For the final exam, do any 12 of the 15 questions in 3 hours. They are worth 8 points each, making 96, with 4 more points for neatness! Put all your work and answers in the provided booklets. To get all 8 points for a question it is very important that you show clearly all your working out and reasoning.

Main Topics:

• Types of derivatives. Let f be a function from Euclidean n-space to Euclidean m-space, ie $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$. For $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ we can write

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = (f_1(\mathbf{x}), f_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_m(\mathbf{x})).$$

(a) Then the *derivative* of f is an $m \times n$ matrix

$$\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

(b) For the case m = n, the *Jacobian* of f at \mathbf{x} is det $\mathbf{D}f(\mathbf{x})$. Other notations for the Jacobian are

$$\frac{\partial(f_1, f_2, \cdots, f_m)}{\partial(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_m)} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_m} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_m} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_m} \end{vmatrix}$$

(c) For m = 1 we have $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ and the derivative becomes a $1 \times n$ matrix. This vector is called the *gradient*:

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}, \cdots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}\right).$$

• Lagrange multipliers. Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ and $g : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ have continuous partial derivatives. To find the maximum and minimum values of $f(\mathbf{x})$ subject to the constraint $g(\mathbf{x}) = k$, solve the system

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda \nabla g(\mathbf{x})$$
$$g(\mathbf{x}) = k.$$

Inverse Function Theorem. Suppose g : ℝ^m → ℝ^m has continuous partial derivatives. If g(y₀) = t₀ and the Jacobian of g at y₀ is not zero then g has an inverse near y₀. This means there is a function h : ℝ^m → ℝ^m so that all solutions to

 $g(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{t}$ with \mathbf{y} near \mathbf{y}_0 and \mathbf{t} near \mathbf{t}_0

are given by $\mathbf{y} = h(\mathbf{t})$.

- **Riemann Sums.** Double integrals $\iint_D f(x, y) dA$ and triple integrals $\iint_B f(x, y, z) dV$ are defined as the limits of double and triple Riemann sums.
- Double integrals.
 - (a) Fubini's Theorem tells us that, if *f* is continuous, a double integral $\iint_D f(x, y) dA$ over a rectangle $D = [a, b] \times [c, d]$ can be evaluated as the iterated integral

$$\int_{a}^{b} \int_{c}^{d} f(x,y) \, dy dx \quad \text{or} \quad \int_{c}^{d} \int_{a}^{b} f(x,y) \, dx dy.$$

- (b) For more complicated **type I** regions we use $\int_a^b \int_{g_1(x)}^{g_2(x)} f(x, y) dy dx$ and for **type** II regions we use $\int_c^d \int_{h_1(y)}^{h_2(y)} f(x, y) dx dy$.
- (c) For a circular region R we change from rectangular coordinates (x,y) to polar (r,θ) with

$$x = r \cos \theta, \qquad y = r \sin \theta, \qquad \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(r, \theta)} = r.$$

If $(x, y) \in R$ corresponds to $(r, \theta) \in S$ then

$$\iint_{R} f(x,y) \, dx \, dy = \iint_{S} f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta) \left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(r,\theta)} \right| \, dr \, d\theta = \iint_{S} f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta) \, r \, dr \, d\theta$$

- Triple integrals.
 - (a) Fubini's Theorem tells us that, if *f* is continuous, a triple integral $\iint_B f(x, y, z) dV$ over a box $B = [a, b] \times [c, d] \times [r, s]$ can be evaluated as the iterated integral

$$\int_{a}^{b} \int_{c}^{d} \int_{r}^{s} f(x, y, z) \, dz dy dx$$

or in any other order of integration.

(b) A **type 1** solid region *E* is one that lies between two graphs $u_1(x, y)$ and $u_2(x, y)$ with $(x, y) \in D$. Then

$$\iiint_E f(x,y,z) \, dV = \iint_D \left[\int_{u_1(x,y)}^{u_2(x,y)} f(x,y,z) \, dz \right] dA$$

and similarly for the other axes x and y.

(c) For a cylindrical solid region E we change from rectangular coordinates (x,y,z) to cylindrical (r,θ,z) with

$$x = r\cos\theta, \qquad y = r\sin\theta, \qquad z = z.$$

with obvious variants if the cylindrical axis is in the x or y direction.

(d) For a spherical solid region *E* we change to spherical coordinates (ρ, θ, ϕ) with

$$x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta$$
, $y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta$, $z = \rho \cos \phi$, $\frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(\rho, \theta, \phi)} = \rho^2 \sin \phi$.

If $(x, y, z) \in E$ corresponds to $(\rho, \theta, \phi) \in S$ then

$$\iiint_E f(x, y, z) \, dx dy dz = \iiint_S f(\rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \rho \cos \phi) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(\rho, \theta, \phi)} \right| \, d\rho d\theta d\phi$$
$$= \iiint_S f(\rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \rho \cos \phi) \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho d\theta d\phi.$$

- Vector Fields.
 - (a) A vector field **F** assigns a vector to each point in space. For example $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = 2\mathbf{i} + xy\mathbf{j}$ is a 2-dimensional field and $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z^2\mathbf{i} 3\mathbf{j} + y/z\mathbf{k}$ is 3-dimensional.
 - (b) If f(x, y, z) is a function then its *gradient vector field* is

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

and a vector field **F** is *conservative* if $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ for some *f* (its potential function).

(c) For a vector field $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$, we define the new vector field

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ P & Q & R \end{vmatrix}$$

and the divergence (a function) div $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}$.

• **Space curves.** Let *C* be a space curve, parameterized by

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t)) \qquad a \leqslant t \leqslant b.$$

The unit (length) tangent vector \mathbf{T} at a point $\mathbf{r}(t)$ on *C* is given by

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} \qquad \text{for} \quad \mathbf{r}'(t) = (x'(t), y'(t), z'(t)).$$

For example the circle of radius *a*, centered at the origin in the *xy*-plane with positive (counter-clockwise) orientation can be parameterized by

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (a\cos t, a\sin t), \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

For another example, the line segment from r_0 to r_1 may be parameterized by

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (1-t)\mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{r}_1, \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1.$$

- Line Integrals. Let *C* be a space curve as above.
 - (a) The *line integral of a function f along C* is

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

(b) The *line integral of a function f along C w.r.t. x* is

$$\int_C f \, dx = \int_a^b f(\mathbf{r}(t)) x'(t) \, dt.$$

and similarly w.r.t. y and z.

(c) The line integral of a vector field **F** along C is

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_a^b \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) \, dt.$$

Note the relations

$$\int_{C} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{T}(t) |\mathbf{r}'(t)| \, dt$$
$$= \int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) \, dt$$
$$= \int_{C} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

and

$$\int_{C} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C} P \, dx + Q \, dy + R \, dz \qquad \text{for} \quad \mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$$

• Fundamental Theorem for Line Integrals. For C a smooth curve (parameterized as above) and *f* with continuous partial derivatives then

$$\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(\mathbf{r}(b)) - f(\mathbf{r}(a)).$$

It follows from this theorem that integrals of conservative vector fields are independent of the path taken between the endpoints. It also follows that the integral of a conservative field around a closed curve is zero.

• Tests for when a vector field is conservative. We can use the following tests. For a 2-dimensional field $\mathbf{F}(x,y) = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j}$ with continuous partial derivatives on a domain $(x, y) \in D$ then

$$\mathbf{F} \text{ conservative } \implies \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \text{ on } D,$$
$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \text{ on } D (D \text{ open, simply connected}) \implies \mathbf{F} \text{ conservative.}$$

0.0

For a 3-dimensional field **F** with continuous partial derivatives on a domain *D* then

F conservative \implies curl **F** = 0 on *D*, curl $\mathbf{F} = 0$ on $D = \mathbb{R}^3 \implies \mathbf{F}$ conservative.

For example, if you compute curl **F** and find it is not zero, then **F** is not conservative. Another way to prove a field is conservative is to try to partially integrate it w.r.t. x, y (and z) to find the potential function f.

• **Parametric Surfaces.** Let *S* be a surface, parameterized by

$$\mathbf{r}(u,v) = (x(u,v), y(u,v), z(u,v)) \qquad (u,v) \in D.$$

The tangent vectors to the surface at the point $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$ are

$$\mathbf{r}_{u} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial u}\mathbf{k},$$
$$\mathbf{r}_{v} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial v}\mathbf{k}.$$

This gives a normal vector $\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v$ to the surface at the point $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$ and the equation of the tangent plane to the surface there is

$$((x, y, z) - \mathbf{r}(u, v)) \cdot (\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v) = 0.$$

We can define the unit normal to S to be

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v}{|\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|}.$$

Changing the sign of n gives the opposite direction for the normal. A surface *S* is called *orientable* if you can choose the normal n so that it varies continuously over *S*. (For example, the Möbius strip is not orientable, but a sphere is.) Every orientable surface has two possible orientations.

- Surface Integrals. Let *S* be a surface parameterized as above.
 - (a) The surface integral of a function f over S is

$$\iint_{S} f \, dS = \iint_{D} f(\mathbf{r}(u, v)) |\mathbf{r}_{u} \times \mathbf{r}_{v}| \, dA.$$

(b) The surface integral of a vector field **F** over an oriented surface S is

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \pm \iint_{D} \mathbf{F} \cdot (\mathbf{r}_{u} \times \mathbf{r}_{v}) \, dA$$

with the sign depending on the choice of orientation. Note the relation

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \iint_{D} \mathbf{F} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{r}_{u} \times \mathbf{r}_{v}}{|\mathbf{r}_{u} \times \mathbf{r}_{v}|} |\mathbf{r}_{u} \times \mathbf{r}_{v}| \, dA$$
$$= \iint_{D} \mathbf{F} \cdot (\mathbf{r}_{u} \times \mathbf{r}_{v}) \, dA$$
$$= \iint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

and this surface integral is also called the flux of \mathbf{F} across S.

• When the surface *S* is a graph. A nice case is when a surface *S* is given by the set of points (x, y, z) where $(x, y) \in D$ and z = g(x, y). We give this surface the upward orientation. Let $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$ be a vector field. You should know how to derive the useful formula

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{D} \left(-P \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} - Q \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} + R \right) dA$$

• **Green's Theorem.** Let *C* be a positively oriented, piecewise-smooth, simple closed curve in the *xy*-plane with *D* the region bounded by *C*. If *P* and *Q* have continuous partial derivatives on an open region containing *D* then

$$\int_{C} P \, dx + Q \, dy = \iint_{D} \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) \, dA$$

• Stokes' Theorem. Let *S* be an oriented piecewise-smooth surface that is bounded by a simple, closed, piecewise-smooth boundary curve *C* with positive orientation. Let **F** be a vector field with continuous partial derivatives on an open region containing *S* then

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

• The Divergence Theorem. Let *E* be a simple solid region and let *S* be the boundary surface of *E* with the outward orientation. Let **F** be a vector field with continuous partial derivatives on an open region containing *E* then

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_{E} \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \, dV$$

- **Theorems.** You should know how to state precisely and apply the following theorems:
 - (i) The Inverse Function Theorem
 - (ii) Fubini's Theorem
 - (iii) The Fundamental Theorem for Line Integrals
 - (iv) Green's Theorem
 - (v) Stokes' Theorem
 - (vi) The Divergence Theorem
- **Measurement.** A nice application of our work is to compute lengths, areas and volumes.

$$\int_{C} 1 \, ds = \text{length of curve } C$$
$$\iint_{D} 1 \, dA = \text{area of flat surface } D$$
$$\iint_{S} 1 \, dS = \text{area of surface } S$$
$$\iint_{B} 1 \, dV = \text{volume of solid } B.$$

We also saw how to compute the area of *D* using a line integral: choose *P* and *Q* so that $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = 1$, for example Q = x and P = 0, then by Green's Theorem

area of flat surface
$$D = \iint_D 1 \, dA = \oint_{\partial D} x \, dy$$
.

- Center of mass. Another application is to find the mass *m* and center of mass ($\overline{x}, \overline{y}$) of an object with possibly varying density.
 - (a) Let a thin wire with linear density $\rho(x, y)$ at each point be shaped like the curve C in the xy-plane. Then

$$m = \int_C \rho(x, y) \, ds, \quad \overline{x} = \frac{1}{m} \int_C x \rho(x, y) \, ds, \quad \overline{y} = \frac{1}{m} \int_C y \rho(x, y) \, ds.$$

(b) Let *D* be a lamina (thin flat shape) in the *xy*-plane with $\rho(x, y)$ giving the mass per area at each point. Then

$$m = \iint_D \rho(x, y) \, dA, \quad \overline{x} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_D x \rho(x, y) \, dA, \quad \overline{y} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_D y \rho(x, y) \, dA.$$

(c) Let a thin sheet be curved like the parametric surface S with $\rho(x,y,z)$ giving the mass per area at each point. Then

$$m = \iint_{S} \rho(x, y, z) \, dS$$

and the center of mass $(\overline{x}, \overline{y}, \overline{z})$ is found by

$$\overline{x} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_{S} x\rho(x, y, z) \, dS, \quad \overline{y} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_{S} y\rho(x, y, z) \, dS, \quad \overline{z} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_{S} z\rho(x, y, z) \, dS.$$