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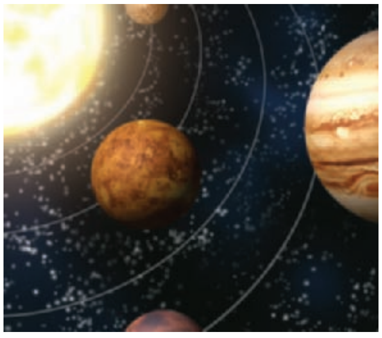

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13 Vector Functions

Kepler's First Law says that the planets revolve around the sun in elliptical orbits. In Section 13.4 you will see how the material of this chapter is used in one of the great achievements of calculus: proving Kepler's Laws.

The functions that we have been using so far have been real-valued functions. We now study functions whose values are vectors because such functions are needed to describe curves and surfaces in space. We will also use vector-valued functions to describe the motion of objects through space. In particular, we will use them to derive Kepler's laws of planetary motion.

13.1 Vector Functions and Space Curves

In general, a function is a rule that assigns to each element in the domain an element in the range. A **vector-valued function**, or **vector function**, is simply a function whose domain is a set of real numbers and whose range is a set of vectors. We are most interested in vector functions $\mathbf{r}$ whose values are three-dimensional vectors. This means that for every number t in the domain of $\mathbf{r}$ there is a unique vector in V_3 denoted by $\mathbf{r}(t)$. If $f(t)$, $g(t)$, and $h(t)$ are the components of the vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$, then f, g, and h are real-valued functions called the **component functions** of $\mathbf{r}$ and we can write

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle = f(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h(t)\,\mathbf{k}$$

We use the letter t to denote the independent variable because it represents time in most applications of vector functions.

EXAMPLE 1 If

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle t^3, \ln(3 - t), \sqrt{t} \right\rangle$$

then the component functions are

$$f(t) = t^3 \qquad g(t) = \ln(3 - t) \qquad h(t) = \sqrt{t}$$

By our usual convention, the domain of $\mathbf{r}$ consists of all values of t for which the expression for $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is defined. The expressions t^3, $\ln(3 - t)$, and $\sqrt{t}$ are all defined when $3 - t > 0$ and $t \geqslant 0$. Therefore the domain of $\mathbf{r}$ is the interval $[0, 3)$.

The **limit** of a vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is defined by taking the limits of its component functions as follows.

If $\lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{L}$, this definition is equivalent to saying that the length and direction of the vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ approach the length and direction of the vector $\mathbf{L}$.

1 If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$, then

$$\lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle \lim_{t\to a} f(t), \lim_{t\to a} g(t), \lim_{t\to a} h(t) \right\rangle$$

provided the limits of the component functions exist.

Equivalently, we could have used an ε-δ definition (see Exercise 51). Limits of vector functions obey the same rules as limits of real-valued functions (see Exercise 49).

EXAMPLE 2 Find $\lim_{t\to 0} \mathbf{r}(t)$, where $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + t^3)\,\mathbf{i} + te^{-t}\,\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{\sin t}{t}\,\mathbf{k}$.

SOLUTION According to Definition 1, the limit of $\mathbf{r}$ is the vector whose components are the limits of the component functions of $\mathbf{r}$:

$$\lim_{t\to 0} \mathbf{r}(t) = \left[\lim_{t\to 0} (1 + t^3)\right]\mathbf{i} + \left[\lim_{t\to 0} te^{-t}\right]\mathbf{j} + \left[\lim_{t\to 0} \frac{\sin t}{t}\right]\mathbf{k}$$

$$= \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{k} \qquad \text{(by Equation 2.4.2)}$$

A vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is **continuous at *a*** if

$$\lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(a)$$

In view of Definition 1, we see that $\mathbf{r}$ is continuous at a if and only if its component functions f, g, and h are continuous at a.

There is a close connection between continuous vector functions and space curves. Suppose that f, g, and h are continuous real-valued functions on an interval I. Then the set C of all points (x, y, z) in space, where

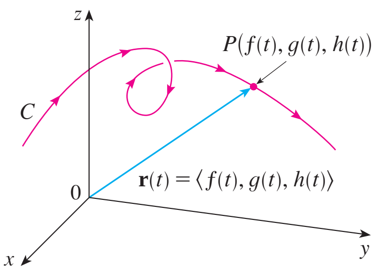


FIGURE 1

C is traced out by the tip of a moving position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

$\boxed{2}$ $$x = f(t) \qquad y = g(t) \qquad z = h(t)$$

and t varies throughout the interval I, is called a **space curve**. The equations in $\boxed{2}$ are called **parametric equations of *C*** and t is called a **parameter**. We can think of C as being traced out by a moving particle whose position at time t is $(f(t), g(t), h(t))$. If we now consider the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$, then $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the position vector of the point $P(f(t), g(t), h(t))$ on C. Thus any continuous vector function $\mathbf{r}$ defines a space curve C that is traced out by the tip of the moving vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$, as shown in Figure 1.

V EXAMPLE 3 Describe the curve defined by the vector function

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 1 + t, 2 + 5t, -1 + 6t \rangle$$

TEC Visual 13.1A shows several curves being traced out by position vectors, including those in Figures 1 and 2.

SOLUTION The corresponding parametric equations are

$$x = 1 + t \qquad y = 2 + 5t \qquad z = -1 + 6t$$

which we recognize from Equations 12.5.2 as parametric equations of a line passing through the point $(1, 2, -1)$ and parallel to the vector $\langle 1, 5, 6 \rangle$. Alternatively, we could observe that the function can be written as $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{v}$, where $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle 1, 2, -1 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle 1, 5, 6 \rangle$, and this is the vector equation of a line as given by Equation 12.5.1.

Plane curves can also be represented in vector notation. For instance, the curve given by the parametric equations $x = t^2 - 2t$ and $y = t + 1$ (see Example 1 in Section 10.1) could also be described by the vector equation

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2 - 2t, t + 1 \rangle = (t^2 - 2t)\,\mathbf{i} + (t + 1)\,\mathbf{j}$$

where $\mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1 \rangle$.

V EXAMPLE 4 Sketch the curve whose vector equation is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$$

SOLUTION The parametric equations for this curve are

$$x = \cos t \qquad y = \sin t \qquad z = t$$

Since $x^2 + y^2 = \cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$, the curve must lie on the circular cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. The point (x, y, z) lies directly above the point $(x, y, 0)$, which moves counterclockwise around the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ in the xy-plane. (The projection of the curve onto the xy-plane has vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos t, \sin t, 0 \rangle$. See Example 2 in Section 10.1.) Since $z = t$, the curve spirals upward around the cylinder as t increases. The curve, shown in Figure 2, is called a **helix**.

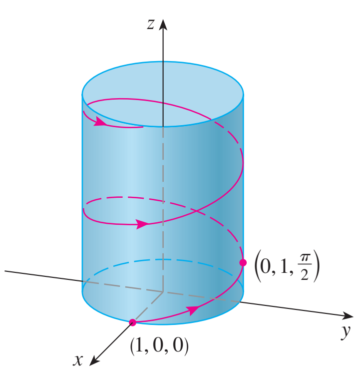


FIGURE 2

FIGURE 3
A double helix

The corkscrew shape of the helix in Example 4 is familiar from its occurrence in coiled springs. It also occurs in the model of DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid, the genetic material of living cells). In 1953 James Watson and Francis Crick showed that the structure of the DNA molecule is that of two linked, parallel helixes that are intertwined as in Figure 3.

In Examples 3 and 4 we were given vector equations of curves and asked for a geometric description or sketch. In the next two examples we are given a geometric description of a curve and are asked to find parametric equations for the curve.

Figure 4 shows the line segment PQ in Example 5.

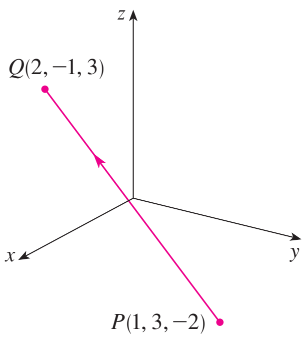


FIGURE 4

EXAMPLE 5 Find a vector equation and parametric equations for the line segment that joins the point $P(1, 3, -2)$ to the point $Q(2, -1, 3)$.

SOLUTION In Section 12.5 we found a vector equation for the line segment that joins the tip of the vector $\mathbf{r}_0$ to the tip of the vector $\mathbf{r}_1$:

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

(See Equation 12.5.4.) Here we take $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle 1, 3, -2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}_1 = \langle 2, -1, 3 \rangle$ to obtain a vector equation of the line segment from P to Q:

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 - t)\,\langle 1, 3, -2 \rangle + t\langle 2, -1, 3 \rangle \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

or

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 1 + t, 3 - 4t, -2 + 5t \rangle \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

The corresponding parametric equations are

$$x = 1 + t \qquad y = 3 - 4t \qquad z = -2 + 5t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

V EXAMPLE 6 Find a vector function that represents the curve of intersection of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the plane $y + z = 2$.

SOLUTION Figure 5 shows how the plane and the cylinder intersect, and Figure 6 shows the curve of intersection C, which is an ellipse.

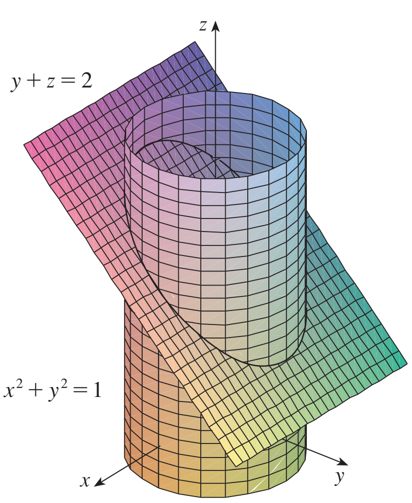


FIGURE 5

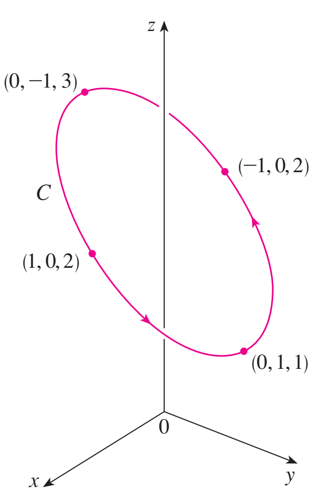


FIGURE 6

The projection of C onto the xy-plane is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, $z = 0$. So we know from Example 2 in Section 10.1 that we can write

$$x = \cos t \qquad y = \sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

From the equation of the plane, we have

$$z = 2 - y = 2 - \sin t$$

So we can write parametric equations for C as

$$x = \cos t \qquad y = \sin t \qquad z = 2 - \sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

The corresponding vector equation is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + (2 - \sin t)\,\mathbf{k} \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

This equation is called a *parametrization* of the curve C. The arrows in Figure 6 indicate the direction in which C is traced as the parameter t increases.

Using Computers to Draw Space Curves

Space curves are inherently more difficult to draw by hand than plane curves; for an accurate representation we need to use technology. For instance, Figure 7 shows a computer-generated graph of the curve with parametric equations

$$x = (4 + \sin 20t)\cos t \qquad y = (4 + \sin 20t)\sin t \qquad z = \cos 20t$$

It's called a **toroidal spiral** because it lies on a torus. Another interesting curve, the **trefoil knot**, with equations

$$x = (2 + \cos 1.5t)\cos t \qquad y = (2 + \cos 1.5t)\sin t \qquad z = \sin 1.5t$$

is graphed in Figure 8. It wouldn't be easy to plot either of these curves by hand.

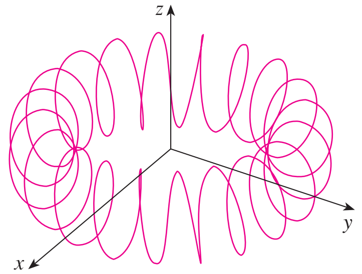


FIGURE 7 A toroidal spiral

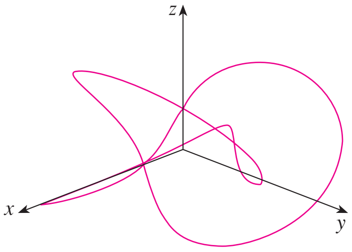


FIGURE 8 A trefoil knot

Even when a computer is used to draw a space curve, optical illusions make it difficult to get a good impression of what the curve really looks like. (This is especially true in Figure 8. See Exercise 50.) The next example shows how to cope with this problem.

EXAMPLE 7 Use a computer to draw the curve with vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$. This curve is called a **twisted cubic**.

SOLUTION We start by using the computer to plot the curve with parametric equations $x = t$, $y = t^2$, $z = t^3$ for $-2 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$. The result is shown in Figure 9(a), but it's hard to see the true nature of the curve from that graph alone. Most three-dimensional computer graphing programs allow the user to enclose a curve or surface in a box instead of displaying the coordinate axes. When we look at the same curve in a box in Figure 9(b), we have a much clearer picture of the curve. We can see that it climbs from a lower corner of the box to the upper corner nearest us, and it twists as it climbs.

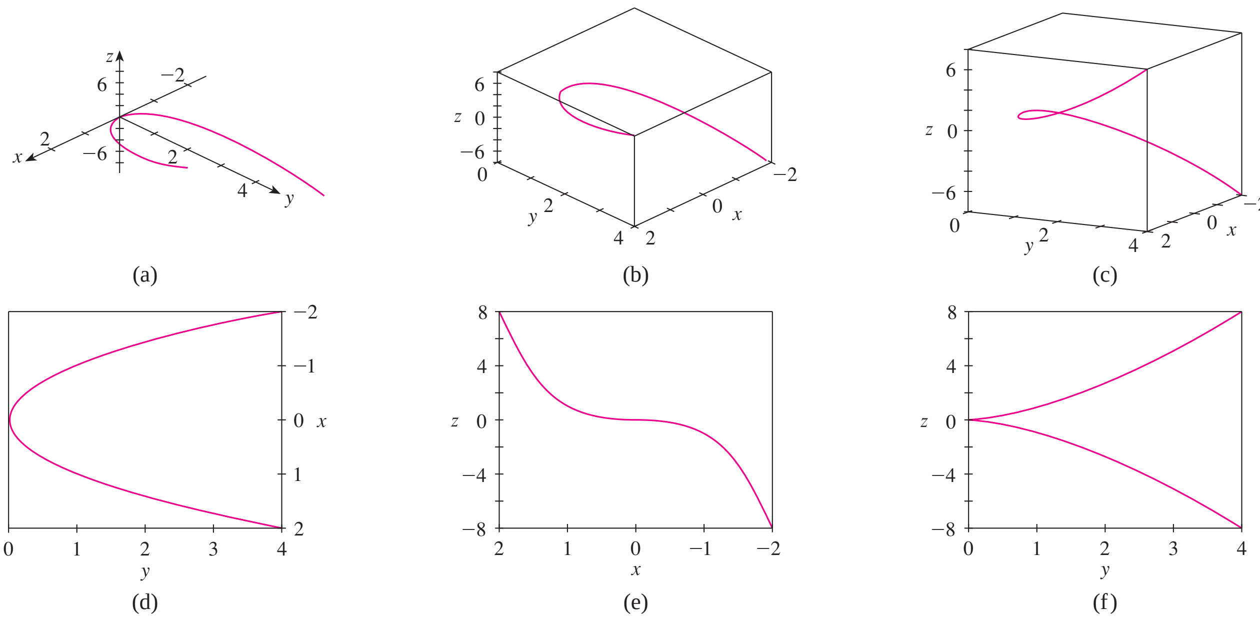


FIGURE 9 Views of the twisted cubic

TEC In Visual 13.1B you can rotate the box in Figure 9 to see the curve from any viewpoint.

We get an even better idea of the curve when we view it from different vantage points. Part (c) shows the result of rotating the box to give another viewpoint. Parts (d), (e), and (f) show the views we get when we look directly at a face of the box. In particular, part (d) shows the view from directly above the box. It is the projection of the curve on the xy-plane, namely, the parabola $y = x^2$. Part (e) shows the projection on the xz-plane, the cubic curve $z = x^3$. It's now obvious why the given curve is called a twisted cubic.

Another method of visualizing a space curve is to draw it on a surface. For instance, the twisted cubic in Example 7 lies on the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$. (Eliminate the parameter from the first two parametric equations, $x = t$ and $y = t^2$.) Figure 10 shows both the cylinder and the twisted cubic, and we see that the curve moves upward from the origin along the surface of the cylinder. We also used this method in Example 4 to visualize the helix lying on the circular cylinder (see Figure 2).

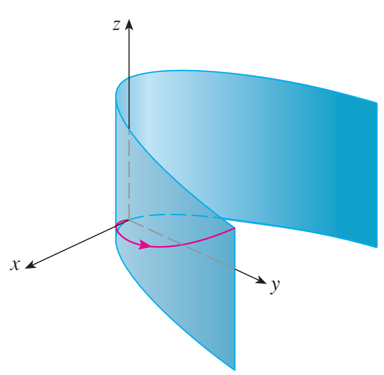


FIGURE 10

A third method for visualizing the twisted cubic is to realize that it also lies on the cylinder $z = x^3$. So it can be viewed as the curve of intersection of the cylinders $y = x^2$ and $z = x^3$. (See Figure 11.)

TEC Visual 13.1C shows how curves arise as intersections of surfaces.

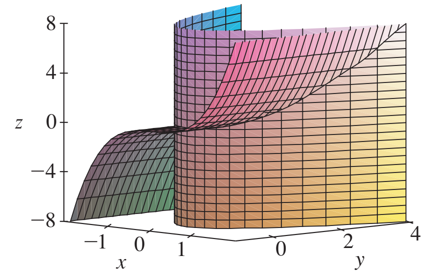
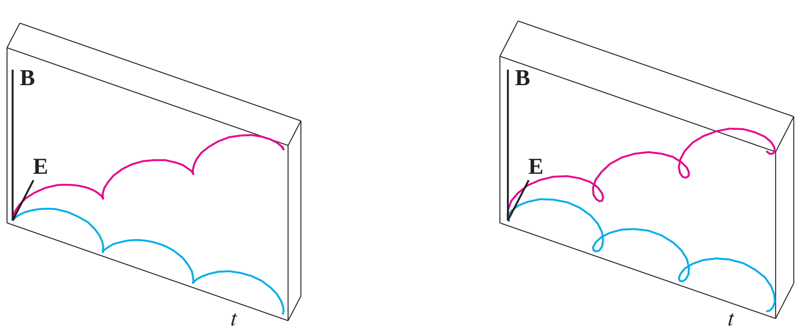


FIGURE 11

Some computer algebra systems provide us with a clearer picture of a space curve by enclosing it in a tube. Such a plot enables us to see whether one part of a curve passes in front of or behind another part of the curve. For example, Figure 13 shows the curve of Figure 12(b) as rendered by the `tubeplot` command in Maple.

We have seen that an interesting space curve, the helix, occurs in the model of DNA. Another notable example of a space curve in science is the trajectory of a positively charged particle in orthogonally oriented electric and magnetic fields **E** and **B**. Depending on the initial velocity given the particle at the origin, the path of the particle is either a space curve whose projection on the horizontal plane is the cycloid we studied in Section 10.1 [Figure 12(a)] or a curve whose projection is the trochoid investigated in Exercise 40 in Section 10.1 [Figure 12(b)].



(a) $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t - \sin t, 1 - \cos t, t \rangle$

(b) $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle t - \frac{3}{2}\sin t, 1 - \frac{3}{2}\cos t, t \right\rangle$

FIGURE 12
Motion of a charged particle in orthogonally oriented electric and magnetic fields

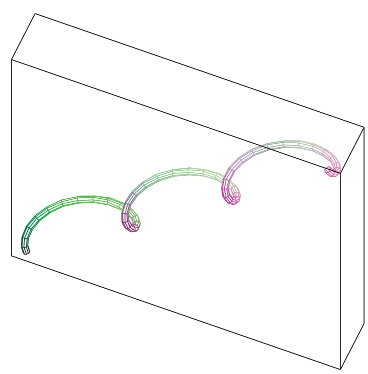


FIGURE 13

For further details concerning the physics involved and animations of the trajectories of the particles, see the following web sites:

- www.phy.ntnu.edu.tw/java/emField/emField.html
- www.physics.ucla.edu/plasma-exp/Beam/

13.1 Exercises

1–2 Find the domain of the vector function.

1. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle \sqrt{4 - t^2}, e^{-3t}, \ln(t + 1) \right\rangle$

2. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \dfrac{t - 2}{t + 2}\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + \ln(9 - t^2)\,\mathbf{k}$

3–6 Find the limit.

3. $\displaystyle\lim_{t \to 0} \left(e^{-3t}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{t^2}{\sin^2 t}\,\mathbf{j} + \cos 2t\,\mathbf{k} \right)$

4. $\displaystyle\lim_{t \to 1} \left(\frac{t^2 - t}{t - 1}\,\mathbf{i} + \sqrt{t + 8}\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{\sin \pi t}{\ln t}\,\mathbf{k} \right)$

Graphing calculator or computer required   **1.** Homework Hints available at stewartcalculus.com

5. $\lim_{t \to \infty} \left\langle \dfrac{1 + t^2}{1 - t^2}, \tan^{-1} t, \dfrac{1 - e^{-2t}}{t} \right\rangle$

6. $\lim_{t \to \infty} \left\langle te^{-t}, \dfrac{t^3 + t}{2t^3 - 1}, t \sin \dfrac{1}{t} \right\rangle$

7–14 Sketch the curve with the given vector equation. Indicate with an arrow the direction in which t increases.

7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin t, t \rangle$

8. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^3, t^2 \rangle$

9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, 2 - t, 2t \rangle$

10. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin \pi t, t, \cos \pi t \rangle$

11. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 1, \cos t, 2 \sin t \rangle$

12. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + t\,\mathbf{j} + 2\,\mathbf{k}$

13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + t^4\,\mathbf{j} + t^6\,\mathbf{k}$

14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} - \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin t\,\mathbf{k}$

15–16 Draw the projections of the curve on the three coordinate planes. Use these projections to help sketch the curve.

15. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, \sin t, 2 \cos t \rangle$

16. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t, t^2 \rangle$

17–20 Find a vector equation and parametric equations for the line segment that joins P to Q.

17. $P(2, 0, 0)$, $Q(6, 2, -2)$

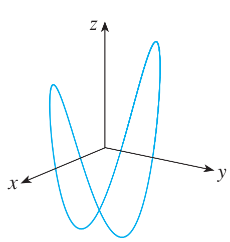
18. $P(-1, 2, -2)$, $Q(-3, 5, 1)$

19. $P(0, -1, 1)$, $Q\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}\right)$

20. $P(a, b, c)$, $Q(u, v, w)$

21–26 Match the parametric equations with the graphs (labeled I–VI). Give reasons for your choices.

I



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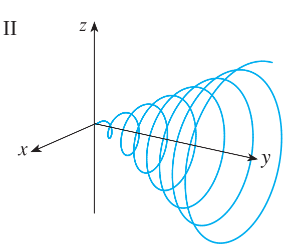
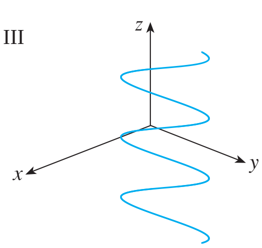


III



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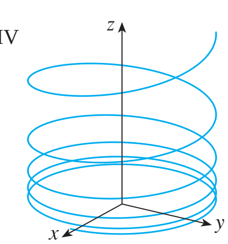
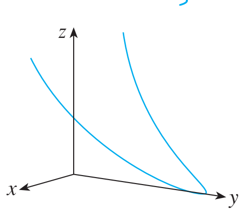
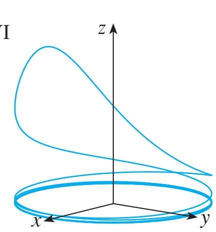


V



VI



21. $x = t \cos t, \quad y = t, \quad z = t \sin t, \quad t \geqslant 0$

22. $x = \cos t, \quad y = \sin t, \quad z = 1/(1 + t^2)$

23. $x = t, \quad y = 1/(1 + t^2), \quad z = t^2$

24. $x = \cos t, \quad y = \sin t, \quad z = \cos 2t$

25. $x = \cos 8t, \quad y = \sin 8t, \quad z = e^{0.8t}, \quad t \geqslant 0$

26. $x = \cos^2 t, \quad y = \sin^2 t, \quad z = t$

27. Show that the curve with parametric equations $x = t \cos t$, $y = t \sin t$, $z = t$ lies on the cone $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$, and use this fact to help sketch the curve.

28. Show that the curve with parametric equations $x = \sin t$, $y = \cos t$, $z = \sin^2 t$ is the curve of intersection of the surfaces $z = x^2$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Use this fact to help sketch the curve.

29. At what points does the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + (2t - t^2)\,\mathbf{k}$ intersect the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$?

30. At what points does the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin t, \cos t, t \rangle$ intersect the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 5$?

31–35 Use a computer to graph the curve with the given vector equation. Make sure you choose a parameter domain and viewpoints that reveal the true nature of the curve.

31. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos t \sin 2t, \sin t \sin 2t, \cos 2t \rangle$

32. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, \ln t, t \rangle$

33. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t \sin t, t \cos t \rangle$

34. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, e^t, \cos t \rangle$

35. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos 2t, \cos 3t, \cos 4t \rangle$

36. Graph the curve with parametric equations $x = \sin t$, $y = \sin 2t$, $z = \cos 4t$. Explain its shape by graphing its projections onto the three coordinate planes.

37. Graph the curve with parametric equations

$$x = (1 + \cos 16t) \cos t$$
$$y = (1 + \cos 16t) \sin t$$
$$z = 1 + \cos 16t$$

Explain the appearance of the graph by showing that it lies on a cone.

38. Graph the curve with parametric equations

$$x = \sqrt{1 - 0.25 \cos^2 10t}\, \cos t$$
$$y = \sqrt{1 - 0.25 \cos^2 10t}\, \sin t$$
$$z = 0.5 \cos 10t$$

Explain the appearance of the graph by showing that it lies on a sphere.

39. Show that the curve with parametric equations $x = t^2$, $y = 1 - 3t$, $z = 1 + t^3$ passes through the points (1, 4, 0) and (9, −8, 28) but not through the point (4, 7, −6).

40–44 Find a vector function that represents the curve of intersection of the two surfaces.

40. The cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the surface $z = xy$

41. The cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and the plane $z = 1 + y$

42. The paraboloid $z = 4x^2 + y^2$ and the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$

43. The hyperboloid $z = x^2 - y^2$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

44. The semiellipsoid $x^2 + y^2 + 4z^2 = 4$, $y \geqslant 0$, and the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 1$

45. Try to sketch by hand the curve of intersection of the circular cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the parabolic cylinder $z = x^2$. Then find parametric equations for this curve and use these equations and a computer to graph the curve.

46. Try to sketch by hand the curve of intersection of the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$ and the top half of the ellipsoid $x^2 + 4y^2 + 4z^2 = 16$. Then find parametric equations for this curve and use these equations and a computer to graph the curve.

47. If two objects travel through space along two different curves, it's often important to know whether they will collide. (Will a missile hit its moving target? Will two aircraft collide?) The curves might intersect, but we need to know whether the objects are in the same position *at the same time*. Suppose the trajectories of two particles are given by the vector functions

$$\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle t^2, 7t - 12, t^2 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{r}_2(t) = \langle 4t - 3, t^2, 5t - 6 \rangle$$

for $t \geqslant 0$. Do the particles collide?

48. Two particles travel along the space curves

$$\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{r}_2(t) = \langle 1 + 2t, 1 + 6t, 1 + 14t \rangle$$

Do the particles collide? Do their paths intersect?

49. Suppose $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are vector functions that possess limits as $t \to a$ and let c be a constant. Prove the following properties of limits.

(a) $\lim_{t \to a} [\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)] = \lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{u}(t) + \lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{v}(t)$

(b) $\lim_{t \to a} c\mathbf{u}(t) = c \lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{u}(t)$

(c) $\lim_{t \to a} [\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)] = \lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{v}(t)$

(d) $\lim_{t \to a} [\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)] = \lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{u}(t) \times \lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{v}(t)$

50. The view of the trefoil knot shown in Figure 8 is accurate, but it doesn't reveal the whole story. Use the parametric equations

$$x = (2 + \cos 1.5t) \cos t$$
$$y = (2 + \cos 1.5t) \sin t$$
$$z = \sin 1.5t$$

to sketch the curve by hand as viewed from above, with gaps indicating where the curve passes over itself. Start by showing that the projection of the curve onto the xy-plane has polar coordinates $r = 2 + \cos 1.5t$ and $\theta = t$, so r varies between 1 and 3. Then show that z has maximum and minimum values when the projection is halfway between $r = 1$ and $r = 3$.

When you have finished your sketch, use a computer to draw the curve with viewpoint directly above and compare with your sketch. Then use the computer to draw the curve from several other viewpoints. You can get a better impression of the curve if you plot a tube with radius 0.2 around the curve. (Use the `tubeplot` command in Maple or the `tubecurve` or `Tube` command in Mathematica.)

51. Show that $\lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{b}$ if and only if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\text{if } 0 < |t - a| < \delta \quad \text{then} \quad |\mathbf{r}(t) - \mathbf{b}| < \varepsilon$$

13.2 Derivatives and Integrals of Vector Functions

Later in this chapter we are going to use vector functions to describe the motion of planets and other objects through space. Here we prepare the way by developing the calculus of vector functions.

Derivatives

The **derivative r′** of a vector function **r** is defined in much the same way as for real-valued functions:

1

$$\boxed{\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \mathbf{r}'(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t + h) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{h}}$$

if this limit exists. The geometric significance of this definition is shown in Figure 1. If the points P and Q have position vectors $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}(t+h)$, then $\overrightarrow{PQ}$ represents the vector $\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t)$, which can therefore be regarded as a secant vector. If $h > 0$, the scalar multiple $(1/h)(\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t))$ has the same direction as $\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t)$. As $h \to 0$, it appears that this vector approaches a vector that lies on the tangent line. For this reason, the vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is called the **tangent vector** to the curve defined by $\mathbf{r}$ at the point P, provided that $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ exists and $\mathbf{r}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$. The **tangent line** to C at P is defined to be the line through P parallel to the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$. We will also have occasion to consider the **unit tangent vector**, which is

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

TEC Visual 13.2 shows an animation of Figure 1.

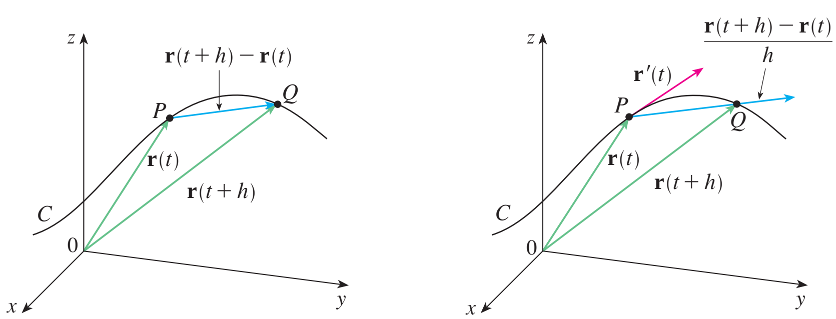


FIGURE 1

(a) The secant vector $\overrightarrow{PQ}$

(b) The tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$

The following theorem gives us a convenient method for computing the derivative of a vector function $\mathbf{r}$: just differentiate each component of $\mathbf{r}$.

2 Theorem If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle = f(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h(t)\,\mathbf{k}$, where f, g, and h are differentiable functions, then

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle f'(t), g'(t), h'(t) \rangle = f'(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\,\mathbf{k}$$

PROOF

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{r}'(t) &= \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t}[\mathbf{r}(t+\Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)] \\
&= \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t}[\langle f(t+\Delta t), g(t+\Delta t), h(t+\Delta t) \rangle - \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle] \\
&= \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \left\langle \frac{f(t+\Delta t) - f(t)}{\Delta t}, \frac{g(t+\Delta t) - g(t)}{\Delta t}, \frac{h(t+\Delta t) - h(t)}{\Delta t} \right\rangle \\
&= \left\langle \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{f(t+\Delta t) - f(t)}{\Delta t}, \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{g(t+\Delta t) - g(t)}{\Delta t}, \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{h(t+\Delta t) - h(t)}{\Delta t} \right\rangle \\
&= \langle f'(t), g'(t), h'(t) \rangle
\end{aligned}$$

V EXAMPLE 1
(a) Find the derivative of $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + t^3)\,\mathbf{i} + te^{-t}\,\mathbf{j} + \sin 2t\,\mathbf{k}$.
(b) Find the unit tangent vector at the point where $t = 0$.

SOLUTION
(a) According to Theorem 2, we differentiate each component of $\mathbf{r}$:

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = 3t^2\,\mathbf{i} + (1 - t)e^{-t}\,\mathbf{j} + 2\cos 2t\,\mathbf{k}$$

(b) Since $\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{r}'(0) = \mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$, the unit tangent vector at the point $(1, 0, 0)$ is

$$\mathbf{T}(0) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(0)}{|\mathbf{r}'(0)|} = \frac{\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{1 + 4}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}\,\mathbf{k}$$

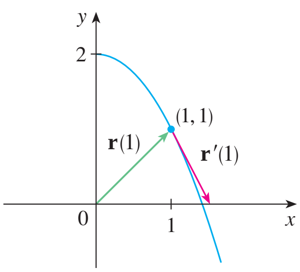


FIGURE 2

Notice from Figure 2 that the tangent vector points in the direction of increasing t. (See Exercise 56.)

EXAMPLE 2 For the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{t}\,\mathbf{i} + (2 - t)\,\mathbf{j}$, find $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and sketch the position vector $\mathbf{r}(1)$ and the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(1)$.

SOLUTION We have

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}}\,\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \mathbf{r}'(1) = \frac{1}{2}\,\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$$

The curve is a plane curve and elimination of the parameter from the equations $x = \sqrt{t}$, $y = 2 - t$ gives $y = 2 - x^2$, $x \geqslant 0$. In Figure 2 we draw the position vector $\mathbf{r}(1) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$ starting at the origin and the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(1)$ starting at the corresponding point $(1, 1)$.

V EXAMPLE 3 Find parametric equations for the tangent line to the helix with parametric equations

$$x = 2\cos t \qquad y = \sin t \qquad z = t$$

at the point $(0, 1, \pi/2)$.

SOLUTION The vector equation of the helix is $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2\cos t, \sin t, t\rangle$, so

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle -2\sin t, \cos t, 1\rangle$$

The parameter value corresponding to the point $(0, 1, \pi/2)$ is $t = \pi/2$, so the tangent vector there is $\mathbf{r}'(\pi/2) = \langle -2, 0, 1\rangle$. The tangent line is the line through $(0, 1, \pi/2)$ parallel to the vector $\langle -2, 0, 1\rangle$, so by Equations 12.5.2 its parametric equations are

$$x = -2t \qquad y = 1 \qquad z = \frac{\pi}{2} + t$$

The helix and the tangent line in Example 3 are shown in Figure 3.

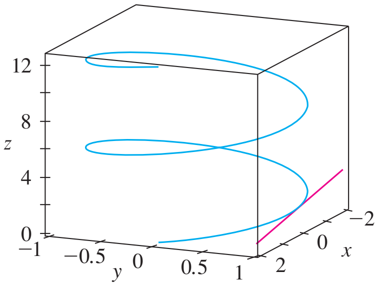


FIGURE 3

In Section 13.4 we will see how $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}''(t)$ can be interpreted as the velocity and acceleration vectors of a particle moving through space with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at time t.

Just as for real-valued functions, the **second derivative** of a vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is the derivative of $\mathbf{r}'$, that is, $\mathbf{r}'' = (\mathbf{r}')'$. For instance, the second derivative of the function in Example 3 is

$$\mathbf{r}''(t) = \langle -2\cos t, -\sin t, 0 \rangle$$

Differentiation Rules

The next theorem shows that the differentiation formulas for real-valued functions have their counterparts for vector-valued functions.

3 Theorem Suppose $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are differentiable vector functions, c is a scalar, and f is a real-valued function. Then

1. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) + \mathbf{v}'(t)$

2. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[c\mathbf{u}(t)] = c\mathbf{u}'(t)$

3. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[f(t)\,\mathbf{u}(t)] = f'(t)\,\mathbf{u}(t) + f(t)\,\mathbf{u}'(t)$

4. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}'(t)$

5. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}'(t)$

6. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(f(t))] = f'(t)\,\mathbf{u}'(f(t))$ (Chain Rule)

This theorem can be proved either directly from Definition 1 or by using Theorem 2 and the corresponding differentiation formulas for real-valued functions. The proof of Formula 4 follows; the remaining formulas are left as exercises.

PROOF OF FORMULA 4 Let

$$\mathbf{u}(t) = \langle f_1(t), f_2(t), f_3(t) \rangle \qquad \mathbf{v}(t) = \langle g_1(t), g_2(t), g_3(t) \rangle$$

Then
$$\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) = f_1(t)\,g_1(t) + f_2(t)\,g_2(t) + f_3(t)\,g_3(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{3} f_i(t)\,g_i(t)$$

so the ordinary Product Rule gives

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)] &= \frac{d}{dt}\sum_{i=1}^{3} f_i(t)\,g_i(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{3} \frac{d}{dt}[f_i(t)\,g_i(t)] \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{3} [f_i'(t)\,g_i(t) + f_i(t)\,g_i'(t)] \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{3} f_i'(t)\,g_i(t) + \sum_{i=1}^{3} f_i(t)\,g_i'(t) \\
&= \mathbf{u}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}'(t)
\end{aligned}$$

V EXAMPLE 4 Show that if $|\mathbf{r}(t)| = c$ (a constant), then $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{r}(t)$ for all t.

SOLUTION Since

$$\mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t) = |\mathbf{r}(t)|^2 = c^2$$

and c^2 is a constant, Formula 4 of Theorem 3 gives

$$0 = \frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t)] = \mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t) + \mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) = 2\mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t)$$

Thus $\mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t) = 0$, which says that $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

Geometrically, this result says that if a curve lies on a sphere with center the origin, then the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is always perpendicular to the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

Integrals

The **definite integral** of a continuous vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ can be defined in much the same way as for real-valued functions except that the integral is a vector. But then we can express the integral of $\mathbf{r}$ in terms of the integrals of its component functions f, g, and h as follows. (We use the notation of Chapter 4.)

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt &= \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{r}(t_i^*)\,\Delta t \\ &= \lim_{n\to\infty}\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} f(t_i^*)\,\Delta t\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} g(t_i^*)\,\Delta t\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} h(t_i^*)\,\Delta t\right)\mathbf{k}\right]\end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\boxed{\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt = \left(\int_a^b f(t)\,dt\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\int_a^b g(t)\,dt\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\int_a^b h(t)\,dt\right)\mathbf{k}}$$

This means that we can evaluate an integral of a vector function by integrating each component function.

We can extend the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to continuous vector functions as follows:

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt = \mathbf{R}(t)\Big]_a^b = \mathbf{R}(b) - \mathbf{R}(a)$$

where $\mathbf{R}$ is an antiderivative of $\mathbf{r}$, that is, $\mathbf{R}'(t) = \mathbf{r}(t)$. We use the notation $\int \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt$ for indefinite integrals (antiderivatives).

EXAMPLE 5 If $\mathbf{r}(t) = 2\cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + 2t\,\mathbf{k}$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\int \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt &= \left(\int 2\cos t\,dt\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\int \sin t\,dt\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\int 2t\,dt\right)\mathbf{k} \\ &= 2\sin t\,\mathbf{i} - \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + t^2\,\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C}\end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{C}$ is a vector constant of integration, and

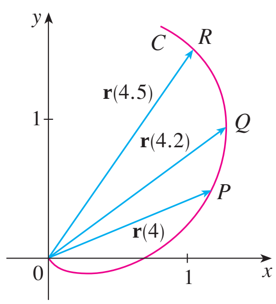
$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt = \left[2\sin t\,\mathbf{i} - \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + t^2\,\mathbf{k}\right]_0^{\pi/2} = 2\,\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \frac{\pi^2}{4}\,\mathbf{k}$$

13.2 Exercises

1. The figure shows a curve C given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$.
(a) Draw the vectors $\mathbf{r}(4.5) - \mathbf{r}(4)$ and $\mathbf{r}(4.2) - \mathbf{r}(4)$.
(b) Draw the vectors

$$\frac{\mathbf{r}(4.5) - \mathbf{r}(4)}{0.5} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\mathbf{r}(4.2) - \mathbf{r}(4)}{0.2}$$

(c) Write expressions for $\mathbf{r}'(4)$ and the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(4)$.
(d) Draw the vector $\mathbf{T}(4)$.



2. (a) Make a large sketch of the curve described by the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, t \rangle$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$, and draw the vectors $\mathbf{r}(1)$, $\mathbf{r}(1.1)$, and $\mathbf{r}(1.1) - \mathbf{r}(1)$.
(b) Draw the vector $\mathbf{r}'(1)$ starting at (1, 1), and compare it with the vector

$$\frac{\mathbf{r}(1.1) - \mathbf{r}(1)}{0.1}$$

Explain why these vectors are so close to each other in length and direction.

3–8
(a) Sketch the plane curve with the given vector equation.
(b) Find $\mathbf{r}'(t)$.
(c) Sketch the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ for the given value of t.

3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t - 2, t^2 + 1 \rangle, \quad t = -1$

4. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, t^3 \rangle, \quad t = 1$

5. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t\,\mathbf{i} + 2\cos t\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = \pi/4$

6. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\,\mathbf{i} + e^{-t}\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 0$

7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^{2t}\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 0$

8. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + \cos t)\,\mathbf{i} + (2 + \sin t)\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = \pi/6$

9–16 Find the derivative of the vector function.

9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t\sin t, t^2, t\cos 2t \rangle$

10. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \tan t, \sec t, 1/t^2 \rangle$

11. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + 2\sqrt{t}\,\mathbf{k}$

12. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \dfrac{1}{1+t}\,\mathbf{i} + \dfrac{t}{1+t}\,\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{t^2}{1+t}\,\mathbf{k}$

13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^{t^2}\,\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \ln(1 + 3t)\,\mathbf{k}$

14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = at\cos 3t\,\mathbf{i} + b\sin^3 t\,\mathbf{j} + c\cos^3 t\,\mathbf{k}$

15. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{a} + t\,\mathbf{b} + t^2\,\mathbf{c}$

16. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} + t\,\mathbf{c})$

17–20 Find the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(t)$ at the point with the given value of the parameter t.

17. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle te^{-t}, 2\arctan t, 2e^t \rangle, \quad t = 0$

18. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^3 + 3t, t^2 + 1, 3t + 4 \rangle, \quad t = 1$

19. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + 3t\,\mathbf{j} + 2\sin 2t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 0$

20. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin^2 t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos^2 t\,\mathbf{j} + \tan^2 t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad t = \pi/4$

21. If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$, find $\mathbf{r}'(t)$, $\mathbf{T}(1)$, $\mathbf{r}''(t)$, and $\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)$.

22. If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle e^{2t}, e^{-2t}, te^{2t} \rangle$, find $\mathbf{T}(0)$, $\mathbf{r}''(0)$, and $\mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}''(t)$.

23–26 Find parametric equations for the tangent line to the curve with the given parametric equations at the specified point.

23. $x = 1 + 2\sqrt{t}, \quad y = t^3 - t, \quad z = t^3 + t; \quad (3, 0, 2)$

24. $x = e^t, \quad y = te^t, \quad z = te^{t^2}; \quad (1, 0, 0)$

25. $x = e^{-t}\cos t, \quad y = e^{-t}\sin t, \quad z = e^{-t}; \quad (1, 0, 1)$

26. $x = \sqrt{t^2 + 3}, \quad y = \ln(t^2 + 3), \quad z = t; \quad (2, \ln 4, 1)$

27. Find a vector equation for the tangent line to the curve of intersection of the cylinders $x^2 + y^2 = 25$ and $y^2 + z^2 = 20$ at the point (3, 4, 2).

28. Find the point on the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2\cos t, 2\sin t, e^t \rangle$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$, where the tangent line is parallel to the plane $\sqrt{3}x + y = 1$.

CAS **29–31** Find parametric equations for the tangent line to the curve with the given parametric equations at the specified point. Illustrate by graphing both the curve and the tangent line on a common screen.

29. $x = t, \; y = e^{-t}, \; z = 2t - t^2; \quad (0, 1, 0)$

30. $x = 2\cos t, \; y = 2\sin t, \; z = 4\cos 2t; \quad (\sqrt{3}, 1, 2)$

31. $x = t\cos t, \; y = t, \; z = t\sin t; \quad (-\pi, \pi, 0)$

32. (a) Find the point of intersection of the tangent lines to the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin \pi t, 2\sin \pi t, \cos \pi t \rangle$ at the points where $t = 0$ and $t = 0.5$.
(b) Illustrate by graphing the curve and both tangent lines.

33. The curves $\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}_2(t) = \langle \sin t, \sin 2t, t \rangle$ intersect at the origin. Find their angle of intersection correct to the nearest degree.

Graphing calculator or computer required   CAS Computer algebra system required   **1.** Homework Hints available at stewartcalculus.com

34. At what point do the curves $\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle t, 1 - t, 3 + t^2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}_2(s) = \langle 3 - s, s - 2, s^2 \rangle$ intersect? Find their angle of intersection correct to the nearest degree.

35–40 Evaluate the integral.

35. $\int_0^2 (t\,\mathbf{i} - t^3\,\mathbf{j} + 3t^5\,\mathbf{k})\,dt$

36. $\int_0^1 \left(\frac{4}{1 + t^2}\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{2t}{1 + t^2}\,\mathbf{k} \right) dt$

37. $\int_0^{\pi/2} (3\sin^2 t \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + 3 \sin t \cos^2 t\,\mathbf{j} + 2 \sin t \cos t\,\mathbf{k})\,dt$

38. $\int_1^2 \left(t^2\,\mathbf{i} + t\sqrt{t - 1}\,\mathbf{j} + t \sin \pi t\,\mathbf{k}\right) dt$

39. $\int (\sec^2 t\,\mathbf{i} + t(t^2 + 1)^3\,\mathbf{j} + t^2 \ln t\,\mathbf{k})\,dt$

40. $\int \left(te^{2t}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{t}{1 - t}\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - t^2}}\,\mathbf{k} \right) dt$

41. Find $\mathbf{r}(t)$ if $\mathbf{r}'(t) = 2t\,\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\,\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{t}\,\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{r}(1) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$.

42. Find $\mathbf{r}(t)$ if $\mathbf{r}'(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\,\mathbf{j} + te^t\,\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$.

43. Prove Formula 1 of Theorem 3.

44. Prove Formula 3 of Theorem 3.

45. Prove Formula 5 of Theorem 3.

46. Prove Formula 6 of Theorem 3.

47. If $\mathbf{u}(t) = \langle \sin t, \cos t, t \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v}(t) = \langle t, \cos t, \sin t \rangle$, use Formula 4 of Theorem 3 to find

$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)]$$

48. If $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are the vector functions in Exercise 47, use Formula 5 of Theorem 3 to find

$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)]$$

49. Find $f'(2)$, where $f(t) = \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)$, $\mathbf{u}(2) = \langle 1, 2, -1 \rangle$, $\mathbf{u}'(2) = \langle 3, 0, 4 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{v}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$.

50. If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)$, where $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are the vector functions in Exercise 49, find $\mathbf{r}'(2)$.

51. Show that if $\mathbf{r}$ is a vector function such that $\mathbf{r}''$ exists, then

$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{r}'(t)] = \mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)$$

52. Find an expression for $\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot (\mathbf{v}(t) \times \mathbf{w}(t))]$.

53. If $\mathbf{r}(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$, show that $\frac{d}{dt}|\mathbf{r}(t)| = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}(t)|}\mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)$.

$\left[\textit{Hint: } |\mathbf{r}(t)|^2 = \mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t)\right]$

54. If a curve has the property that the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is always perpendicular to the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$, show that the curve lies on a sphere with center the origin.

55. If $\mathbf{u}(t) = \mathbf{r}(t) \cdot [\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)]$, show that

$$\mathbf{u}'(t) = \mathbf{r}(t) \cdot [\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}'''(t)]$$

56. Show that the tangent vector to a curve defined by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ points in the direction of increasing t. [*Hint:* Refer to Figure 1 and consider the cases $h > 0$ and $h < 0$ separately.]

13.3 Arc Length and Curvature

In Section 10.2 we defined the length of a plane curve with parametric equations $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, as the limit of lengths of inscribed polygons and, for the case where f' and g' are continuous, we arrived at the formula

1
$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2}\,dt = \int_a^b \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}\,dt$$

The length of a space curve is defined in exactly the same way (see Figure 1). Suppose that the curve has the vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, or, equivalently, the parametric equations $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, $z = h(t)$, where f', g', and h' are continuous. If the curve is traversed exactly once as t increases from a to b, then it can be shown that its length is

2
$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} L &= \int_a^b \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2 + [h'(t)]^2}\,dt \\ &= \int_a^b \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2}\,dt \end{aligned}}$$

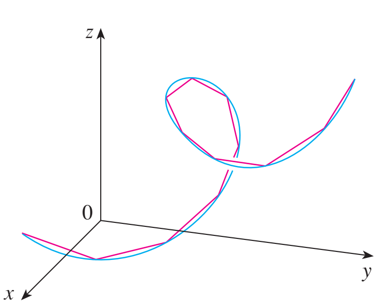


FIGURE 1
The length of a space curve is the limit of lengths of inscribed polygons.

Notice that both of the arc length formulas $\boxed{1}$ and $\boxed{2}$ can be put into the more compact form

3
$$\boxed{L = \int_a^b |\mathbf{r}'(t)|\, dt}$$

because, for plane curves $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g(t)\,\mathbf{j}$,

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t)| = |f'(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\,\mathbf{j}| = \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2}$$

and for space curves $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h(t)\,\mathbf{k}$,

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t)| = |f'(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\,\mathbf{k}| = \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2 + [h'(t)]^2}$$

Figure 2 shows the arc of the helix whose length is computed in Example 1.

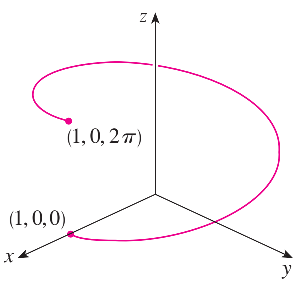


FIGURE 2

V EXAMPLE 1 Find the length of the arc of the circular helix with vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$ from the point $(1, 0, 0)$ to the point $(1, 0, 2\pi)$.

SOLUTION Since $\mathbf{r}'(t) = -\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$, we have

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{(-\sin t)^2 + \cos^2 t + 1} = \sqrt{2}$$

The arc from $(1, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 0, 2\pi)$ is described by the parameter interval $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$ and so, from Formula 3, we have

$$L = \int_0^{2\pi} |\mathbf{r}'(t)|\, dt = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{2}\, dt = 2\sqrt{2}\,\pi$$

A single curve C can be represented by more than one vector function. For instance, the twisted cubic

4
$$\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle \qquad 1 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$$

could also be represented by the function

5
$$\mathbf{r}_2(u) = \langle e^u, e^{2u}, e^{3u} \rangle \qquad 0 \leqslant u \leqslant \ln 2$$

where the connection between the parameters t and u is given by $t = e^u$. We say that Equations 4 and 5 are **parametrizations** of the curve C. If we were to use Equation 3 to compute the length of C using Equations 4 and 5, we would get the same answer. In general, it can be shown that when Equation 3 is used to compute arc length, the answer is independent of the parametrization that is used.

Now we suppose that C is a curve given by a vector function

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h(t)\,\mathbf{k} \qquad a \leqslant t \leqslant b$$

where $\mathbf{r}'$ is continuous and C is traversed exactly once as t increases from a to b. We define its **arc length function** s by

6
$$s(t) = \int_a^t |\mathbf{r}'(u)|\, du = \int_a^t \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{du}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{du}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{du}\right)^2}\, du$$

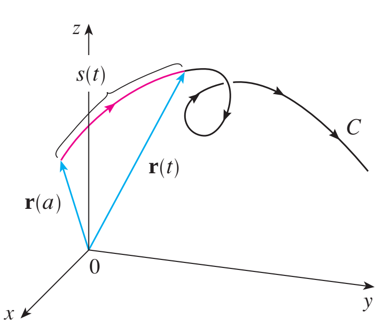


FIGURE 3

Thus $s(t)$ is the length of the part of C between $\mathbf{r}(a)$ and $\mathbf{r}(t)$. (See Figure 3.) If we differentiate both sides of Equation 6 using Part 1 of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, we obtain

7
$$\frac{ds}{dt} = |\mathbf{r}'(t)|$$

It is often useful to **parametrize a curve with respect to arc length** because arc length arises naturally from the shape of the curve and does not depend on a particular coordinate system. If a curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is already given in terms of a parameter t and $s(t)$ is the arc length function given by Equation 6, then we may be able to solve for t as a function of s: $t = t(s)$. Then the curve can be reparametrized in terms of s by substituting for t: $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t(s))$. Thus, if $s = 3$ for instance, $\mathbf{r}(t(3))$ is the position vector of the point 3 units of length along the curve from its starting point.

EXAMPLE 2 Reparametrize the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$ with respect to arc length measured from $(1, 0, 0)$ in the direction of increasing t.

SOLUTION The initial point $(1, 0, 0)$ corresponds to the parameter value $t = 0$. From Example 1 we have

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = |\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{2}$$

and so
$$s = s(t) = \int_0^t |\mathbf{r}'(u)|\,du = \int_0^t \sqrt{2}\,du = \sqrt{2}\,t$$

Therefore $t = s/\sqrt{2}$ and the required reparametrization is obtained by substituting for t:

$$\mathbf{r}(t(s)) = \cos\left(s/\sqrt{2}\right)\mathbf{i} + \sin\left(s/\sqrt{2}\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(s/\sqrt{2}\right)\mathbf{k}$$

Curvature

A parametrization $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is called **smooth** on an interval I if $\mathbf{r}'$ is continuous and $\mathbf{r}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$ on I. A curve is called **smooth** if it has a smooth parametrization. A smooth curve has no sharp corners or cusps; when the tangent vector turns, it does so continuously.

TEC Visual 13.3A shows animated unit tangent vectors, like those in Figure 4, for a variety of plane curves and space curves.

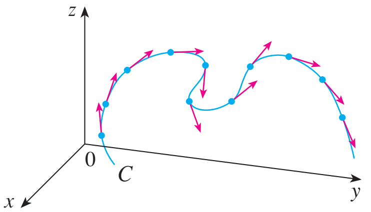


FIGURE 4
Unit tangent vectors at equally spaced points on C

If C is a smooth curve defined by the vector function $\mathbf{r}$, recall that the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(t)$ is given by

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

and indicates the direction of the curve. From Figure 4 you can see that $\mathbf{T}(t)$ changes direction very slowly when C is fairly straight, but it changes direction more quickly when C bends or twists more sharply.

The curvature of C at a given point is a measure of how quickly the curve changes direction at that point. Specifically, we define it to be the magnitude of the rate of change of the unit tangent vector with respect to arc length. (We use arc length so that the curvature will be independent of the parametrization.)

8 Definition The **curvature** of a curve is

$$\kappa = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\right|$$

where $\mathbf{T}$ is the unit tangent vector.

The curvature is easier to compute if it is expressed in terms of the parameter t instead of s, so we use the Chain Rule (Theorem 13.2.3, Formula 6) to write

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} = \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\frac{ds}{dt} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \kappa = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\right| = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}/dt}{ds/dt}\right|$$

But $ds/dt = |\mathbf{r}'(t)|$ from Equation 7, so

9
$$\boxed{\kappa(t) = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}}$$

V EXAMPLE 3 Show that the curvature of a circle of radius a is $1/a$.

SOLUTION We can take the circle to have center the origin, and then a parametrization is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = a\cos t\,\mathbf{i} + a\sin t\,\mathbf{j}$$

Therefore $\qquad \mathbf{r}'(t) = -a\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + a\cos t\,\mathbf{j} \qquad \text{and} \qquad |\mathbf{r}'(t)| = a$

so
$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = -\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j}$$

and
$$\mathbf{T}'(t) = -\cos t\,\mathbf{i} - \sin t\,\mathbf{j}$$

This gives $|\mathbf{T}'(t)| = 1$, so using Equation 9, we have

$$\kappa(t) = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{1}{a}$$

The result of Example 3 shows that small circles have large curvature and large circles have small curvature, in accordance with our intuition. We can see directly from the definition of curvature that the curvature of a straight line is always 0 because the tangent vector is constant.

Although Formula 9 can be used in all cases to compute the curvature, the formula given by the following theorem is often more convenient to apply.

10 Theorem The curvature of the curve given by the vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is

$$\kappa(t) = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^3}$$

PROOF Since $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{r}'/|\mathbf{r}'|$ and $|\mathbf{r}'| = ds/dt$, we have

$$\mathbf{r}' = |\mathbf{r}'|\mathbf{T} = \frac{ds}{dt}\mathbf{T}$$

so the Product Rule (Theorem 13.2.3, Formula 3) gives

$$\mathbf{r}'' = \frac{d^2s}{dt^2}\mathbf{T} + \frac{ds}{dt}\mathbf{T}'$$

Using the fact that $\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{0}$ (see Example 2 in Section 12.4), we have

$$\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}'' = \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 (\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{T}')$$

Now $|\mathbf{T}(t)| = 1$ for all t, so $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{T}'$ are orthogonal by Example 4 in Section 13.2. Therefore, by Theorem 12.4.9,

$$|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''| = \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 |\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{T}'| = \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 |\mathbf{T}||\mathbf{T}'| = \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 |\mathbf{T}'|$$

Thus
$$|\mathbf{T}'| = \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{(ds/dt)^2} = \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{|\mathbf{r}'|^2}$$

and
$$\kappa = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'|}{|\mathbf{r}'|} = \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{|\mathbf{r}'|^3}$$

EXAMPLE 4 Find the curvature of the twisted cubic $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$ at a general point and at (0, 0, 0).

SOLUTION We first compute the required ingredients:

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle 1, 2t, 3t^2 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{r}''(t) = \langle 0, 2, 6t \rangle$$

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{1 + 4t^2 + 9t^4}$$

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t) = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 2t & 3t^2 \\ 0 & 2 & 6t \end{vmatrix} = 6t^2\,\mathbf{i} - 6t\,\mathbf{j} + 2\,\mathbf{k}$$

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)| = \sqrt{36t^4 + 36t^2 + 4} = 2\sqrt{9t^4 + 9t^2 + 1}$$

Theorem 10 then gives

$$\kappa(t) = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^3} = \frac{2\sqrt{1 + 9t^2 + 9t^4}}{(1 + 4t^2 + 9t^4)^{3/2}}$$

At the origin, where $t = 0$, the curvature is $\kappa(0) = 2$.

For the special case of a plane curve with equation $y = f(x)$, we choose x as the parameter and write $\mathbf{r}(x) = x\,\mathbf{i} + f(x)\,\mathbf{j}$. Then $\mathbf{r}'(x) = \mathbf{i} + f'(x)\,\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{r}''(x) = f''(x)\,\mathbf{j}$. Since $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{0}$, it follows that $\mathbf{r}'(x) \times \mathbf{r}''(x) = f''(x)\,\mathbf{k}$. We also have $|\mathbf{r}'(x)| = \sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2}$ and so, by Theorem 10,

11
$$\boxed{\kappa(x) = \frac{|f''(x)|}{[1 + (f'(x))^2]^{3/2}}}$$

EXAMPLE 5 Find the curvature of the parabola $y = x^2$ at the points (0, 0), (1, 1), and (2, 4).

SOLUTION Since $y' = 2x$ and $y'' = 2$, Formula 11 gives

$$\kappa(x) = \frac{|y''|}{[1 + (y')^2]^{3/2}} = \frac{2}{(1 + 4x^2)^{3/2}}$$

The curvature at $(0, 0)$ is $\kappa(0) = 2$. At $(1, 1)$ it is $\kappa(1) = 2/5^{3/2} \approx 0.18$. At $(2, 4)$ it is $\kappa(2) = 2/17^{3/2} \approx 0.03$. Observe from the expression for $\kappa(x)$ or the graph of κ in Figure 5 that $\kappa(x) \to 0$ as $x \to \pm\infty$. This corresponds to the fact that the parabola appears to become flatter as $x \to \pm\infty$.

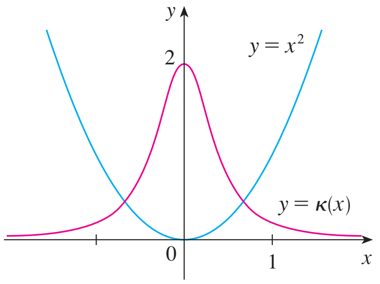


FIGURE 5
The parabola $y = x^2$ and its curvature function

The Normal and Binormal Vectors

We can think of the normal vector as indicating the direction in which the curve is turning at each point.

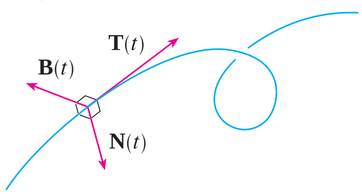


FIGURE 6

At a given point on a smooth space curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$, there are many vectors that are orthogonal to the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(t)$. We single out one by observing that, because $|\mathbf{T}(t)| = 1$ for all t, we have $\mathbf{T}(t) \cdot \mathbf{T}'(t) = 0$ by Example 4 in Section 13.2, so $\mathbf{T}'(t)$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{T}(t)$. Note that $\mathbf{T}'(t)$ is itself not a unit vector. But at any point where $\kappa \neq 0$ we can define the **principal unit normal vector** $\mathbf{N}(t)$ (or simply **unit normal**) as

$$\mathbf{N}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{T}'(t)}{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}$$

The vector $\mathbf{B}(t) = \mathbf{T}(t) \times \mathbf{N}(t)$ is called the **binormal vector**. It is perpendicular to both $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{N}$ and is also a unit vector. (See Figure 6.)

Figure 7 illustrates Example 6 by showing the vectors $\mathbf{T}$, $\mathbf{N}$, and $\mathbf{B}$ at two locations on the helix. In general, the vectors $\mathbf{T}$, $\mathbf{N}$, and $\mathbf{B}$, starting at the various points on a curve, form a set of orthogonal vectors, called the **TNB** frame, that moves along the curve as t varies. This **TNB** frame plays an important role in the branch of mathematics known as differential geometry and in its applications to the motion of spacecraft.

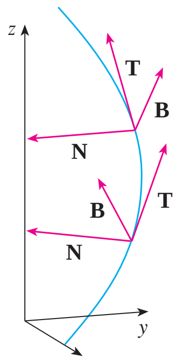


FIGURE 7

EXAMPLE 6 Find the unit normal and binormal vectors for the circular helix

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$$

SOLUTION We first compute the ingredients needed for the unit normal vector:

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = -\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k} \qquad |\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{2}$$

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(-\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})$$

$$\mathbf{T}'(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(-\cos t\,\mathbf{i} - \sin t\,\mathbf{j}) \qquad |\mathbf{T}'(t)| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\mathbf{N}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{T}'(t)}{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|} = -\cos t\,\mathbf{i} - \sin t\,\mathbf{j} = \langle -\cos t, -\sin t, 0\rangle$$

This shows that the normal vector at any point on the helix is horizontal and points toward the z-axis. The binormal vector is

$$\mathbf{B}(t) = \mathbf{T}(t) \times \mathbf{N}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -\sin t & \cos t & 1 \\ -\cos t & -\sin t & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\langle \sin t, -\cos t, 1\rangle$$

TEC Visual 13.3B shows how the TNB frame moves along several curves.

The plane determined by the normal and binormal vectors **N** and **B** at a point P on a curve C is called the **normal plane** of C at P. It consists of all lines that are orthogonal to the tangent vector **T**. The plane determined by the vectors **T** and **N** is called the **osculating plane** of C at P. The name comes from the Latin *osculum*, meaning "kiss." It is the plane that comes closest to containing the part of the curve near P. (For a plane curve, the osculating plane is simply the plane that contains the curve.)

The circle that lies in the osculating plane of C at P, has the same tangent as C at P, lies on the concave side of C (toward which **N** points), and has radius $\rho = 1/\kappa$ (the reciprocal of the curvature) is called the **osculating circle** (or the **circle of curvature**) of C at P. It is the circle that best describes how C behaves near P; it shares the same tangent, normal, and curvature at P.

V **EXAMPLE 7** Find the equations of the normal plane and osculating plane of the helix in Example 6 at the point $P(0, 1, \pi/2)$.

Figure 8 shows the helix and the osculating plane in Example 7.

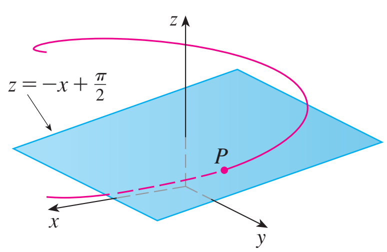


FIGURE 8

SOLUTION The normal plane at P has normal vector $\mathbf{r}'(\pi/2) = \langle -1, 0, 1 \rangle$, so an equation is

$$-1(x - 0) + 0(y - 1) + 1\left(z - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0 \qquad \text{or} \qquad z = x + \frac{\pi}{2}$$

The osculating plane at P contains the vectors **T** and **N**, so its normal vector is $\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N} = \mathbf{B}$. From Example 6 we have

$$\mathbf{B}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \langle \sin t, -\cos t, 1 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{B}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \left\langle \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right\rangle$$

A simpler normal vector is $\langle 1, 0, 1 \rangle$, so an equation of the osculating plane is

$$1(x - 0) + 0(y - 1) + 1\left(z - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0 \qquad \text{or} \qquad z = -x + \frac{\pi}{2}$$

EXAMPLE 8 Find and graph the osculating circle of the parabola $y = x^2$ at the origin.

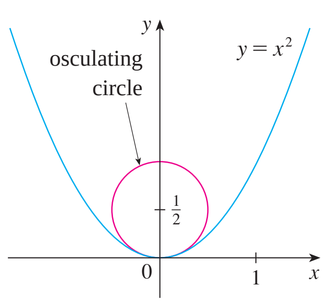


FIGURE 9

SOLUTION From Example 5, the curvature of the parabola at the origin is $\kappa(0) = 2$. So the radius of the osculating circle at the origin is $1/\kappa = \frac{1}{2}$ and its center is $\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$. Its equation is therefore

$$x^2 + \left(y - \tfrac{1}{2}\right)^2 = \tfrac{1}{4}$$

For the graph in Figure 9 we use parametric equations of this circle:

$$x = \tfrac{1}{2}\cos t \qquad y = \tfrac{1}{2} + \tfrac{1}{2}\sin t$$

We summarize here the formulas for unit tangent, unit normal and binormal vectors, and curvature.

TEC Visual 13.3C shows how the osculating circle changes as a point moves along a curve.

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} \qquad \mathbf{N}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{T}'(t)}{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|} \qquad \mathbf{B}(t) = \mathbf{T}(t) \times \mathbf{N}(t)$$

$$\kappa = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\right| = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^3}$$

13.3 Exercises

1–6 Find the length of the curve.

1. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, 3\cos t, 3\sin t \rangle, \quad -5 \leqslant t \leqslant 5$

2. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle 2t, t^2, \frac{1}{3}t^3 \right\rangle, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{2}\, t\, \mathbf{i} + e^t\, \mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\, \mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

4. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\, \mathbf{i} + \sin t\, \mathbf{j} + \ln \cos t\, \mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/4$

5. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i} + t^2\, \mathbf{j} + t^3\, \mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

6. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 12t\, \mathbf{i} + 8t^{3/2}\, \mathbf{j} + 3t^2\, \mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

7–9 Find the length of the curve correct to four decimal places. (Use your calculator to approximate the integral.)

7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, t^3, t^4 \rangle, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

8. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, e^{-t}, te^{-t} \rangle, \quad 1 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$

9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin t, \cos t, \tan t \rangle, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/4$

10. Graph the curve with parametric equations $x = \sin t$, $y = \sin 2t$, $z = \sin 3t$. Find the total length of this curve correct to four decimal places.

11. Let C be the curve of intersection of the parabolic cylinder $x^2 = 2y$ and the surface $3z = xy$. Find the exact length of C from the origin to the point $(6, 18, 36)$.

12. Find, correct to four decimal places, the length of the curve of intersection of the cylinder $4x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the plane $x + y + z = 2$.

13–14 Reparametrize the curve with respect to arc length measured from the point where $t = 0$ in the direction of increasing t.

13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 2t\, \mathbf{i} + (1 - 3t)\, \mathbf{j} + (5 + 4t)\, \mathbf{k}$

14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^{2t} \cos 2t\, \mathbf{i} + 2\, \mathbf{j} + e^{2t} \sin 2t\, \mathbf{k}$

15. Suppose you start at the point $(0, 0, 3)$ and move 5 units along the curve $x = 3\sin t$, $y = 4t$, $z = 3\cos t$ in the positive direction. Where are you now?

16. Reparametrize the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\frac{2}{t^2 + 1} - 1 \right) \mathbf{i} + \frac{2t}{t^2 + 1}\, \mathbf{j}$$

with respect to arc length measured from the point $(1, 0)$ in the direction of increasing t. Express the reparametrization in its simplest form. What can you conclude about the curve?

17–20
(a) Find the unit tangent and unit normal vectors $\mathbf{T}(t)$ and $\mathbf{N}(t)$.
(b) Use Formula 9 to find the curvature.

17. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, 3\cos t, 3\sin t \rangle$

18. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, \sin t - t\cos t, \cos t + t\sin t \rangle, \quad t > 0$

19. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle \sqrt{2}\, t, e^t, e^{-t} \right\rangle$

20. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle t, \frac{1}{2}t^2, t^2 \right\rangle$

21–23 Use Theorem 10 to find the curvature.

21. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^3\, \mathbf{j} + t^2\, \mathbf{k}$

22. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\, \mathbf{i} + t^2\, \mathbf{j} + e^t\, \mathbf{k}$

23. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 3t\, \mathbf{i} + 4\sin t\, \mathbf{j} + 4\cos t\, \mathbf{k}$

24. Find the curvature of $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, \ln t, t \ln t \rangle$ at the point $(1, 0, 0)$.

25. Find the curvature of $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$ at the point $(1, 1, 1)$.

26. Graph the curve with parametric equations $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t$, $z = \sin 5t$ and find the curvature at the point $(1, 0, 0)$.

27–29 Use Formula 11 to find the curvature.

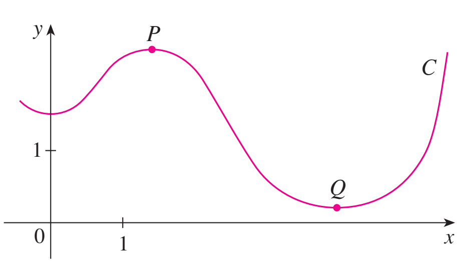
27. $y = x^4$ **28.** $y = \tan x$ **29.** $y = xe^x$

30–31 At what point does the curve have maximum curvature? What happens to the curvature as $x \to \infty$?

30. $y = \ln x$ **31.** $y = e^x$

32. Find an equation of a parabola that has curvature 4 at the origin.

33. (a) Is the curvature of the curve C shown in the figure greater at P or at Q? Explain.
(b) Estimate the curvature at P and at Q by sketching the osculating circles at those points.



Graphing calculator or computer required CAS Computer algebra system required **1.** Homework Hints available at stewartcalculus.com

34–35 Use a graphing calculator or computer to graph both the curve and its curvature function $\kappa(x)$ on the same screen. Is the graph of κ what you would expect?

34. $y = x^4 - 2x^2$ **35.** $y = x^{-2}$

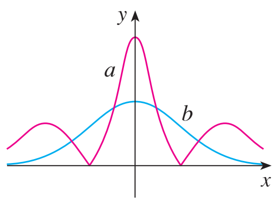
CAS **36–37** Plot the space curve and its curvature function $\kappa(t)$. Comment on how the curvature reflects the shape of the curve.

36. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t - \sin t, 1 - \cos t, 4\cos(t/2)\rangle, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 8\pi$

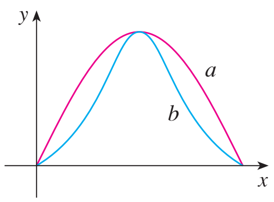
37. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle te^t, e^{-t}, \sqrt{2}\,t\rangle, \quad -5 \leqslant t \leqslant 5$

38–39 Two graphs, a and b, are shown. One is a curve $y = f(x)$ and the other is the graph of its curvature function $y = \kappa(x)$. Identify each curve and explain your choices.

38.



39.



CAS **40.** (a) Graph the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin 3t, \sin 2t, \sin 3t\rangle$. At how many points on the curve does it appear that the curvature has a local or absolute maximum?
(b) Use a CAS to find and graph the curvature function. Does this graph confirm your conclusion from part (a)?

CAS **41.** The graph of $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t - \frac{3}{2}\sin t, 1 - \frac{3}{2}\cos t, t\rangle$ is shown in Figure 12(b) in Section 13.1. Where do you think the curvature is largest? Use a CAS to find and graph the curvature function. For which values of t is the curvature largest?

42. Use Theorem 10 to show that the curvature of a plane parametric curve $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$ is

$$\kappa = \frac{|\dot{x}\ddot{y} - \dot{y}\ddot{x}|}{[\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2]^{3/2}}$$

where the dots indicate derivatives with respect to t.

43–45 Use the formula in Exercise 42 to find the curvature.

43. $x = t^2, \quad y = t^3$

44. $x = a\cos\omega t, \quad y = b\sin\omega t$

45. $x = e^t\cos t, \quad y = e^t\sin t$

46. Consider the curvature at $x = 0$ for each member of the family of functions $f(x) = e^{cx}$. For which members is $\kappa(0)$ largest?

47–48 Find the vectors **T**, **N**, and **B** at the given point.

47. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, \frac{2}{3}t^3, t\rangle, \quad (1, \frac{2}{3}, 1)$

48. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos t, \sin t, \ln\cos t\rangle, \quad (1, 0, 0)$

49–50 Find equations of the normal plane and osculating plane of the curve at the given point.

49. $x = 2\sin 3t, \; y = t, \; z = 2\cos 3t; \quad (0, \pi, -2)$

50. $x = t, \; y = t^2, \; z = t^3; \quad (1, 1, 1)$

51. Find equations of the osculating circles of the ellipse $9x^2 + 4y^2 = 36$ at the points $(2, 0)$ and $(0, 3)$. Use a graphing calculator or computer to graph the ellipse and both osculating circles on the same screen.

52. Find equations of the osculating circles of the parabola $y = \frac{1}{2}x^2$ at the points $(0, 0)$ and $(1, \frac{1}{2})$. Graph both osculating circles and the parabola on the same screen.

53. At what point on the curve $x = t^3$, $y = 3t$, $z = t^4$ is the normal plane parallel to the plane $6x + 6y - 8z = 1$?

CAS **54.** Is there a point on the curve in Exercise 53 where the osculating plane is parallel to the plane $x + y + z = 1$? [*Note:* You will need a CAS for differentiating, for simplifying, and for computing a cross product.]

55. Find equations of the normal and osculating planes of the curve of intersection of the parabolic cylinders $x = y^2$ and $z = x^2$ at the point $(1, 1, 1)$.

56. Show that the osculating plane at every point on the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t + 2, 1 - t, \frac{1}{2}t^2\rangle$ is the same plane. What can you conclude about the curve?

57. Show that the curvature κ is related to the tangent and normal vectors by the equation

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = \kappa\mathbf{N}$$

58. Show that the curvature of a plane curve is $\kappa = |d\phi/ds|$, where ϕ is the angle between **T** and **i**; that is, ϕ is the angle of inclination of the tangent line. (This shows that the definition of curvature is consistent with the definition for plane curves given in Exercise 69 in Section 10.2.)

59. (a) Show that $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ is perpendicular to **B**.
(b) Show that $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ is perpendicular to **T**.
(c) Deduce from parts (a) and (b) that $d\mathbf{B}/ds = -\tau(s)\mathbf{N}$ for some number $\tau(s)$ called the **torsion** of the curve. (The torsion measures the degree of twisting of a curve.)
(d) Show that for a plane curve the torsion is $\tau(s) = 0$.

60. The following formulas, called the **Frenet-Serret formulas**, are of fundamental importance in differential geometry:

1. $d\mathbf{T}/ds = \kappa\mathbf{N}$
2. $d\mathbf{N}/ds = -\kappa\mathbf{T} + \tau\mathbf{B}$
3. $d\mathbf{B}/ds = -\tau\mathbf{N}$

(Formula 1 comes from Exercise 57 and Formula 3 comes from Exercise 59.) Use the fact that $\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{T}$ to deduce Formula 2 from Formulas 1 and 3.

61. Use the Frenet-Serret formulas to prove each of the following. (Primes denote derivatives with respect to t. Start as in the proof of Theorem 10.)

(a) $\mathbf{r}'' = s''\mathbf{T} + \kappa(s')^2\mathbf{N}$

(b) $\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}'' = \kappa(s')^3\mathbf{B}$

(c) $\mathbf{r}''' = [s''' - \kappa^2(s')^3]\,\mathbf{T} + [3\kappa s's'' + \kappa'(s')^2]\,\mathbf{N} + \kappa\tau(s')^3\,\mathbf{B}$

(d) $\tau = \dfrac{(\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}'') \cdot \mathbf{r}'''}{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|^2}$

62. Show that the circular helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle a\cos t, a\sin t, bt\rangle$, where a and b are positive constants, has constant curvature and constant torsion. [Use the result of Exercise 61(d).]

63. Use the formula in Exercise 61(d) to find the torsion of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, \frac{1}{2}t^2, \frac{1}{3}t^3\rangle$.

64. Find the curvature and torsion of the curve $x = \sinh t$, $y = \cosh t$, $z = t$ at the point $(0, 1, 0)$.

65. The DNA molecule has the shape of a double helix (see Figure 3 on page 866). The radius of each helix is about 10 angstroms ($1\text{ Å} = 10^{-8}$ cm). Each helix rises about 34 Å during each complete turn, and there are about 2.9×10^8 complete turns. Estimate the length of each helix.

66. Let's consider the problem of designing a railroad track to make a smooth transition between sections of straight track. Existing track along the negative x-axis is to be joined smoothly to a track along the line $y = 1$ for $x \geqslant 1$.

(a) Find a polynomial $P = P(x)$ of degree 5 such that the function F defined by

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leqslant 0 \\ P(x) & \text{if } 0 < x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geqslant 1 \end{cases}$$

is continuous and has continuous slope and continuous curvature.

(b) Use a graphing calculator or computer to draw the graph of F.

13.4 Motion in Space: Velocity and Acceleration

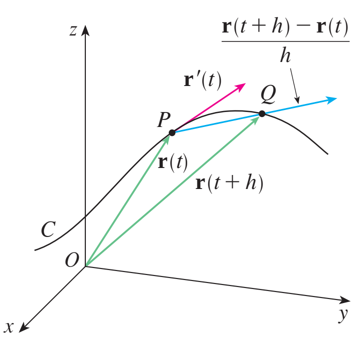


FIGURE 1

In this section we show how the ideas of tangent and normal vectors and curvature can be used in physics to study the motion of an object, including its velocity and acceleration, along a space curve. In particular, we follow in the footsteps of Newton by using these methods to derive Kepler's First Law of planetary motion.

Suppose a particle moves through space so that its position vector at time t is $\mathbf{r}(t)$. Notice from Figure 1 that, for small values of h, the vector

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \frac{\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{h}$$

approximates the direction of the particle moving along the curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$. Its magnitude measures the size of the displacement vector per unit time. The vector $\boxed{1}$ gives the average velocity over a time interval of length h and its limit is the **velocity vector** $\mathbf{v}(t)$ at time t:

$$\boxed{2} \qquad \boxed{\mathbf{v}(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{h} = \mathbf{r}'(t)}$$

Thus the velocity vector is also the tangent vector and points in the direction of the tangent line.

The **speed** of the particle at time t is the magnitude of the velocity vector, that is, $|\mathbf{v}(t)|$. This is appropriate because, from $\boxed{2}$ and from Equation 13.3.7, we have

$$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = |\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \frac{ds}{dt} = \text{rate of change of distance with respect to time}$$

As in the case of one-dimensional motion, the **acceleration** of the particle is defined as the derivative of the velocity:

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = \mathbf{r}''(t)$$

EXAMPLE 1 The position vector of an object moving in a plane is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^3\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j}$. Find its velocity, speed, and acceleration when $t = 1$ and illustrate geometrically.

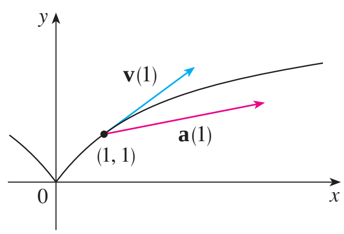


FIGURE 2

TEC Visual 13.4 shows animated velocity and acceleration vectors for objects moving along various curves.

SOLUTION The velocity and acceleration at time t are

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = 3t^2\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{r}''(t) = 6t\,\mathbf{i} + 2\,\mathbf{j}$$

and the speed is

$$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{(3t^2)^2 + (2t)^2} = \sqrt{9t^4 + 4t^2}$$

When $t = 1$, we have

$$\mathbf{v}(1) = 3\,\mathbf{i} + 2\,\mathbf{j} \qquad \mathbf{a}(1) = 6\,\mathbf{i} + 2\,\mathbf{j} \qquad |\mathbf{v}(1)| = \sqrt{13}$$

These velocity and acceleration vectors are shown in Figure 2.

Figure 3 shows the path of the particle in Example 2 with the velocity and acceleration vectors when $t = 1$.

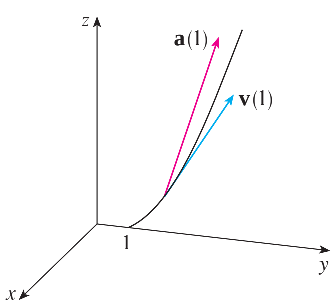


FIGURE 3

EXAMPLE 2 Find the velocity, acceleration, and speed of a particle with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, e^t, te^t \rangle$.

SOLUTION

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle 2t, e^t, (1 + t)e^t \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = \langle 2, e^t, (2 + t)e^t \rangle$$

$$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{4t^2 + e^{2t} + (1 + t)^2 e^{2t}}$$

The vector integrals that were introduced in Section 13.2 can be used to find position vectors when velocity or acceleration vectors are known, as in the next example.

V EXAMPLE 3 A moving particle starts at an initial position $\mathbf{r}(0) = \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle$ with initial velocity $\mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$. Its acceleration is $\mathbf{a}(t) = 4t\,\mathbf{i} + 6t\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$. Find its velocity and position at time t.

SOLUTION Since $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t)$, we have

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \int \mathbf{a}(t)\,dt = \int (4t\,\mathbf{i} + 6t\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})\,dt$$

$$= 2t^2\,\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C}$$

To determine the value of the constant vector $\mathbf{C}$, we use the fact that $\mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$. The preceding equation gives $\mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{C}$, so $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ and

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = 2t^2\,\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$

$$= (2t^2 + 1)\,\mathbf{i} + (3t^2 - 1)\,\mathbf{j} + (t + 1)\,\mathbf{k}$$

The expression for $\mathbf{r}(t)$ that we obtained in Example 3 was used to plot the path of the particle in Figure 4 for $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$.

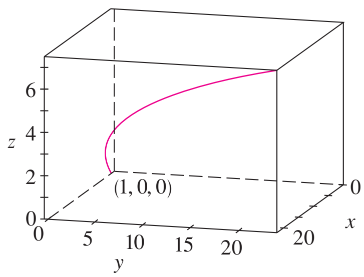


FIGURE 4

Since $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t)$, we have

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \int \mathbf{v}(t)\,dt$$
$$= \int [(2t^2 + 1)\,\mathbf{i} + (3t^2 - 1)\,\mathbf{j} + (t + 1)\,\mathbf{k}]\,dt$$
$$= \left(\tfrac{2}{3}t^3 + t\right)\mathbf{i} + (t^3 - t)\,\mathbf{j} + \left(\tfrac{1}{2}t^2 + t\right)\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{D}$$

Putting $t = 0$, we find that $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{i}$, so the position at time t is given by

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\tfrac{2}{3}t^3 + t + 1\right)\mathbf{i} + (t^3 - t)\,\mathbf{j} + \left(\tfrac{1}{2}t^2 + t\right)\mathbf{k}$$

In general, vector integrals allow us to recover velocity when acceleration is known and position when velocity is known:

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{v}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^{t} \mathbf{a}(u)\,du \qquad \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^{t} \mathbf{v}(u)\,du$$

If the force that acts on a particle is known, then the acceleration can be found from **Newton's Second Law of Motion**. The vector version of this law states that if, at any time t, a force $\mathbf{F}(t)$ acts on an object of mass m producing an acceleration $\mathbf{a}(t)$, then

$$\mathbf{F}(t) = m\mathbf{a}(t)$$

EXAMPLE 4 An object with mass m that moves in a circular path with constant angular speed ω has position vector $\mathbf{r}(t) = a\cos\omega t\,\mathbf{i} + a\sin\omega t\,\mathbf{j}$. Find the force acting on the object and show that it is directed toward the origin.

The angular speed of the object moving with position P is $\omega = d\theta/dt$, where θ is the angle shown in Figure 5.

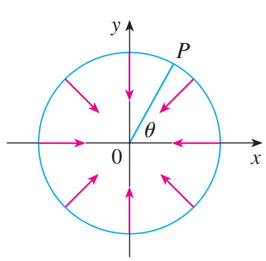


FIGURE 5

SOLUTION To find the force, we first need to know the acceleration:

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = -a\omega\sin\omega t\,\mathbf{i} + a\omega\cos\omega t\,\mathbf{j}$$
$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = -a\omega^2\cos\omega t\,\mathbf{i} - a\omega^2\sin\omega t\,\mathbf{j}$$

Therefore Newton's Second Law gives the force as

$$\mathbf{F}(t) = m\mathbf{a}(t) = -m\omega^2(a\cos\omega t\,\mathbf{i} + a\sin\omega t\,\mathbf{j})$$

Notice that $\mathbf{F}(t) = -m\omega^2\mathbf{r}(t)$. This shows that the force acts in the direction opposite to the radius vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and therefore points toward the origin (see Figure 5). Such a force is called a *centripetal* (center-seeking) force.

V EXAMPLE 5 A projectile is fired with angle of elevation α and initial velocity $\mathbf{v}_0$. (See Figure 6.) Assuming that air resistance is negligible and the only external force is due to gravity, find the position function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ of the projectile. What value of α maximizes the range (the horizontal distance traveled)?

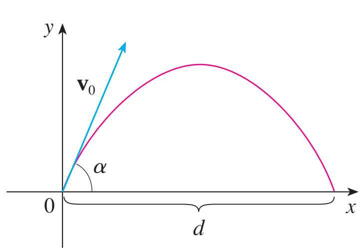


FIGURE 6

SOLUTION We set up the axes so that the projectile starts at the origin. Since the force due to gravity acts downward, we have

$$\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a} = -mg\,\mathbf{j}$$

where $g = |\mathbf{a}| \approx 9.8\ \text{m/s}^2$. Thus

$$\mathbf{a} = -g\,\mathbf{j}$$

Since $\mathbf{v}'(t) = \mathbf{a}$, we have

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = -gt\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{C}$$

where $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{v}_0$. Therefore

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{v}(t) = -gt\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{v}_0$$

Integrating again, we obtain

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = -\tfrac{1}{2}gt^2\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{v}_0 + \mathbf{D}$$

But $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{0}$, so the position vector of the projectile is given by

3 $$\mathbf{r}(t) = -\tfrac{1}{2}gt^2\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{v}_0$$

If we write $|\mathbf{v}_0| = v_0$ (the initial speed of the projectile), then

$$\mathbf{v}_0 = v_0 \cos\alpha\,\mathbf{i} + v_0 \sin\alpha\,\mathbf{j}$$

and Equation 3 becomes

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (v_0 \cos\alpha)t\,\mathbf{i} + \left[(v_0 \sin\alpha)t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2\right]\mathbf{j}$$

The parametric equations of the trajectory are therefore

If you eliminate t from Equations 4, you will see that y is a quadratic function of x. So the path of the projectile is part of a parabola.

4 $$\boxed{x = (v_0 \cos\alpha)t \qquad y = (v_0 \sin\alpha)t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2}$$

The horizontal distance d is the value of x when $y = 0$. Setting $y = 0$, we obtain $t = 0$ or $t = (2v_0 \sin\alpha)/g$. This second value of t then gives

$$d = x = (v_0 \cos\alpha)\frac{2v_0 \sin\alpha}{g} = \frac{v_0^2(2\sin\alpha\cos\alpha)}{g} = \frac{v_0^2 \sin 2\alpha}{g}$$

Clearly, d has its maximum value when $\sin 2\alpha = 1$, that is, $\alpha = \pi/4$.

V EXAMPLE 6 A projectile is fired with muzzle speed 150 m/s and angle of elevation 45° from a position 10 m above ground level. Where does the projectile hit the ground, and with what speed?

SOLUTION If we place the origin at ground level, then the initial position of the projectile is (0, 10) and so we need to adjust Equations 4 by adding 10 to the expression for y. With $v_0 = 150$ m/s, $\alpha = 45°$, and $g = 9.8$ m/s^2, we have

$$x = 150\cos(\pi/4)t = 75\sqrt{2}\,t$$

$$y = 10 + 150\sin(\pi/4)t - \tfrac{1}{2}(9.8)t^2 = 10 + 75\sqrt{2}\,t - 4.9t^2$$

Impact occurs when $y = 0$, that is, $4.9t^2 - 75\sqrt{2}\,t - 10 = 0$. Solving this quadratic equation (and using only the positive value of t), we get

$$t = \frac{75\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{11{,}250 + 196}}{9.8} \approx 21.74$$

Then $x \approx 75\sqrt{2}\,(21.74) \approx 2306$, so the projectile hits the ground about 2306 m away.

The velocity of the projectile is

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = 75\sqrt{2}\,\mathbf{i} + \left(75\sqrt{2} - 9.8t\right)\mathbf{j}$$

So its speed at impact is

$$|\mathbf{v}(21.74)| = \sqrt{\left(75\sqrt{2}\right)^2 + \left(75\sqrt{2} - 9.8 \cdot 21.74\right)^2} \approx 151 \text{ m/s}$$

Tangential and Normal Components of Acceleration

When we study the motion of a particle, it is often useful to resolve the acceleration into two components, one in the direction of the tangent and the other in the direction of the normal. If we write $v = |\mathbf{v}|$ for the speed of the particle, then

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{|\mathbf{v}(t)|} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{v}$$

and so

$$\mathbf{v} = v\mathbf{T}$$

If we differentiate both sides of this equation with respect to t, we get

5
$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{v}' = v'\mathbf{T} + v\mathbf{T}'$$

If we use the expression for the curvature given by Equation 13.3.9, then we have

6
$$\kappa = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'|}{|\mathbf{r}'|} = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'|}{v} \qquad \text{so} \qquad |\mathbf{T}'| = \kappa v$$

The unit normal vector was defined in the preceding section as $\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{T}'/|\mathbf{T}'|$, so $\boxed{6}$ gives

$$\mathbf{T}' = |\mathbf{T}'|\mathbf{N} = \kappa v\mathbf{N}$$

and Equation 5 becomes

7
$$\boxed{\mathbf{a} = v'\mathbf{T} + \kappa v^2\mathbf{N}}$$

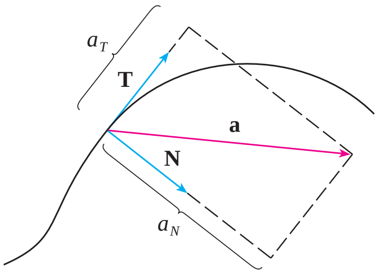


FIGURE 7

Writing a_T and a_N for the tangential and normal components of acceleration, we have

$$\mathbf{a} = a_T\mathbf{T} + a_N\mathbf{N}$$

where

8
$$a_T = v' \qquad \text{and} \qquad a_N = \kappa v^2$$

This resolution is illustrated in Figure 7.

Let's look at what Formula 7 says. The first thing to notice is that the binormal vector **B** is absent. No matter how an object moves through space, its acceleration always lies in the plane of **T** and **N** (the osculating plane). (Recall that **T** gives the direction of motion and **N** points in the direction the curve is turning.) Next we notice that the tangential component of acceleration is v', the rate of change of speed, and the normal component of acceleration is κv^2, the curvature times the square of the speed. This makes sense if we think of a passenger in a car—a sharp turn in a road means a large value of the curvature κ, so the component of the acceleration perpendicular to the motion is large and the passenger is thrown against a car door. High speed around the turn has the same effect; in fact, if you double your speed, a_N is increased by a factor of 4.

Although we have expressions for the tangential and normal components of acceleration in Equations 8, it's desirable to have expressions that depend only on **r**, **r**′, and **r**″. To this end we take the dot product of $\mathbf{v} = v\mathbf{T}$ with **a** as given by Equation 7:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{a} &= v\mathbf{T}\cdot(v'\mathbf{T} + \kappa v^2\mathbf{N})\\ &= vv'\mathbf{T}\cdot\mathbf{T} + \kappa v^3\mathbf{T}\cdot\mathbf{N}\\ &= vv' \qquad \text{(since } \mathbf{T}\cdot\mathbf{T} = 1 \text{ and } \mathbf{T}\cdot\mathbf{N} = 0)\end{aligned}$$

Therefore

9
$$a_T = v' = \frac{\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{a}}{v} = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)\cdot\mathbf{r}''(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

Using the formula for curvature given by Theorem 13.3.10, we have

10
$$a_N = \kappa v^2 = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t)\times\mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^3}|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^2 = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t)\times\mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

EXAMPLE 7 A particle moves with position function $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, t^2, t^3\rangle$. Find the tangential and normal components of acceleration.

SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{r}(t) &= t^2\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t^3\,\mathbf{k}\\ \mathbf{r}'(t) &= 2t\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j} + 3t^2\,\mathbf{k}\\ \mathbf{r}''(t) &= 2\,\mathbf{i} + 2\,\mathbf{j} + 6t\,\mathbf{k}\\ |\mathbf{r}'(t)| &= \sqrt{8t^2 + 9t^4}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore Equation 9 gives the tangential component as

$$a_T = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)\cdot\mathbf{r}''(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{8t + 18t^3}{\sqrt{8t^2 + 9t^4}}$$

Since
$$\mathbf{r}'(t)\times\mathbf{r}''(t) = \begin{vmatrix}\mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k}\\ 2t & 2t & 3t^2\\ 2 & 2 & 6t\end{vmatrix} = 6t^2\,\mathbf{i} - 6t^2\,\mathbf{j}$$

Equation 10 gives the normal component as

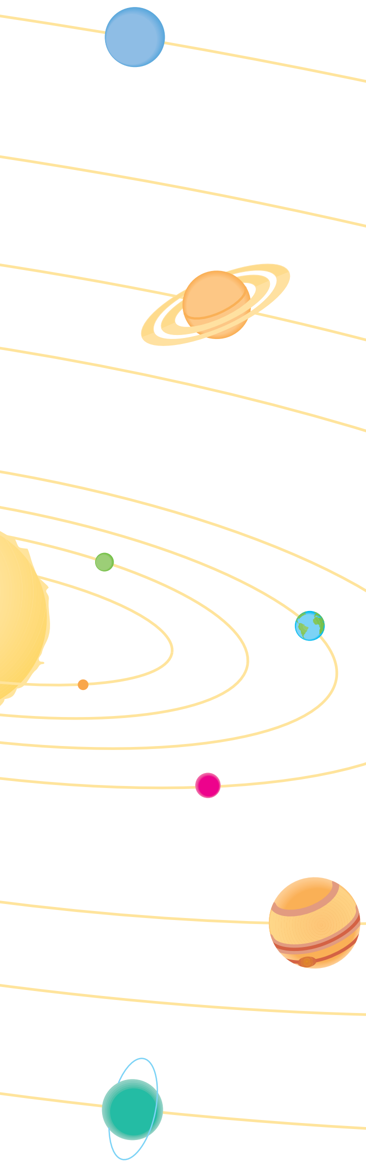
$$a_N = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t)\times\mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{6\sqrt{2}\,t^2}{\sqrt{8t^2 + 9t^4}}$$

Kepler's Laws of Planetary Motion

We now describe one of the great accomplishments of calculus by showing how the material of this chapter can be used to prove Kepler's laws of planetary motion. After 20 years of studying the astronomical observations of the Danish astronomer Tycho Brahe, the German mathematician and astronomer Johannes Kepler (1571–1630) formulated the following three laws.

Kepler's Laws

1. A planet revolves around the sun in an elliptical orbit with the sun at one focus.
2. The line joining the sun to a planet sweeps out equal areas in equal times.
3. The square of the period of revolution of a planet is proportional to the cube of the length of the major axis of its orbit.



In his book *Principia Mathematica* of 1687, Sir Isaac Newton was able to show that these three laws are consequences of two of his own laws, the Second Law of Motion and the Law of Universal Gravitation. In what follows we prove Kepler's First Law. The remaining laws are left as exercises (with hints).

Since the gravitational force of the sun on a planet is so much larger than the forces exerted by other celestial bodies, we can safely ignore all bodies in the universe except the sun and one planet revolving about it. We use a coordinate system with the sun at the origin and we let $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$ be the position vector of the planet. (Equally well, $\mathbf{r}$ could be the position vector of the moon or a satellite moving around the earth or a comet moving around a star.) The velocity vector is $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{r}'$ and the acceleration vector is $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{r}''$. We use the following laws of Newton:

$$\text{Second Law of Motion:} \quad \mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$$

$$\text{Law of Gravitation:} \quad \mathbf{F} = -\frac{GMm}{r^3}\mathbf{r} = -\frac{GMm}{r^2}\mathbf{u}$$

where $\mathbf{F}$ is the gravitational force on the planet, m and M are the masses of the planet and the sun, G is the gravitational constant, $r = |\mathbf{r}|$, and $\mathbf{u} = (1/r)\mathbf{r}$ is the unit vector in the direction of $\mathbf{r}$.

We first show that the planet moves in one plane. By equating the expressions for $\mathbf{F}$ in Newton's two laws, we find that

$$\mathbf{a} = -\frac{GM}{r^3}\mathbf{r}$$

and so $\mathbf{a}$ is parallel to $\mathbf{r}$. It follows that $\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$. We use Formula 5 in Theorem 13.2.3 to write

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v}) &= \mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v}' \\ &= \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore $$\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{h}$$

where $\mathbf{h}$ is a constant vector. (We may assume that $\mathbf{h} \neq \mathbf{0}$; that is, $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are not parallel.) This means that the vector $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$ is perpendicular to $\mathbf{h}$ for all values of t, so the planet always lies in the plane through the origin perpendicular to $\mathbf{h}$. Thus the orbit of the planet is a plane curve.

To prove Kepler's First Law we rewrite the vector $\mathbf{h}$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{h} &= \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{r}' = r\mathbf{u} \times (r\mathbf{u})' \\ &= r\mathbf{u} \times (r\mathbf{u}' + r'\mathbf{u}) = r^2(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}') + rr'(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}) \\ &= r^2(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}')\end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{h} = \frac{-GM}{r^2}\mathbf{u} \times (r^2\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}') = -GM\,\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}')$$

$$= -GM[(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}')\mathbf{u} - (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u})\mathbf{u}'] \qquad \text{(by Theorem 12.4.11, Property 6)}$$

But $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = |\mathbf{u}|^2 = 1$ and, since $|\mathbf{u}(t)| = 1$, it follows from Example 4 in Section 13.2 that $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}' = 0$. Therefore

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{h} = GM\,\mathbf{u}'$$

and so

$$(\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h})' = \mathbf{v}' \times \mathbf{h} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{h} = GM\,\mathbf{u}'$$

Integrating both sides of this equation, we get

$$\boxed{11} \qquad \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h} = GM\,\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{c}$$

where $\mathbf{c}$ is a constant vector.

At this point it is convenient to choose the coordinate axes so that the standard basis vector $\mathbf{k}$ points in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{h}$. Then the planet moves in the xy-plane. Since both $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h}$ and $\mathbf{u}$ are perpendicular to $\mathbf{h}$, Equation 11 shows that $\mathbf{c}$ lies in the xy-plane. This means that we can choose the x- and y-axes so that the vector $\mathbf{i}$ lies in the direction of $\mathbf{c}$, as shown in Figure 8.

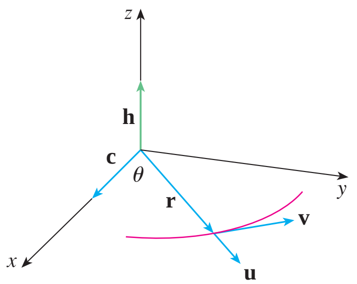


FIGURE 8

If θ is the angle between $\mathbf{c}$ and $\mathbf{r}$, then (r, θ) are polar coordinates of the planet. From Equation 11 we have

$$\mathbf{r} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h}) = \mathbf{r} \cdot (GM\,\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{c}) = GM\,\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{c}$$

$$= GMr\,\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} + |\mathbf{r}||\mathbf{c}|\cos\theta = GMr + rc\cos\theta$$

where $c = |\mathbf{c}|$. Then

$$r = \frac{\mathbf{r} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h})}{GM + c\cos\theta} = \frac{1}{GM}\,\frac{\mathbf{r} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h})}{1 + e\cos\theta}$$

where $e = c/(GM)$. But

$$\mathbf{r} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h}) = (\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{h} = \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{h} = |\mathbf{h}|^2 = h^2$$

where $h = |\mathbf{h}|$. So

$$r = \frac{h^2/(GM)}{1 + e\cos\theta} = \frac{eh^2/c}{1 + e\cos\theta}$$

Writing $d = h^2/c$, we obtain the equation

$$\boxed{12} \qquad r = \frac{ed}{1 + e\cos\theta}$$

Comparing with Theorem 10.6.6, we see that Equation 12 is the polar equation of a conic section with focus at the origin and eccentricity e. We know that the orbit of a planet is a closed curve and so the conic must be an ellipse.

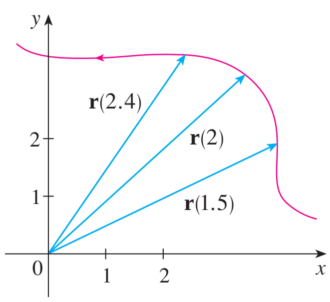
This completes the derivation of Kepler's First Law. We will guide you through the derivation of the Second and Third Laws in the Applied Project on page 896. The proofs of these three laws show that the methods of this chapter provide a powerful tool for describing some of the laws of nature.

13.4 Exercises

1. The table gives coordinates of a particle moving through space along a smooth curve.
(a) Find the average velocities over the time intervals [0, 1], [0.5, 1], [1, 2], and [1, 1.5].
(b) Estimate the velocity and speed of the particle at $t = 1$.

t	x	y	z
0	2.7	9.8	3.7
0.5	3.5	7.2	3.3
1.0	4.5	6.0	3.0
1.5	5.9	6.4	2.8
2.0	7.3	7.8	2.7

2. The figure shows the path of a particle that moves with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at time t.
(a) Draw a vector that represents the average velocity of the particle over the time interval $2 \leqslant t \leqslant 2.4$.
(b) Draw a vector that represents the average velocity over the time interval $1.5 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$.
(c) Write an expression for the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(2)$.
(d) Draw an approximation to the vector $\mathbf{v}(2)$ and estimate the speed of the particle at $t = 2$.



3–8 Find the velocity, acceleration, and speed of a particle with the given position function. Sketch the path of the particle and draw the velocity and acceleration vectors for the specified value of t.

3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle -\frac{1}{2}t^2, t \right\rangle, \quad t = 2$

4. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle 2 - t, 4\sqrt{t} \right\rangle, \quad t = 1$

5. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 3\cos t\,\mathbf{i} + 2\sin t\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = \pi/3$

6. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\,\mathbf{i} + e^{2t}\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 0$

7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + 2\,\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 1$

8. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + 2\cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 0$

9–14 Find the velocity, acceleration, and speed of a particle with the given position function.

9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2 + t, t^2 - t, t^3 \rangle$

10. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2\cos t, 3t, 2\sin t \rangle$

11. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{2}\,t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\,\mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\,\mathbf{k}$

12. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j} + \ln t\,\mathbf{k}$

13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t(\cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k})$

14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, \sin t - t\cos t, \cos t + t\sin t \rangle, \quad t \geqslant 0$

15–16 Find the velocity and position vectors of a particle that has the given acceleration and the given initial velocity and position.

15. $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{i} + 2\,\mathbf{j}, \quad \mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{i}$

16. $\mathbf{a}(t) = 2\,\mathbf{i} + 6t\,\mathbf{j} + 12t^2\,\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$

17–18
(a) Find the position vector of a particle that has the given acceleration and the specified initial velocity and position.
(b) Use a computer to graph the path of the particle.

17. $\mathbf{a}(t) = 2t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + \cos 2t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{j}$

18. $\mathbf{a}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\,\mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\,\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$

19. The position function of a particle is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, 5t, t^2 - 16t \rangle$. When is the speed a minimum?

20. What force is required so that a particle of mass m has the position function $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^3\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t^3\,\mathbf{k}$?

21. A force with magnitude 20 N acts directly upward from the xy-plane on an object with mass 4 kg. The object starts at the origin with initial velocity $\mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$. Find its position function and its speed at time t.

22. Show that if a particle moves with constant speed, then the velocity and acceleration vectors are orthogonal.

23. A projectile is fired with an initial speed of 200 m/s and angle of elevation 60°. Find (a) the range of the projectile, (b) the maximum height reached, and (c) the speed at impact.

24. Rework Exercise 23 if the projectile is fired from a position 100 m above the ground.

25. A ball is thrown at an angle of 45° to the ground. If the ball lands 90 m away, what was the initial speed of the ball?

26. A gun is fired with angle of elevation 30°. What is the muzzle speed if the maximum height of the shell is 500 m?

27. A gun has muzzle speed 150 m/s. Find two angles of elevation that can be used to hit a target 800 m away.

Graphing calculator or computer required   **1.** Homework Hints available at stewartcalculus.com

28. A batter hits a baseball 3 ft above the ground toward the center field fence, which is 10 ft high and 400 ft from home plate. The ball leaves the bat with speed 115 ft/s at an angle 50° above the horizontal. Is it a home run? (In other words, does the ball clear the fence?)

29. A medieval city has the shape of a square and is protected by walls with length 500 m and height 15 m. You are the commander of an attacking army and the closest you can get to the wall is 100 m. Your plan is to set fire to the city by catapulting heated rocks over the wall (with an initial speed of 80 m/s). At what range of angles should you tell your men to set the catapult? (Assume the path of the rocks is perpendicular to the wall.)

30. Show that a projectile reaches three-quarters of its maximum height in half the time needed to reach its maximum height.

31. A ball is thrown eastward into the air from the origin (in the direction of the positive x-axis). The initial velocity is $50\,\mathbf{i} + 80\,\mathbf{k}$, with speed measured in feet per second. The spin of the ball results in a southward acceleration of 4 ft/s^2, so the acceleration vector is $\mathbf{a} = -4\,\mathbf{j} - 32\,\mathbf{k}$. Where does the ball land and with what speed?

32. A ball with mass 0.8 kg is thrown southward into the air with a speed of 30 m/s at an angle of 30° to the ground. A west wind applies a steady force of 4 N to the ball in an easterly direction. Where does the ball land and with what speed?

33. Water traveling along a straight portion of a river normally flows fastest in the middle, and the speed slows to almost zero at the banks. Consider a long straight stretch of river flowing north, with parallel banks 40 m apart. If the maximum water speed is 3 m/s, we can use a quadratic function as a basic model for the rate of water flow x units from the west bank: $f(x) = \frac{3}{400}x(40 - x)$.

(a) A boat proceeds at a constant speed of 5 m/s from a point A on the west bank while maintaining a heading perpendicular to the bank. How far down the river on the opposite bank will the boat touch shore? Graph the path of the boat.

(b) Suppose we would like to pilot the boat to land at the point B on the east bank directly opposite A. If we maintain a constant speed of 5 m/s and a constant heading, find the angle at which the boat should head. Then graph the actual path the boat follows. Does the path seem realistic?

34. Another reasonable model for the water speed of the river in Exercise 33 is a sine function: $f(x) = 3\sin(\pi x/40)$. If a boater would like to cross the river from A to B with constant heading and a constant speed of 5 m/s, determine the angle at which the boat should head.

35. A particle has position function $\mathbf{r}(t)$. If $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{r}(t)$, where $\mathbf{c}$ is a constant vector, describe the path of the particle.

36. (a) If a particle moves along a straight line, what can you say about its acceleration vector?

(b) If a particle moves with constant speed along a curve, what can you say about its acceleration vector?

37–42 Find the tangential and normal components of the acceleration vector.

37. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3t - t^3)\,\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\,\mathbf{j}$

38. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + t)\,\mathbf{i} + (t^2 - 2t)\,\mathbf{j}$

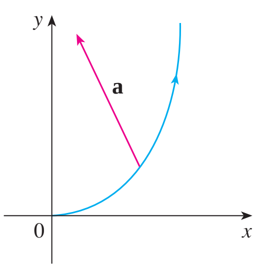
39. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$

40. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + 3t\,\mathbf{k}$

41. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\,\mathbf{i} + \sqrt{2}\,t\,\mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\,\mathbf{k}$

42. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos^2 t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin^2 t\,\mathbf{k}$

43. The magnitude of the acceleration vector $\mathbf{a}$ is 10 cm/s^2. Use the figure to estimate the tangential and normal components of $\mathbf{a}$.



44. If a particle with mass m moves with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$, then its **angular momentum** is defined as $\mathbf{L}(t) = m\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)$ and its **torque** as $\boldsymbol{\tau}(t) = m\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{a}(t)$. Show that $\mathbf{L}'(t) = \boldsymbol{\tau}(t)$. Deduce that if $\boldsymbol{\tau}(t) = \mathbf{0}$ for all t, then $\mathbf{L}(t)$ is constant. (This is the *law of conservation of angular momentum*.)

45. The position function of a spaceship is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (3 + t)\,\mathbf{i} + (2 + \ln t)\,\mathbf{j} + \left(7 - \frac{4}{t^2 + 1}\right)\mathbf{k}$$

and the coordinates of a space station are (6, 4, 9). The captain wants the spaceship to coast into the space station. When should the engines be turned off?

46. A rocket burning its onboard fuel while moving through space has velocity $\mathbf{v}(t)$ and mass $m(t)$ at time t. If the exhaust gases escape with velocity $\mathbf{v}_e$ relative to the rocket, it can be deduced from Newton's Second Law of Motion that

$$m\frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \frac{dm}{dt}\mathbf{v}_e$$

(a) Show that $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{v}(0) - \ln\dfrac{m(0)}{m(t)}\,\mathbf{v}_e$.

(b) For the rocket to accelerate in a straight line from rest to twice the speed of its own exhaust gases, what fraction of its initial mass would the rocket have to burn as fuel?

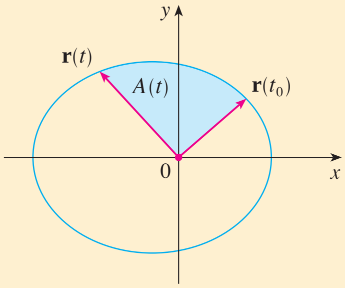
APPLIED PROJECT KEPLER'S LAWS

Johannes Kepler stated the following three laws of planetary motion on the basis of massive amounts of data on the positions of the planets at various times.

Kepler's Laws

1. A planet revolves around the sun in an elliptical orbit with the sun at one focus.
2. The line joining the sun to a planet sweeps out equal areas in equal times.
3. The square of the period of revolution of a planet is proportional to the cube of the length of the major axis of its orbit.

Kepler formulated these laws because they fitted the astronomical data. He wasn't able to see why they were true or how they related to each other. But Sir Isaac Newton, in his *Principia Mathematica* of 1687, showed how to deduce Kepler's three laws from two of Newton's own laws, the Second Law of Motion and the Law of Universal Gravitation. In Section 13.4 we proved Kepler's First Law using the calculus of vector functions. In this project we guide you through the proofs of Kepler's Second and Third Laws and explore some of their consequences.



1. Use the following steps to prove Kepler's Second Law. The notation is the same as in the proof of the First Law in Section 13.4. In particular, use polar coordinates so that $\mathbf{r} = (r\cos\theta)\,\mathbf{i} + (r\sin\theta)\,\mathbf{j}$.

(a) Show that $\mathbf{h} = r^2 \dfrac{d\theta}{dt}\,\mathbf{k}$.

(b) Deduce that $r^2 \dfrac{d\theta}{dt} = h$.

(c) If $A = A(t)$ is the area swept out by the radius vector $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$ in the time interval $[t_0, t]$ as in the figure, show that

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \tfrac{1}{2}r^2\frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

(d) Deduce that

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \tfrac{1}{2}h = \text{constant}$$

This says that the rate at which A is swept out is constant and proves Kepler's Second Law.

2. Let T be the period of a planet about the sun; that is, T is the time required for it to travel once around its elliptical orbit. Suppose that the lengths of the major and minor axes of the ellipse are $2a$ and $2b$.

(a) Use part (d) of Problem 1 to show that $T = 2\pi ab/h$.

(b) Show that $\dfrac{h^2}{GM} = ed = \dfrac{b^2}{a}$.

(c) Use parts (a) and (b) to show that $T^2 = \dfrac{4\pi^2}{GM}a^3$.

This proves Kepler's Third Law. [Notice that the proportionality constant $4\pi^2/(GM)$ is independent of the planet.]

3. The period of the earth's orbit is approximately 365.25 days. Use this fact and Kepler's Third Law to find the length of the major axis of the earth's orbit. You will need the mass of the sun, $M = 1.99 \times 10^{30}$ kg, and the gravitational constant, $G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11}$ N·m^2/kg^2.

4. It's possible to place a satellite into orbit about the earth so that it remains fixed above a given location on the equator. Compute the altitude that is needed for such a satellite. The earth's mass is 5.98×10^{24} kg; its radius is 6.37×10^6 m. (This orbit is called the Clarke Geosynchronous Orbit after Arthur C. Clarke, who first proposed the idea in 1945. The first such satellite, *Syncom II*, was launched in July 1963.)

13 Review

Concept Check

1. What is a vector function? How do you find its derivative and its integral?

2. What is the connection between vector functions and space curves?

3. How do you find the tangent vector to a smooth curve at a point? How do you find the tangent line? The unit tangent vector?

4. If $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are differentiable vector functions, c is a scalar, and f is a real-valued function, write the rules for differentiating the following vector functions.
(a) $\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)$ (b) $c\mathbf{u}(t)$ (c) $f(t)\,\mathbf{u}(t)$
(d) $\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)$ (e) $\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)$ (f) $\mathbf{u}(f(t))$

5. How do you find the length of a space curve given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$?

6. (a) What is the definition of curvature?
(b) Write a formula for curvature in terms of $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and $\mathbf{T}'(t)$.
(c) Write a formula for curvature in terms of $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}''(t)$.
(d) Write a formula for the curvature of a plane curve with equation $y = f(x)$.

7. (a) Write formulas for the unit normal and binormal vectors of a smooth space curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$.
(b) What is the normal plane of a curve at a point? What is the osculating plane? What is the osculating circle?

8. (a) How do you find the velocity, speed, and acceleration of a particle that moves along a space curve?
(b) Write the acceleration in terms of its tangential and normal components.

9. State Kepler's Laws.

True-False Quiz

Determine whether the statement is true or false. If it is true, explain why. If it is false, explain why or give an example that disproves the statement.

1. The curve with vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^3\,\mathbf{i} + 2t^3\,\mathbf{j} + 3t^3\,\mathbf{k}$ is a line.

2. The curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 0, t^2, 4t \rangle$ is a parabola.

3. The curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2t, 3 - t, 0 \rangle$ is a line that passes through the origin.

4. The derivative of a vector function is obtained by differentiating each component function.

5. If $\mathbf{u}(t)$ and $\mathbf{v}(t)$ are differentiable vector functions, then

$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \times \mathbf{v}'(t)$$

6. If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is a differentiable vector function, then

$$\frac{d}{dt}|\mathbf{r}(t)| = |\mathbf{r}'(t)|$$

7. If $\mathbf{T}(t)$ is the unit tangent vector of a smooth curve, then the curvature is $\kappa = |d\mathbf{T}/dt|$.

8. The binormal vector is $\mathbf{B}(t) = \mathbf{N}(t) \times \mathbf{T}(t)$.

9. Suppose f is twice continuously differentiable. At an inflection point of the curve $y = f(x)$, the curvature is 0.

10. If $\kappa(t) = 0$ for all t, the curve is a straight line.

11. If $|\mathbf{r}(t)| = 1$ for all t, then $|\mathbf{r}'(t)|$ is a constant.

12. If $|\mathbf{r}(t)| = 1$ for all t, then $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{r}(t)$ for all t.

13. The osculating circle of a curve C at a point has the same tangent vector, normal vector, and curvature as C at that point.

14. Different parametrizations of the same curve result in identical tangent vectors at a given point on the curve.

Exercises

1. (a) Sketch the curve with vector function

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos \pi t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin \pi t\,\mathbf{k} \qquad t \geqslant 0$$

(b) Find $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}''(t)$.

2. Let $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sqrt{2 - t}, (e^t - 1)/t, \ln(t + 1) \rangle$.
(a) Find the domain of $\mathbf{r}$.
(b) Find $\lim_{t \to 0} \mathbf{r}(t)$.
(c) Find $\mathbf{r}'(t)$.

3. Find a vector function that represents the curve of intersection of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 16$ and the plane $x + z = 5$.

4. Find parametric equations for the tangent line to the curve $x = 2 \sin t$, $y = 2 \sin 2t$, $z = 2 \sin 3t$ at the point $\left(1, \sqrt{3}, 2\right)$. Graph the curve and the tangent line on a common screen.

5. If $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + t \cos \pi t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin \pi t\,\mathbf{k}$, evaluate $\int_0^1 \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt$.

6. Let C be the curve with equations $x = 2 - t^3$, $y = 2t - 1$, $z = \ln t$. Find (a) the point where C intersects the xz-plane, (b) parametric equations of the tangent line at $(1, 1, 0)$, and (c) an equation of the normal plane to C at $(1, 1, 0)$.

7. Use Simpson's Rule with $n = 6$ to estimate the length of the arc of the curve with equations $x = t^2$, $y = t^3$, $z = t^4$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$.

8. Find the length of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2t^{3/2}, \cos 2t, \sin 2t \rangle$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$.

9. The helix $\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$ intersects the curve $\mathbf{r}_2(t) = (1 + t)\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t^3\mathbf{k}$ at the point $(1, 0, 0)$. Find the angle of intersection of these curves.

10. Reparametrize the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + e^t \cos t\,\mathbf{k}$ with respect to arc length measured from the point $(1, 0, 1)$ in the direction of increasing t.

11. For the curve given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle \frac{1}{3}t^3, \frac{1}{2}t^2, t \right\rangle$, find
(a) the unit tangent vector,
(b) the unit normal vector, and
(c) the curvature.

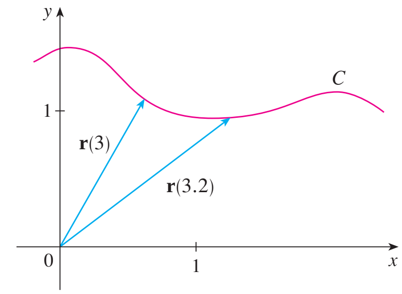
12. Find the curvature of the ellipse $x = 3 \cos t$, $y = 4 \sin t$ at the points $(3, 0)$ and $(0, 4)$.

13. Find the curvature of the curve $y = x^4$ at the point $(1, 1)$.

14. Find an equation of the osculating circle of the curve $y = x^4 - x^2$ at the origin. Graph both the curve and its osculating circle.

15. Find an equation of the osculating plane of the curve $x = \sin 2t$, $y = t$, $z = \cos 2t$ at the point $(0, \pi, 1)$.

16. The figure shows the curve C traced by a particle with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at time t.
(a) Draw a vector that represents the average velocity of the particle over the time interval $3 \leqslant t \leqslant 3.2$.
(b) Write an expression for the velocity $\mathbf{v}(3)$.
(c) Write an expression for the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(3)$ and draw it.



17. A particle moves with position function $\mathbf{r}(t) = t \ln t\,\mathbf{i} + t\,\mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\mathbf{k}$. Find the velocity, speed, and acceleration of the particle.

18. A particle starts at the origin with initial velocity $\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$. Its acceleration is $\mathbf{a}(t) = 6t\,\mathbf{i} + 12t^2\,\mathbf{j} - 6t\,\mathbf{k}$. Find its position function.

19. An athlete throws a shot at an angle of $45°$ to the horizontal at an initial speed of 43 ft/s. It leaves his hand 7 ft above the ground.
(a) Where is the shot 2 seconds later?
(b) How high does the shot go?
(c) Where does the shot land?

20. Find the tangential and normal components of the acceleration vector of a particle with position function

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$$

21. A disk of radius 1 is rotating in the counterclockwise direction at a constant angular speed ω. A particle starts at the center of the disk and moves toward the edge along a fixed radius so that its position at time t, $t \geqslant 0$, is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{R}(t)$, where

$$\mathbf{R}(t) = \cos \omega t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin \omega t\,\mathbf{j}$$

(a) Show that the velocity $\mathbf{v}$ of the particle is

$$\mathbf{v} = \cos \omega t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin \omega t\,\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{v}_d$$

where $\mathbf{v}_d = \mathbf{R}'(t)$ is the velocity of a point on the edge of the disk.

(b) Show that the acceleration $\mathbf{a}$ of the particle is

$$\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{v}_d + t\,\mathbf{a}_d$$

where $\mathbf{a}_d = \mathbf{R}''(t)$ is the acceleration of a point on the rim of the disk. The extra term $2\mathbf{v}_d$ is called the *Coriolis acceleration*; it is the result of the interaction of the rotation of the disk and the motion of the particle. One can obtain a physical demonstration of this acceleration by walking toward the edge of a moving merry-go-round.

Graphing calculator or computer required

(c) Determine the Coriolis acceleration of a particle that moves on a rotating disk according to the equation

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = e^{-t}\cos \omega t\, \mathbf{i} + e^{-t}\sin \omega t\, \mathbf{j}$$

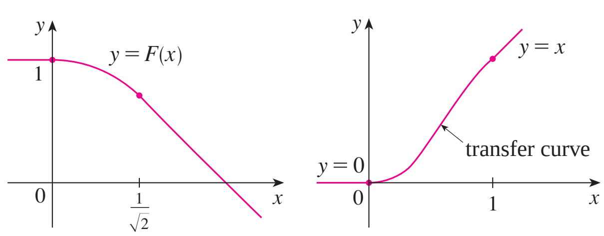
22. In designing *transfer curves* to connect sections of straight railroad tracks, it's important to realize that the acceleration of the train should be continuous so that the reactive force exerted by the train on the track is also continuous. Because of the formulas for the components of acceleration in Section 13.4, this will be the case if the curvature varies continuously.

(a) A logical candidate for a transfer curve to join existing tracks given by $y = 1$ for $x \leqslant 0$ and $y = \sqrt{2} - x$ for $x \geqslant 1/\sqrt{2}$ might be the function $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$, $0 < x < 1/\sqrt{2}$, whose graph is the arc of the circle shown in the figure. It looks reasonable at first glance. Show that the function

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \leqslant 0 \\ \sqrt{1 - x^2} & \text{if } 0 < x < 1/\sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} - x & \text{if } x \geqslant 1/\sqrt{2} \end{cases}$$

is continuous and has continuous slope, but does not have continuous curvature. Therefore f is not an appropriate transfer curve.

(b) Find a fifth-degree polynomial to serve as a transfer curve between the following straight line segments: $y = 0$ for $x \leqslant 0$ and $y = x$ for $x \geqslant 1$. Could this be done with a fourth-degree polynomial? Use a graphing calculator or computer to sketch the graph of the "connected" function and check to see that it looks like the one in the figure.



23. A particle P moves with constant angular speed ω around a circle whose center is at the origin and whose radius is R. The particle is said to be in *uniform circular motion*. Assume that the motion is counterclockwise and that the particle is at the point $(R, 0)$ when $t = 0$. The position vector at time $t \geqslant 0$ is $\mathbf{r}(t) = R\cos \omega t\, \mathbf{i} + R\sin \omega t\, \mathbf{j}$.

(a) Find the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}$ and show that $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{r} = 0$. Conclude that $\mathbf{v}$ is tangent to the circle and points in the direction of the motion.

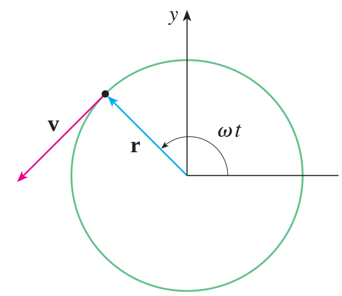
(b) Show that the speed $|\mathbf{v}|$ of the particle is the constant ωR. The *period* T of the particle is the time required for one complete revolution. Conclude that

$$T = \frac{2\pi R}{|\mathbf{v}|} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

(c) Find the acceleration vector $\mathbf{a}$. Show that it is proportional to $\mathbf{r}$ and that it points toward the origin. An acceleration with this property is called a *centripetal acceleration*. Show that the magnitude of the acceleration vector is $|\mathbf{a}| = R\omega^2$.

(d) Suppose that the particle has mass m. Show that the magnitude of the force $\mathbf{F}$ that is required to produce this motion, called a *centripetal force*, is

$$|\mathbf{F}| = \frac{m|\mathbf{v}|^2}{R}$$



24. A circular curve of radius R on a highway is banked at an angle θ so that a car can safely traverse the curve without skidding when there is no friction between the road and the tires. The loss of friction could occur, for example, if the road is covered with a film of water or ice. The rated speed v_R of the curve is the maximum speed that a car can attain without skidding. Suppose a car of mass m is traversing the curve at the rated speed v_R. Two forces are acting on the car: the vertical force, mg, due to the weight of the car, and a force $\mathbf{F}$ exerted by, and normal to, the road (see the figure).

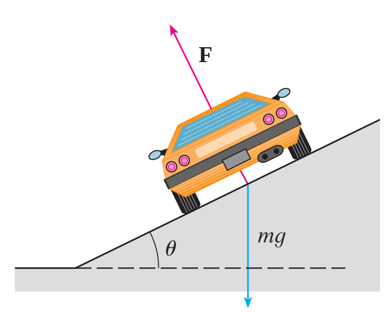
The vertical component of $\mathbf{F}$ balances the weight of the car, so that $|\mathbf{F}|\cos\theta = mg$. The horizontal component of $\mathbf{F}$ produces a centripetal force on the car so that, by Newton's Second Law and part (d) of Problem 23,

$$|\mathbf{F}|\sin\theta = \frac{mv_R^2}{R}$$

(a) Show that $v_R^2 = Rg\tan\theta$.

(b) Find the rated speed of a circular curve with radius 400 ft that is banked at an angle of 12°.

(c) Suppose the design engineers want to keep the banking at 12°, but wish to increase the rated speed by 50%. What should the radius of the curve be?



Problems Plus

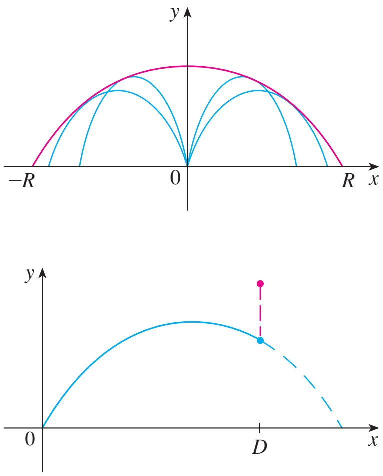


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 1

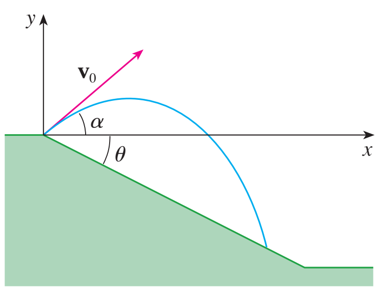


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 2

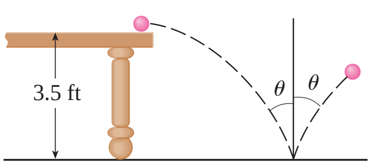


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 3

1. A projectile is fired from the origin with angle of elevation α and initial speed v_0. Assuming that air resistance is negligible and that the only force acting on the projectile is gravity, g, we showed in Example 5 in Section 13.4 that the position vector of the projectile is $\mathbf{r}(t) = (v_0 \cos \alpha)t\,\mathbf{i} + \left[(v_0 \sin \alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2\right]\mathbf{j}$. We also showed that the maximum horizontal distance of the projectile is achieved when $\alpha = 45°$ and in this case the range is $R = v_0^2/g$.

(a) At what angle should the projectile be fired to achieve maximum height and what is the maximum height?

(b) Fix the initial speed v_0 and consider the parabola $x^2 + 2Ry - R^2 = 0$, whose graph is shown in the figure. Show that the projectile can hit any target inside or on the boundary of the region bounded by the parabola and the x-axis, and that it can't hit any target outside this region.

(c) Suppose that the gun is elevated to an angle of inclination α in order to aim at a target that is suspended at a height h directly over a point D units downrange. The target is released at the instant the gun is fired. Show that the projectile always hits the target, regardless of the value v_0, provided the projectile does not hit the ground "before" D.

2. (a) A projectile is fired from the origin down an inclined plane that makes an angle θ with the horizontal. The angle of elevation of the gun and the initial speed of the projectile are α and v_0, respectively. Find the position vector of the projectile and the parametric equations of the path of the projectile as functions of the time t. (Ignore air resistance.)

(b) Show that the angle of elevation α that will maximize the downhill range is the angle halfway between the plane and the vertical.

(c) Suppose the projectile is fired up an inclined plane whose angle of inclination is θ. Show that, in order to maximize the (uphill) range, the projectile should be fired in the direction halfway between the plane and the vertical.

(d) In a paper presented in 1686, Edmond Halley summarized the laws of gravity and projectile motion and applied them to gunnery. One problem he posed involved firing a projectile to hit a target a distance R up an inclined plane. Show that the angle at which the projectile should be fired to hit the target but use the least amount of energy is the same as the angle in part (c). (Use the fact that the energy needed to fire the projectile is proportional to the square of the initial speed, so minimizing the energy is equivalent to minimizing the initial speed.)

3. A ball rolls off a table with a speed of 2 ft/s. The table is 3.5 ft high.

(a) Determine the point at which the ball hits the floor and find its speed at the instant of impact.

(b) Find the angle θ between the path of the ball and the vertical line drawn through the point of impact (see the figure).

(c) Suppose the ball rebounds from the floor at the same angle with which it hits the floor, but loses 20% of its speed due to energy absorbed by the ball on impact. Where does the ball strike the floor on the second bounce?

4. Find the curvature of the curve with parametric equations

$$x = \int_0^t \sin\left(\tfrac{1}{2}\pi\theta^2\right) d\theta \qquad y = \int_0^t \cos\left(\tfrac{1}{2}\pi\theta^2\right) d\theta$$

5. If a projectile is fired with angle of elevation α and initial speed v, then parametric equations for its trajectory are $x = (v \cos \alpha)t$, $y = (v \sin \alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$. (See Example 5 in Section 13.4.) We know that the range (horizontal distance traveled) is maximized when $\alpha = 45°$. What value of α maximizes the total distance traveled by the projectile? (State your answer correct to the nearest degree.)

6. A cable has radius r and length L and is wound around a spool with radius R without overlapping. What is the shortest length along the spool that is covered by the cable?

7. Show that the curve with vector equation

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle a_1t^2 + b_1t + c_1,\, a_2t^2 + b_2t + c_2,\, a_3t^2 + b_3t + c_3 \rangle$$

lies in a plane and find an equation of the plane.