$110.202 - Calculus \ III$ 

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Section #3

TA: David Li

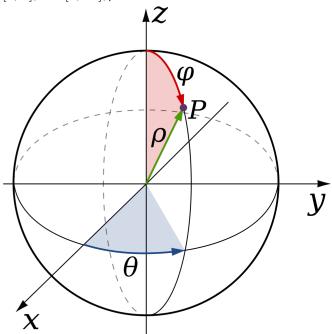
Covered: §1.4, §1.5, §2.1

# 1.4 – Cylindrical and Spherical Coordinates

Example problems: 1, 4, 10a, 14

Cylindrical Coordinates:  $(x, y, z) \mapsto (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta, z)$ . Same as polar coordinates with an extra height component.

Spherical Coordinates:  $(x, y, z) \mapsto (\rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \rho \cos \phi)$ . Here,  $\phi$  is the colatitude (complementary angle to the latitude),  $\theta$  is the longitudinal angle, and  $\rho$  is the radius. As a result,  $\phi \in [0, \pi], \theta \in [0, 2\pi], \rho \ge 0$ .



Using the dot product, we can express  $\phi = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\|v\|}\vec{v}\cdot\hat{k}\right)$ . This is because  $\vec{v}\cdot\hat{k} = \|\vec{v}\|\|\hat{k}\|\cos\phi$  since we define  $\phi$  to be colatitude.

## 1.5 – *n*-Dimensional Euclidean Space

Example problems: 2, 4, 9

#### Vectors

Inner products are the same as dot products in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , same four properties as seen before.

Cauchy-Schwarz still holds. Last time, in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , we used the law of cosines, but there is also an algebraic proof.

**Proof.** Let  $a = \vec{y} \cdot \vec{y}, b = -\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$ . If a = 0, then  $\vec{y} = 0$ , and the inequality holds as usual. So assume  $a \neq 0$ . Then,  $0 \ge (a\vec{x}+b\vec{x}) \cdot (a\vec{x}+b\vec{x}) = a^2\vec{x}\cdot\vec{x}+2ab\vec{x}\cdot\vec{y}+b^2\vec{y}\cdot\vec{y}$ . Then,  $(\vec{y}\cdot\vec{y})^2\vec{x}\cdot\vec{x}-(y\cdot y)(x\cdot y)^2 \ge 0$ . Dividing by  $y \cdot y$  gives  $(x \cdot y)^2 \le (x \cdot x)(y \cdot y)$  and we just take square roots and we're done.

Similarly, triangle inequality still holds in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

#### Matrices

Last time we focused on  $2 \times 2$  and  $3 \times 3$  matrices. You can also have general  $m \times n$  matrices. Recall that m is the number of rows and n is the number of columns in the matrix. You can multiply matrices A, B if A is  $a \times b$  and B is  $c \times d$  as long as b = c. The resulting matrix AB is an  $a \times d$  matrix. Incidentally, this is the first example most people see of noncommutative operations, i.e. those where  $AB \neq BA$ .

In general, an  $m \times n$  matrix M is a function from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . You can see that if you multiply M by a  $n \times 1$  vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  you get a  $m \times 1$  vector in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . In fact, matrix multiplication is a linear transformation. This means  $M(a\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = aM\vec{x} + M\vec{y}$  for any constant a.

If an  $n \times n$  matrix A is invertible, then a matrix  $A^{-1}$  exists such that  $AA^{-1} = I_n$ , where I is the identity matrix. A matrix is invertible if and only if its determinant is not zero, as  $\det(A) = \frac{1}{\det A^{-1}}$ .

## 2.1 – Geometry of Real-Valued Functions

Example problems: 1, 5

Since this hasn't been covered in lecture yet, I'll give a brief overview of the following topics: Graph of a function, Level Sets/Curves/Surfaces, Sections of graphs. I'll be using book examples for them.