

Calculus Section III: Multiple Variable and Integral Calculus

Ivan Savic

1 Functions of Several Variables

$$f : A \rightarrow B$$

where:

A : set of elements for which f is defined (its domain)

B : set in which f takes its values (target or target space) image or range

often this is expressed as:

$$f : R^n \rightarrow R^m$$

where:

R^n : n dimensional set of real numbers, where n is the number of **independent** variables

R^m : m dimensional set of real numbers, where m is the number of **dependent** variables

Example 1 *production function*:

input bundle: x_1, x_2, x_3

output bundle: q_1, q_2

the output function is given by the following notations:

$$q = (q_1, q_2) = (f_1(x_1, x_2, x_3), f_2(x_1, x_2, x_3)) \equiv F(x_1, x_2, x_3)$$

$$F = (f_1, f_2)$$

$$F : R^3 \rightarrow R^2$$

Example 2 *investment function*:

$$z = A(1 + \frac{r}{n})^{nt}$$

dependant variable:

z - return on investment

independent variables:

A - initial investment

r - rate or return

n - compounded n times a year

t - number or years till maturity

Thus this function can be expressed as:

$$F : R^4 \rightarrow R^1$$

Example 3 voter utility mapping:

let there be:

m - voters, and

k - candidates

each voter has a preference set over the candidates, $x^i = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$ so that:

$$x = (x_1^1, x_2^1, \dots, x_k^1; x_1^2, x_2^2, \dots, x_k^2; \dots; x_1^m, x_2^m, \dots, x_k^m) \in R^{km}$$

$$U : R^{km} \rightarrow R^m$$

2 Types of Functions

2.1 Linear functions (transformations)

$$f : R^K \rightarrow R^M$$

where:

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

$$f(rx) = rf(x)$$

Let $f : R^K \rightarrow R^1$ be a linear function, then there exists a vector $a \in R^K$ such that $f(x) = ax$ for all $x \in R^K$

i.e.

$$f(x) = a \cdot x = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_kx_k = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \dots & a_k \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_k \end{pmatrix}$$

Let $f : R^K \rightarrow R^M$ be a linear function, then there exists a $m \times k$ matrix A s.t. $f(x) = Ax$ for all $x \in R^K$

$$f(x) = A \cdot x = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mk} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_k \end{pmatrix}$$

2.2 Quadratic forms

A quadratic form on R^k is a real-valued function of the form:

$$q(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \sum_{i,j=1}^k a_{ij}x_i x_j = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & \cdots & x_k \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mk} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_k \end{pmatrix}$$

Example 4

$$Q(x_1, x_2) = a_{11}x_1^2 + a_{12}x_1x_2 + a_{22}x_2^2$$

$$Q(x_1, x_2, x_3) = a_{11}x_1^2 + a_{12}x_1x_2 + a_{13}x_1x_3 + a_{22}x_2^2 + a_{23}x_2x_3 + a_{33}x_3^2$$

2.3 Polynomials

A function $f : R^K \rightarrow R^1$ is a **monomial** if it can be written as

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = c \cdot x_1^{a_1} \cdot x_2^{a_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_k^{a_k}$$

A function $f : R^K \rightarrow R^1$ is a **polynomial** if f is a finiter sum of monomials on R^k . The highest degree which occurs among these monomials is called the degree of the plynomial. A function $f : R^K \rightarrow R^M$ is called a **polynomial** if each of its component functions is a rea-valued polynomial.

$$f(x_1, x_2) = -4x_1^2x_2$$

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = 3x_1^2x_2 + 4x_2x_3^3$$

3 Partial Derivatives

When taking a partial derivative with respect to one independent variable you follow the same rules as taking a linear derivative, you simply treat all other independent variables in the function as if they were constants:

Example 5 $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(3x^2y^3) = 2x \cdot 3y^3 = 6xy^3$

3.1 Notation:

3.1.1 First-order partial derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = f_i = f_{x_i} = D_i f = \partial_{x_i} f$$

3.1.2 Second-order partial derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i^2} = f_{ii} = f_{x_i x_i} = D_{ii} f = \partial_{x_i x_i} f$$

3.1.3 Second-order mixed derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = f_{ij} = f_{x_i x_j} = D_{ij} f = \partial_{x_i x_j} f$$

3.1.4 Higher-order partial and mixed derivatives:

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

4 Antiderivatives and Integration

Antiderivative: $F : F' = f$

Indefinite integral: $F(x) = \int f dx$

4.1 Some examples and properties:

1. $\int a f(x) dx = a \int f(x) dx$ constant factor rule of integration
2. $\int (f + g) dx = \int f dx + \int g dx$ sum rule of integration
3. $\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C, \quad (n \neq -1)$ counterpart to basic derivative
4. $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln x + C$
5. $\int e^x dx = e^x + C$
6. $\int e^{f(x)} f'(x) dx = e^{f(x)} + C$
7. $\int (f(x))^n f'(x) dx = \frac{1}{n+1} (f(x))^{n+1} + C. \quad (n \neq -1)$
8. $\int \frac{1}{f(x)} f'(x) dx = \ln f(x) + C$

$$\int (4x^2 + x^{\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{3}{x}) dx = \frac{4x^3}{3} + \frac{x^{\frac{3}{2}}}{\frac{3}{2}} - 3 \ln x + C = \frac{4}{3} x^3 + \frac{2}{3} x^{\frac{3}{2}} - 3 \ln x + C$$

4.2 Techniques

4.2.1 Linearity of integration:

linearity is a fundamental property of the integral that follows from the sum rule in integration and the constant factor rule in integration

$$\int a f(x) + b g(x) dx = \int a f(x) dx + \int b g(x) dx = a \int f(x) dx + b \int g(x) dx$$

4.2.2 Integration by substitution

This is the counterpart of the **chain rule**.

4.2.3 Integration by parts

This is the counterpart of the **product rule**: $(u \cdot v)' = u'v + uv'$

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du$$

Example 6 $\int \ln(x) dx$

Let:

$$\begin{aligned}u &= \ln(x); \\du &= \frac{1}{x} dx; \\v &= x; \\dv &= 1 \cdot dx\end{aligned}$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned}\int \ln(x) dx &= x \ln(x) - \int x \left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx \\&= x \ln(x) - \int 1 dx \\&= x \ln(x) - x + C\end{aligned}$$

Example 7 $\int x e^{2x} dx$

Let:

$$\begin{aligned}u &= x; \\du &= dx; \\v &= \frac{1}{2} e^{2x}; \\dv &= e^{2x} dx\end{aligned}$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned}\int x e^{2x} dx &= x \cdot \frac{1}{2} e^{2x} - \int \frac{1}{2} e^{2x} dx \\&= \frac{x e^{2x}}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \int e^{2x} dx \\&= \frac{x e^{2x}}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} e^{2x}\right) + C \\&= \frac{x e^{2x}}{2} - \frac{e^{2x}}{4} + C \\&= \frac{2x e^{2x} - e^{2x}}{4} + C \\&= \frac{e^{2x}(2x-1)}{4} + C\end{aligned}$$

4.3 Fundamental theorem of Calculus

definite integral:

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a), \quad \text{where} \quad F' = f$$

To calculate an area under a curve in the interval $[a, b]$ divide the interval into N equal subintervals

$$\text{each} \quad \Delta = \frac{(b-a)}{N}$$

with endpoints: $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

$$x_0 = a$$

$$x_1 = a + \Delta$$

$$x_2 = a + 2\Delta$$

\vdots

$$x_n = a + N\Delta = b$$

summing up these segments we get the **Riemann sum**:

$$f(x_1)(x_1 - x_0) + f(x_2)(x_2 - x_1) + \dots + f(x_n)(x_n - x_{n-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i)\Delta$$

Definition 8 The **fundamental theorem** states that iterating this process using smaller and smaller subintervals, in the limit we obtain the definite integral

$\int_a^b f(x)dx$:

$$\lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i)\Delta = \int_a^b f(x)dx$$