## Review for Exam 1.

- Sections 12.1-12.6.
- 50 minutes.
- 5 or 6 problems, similar to homework problems.
- No calculators, no notes, no books, no phones.
- No green book needed.

Example
Consider the vectors $\mathbf{v}=2 \mathbf{i}-2 \mathbf{j}+\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{i}+2 \mathbf{j}-\mathbf{k}$.

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Solution:

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\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}=\langle 2,-2,1\rangle \cdot\langle 1,2,-1\rangle=2-4-1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}=-3 .
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2. Find the cosine of the angle between $\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{w}$.

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2. Find the cosine of the angle between $\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{w}$.

Solution:

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\begin{aligned}
& |\mathbf{v}|=\sqrt{4+4+1}=3, \quad|\mathbf{w}|=\sqrt{1+4+1}=\sqrt{6} \\
& \cos (\theta)=\frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}}{|\mathbf{v}||\mathbf{w}|}=\frac{-3}{3 \sqrt{6}}
\end{aligned}
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|\mathbf{u}-2 \mathbf{v}|=\sqrt{1+36+1} . \quad \Rightarrow \quad|\mathbf{u}-2 \mathbf{v}|=\sqrt{38}
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Solution:
$\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}=\left|\begin{array}{ccc}\mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 6 & 2 & -3 \\ -2 & 2 & 1\end{array}\right|=(2+6) \mathbf{i}-(6-6) \mathbf{j}+(12+4) \mathbf{k}=\langle 8,0,16\rangle$.

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Since we look for a unit vector, the calculation is simpler with $\langle 1,0,2\rangle$ instead of $\langle 8,0,16\rangle$.

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Since we look for a unit vector, the calculation is simpler with $\langle 1,0,2\rangle$ instead of $\langle 8,0,16\rangle$.

$$
\mathbf{u}=\frac{\langle 1,0,2\rangle}{|\langle 1,0,2\rangle|} \Rightarrow \mathbf{u}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\langle 1,0,2\rangle
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Since $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}=\langle 8,0,16\rangle$, then

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A=8 \sqrt{5} .
\end{gathered}
$$

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$\mathbf{u}=\langle 6,3,-1\rangle, \mathbf{v}=\langle 0,1,2\rangle$, and $\mathbf{w}=\langle 4,-2,5\rangle$.

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\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}=\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
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4 & -2 & 5
\end{array}\right|=\langle(5+4),-(0-8),(0-4)\rangle
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We obtain $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}=\langle 9,8,-4\rangle$.

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Since $V=|\mathbf{u} \cdot(\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w})|$, we obtain $V=82$.

## Example

Does the line given by $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle 0,1,1\rangle+\langle 1,2,3\rangle t$ intersects the plane given by $2 x+y-z=1$ ? If the answer is yes, then find the intersection point.

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Solution: The line with parametric equation

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x=t, \quad y=1+2 t, \quad z=1+3 t
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intersect the plane $2 x+y-z=1$ iff there is a solution $t$ for the equation

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2 t+(1+2 t)-(1+3 t)=1
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There is a solution given by $t=1$. Therefore, the point of intersection has coordinates $x=1, y=3, z=4$, then

$$
P=(1,3,4)
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## Example

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$P_{0}=(1,2,3)$ and the line $x=-2+t, y=t, z=-1+2 t$.

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Solution:

The vector equation of the line is
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A vector tangent to the line, and so to the plane, is $\mathbf{v}=\langle 1,1,2\rangle$.

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A vector tangent to the line, and so to the plane, is $\mathbf{v}=\langle 1,1,2\rangle$. The point $P_{0}=(1,2,3)$ is in the plane. A second point in the plane is any point in the line, for example $P_{1}$ corresponding to the terminal point of $\mathbf{r}(0)=\langle-2,0,-1\rangle$.

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Then a second vector tangent to the plane is $\overrightarrow{P_{1} P_{0}}=\langle 3,2,4\rangle$.

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The vector equation of the line is $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle-2,0,-1\rangle+\langle 1,1,2\rangle t$, and a second vector tangent to the plane is $\overrightarrow{P_{1} P_{0}}=\langle 3,2,4\rangle$.


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The vector equation of the line is
$\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle-2,0,-1\rangle+\langle 1,1,2\rangle t$, and a second vector tangent to the plane is $\overrightarrow{P_{1} P_{0}}=\langle 3,2,4\rangle$.


Then, a normal to the plane is given by

$$
\mathbf{n}=\left|\begin{array}{lll}
\mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\
1 & 1 & 2 \\
3 & 2 & 4
\end{array}\right|=\langle(4-4),-(4-6),(2-3)\rangle \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{n}=\langle 0,2,-1\rangle
$$

So, the equation of the plane is

$$
0(x-1)+2(y-2)-(z-3)=0, \quad \Rightarrow \quad 2 y-z=1
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-1 & -1 & 1
\end{array}\right|=(-2-0) \mathbf{i}-(0-0) \mathbf{j}+(0-2) \mathbf{k},
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that is, $\overrightarrow{P Q} \times \overrightarrow{P R}=\langle-2,0,-2\rangle$. Take $\mathbf{n}=\langle 2,0,2\rangle$.

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With $\mathbf{n}=\langle 2,0,2\rangle$ and a point $R=(0,0,2)$, the equation of the plane is

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2(x-0)+0(y-0)+2(z-2)=0
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2(x-0)+0(y-0)+2(z-2)=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x+z=2
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## Example

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Solution: The plane is parallel to the plane $x-2 y+3 z=1$, so their normal vectors are parallel. We choose $\mathbf{n}=\langle 1,-2,3\rangle$.
We need to find the center of the sphere. We complete squares:

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =x^{2}+2 x+y^{2}+z^{2}-2 z \\
& =\left(x^{2}+2 x+1\right)-1+y^{2}+\left(z^{2}-2 z+1\right)-1=0 \\
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Therefore, the center of the sphere is at $P_{0}=(-1,0,1)$.

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\end{aligned}
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Therefore, the center of the sphere is at $P_{0}=(-1,0,1)$.
The equation of the plane is

$$
(x+1)-2(y-0)+3(z-1)=0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x-2 y+3 z=2
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The normal vectors are $\mathbf{n}=\langle 2,-3,2\rangle, \mathbf{N}=\langle 1,2,2\rangle$.

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Find the angle between the planes $2 x-3 y+2 z=1$ and $x+2 y+2 z=5$.

Solution: The angle between the planes is the angle between their normal vectors.
The normal vectors are $\mathbf{n}=\langle 2,-3,2\rangle, \mathbf{N}=\langle 1,2,2\rangle$.
The cosine of the angle $\theta$ between these vectors is

$$
\cos (\theta)=\frac{\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{N}}{|\mathbf{n}||\mathbf{N}|}
$$

## Example

Find the angle between the planes $2 x-3 y+2 z=1$ and $x+2 y+2 z=5$.

Solution: The angle between the planes is the angle between their normal vectors.
The normal vectors are $\mathbf{n}=\langle 2,-3,2\rangle, \mathbf{N}=\langle 1,2,2\rangle$.
The cosine of the angle $\theta$ between these vectors is

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\cos (\theta)=\frac{\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{N}}{|\mathbf{n}||\mathbf{N}|}
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The angle $\theta$ is $\theta=\pi / 2$.

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\mathbf{v}=\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{N}=\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
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So, $\mathbf{v}=\langle-10,-2,7\rangle$.

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$$
\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle-4,-0,9 / 2\rangle+\langle-10,-2,7\rangle t
$$

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- Definition of vector functions: $\mathbf{r}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$.
- Limits and continuity of vector functions.
- Derivatives and motion.
- Differentiation rules.
- Integrals of vector functions.


## Motion in space motivates to define vector functions.

Definition
A function $\mathbf{r}: l \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$, with $n=2,3$, is called a vector function, where the interval $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ is called the domain of the function.


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Remark: Given Cartesian coordinates in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$, the values of a vector function can be written in components as follows:

$$
\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle x(t), y(t), z(t)\rangle, \quad t \in I,
$$

where $x(t), y(t)$, and $z(t)$ are the values of three scalar functions.

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- There is a natural association between a curve in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and the vector function values $\mathbf{r}(t)$.



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- The independent variable $t$ is called the parameter of the curve.


## Vector functions.

## Example

Graph the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle\cos (t), \sin (t), t\rangle$.

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## Limits and continuity of vector functions.

Definition
The vector function $\mathbf{r}: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$, with $n=2$, 3 , has a limit given by the vector $\mathbf{L}$ when $t$ approaches $t_{0}$, denoted as $\lim _{t \rightarrow t_{0}} \mathbf{r}(t)=\mathbf{L}$, iff the following holds: For every number $\epsilon>0$ there exists a number $\delta>0$ such that

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- That is:
$\lim _{t \rightarrow t_{0}} \mathbf{r}(t)=\left\langle\lim _{t \rightarrow t_{0}} x(t), \lim _{t \rightarrow t_{0}} y(t), \lim _{t \rightarrow t_{0}} z(t)\right\rangle$.
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## Example

Given $\mathbf{r}(t)=\left\langle\cos (t), \sin (t) / t, t^{2}+2\right\rangle$, compute $\lim _{t \rightarrow 0} \mathbf{r}(t)$.
$\lim _{t \rightarrow t_{0}} \mathbf{r}(t)=\left\langle\lim _{t \rightarrow t_{0}} x(t), \lim _{t \rightarrow t_{0}} y(t), \lim _{t \rightarrow t_{0}} z(t)\right\rangle$.

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Notice that the vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is not defined at $t=0$, however its limit at $t=0$ exists.
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Notice that the vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is not defined at $t=0$, however its limit at $t=0$ exists. Indeed,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{t \rightarrow 0} \mathbf{r}(t) & =\lim _{t \rightarrow 0}\left\langle\cos (t), \frac{\sin (t)}{t}, t^{2}+2\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle\lim _{t \rightarrow 0} \cos (t), \lim _{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin (t)}{t}, \lim _{t \rightarrow 0}\left(t^{2}+2\right)\right\rangle \\
& =\langle 1,1,2\rangle
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We conclude that $\lim _{t \rightarrow 0} \mathbf{r}(t)=\langle 1,1,2\rangle$.

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The function $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle\sin (t), t, \cos (t)\rangle$ is continuous for $t \in \mathbb{R} . \quad \triangleleft$

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Remark: Having the idea of limit, one can introduce the idea of a derivative of a vector valued function.

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## Derivatives and motion.

## Definition

The vector function $\mathbf{r}: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$, with $n=2,3$, is differentiable at $t=t_{0}$, denoted as $\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)$ or $\frac{d \mathbf{r}}{d t}$, iff the following limit exists,

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\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t+h)-\mathbf{r}(t)}{h} .
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Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t) & =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t+h)-\mathbf{r}(t)}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0}\left\langle\frac{x(t+h)-x(t)}{h}, \frac{y(t+h)-y(t)}{h}, \frac{z(t+h)-z(t)}{h}\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x(t+h)-x(t)}{h}, \lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{y(t+h)-y(t)}{h}, \lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{z(t+h)-z(t)}{h}\right\rangle \\
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## Geometrical property of the derivative.

Remark: The vector $\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)$ is tangent to the curve given by $\mathbf{r}$ at the point $\mathbf{r}(t)$.


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- The derivative of the velocity function is the acceleration function, $\mathbf{a}(t)=\mathbf{v}^{\prime}(t)=\mathbf{r}^{\prime \prime}(t)$.


## Derivatives and motion.

## Example

Compute the derivative of the position function $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle\cos (t), \sin (t), 0\rangle$. Graph the curve given by $\mathbf{r}$, and explicitly show the position vector $\mathbf{r}(0)$ and velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(0)$.

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## Derivatives and motion.

## Example

Compute the derivative of the position function $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle\cos (t), \sin (t), 0\rangle$. Graph the curve given by $\mathbf{r}$, and explicitly show the position vector $\mathbf{r}(0)$ and velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(0)$.

## Solution:

The derivative of $\mathbf{r}$ is:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbf{v}(t)=\langle-\sin (t), \cos (t), 0\rangle \\
\mathbf{r}(0)=\langle 1,0,0\rangle, \mathbf{v}(0)=\langle 0,1,0\rangle
\end{gathered}
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## Differentiation rules are the same as for scalar functions

## Theorem

If $\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{w}$ are differentiable vector functions, then holds:

- $[\mathbf{v}(t)+\mathbf{w}(t)]^{\prime}=\mathbf{v}^{\prime}(t)+\mathbf{w}^{\prime}(t)$,
(addition);
- $[c \mathbf{v}(t)]^{\prime}=c \mathbf{v}^{\prime}(t)$, (product rule);
- $[\mathbf{v}(f(t))]^{\prime}=\mathbf{v}^{\prime}(f(t)) f^{\prime}(t)$, (chain rule);
- $[f(t) \mathbf{v}(t)]^{\prime}=f^{\prime}(t) \mathbf{v}(t)+f(t) \mathbf{v}^{\prime}(t)$,
(product rule);
- $[\mathbf{v}(t) \cdot \mathbf{w}(t)]^{\prime}=\mathbf{v}^{\prime}(t) \cdot \mathbf{w}(t)+\mathbf{v}(t) \cdot \mathbf{w}^{\prime}(t)$, (dot product);
- $[\mathbf{v}(t) \times \mathbf{w}(t)]^{\prime}=\mathbf{v}^{\prime}(t) \times \mathbf{w}(t)+\mathbf{v}(t) \times \mathbf{w}^{\prime}(t)$, (cross product).


## Higher derivatives can also be computed.

Remark: The $m$-derivative of a vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is denoted as $\mathbf{r}^{(m)}$ and is given by the expression $\mathbf{r}^{(m)}(t)=\left[\mathbf{r}^{(m-1)}(t)\right]^{\prime}$.

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Compute the third derivative of $\mathbf{r}(t)=\left\langle\cos (t), \sin (t), t^{2}+2 t+1\right\rangle$.

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Solution:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t) & =\langle-\sin (t), \cos (t), 2 t+2\rangle, \\
\mathbf{r}^{(2)}(t) & =\left(\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right)^{\prime}=\langle-\cos (t),-\sin (t), 2\rangle, \\
\mathbf{r}^{(3)}(t) & =\left(\mathbf{r}^{(2)}(t)\right)^{\prime}=\langle\sin (t),-\cos (t), 0\rangle .
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\end{aligned}
$$

Recall: If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the position of a particle, then $\mathbf{v}(t)=\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)$ is the velocity and $\mathbf{a}(t)=\mathbf{r}^{(2)}(t)$ is the acceleration of the particle.

## Vector functions (Sect. 13.1).

- Definition of vector functions: $\mathbf{r}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$.
- Limits and continuity of vector functions.
- Derivatives and motion.
- Differentiation rules.
- Integrals of vector functions.


## Integrals of vector functions.

## Definition

The indefinite integral, also called the antiderivative, of a vector function $\mathbf{v}$ is denoted as $\int \mathbf{v}(t) d t$ and given by

$$
\int \mathbf{v}(t) d t=\mathbf{V}(t)+\mathbf{C}
$$

where $\mathbf{V}^{\prime}(t)=\mathbf{v}(t)$ and $\mathbf{C}$ is a constant vector.

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Find the position function $\mathbf{r}$ knowing that the velocity function is $\mathbf{v}(t)=\langle 2 t, \cos (t), \sin (t)\rangle$ and the initial position is $\mathbf{r}(0)=\langle 1,1,1\rangle$.

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Find the position function $\mathbf{r}$ knowing that the velocity function is $\mathbf{v}(t)=\langle 2 t, \cos (t), \sin (t)\rangle$ and the initial position is $\mathbf{r}(0)=\langle 1,1,1\rangle$.
Solution: The position function is the primitive of the velocity function, $\mathbf{r}(t)=\mathbf{V}(t)+\mathbf{C}$, that satisfies the initial condition $\mathbf{r}(0)=\mathbf{V}(0)+\mathbf{C}$. This initial condition fixes the constant vector $\mathbf{C}$.

## Integrals of vector functions.

## Example

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Solution: The position function is a primitive of the velocity,

$$
\mathbf{r}(t)=\mathbf{V}(t)+\mathbf{C}=\left\langle t^{2}, \sin (t),-\cos (t)\right\rangle+\left\langle c_{x}, c_{y}, c_{z}\right\rangle
$$

with $\mathbf{C}=\left\langle c_{x}, c_{y}, c_{z}\right\rangle$ a constant vector.

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$$
\langle 1,1,1\rangle=\mathbf{r}(0)=\mathbf{V}(0)+\mathbf{C}=\langle 0,0,-1\rangle+\left\langle c_{x}, c_{y}, c_{z}\right\rangle
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that is, $c_{x}=1, c_{y}=1, c_{z}=2$.

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The position function is $\mathbf{r}(t)=\left\langle t^{2}+1, \sin (t)+1,-\cos (t)+2\right\rangle . \triangleleft$

## Integrals of vector functions.

## Example

Find the position function of a particle with acceleration $\mathbf{a}(t)=\langle 0,0,-10\rangle$ having an initial velocity $\mathbf{v}(0)=\langle 0,1,1\rangle$ and initial position $\mathbf{r}(0)=\langle 1,0,1\rangle$.

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Solution: The velocity is $\mathbf{v}(t)=\left\langle v_{0 x}, v_{0 y},\left(-10 t+v_{0 z}\right)\right\rangle$.

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\mathbf{v}(t)=\langle 0,1,(-10 t+1)\rangle .
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The position is $\mathbf{r}(t)=\left\langle r_{0 x},\left(t+r_{0 y}\right),\left(-5 t^{2}+t+r_{0 z}\right)\right\rangle$.

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## Integrals of vector functions.

## Definition

If the components of $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{y}(t), \mathbf{z}(t)\rangle$ are integrable functions on the interval $[a, b]$, then the definite integral of $\mathbf{r}$ is given by

$$
\int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{r}(t) d t=\left\langle\int_{a}^{b} x(t) d t, \int_{a}^{b} y(t) d t, \int_{a}^{b} z(t) d t\right\rangle
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Example
Compute $\int_{0}^{\pi} \mathbf{r}(t) d t$ for the function $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle\cos (t), \sin (t), t\rangle$.

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Compute $\int_{0}^{\pi} \mathbf{r}(t) d t$ for the function $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle\cos (t), \sin (t), t\rangle$. Solution:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{0}^{\pi} \mathbf{r}(t) d t & =\int_{0}^{\pi}\langle\cos (t), \sin (t), t\rangle d t \\
& =\left\langle\int_{0}^{\pi} \cos (t) d t, \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin (t) d t, \int_{0}^{\pi} t d t\right\rangle, \\
& =\left\langle\left.\sin (t)\right|_{0} ^{\pi},-\left.\cos (t)\right|_{0} ^{\pi},\left.\frac{t^{2}}{2}\right|_{0} ^{\pi},\right\rangle \\
& =\left\langle 0,2, \frac{\pi^{2}}{2}\right\rangle, \Rightarrow \int_{0}^{\pi} \mathbf{r}(t) d t=\left\langle 0,2, \frac{\pi^{2}}{2}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

## The arc length of a curve in space (Sect. 13.3).

- The arc length of a curve in space.
- The arc length function.
- Parametrizations of a curve.
- The arc length parametrization of a curve.


## The length of a curve is called its arc length.

Definition
The arc length of a continuously differentiable curve $\mathbf{r}:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$, with $\mathrm{n}=2,3$, is the number given by

$$
\ell_{b a}=\int_{a}^{b}\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right| d t
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Remark:

- If the curve $\mathbf{r}$ is the path traveled by a particle in space, then $\mathbf{r}^{\prime}=\mathbf{v}$ is the velocity of the particle.


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Remark:

- If the curve $\mathbf{r}$ is the path traveled by a particle in space, then $\mathbf{r}^{\prime}=\mathbf{v}$ is the velocity of the particle.
- The arc length is the integral in time of the particle speed $|\mathbf{v}(t)|$.


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Remark:

- If the curve $\mathbf{r}$ is the path traveled by a particle in space, then $\mathbf{r}^{\prime}=\mathbf{v}$ is the velocity of the particle.
- The arc length is the integral in time of the particle speed $|\mathbf{v}(t)|$.
- Therefore, the arc length of the curve is the distance traveled by the particle.

The length of a curve is called its arc length.

Recall:
The arc length of a curve $\mathbf{r}:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$

$$
\ell_{b a}=\int_{a}^{b}\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right| d t
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## The length of a curve is called its arc length.

Recall:
The arc length of a curve $\mathbf{r}:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$

$$
\ell_{b a}=\int_{a}^{b}\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right| d t
$$

Remark:


In Cartesian coordinates the functions $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{r}^{\prime}$ are given by

$$
\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle x(t), y(t), z(t)\rangle, \quad \mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)=\left\langle x^{\prime}(t), y^{\prime}(t), z^{\prime}(t)\right\rangle .
$$

## The length of a curve is called its arc length.

Recall:
The arc length of a curve $\mathbf{r}:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$

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$$

Therefore the arc length of the curve is given by the expression

$$
\ell_{b a}=\int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{\left[x^{\prime}(t)\right]^{2}+\left[y^{\prime}(t)\right]^{2}+\left[z^{\prime}(t)\right]^{2}} d t
$$

The arc length of a curve in a plane.

## Example

Find the arc length of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle\cos (t), \sin (t)\rangle$, for $t \in[\pi / 4,3 \pi / 4]$.

## The arc length of a curve in a plane.

## Example

Find the arc length of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle\cos (t), \sin (t)\rangle$, for $t \in[\pi / 4,3 \pi / 4]$.

Solution: The derivative vector function is
$\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)=\langle-\sin (t), \cos (t)\rangle$.

## The arc length of a curve in a plane.

## Example

Find the arc length of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle\cos (t), \sin (t)\rangle$, for $t \in[\pi / 4,3 \pi / 4]$.

Solution: The derivative vector function is $\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)=\langle-\sin (t), \cos (t)\rangle$. The arc length formula is

$$
\begin{aligned}
\ell & =\int_{\pi / 4}^{3 \pi / 4} \sqrt{[-\sin (t)]^{2}+[\cos (t)]^{2}} d t \\
& =\int_{\pi / 4}^{3 \pi / 4} d t \Rightarrow \quad \ell=\frac{\pi}{2}
\end{aligned}
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\end{aligned}
$$

This result is reasonable, since the curve is a circle and we are computing the length of quarter a circle.

The arc length of a curve in a plane.

## Example

Find the arc length of the spiral $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle t \cos (t), t \sin (t)\rangle$, for $t \in\left[0, t_{0}\right]$.

## The arc length of a curve in a plane.

## Example

Find the arc length of the spiral $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle t \cos (t), t \sin (t)\rangle$, for $t \in\left[0, t_{0}\right]$.

Solution: The derivative vector is

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t) & =\langle[-t \sin (t)+\cos (t)],[t \cos (t)+\sin (t)]\rangle \\
\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right|^{2} & =\left[t^{2} \sin ^{2}(t)+\cos ^{2}(t)-2 t \sin (t) \cos (t)\right] \\
& +\left[t^{2} \cos ^{2}(t)+\sin ^{2}(t)+2 t \sin (t) \cos (t)\right]=t^{2}+1
\end{aligned}
$$

## The arc length of a curve in a plane.

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\end{aligned}
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The arc length is $\ell\left(t_{0}\right)=\int_{0}^{t_{0}} \sqrt{1+t^{2}} d t$

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\end{aligned}
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The arc length is $\ell\left(t_{0}\right)=\int_{0}^{t_{0}} \sqrt{1+t^{2}} d t=\left.\ln \left(t+\sqrt{1+t^{2}}\right)\right|_{0} ^{t_{0}}$.

## The arc length of a curve in a plane.

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& +\left[t^{2} \cos ^{2}(t)+\sin ^{2}(t)+2 t \sin (t) \cos (t)\right]=t^{2}+1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The arc length is $\ell\left(t_{0}\right)=\int_{0}^{t_{0}} \sqrt{1+t^{2}} d t=\left.\ln \left(t+\sqrt{1+t^{2}}\right)\right|_{0} ^{t_{0}}$.
We conclude: $\ell\left(t_{0}\right)=\ln \left(t_{0}+\sqrt{1+t_{0}^{2}}\right)$.

The arc length of a curve in space.

## Example

Find the arc length of
$\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle 6 \cos (2 t), 6 \sin (2 t), 5 t\rangle$, for
$t \in[0, \pi]$.


The arc length of a curve in space.

## Example

Find the arc length of
$\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle 6 \cos (2 t), 6 \sin (2 t), 5 t\rangle$, for $t \in[0, \pi]$.


Solution: The derivative vector is

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t) & =\langle-12 \sin (2 t), 12 \cos (2 t), 5\rangle \\
\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right|^{2} & =144\left[\sin ^{2}(2 t)+\cos ^{2}(2 t)\right]+25=169=(13)^{2}
\end{aligned}
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The arc length of a curve in space.

## Example

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The arc length is $\ell=\int_{0}^{\pi} 13 d t=\left.13 t\right|_{0} ^{\pi} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \ell=13 \pi$.

## Idea behind the arc length formula.

The arc length formula can be obtained as a limit procedure One adds up the lengths of a polygonal line that approximates the original curve.


$$
\begin{aligned}
\ell_{N} & =\sum_{n=0}^{N-1}\left|\mathbf{r}\left(t_{n+1}\right)-\mathbf{r}\left(t_{n}\right)\right|, \quad\left\{a=t_{0}, t_{1}, \cdots, t_{N-1}, t_{N}=b\right\} \\
& \simeq \sum_{n=0}^{N-1}\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}\left(t_{n}\right)\right|\left(t_{n+1}-t_{n}\right) \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_{a}^{b}\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right| d t
\end{aligned}
$$

## The arc length of a curve in space (Sect. 13.3).

- The arc length of a curve in space.
- The arc length function.
- Parametrizations of a curve.
- The arc length parametrization of a curve.


## The arc length function.

Definition
function. The arc length function of a continuously differentiable vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is given by

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Remarks:

- The value $\ell(t)$ of the arc length function represents the length along the curve $\mathbf{r}$ from $t_{0}$ to $t$.
- If the function $\mathbf{r}$ is the position of a moving particle as function of time, then the arc length $\ell(t)$ is the distance traveled by the particle from the time $t_{0}$ to $t$.

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Solution: We have found that $\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right|=13$. Therefore,

$$
\ell(t)=\int_{0}^{t} 13 d \tau \quad \Rightarrow \quad \ell(t)=13 t
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## The arc length function.

## Example

Given the position function in time $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle 6 \cos (2 t), 6 \sin (2 t), 5 t\rangle$, find the position vector $\mathbf{r}\left(t_{0}\right)$ located at a length $\ell_{0}=20$ from the initial position $\mathbf{r}(0)$.


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Since $t=\ell / 13$, the time at $\ell=\ell_{0}=20$ is $t_{0}=13 / 20$.

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Solution: We have found that the arc length function for the vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is $\ell(t)=13 t$.
Since $t=\ell / 13$, the time at $\ell=\ell_{0}=20$ is $t_{0}=13 / 20$.
Therefore, the position vector at $\ell_{0}=20$ is given by

$$
\mathbf{r}\left(t_{0}\right)=\langle 6 \cos (13 / 10), 6 \sin (13 / 10), 13 / 4\rangle
$$

## The arc length of a curve in space (Sect. 13.3).

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A curve in space can be represented by different vector functions.

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## Example

The unit circle in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is the curve represented by the following vector functions:

- $\mathbf{r}_{1}(t)=\langle\cos (t), \sin (t)\rangle ;$
- $\mathbf{r}_{2}(t)=\langle\cos (5 t), \sin (5 t)\rangle ;$
- $\mathbf{r}_{3}(t)=\left\langle\cos \left(e^{t}\right), \sin \left(e^{t}\right)\right\rangle$.


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Remark:
The curve in space is the same for all three functions above. The vector $\mathbf{r}$ moves along the curve at different speeds for the different parametrizations.

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Remarks:

- If the vector function $\mathbf{r}$ represents the position in space of a moving particle, then there is a preferred parameter to describe the motion: The time $t$.


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- If the vector function $\mathbf{r}$ represents the position in space of a moving particle, then there is a preferred parameter to describe the motion: The time $t$.
- Another parameter that is useful to describe a moving particle is the distance traveled by the particle, the arc length $\ell$.
- A common problem is the following: Given a vector function parametrized by the time $t$, switch the curve parameter to the arc length $\ell$.
- The problem above is called the arc length parametrization of a curve.


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Given vector function $\mathbf{r}$ in terms of a parameter $t$, find the arc length parametrization of that curve.

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The function values $\mathbf{r}(\ell)$ are the parametrization of the function values $\mathbf{r}(t)$ using the arc length as the new parameter.

The arc length parametrization of a curve.

## Example

Find the arc length parametrization of the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)=\langle 4 \cos (t), 4 \sin (t), 3 t\rangle$ starting at $t=0$.

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Hence, $\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right|^{2}=4^{2} \sin ^{2}(t)+4^{2} \cos ^{2}(t)+3^{2}=16+9=5^{2}$.

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Find the arc length function: $\ell(t)=\int_{0}^{t} 5 d \tau \quad \Rightarrow \quad \ell(t)=5 t$. Invert the equation above: $t=\ell / 5$.
Reparametrize the original curve:

$$
\mathbf{r}(\ell)=\langle 4 \cos (\ell / 5), 4 \sin (\ell / 5), 3 \ell / 5\rangle
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## The arc length parametrization of a curve.

Theorem
A unit tangent vector to a curve given by the vector function values $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is given by $\mathbf{u}(\ell)=\frac{d \mathbf{r}}{d \ell}$, where $\ell$ is the arc length of the curve.

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Given the function values $\mathbf{r}(t)$, let $\mathbf{r}(\ell)$ be the reparametrization of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ with the arc length function $\ell(t)=\int_{t_{0}}^{t}\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(\tau)\right| d \tau$.

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Notice that $\frac{d \ell}{d t}=\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right|$ and $\frac{d t}{d \ell}=\frac{1}{\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right|}$.

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Therefore, $\mathbf{u}(\ell)=\frac{d \mathbf{r}(\ell)}{d \ell}=\frac{d \mathbf{r}(t)}{d t} \frac{d t}{d \ell}=\frac{\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)}{\left|\mathbf{r}^{\prime}(t)\right|}$.

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We conclude that $|\mathbf{u}(\ell)|=1$.

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We can verify that this is a unit vector, since

$$
|\mathbf{u}(\ell)|^{2}=\left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^{2}\left[\sin ^{2}(\ell / 5)+\cos ^{2}(\ell / 5)\right]+\left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^{2} \Rightarrow|\mathbf{u}(\ell)|=1
$$

