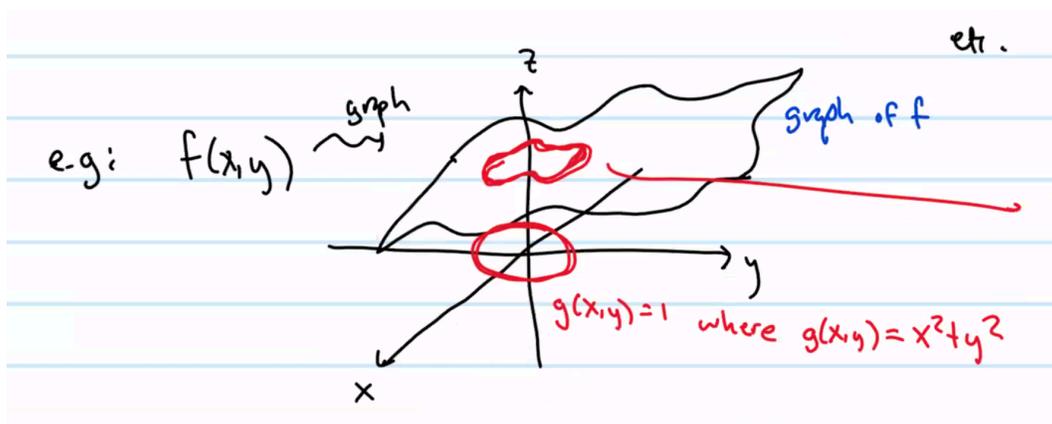


1 Mon 10/12 11.8

11.8 Lagrange Multipliers

General idea: maximize / minimize a scalar-valued function $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ where (x_1, \dots, x_n) are subject to a constraint $g(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = k$ for some constant k . Furthermore, we can impose multiple constraints g_1, g_2, \dots , but then we have to solve more stuff of course.



Finding min/max for $f(x, y)$ restricted to S^1 : the wiggling curve.

One way: analyze the global min and max of $f(x, \sqrt{1-x^2})$ by first analyzing the interior and then the boundary, as what we've done previously. However most of the times this can be very computation-intensive.

The other way, the standard Calc III method: **Lagrange multipliers**.

Theorem 1

If (x, y) is a local min/max for f on all of \mathbb{R}^2 ($f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$), then the gradient vanishes at such point, i.e., $\nabla f(x, y) = 0$.

Similarly, if (x, y) is a local min/max for f restricted to $g(x, y) = k$, a similar logic applies: though $\nabla f(x, y)$ may not be 0, it is "zero modulo $\nabla g(x, y)$ ". Namely, there exists $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

$$\nabla f(x, y) = \lambda \nabla g(x, y).$$

Here the λ is called the **Lagrange Multiplier**.

Remark

But why? If $f(x, y)$ is a min/max for f on all of \mathbb{R}^2 , then the directional derivative $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x, y) = 0$ for all unit vectors \mathbf{u} . Similarly, if (x, y) is a min/max for f restricted to g , then

$D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x, y) = 0$ for all \mathbf{u} tangent to the level set/curve $g(x, y) = k$, i.e., $\perp \nabla g(x, y)$ (recall dot product).

Therefore $\nabla f(x, y)$ is perpendicular to all unit vectors \mathbf{u} that are perpendicular to $\nabla g(x, y)$. Hence $\nabla f(x, y)$ and $\nabla g(x, y)$ are parallel!

Corollary 2

Suppose $f(x, y, z) : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is now imposed with two constraints $g_1(x, y, z) = k_1$, $g_2(x, y, z) = k_2$. Then the newly restricted f attains min/max where

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = \lambda_1 \nabla g_1(x, y, z) + \lambda_2 \nabla g_2(x, y, z) \text{ for some } \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Remark

Think of this as a generalization of the previous example. Here $\nabla f(x, y, z)$ is perpendicular to all the unit vectors \mathbf{u} that are perpendicular to both $\nabla g_1(x, y, z)$ and $\nabla g_2(x, y, z)$. Hence it is parallel to the span of these two gradient vectors.

2 Wed 10/14 12.1

Consider $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ whose graph looks like a surface. The column below the surface bounded by $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is given by

$$\iint_D f(x, y) \, dA.$$

If $D = [a, b] \times [c, d]$, then

$$\iint_D f(x, y) \, dA = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) \, dy \, dx = \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) \, dx \, dy$$

by *Fubini's Theorem*, which we will get to later on.

Example 2.1

Compute

$$\iint_{[1,4] \times [0,2]} (6x^2y - 2x) \, dA$$

as an iterated integral.

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_{[1,4] \times [0,2]} 6x^2y - 2x \, dA &= \int_1^4 \int_0^2 (6x^2y - 2x) \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_1^4 [3x^2y^2 - 2xy]_{y=0}^{y=2} \, dx \\ &= \int_1^4 (12x^2 - 4x) \, dx \\ &= [4x^3 - 2x^2]_{x=1}^{x=4} \\ &= 222. \end{aligned}$$

Triple integral case:

$$\iiint_{[a,b] \times [c,d] \times [e,f]} f(x, y, z) \, dV = \int_a^b \int_c^d \int_e^f f(x, y, z) \, dz \, dy \, dx = \dots \text{ by Fubini.}$$

Likewise for n -fold integrals.

Example 2.2

Compute

$$\iiint_{[0,2] \times [1,3] \times [-1,2]} (x^2yz) \, dV.$$

Solution

$$\begin{aligned}
\iiint_{[0,2] \times [1,3] \times [-1,2]} (x^2 y z) \, dV &= \int_{-1}^2 \int_1^3 \int_0^2 (x^2 y z) \, dx \, dy \, dz \\
&= \int_{-1}^2 \int_1^3 \left[\frac{1}{3} x^3 y z \right]_{x=0}^{x=2} \, dy \, dz \\
&= \int_{-1}^2 \int_1^3 \frac{8}{3} y z \, dy \, dz \\
&= \int_{-1}^2 \left[\frac{4}{3} y^2 z \right]_{y=1}^{y=3} \, dz \\
&= \int_{-1}^2 \left(\frac{32}{3} \right) \, dz \\
&= \left[\frac{16}{3} z^2 \right]_{z=-1}^{z=2} = 16.
\end{aligned}$$

Remark

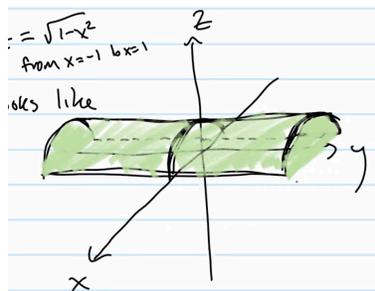
Note that $f(x, y, z) = x^2 y z$ is odd with respect to y or z (for all x, z or for all x, y). If y or z is bounded by $[-x, x]$ then the integral would evaluate to 0.

Example 2.3

Some integrals will be easier to evaluate using geometric interpretation. Consider

$$\iint_{[-1,1] \times [2,-2]} \sqrt{1-x^2} \, dA$$

whose graph looks like $z = \sqrt{1-x^2}$. Then the graph is a half cylinder going along the y -direction.

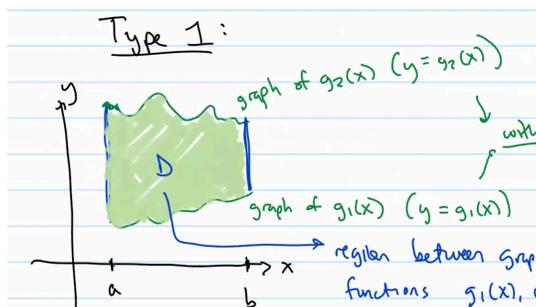


Then the volume is nothing but $4 \cdot \pi/2 = 2\pi$.

3 Fri 10/16 Double Integral over General Shapes

Two kinds of regions:

- (1) “Type 1 regions” are defined as the regions between graphs of continuous functions $g_1(x)$ and $g_2(x)$ on the interval $[a, b]$ where $g_1(x) \leq g_2(x)$ for $x \in [a, b]$.

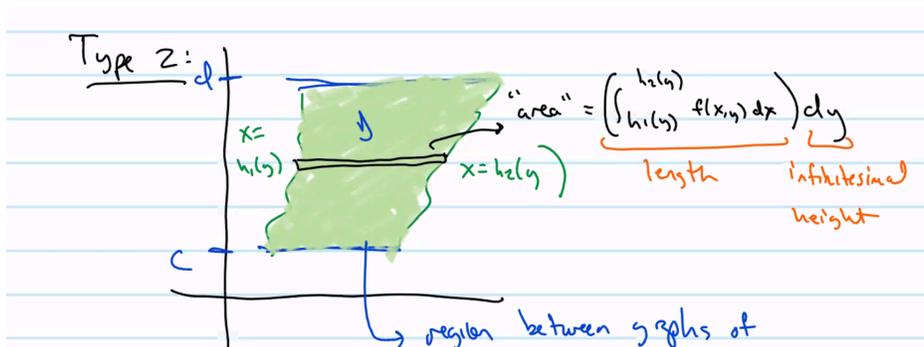


The area can be computed by

$$\iint_D f(x, y) \, dA = \int_a^b \int_{g_1(x)}^{g_2(x)} f(x, y) \, dy \, dx.$$

- (2) “Type 2 regions” are just the horizontal version of type 1 regions; for integral, reverse the integral orders.

Some regions can be both type 1 and type 2, for example a box; some can be neither, for example an annulus. Yet the neither case can be expressed as a union of several type 1/2 regions.



3D analogue: a solid between graphs $z = u_1(x, y)$ and $z = u_2(x, y)$ over some domain D in the xy -plane that we can double-integrate over is called type 1. In this case

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

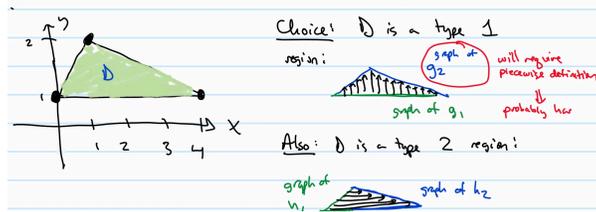
Type 2 solids single out x and type 3 single out y .

Example 3.1

Compute $\iint_D y^2 \, dA$ where D is the triangular region with vertices $(0, 1)$, $(1, 2)$, and $(4, 1)$.

Solution

Start by drawing D .



Setting D as a type 1 region, requires a piecewise function. Then $g_1(x) = 1$ and $g_2(x)$ is defined as

$$g_2(x) := \begin{cases} x + 1 & \text{for } x \in [0, 1] \\ \frac{7}{3} - \frac{x}{3} & \text{for } x \in [1, 4] \end{cases}$$

then

$$V = \int_0^1 \int_1^{x+1} y^2 \, dy \, dx + \int_1^4 \int_1^{(7-x)/3} y^2 \, dy \, dx.$$

Alternatively, we can view D as a type 2 region bounded by $y = 1$ and $y = 2$ in which case we no longer need a piecewise function:

$$V = \int_1^2 \int_{y-1}^{7-3y} y^2 \, dx \, dy$$

4 Mon 10/19

Missed first half of class: can think of area of D as $\iint_D 1 \, dA$ and column of E as $\iiint_E 1 \, dV$.

★ Don't get confused: $\iiint_E f(x,y,z) dV$: a 4-volume.
 - only $\boxed{\iiint_E 1 dV}$ is a (3-)volume.

• e.g. double integral ^{of $f(x,y)$} over a region D doesn't automatically compute the area of D --- only if $f(x,y) = \text{const. fn. } 1$.
 ($f(x,y) = 1$ for all x,y)

Don't forget $f!$

Example 4.1

Compute the volume of the tetrahedron enclosed by the coordinate planes in \mathbb{R}^3 and the plane $2x + y + z = 4$.

Solution

We could view it as volume under the graph $z = f(x,y) = 4 - 2x - y$ over the triangle in the xy -plane. This becomes a double integral.

Alternately, we can also think of this as a triple integral over the volume bounded by $u_1(x,y) = 0$ and $u_2(x,y) = 4 - 2x - y$ and over the triangle bounded by x -axis, y -axis, and $2x + y = 4$. The volume is

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_D \int_0^{4-2x-y} 1 dz dA &= \iint_D 4 - 2x - y dA \\ &= \iint_D 4 - 2x - y dx dy \\ &= \frac{16}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Change of variables

Suppose now we have a new coordinate system (u, v) as opposed to (x, y) where $x = x(u, v)$ and $y = y(u, v)$. Further assume that these functions are invertible. Then $D' = \text{image of } D \text{ under the map sending } (x, y) \mapsto (u(x, y), v(x, y))$.

In 1-D case, we have

$$\int_{[a,b]} f(x) dx = \int_{[c,d]} f(x(u))x'(u) du = \int_{[c,d]} f(u) \frac{dx}{du} du.$$

where $[u(c), u(d)] = [a, b]$. In this case $\frac{dx}{du}$ is the "length-stretching factor". In 2-D and so on, this becomes "local area-stretching factor" and so on.

If we let the transformation be $\phi(u, v) = (x(u, v), y(u, v))$ then the first-order approximation is $J_\phi(u, v)$, which is the image of the unit square under transformation associated with ϕ . This is

$$J_\phi(u, v) = |\det J_\phi(u, v)| = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix}$$

and so

$$\iint_D f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \iint_{D'} f(u, v) |\det J_\phi| \, du \, dv.$$

From later notes:

Based on our lecture, if D' is the image of D under the map f defined by $(x, y) \mapsto (u(x, y), v(x, y))$, and $\varphi(u, v) = (x(u, v), y(u, v))$, then $\varphi^{-1} = f$. Therefore if $D' = f(D)$ we have $\varphi(D') = D$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_D f(x, y) \, dx \, dy &= \iint_{\varphi(D')} f(x, y) \, dx \, dy \\ &= \iint_{\varphi(D')} f(x(u, v), y(u, v)) \underbrace{|J_\varphi(u, v)|}_{\text{stretching factor}} \, dx \, dy \\ &= \iint_{D'} f(x(u, v), y(u, v)) \begin{vmatrix} \partial x / \partial u & \partial x / \partial v \\ \partial y / \partial u & \partial y / \partial v \end{vmatrix} \, du \, dv. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that this is a generalization of

$$\int_{[a,b]} f(x) \, dx = \int_{x^{-1}([a,b])} f(x(u)) \frac{dx}{du} \, du = \int_{[c,d]} f(x(u)) \frac{dx}{du} \, du,$$

where the function $x : [c, d] \rightarrow [a, b]$ and $u = x^{-1} : [a, b] \rightarrow [c, d]$.

5 Wed 10/21

Example 5.1

Consider the annulus described by $\{(x, y) \mid 1 \leq x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$. Then

$$\varphi(r, \theta) : (r, \theta) \mapsto (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$$

is the mapping from (r, θ) coordinate to (x, y) . We have

$$J_\varphi(r, \theta) = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{vmatrix} = r(\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta) = r.$$

This is where we get $dx \, dy \sim r \, dr \, d\theta$.

Example 5.2

Let D be the top half of the disk with radius 5 centered at origin. Compute

$$\iint_D x^2 y \, dx dy$$

Solution

The area corresponds to $r \in [0, 5], \theta \in [0, \pi]$. The integral becomes

$$\iint_D x^2 y \, dA = \iint_{[0, \pi] \times [0, 5]} r \, d(r^2 \cos^2 \theta) (r \sin \theta) r \, d\theta = \text{omitted.}$$

Cylindrical Coordinates

Similar to polar coordinates in 2D but with an extra z coordinate.

$$\varphi(r, \theta, z) \mapsto (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta, z).$$

Here the Jacobian is

$$J_\varphi = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \left| \begin{matrix} \text{top } 2 \times 2 \\ \text{bottom } 1 \times 1 \end{matrix} \right| = r.$$

Hence $dx dy dz \sim r dr d\theta dz$.

Example 5.3

Let E be the solid in the first octant that lies under the paraboloid $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$, Compute $\iiint_E (x + y + z) \, dV$ in cylindrical coordinates.

Solution

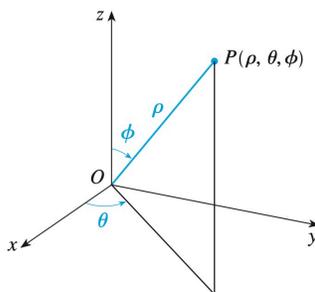
In the first octant, $r \in [0, 2]$, $\theta \in [0, \pi/2]$, $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2 = 4 - r^2$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \iiint_E (x + y + z) \, dV &= \iint_{E'} (r \cos \theta + r \sin \theta + z) \, r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz \\ &= \iint_{D'} \int_0^{4-r^2} (r \cos \theta + r \sin \theta + z) \, dz \, r \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \text{omitted.} \end{aligned}$$

6 Fri 10/23**Spherical Coordinates**

Another system of coordinates: $(x, y, z) \mapsto (\rho, \theta, \phi)$ with $\rho \in [0, \infty)$, $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$, and $\phi \in [0, \pi]$. Special cases, by convention:

- (1) If $\rho = 0$, we define $\theta = \phi = 0$ since this is just the origin.
- (2) If $\rho > 0$ and $\rho = 0$ or π , then $\theta = 0$ by convention since this is a point on the z -axis.



In this system, we define

$$\varphi : \begin{cases} x = (\rho \sin \phi) \cos \theta \\ y = (\rho \cos \phi) \sin \theta \\ z = \rho \cos \phi \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \varphi^{-1} : \begin{cases} \rho = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \\ \theta = \tan^{-1}(y/x) \\ \phi = \tan^{-1}(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}/z) \end{cases}$$

The Jacobian determinant of φ is $\rho^2 \sin \phi$ [omitted, but similar to r for polar coordinates].

Example 6.1

Compute the volume of E , a ball of radius R in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Solution

$$\begin{aligned}\iiint_E 1 \, dV &= \iiint_E 1 \cdot \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho d\theta d\phi \\ &= \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\theta \, d\phi \\ &= \int_0^R \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\phi \, d\theta \, d\rho \\ &= \text{blah blah blah} = \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3.\end{aligned}$$