration

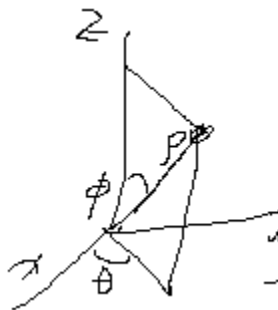
- six orderings exist for bounds. one ex:

$$\begin{aligned} & \iiint_E f(x, y, z) dV \\ &= \int_{x=a}^{x=b} \int_{y=g_1(x)}^{y=g_2(x)} \int_{z=h_1(x,y)}^{z=h_2(x,y)} f(x, y, z) dz dy dx. \end{aligned}$$

- think: fix  $x$  with first bound. now we can use  $x$  in the second bound. etc.
- avg value of  $f$  on region  $E$ :

$$\text{Avg}(f) = \frac{1}{\text{Vol}(E)} \iiint_E f dV$$

- rect to cylindrical? just polar, but keep  $z$ .  $dV = r dz dr d\theta$  is usually best.
- cyl to rect?  $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ ,  $\tan \theta = y/x$ , keep  $z$ . careful:  $\forall \theta, \tan^{-1}(\theta) \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$
- consider spherical:



- rect to spherical:  $\rho^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}$ ,  $\phi = \cos^{-1}(\frac{z}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2+z^2}})$   
 $dV = \rho^2 \sin \phi d\rho d\phi d\theta$  usually best
- cyl to spherical:  $\rho^2 = r^2 + z^2$ ,  $\theta = \theta$ ,  $\phi = \cos^{-1}(\frac{z}{\sqrt{r^2+z^2}})$
- spherical to rect:  $x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta$ ,  $y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta$ ,  $z = \rho \cos \phi$
- spherical to cyl:  $r = \rho \sin \phi$ ,  $\theta = \theta$ ,  $z = \rho \cos \phi$



## Centers of Mass, Moments of Inertia

- consider a lamina (2d object). its center of mass  $P(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  is defined by

$$\bar{x} = \frac{M_y}{m} \text{ and } \bar{y} = \frac{M_x}{m}.$$

(if density is constant,  $P(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  is the centroid.)

- the moments about the  $x$  and  $y$  axes are

$$M_x = \iint_R y \rho(x, y) dA$$

$$M_y = \iint_R x \rho(x, y) dA$$

- the moments of inertia about the axes are

$$I_x = \iint_R y^2 \rho(x, y) dA$$

$$I_y = \iint_R x^2 \rho(x, y) dA$$

and about the origin (the polar m. of i.):

$$I_0 = I_x + I_y = \iint_R (x^2 + y^2) \rho(x, y) dA$$

- also consider:

## Center of Mass and Moments of Inertia in Three Dimensions

Al, the expressions of double integrals discussed so far can be modified to become triple integrals.

### DEFINITION

If we have a solid object  $Q$  with a density function  $\rho(x, y, z)$  at any point  $(x, y, z)$  in space, then its mass is

$$m = \iiint_Q \rho(x, y, z) dV.$$

(the moments about the  $xy$ -plane, the  $xz$ -plane, and the  $yz$ -plane are

$$M_{xy} = \iiint_Q z \rho(x, y, z) dV, \quad M_{xz} = \iiint_Q y \rho(x, y, z) dV,$$

$$M_{yz} = \iiint_Q x \rho(x, y, z) dV.$$

If the center of mass of the object is the point  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$ , then

$$\bar{x} = \frac{M_{yz}}{m}, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{M_{xz}}{m}, \quad \bar{z} = \frac{M_{xy}}{m}.$$

Also, if the solid object is homogeneous (with constant density), then the center of mass becomes the centroid of the solid. Finally, the moments of inertia about the  $yz$ -plane, the  $xz$ -plane, and the  $xy$ -plane are

$$I_x = \iiint_Q (y^2 + z^2) \rho(x, y, z) dV,$$

$$I_y = \iiint_Q (x^2 + z^2) \rho(x, y, z) dV,$$

$$I_z = \iiint_Q (x^2 + y^2) \rho(x, y, z) dV.$$

## Chapter 6: Vector Calc

### Conservative Vector Fields

- a vector field  $\vec{F}$  is a gradient/conservative vec field iff  $\exists f, \nabla f = \vec{F}$ 
  - $f$  is called a potential function
- potential functions are unique to a constant (because they're found sorta with antiderivs??). ie, if  $\nabla f = \nabla g = \vec{F}$ , then  $f = g + C$ .
- to prove a field is not conservative:
  - if  $\vec{F}(x, y) = \langle P(x, y), Q(x, y) \rangle$   
 $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}$ .
  - if  $\vec{F} = \langle P, Q, R \rangle$   
 $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \wedge \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial R}{\partial y} \wedge \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}$
  - use the contrapos.
- to prove it is
  - use the converse of above, only if  $\vec{F}$  is on a open, simply connected region through which the converse holds

### Line Integrals

- scalar line integral (along curve in space)
  - let  $f$  be cont with a domain that includes the smooth curve  $C$  with parameterization  $\vec{r}(t), a \leq t \leq b$ .

$$\int_C f \, ds = \int_a^b f(\vec{r}(t)) \|\vec{r}'(t)\| \, dt.$$

- idc about reparameterization
  - $f = 1$  finds arclen
- vector line integral (along oriented curve)
- find work to move object along curve in a vec field
- flux and circulation of a vec field

## Appendix

Sorted newest first

### centers of mass, moments of inertia

think of moments about axes like how much a lamina wants to rotate about the axis. then the moment / the mass is simply the center of mass. uhh, trust.

and then moments of inertia measure how much objects can resist rotation about axes

### double integral properties

for most properties, just feel it out from single integrals.

but some more esoteric ones (even if in notation only) exist:

- if  $m \leq f(x, y) \leq M$ , then

$$m \times A(R) \leq \iint_R f(x, y) dA \leq M \times A(R).$$

- if  $f(x, y)$  is factorable as a product of  $g(x)$  (of  $x$  only) and  $h(y)$  (of  $y$  only), then over  $R = \{(x, y) \mid a \leq x \leq b, c \leq y \leq d\}$ ,

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \left( \int_a^b g(x) dx \right) \left( \int_c^d h(y) dy \right).$$

I think this is because of that property where you can factor out numbers, applied creatively several times?

### cross/dot products

- see:
  - `media/cross_prod_area_ex.png`
  - `media/scalar_projection_composition_ex.png`
  - `media/scalar_triple_prod_parallelepiped_ex.png`

### matrices, 3x3 determinants

In depth lesson:

- <https://www.mathcentre.ac.uk/resources/uploaded/sigma-matrices9-2009-1.pdf>

Recall that a elements of a matrix are enumerated  $a_{ij}$  where  $i$  is column and  $j$  is row, both 1-indexed.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

Recall that the minor of the matrix element here is the 2 by 2 determinant when you take away the row and column of the element in a 3 by 3 matrix. Picking an arbitrary row (or even column), with  $a_{ij}$  being an element and  $M_{ij}$  being a minor, a 3 by 3 determinant is calculated by

$$\sum_{j=1}^3 (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} M_{ij}$$

In the figure `media/3x3determinant.png`,  $(-1)^{i+j}$  is in green,  $a_{ij}$  in orange, and  $M_{ij}$  in blue.