These notes suck

Calculus III

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Contents

Three-Dimensional Space

In past math classes, we have been used to dealing in $\mathbb{R}^2$ where we work with two degrees of freedom: x and y. Now, we will be working in $\mathbb{R}^3$ with three degrees of freedom: x, y, and z.

1.1 Points

Definition 1.1.1 ▶ Point

A **point** in $\mathbb{R}^n$ space is an n-tuple that specifies a location in that space.

$$p = (p_1, \ldots, p_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Definition 1.1.2 ▶ Distance

Given two points $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the **distance** between the two points is defined as:

$$d(a, b) := \sqrt{(b_1 - a_1)^2 + \cdots + (b_n - a_n)^2}$$

Example 1.1.3 ▶ Distance Between Points

Find the distance between $p_1 = (-1, -1, 4)$ and $p_2 = (-1, 4, -1)$.

$$\begin{aligned} d(p_1, p_2) &= \sqrt{(-1 - (-1))^2 + (4 - (-1))^2 + (-1 - 1)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{0^2 + 5^2 + (-5)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{50} \end{aligned}$$

Definition 1.1.4 ▶ Sphere

Given a point $c = (h, k, l) \in \mathbb{R}^3$, a **sphere** is the set of all points $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ that are a distance r from the point $c = (h, k, l)$.

$$(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 + (z - l)^2 = r^2$$

Note that all the points of the sphere are equidistant to the center of the sphere. This means the sphere is really a hollow shell.

> **Example 1.1.5 ▸ Circle**
>
> Show that the following quadratic equation represents a circle by rewriting it in standard form. Find the center $c = (h, k)$ and the radius r.
>
> $$x^2 + y^2 + x = 0$$
>
> ---
>
> To solve this, we will have to complete the square:
>
> $$x^2 + x + y^2 = 0$$
> $$\implies x^2 + x + \frac{1}{4} + y^2 = \frac{1}{4}$$
> $$\implies \left(x + \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + y^2 = \frac{1}{4}$$

1.2   Vectors

> **Definition 1.2.1 ▸ Vector**
>
> A **vector** is a mathematical object that contains multiple objects of the same type.
>
> $$\vec{v} = \langle v_1, \dots, v_n \rangle \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

As customary in most mathematics textbooks, we will always denote vectors using the little arrow thing. In the context of three-dimensional space, we will only be working with vectors with three components. In addition, we will think of vectors as having a magnitude and direction.

> **Definition 1.2.2 ▸ Scalar Multiplication**
>
> Given a vector $\vec{v}$ and scalar k, we define **scalar multiplication** as:
>
> $$k \cdot \vec{v} := \langle kv_1, \dots, kv_n \rangle$$

Note that scalar multiplication is associative, commutative, and distributive.

- $a(b\vec{v}) = b(a(\vec{v})) = (ab)\vec{v}$

- $(k_1 + k_2)\vec{v} = k_1\vec{v} + k_2\vec{v}$

- $k(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = kv + k\vec{w}$

Definition 1.2.3 ▶ Norm

A vector's **_norm_** is its magnitude or length.

$$\|v\| := \sqrt{v_1^2 + \cdots + v_n^2}$$

Definition 1.2.4 ▶ Unit Vector

A **_unit vector_** is a vector whose magnitude is 1.

We will introduce shorthand notation for the three standard unit vectors:

- $\hat{i} := \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle$

- $\hat{j} := \langle 0, 1, 0 \rangle$

- $\hat{k} := \langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle$

These three vectors form the **_standard basis_** for $\mathbb{R}^3$. That is, we can express any vector in $\mathbb{R}^3$ as a linear combination of $\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$.

Technique 1.2.5 ▶ Finding a Unit Vector from a Given Vector

Given a vector $\vec{v} = \langle x, y, z \rangle \in \mathbb{R}^3$, we can find the **_unit vector_** $\vec{u}$ with the same direction by:

$$\vec{u} = \frac{\vec{v}}{\|v\|} = \left\langle \frac{x}{\|v\|}, \frac{y}{\|v\|}, \frac{z}{\|v\|} \right\rangle$$

Definition 1.2.6 ▶ Dot Product

Given two vectors $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ whose cardinality are both n, we define the **_dot product_** of $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ as:

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} := a_1 b_1 + \cdots + a_n b_n$$

Like scalar multiplication, dot product is also associative, commutative, and distributive.

> ## Theorem 1.2.7 ▶ Angle Between Vectors
>
> If $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ are vectors and θ is the angle between $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$, then:
>
> $$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \|\vec{a}\| \, \|\vec{b}\| \cdot \cos(\theta)$$
>
> *Proof.* TODO: finish proof   ☐

> ## Definition 1.2.8 ▶ Parallel, Perpendicular
>
> - Two vectors are *parallel* if the angle between the vectors is 0 deg.
> - Two vectors are *perpendicular* if the angle between the vectors is 90 deg.

> ## Definition 1.2.9 ▶ Vector Orthogonality
>
> We say two vectors are *orthogonal* if their dot product is 0.

In other words, $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ are *orthogonal* if $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$.

Given a vector $\vec{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$, we have:

$$\frac{\vec{a}}{\|a\|} = \langle \cos\alpha, \cos\beta, \cos\gamma \rangle$$

where:

- $\alpha = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{a_1}{\|\vec{a}\|}\right)$ (angle between $\vec{a}$ and the x-axis)
- $\beta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{a_2}{\|\vec{a}\|}\right)$ (angle between $\vec{a}$ and the y-axis)
- $\beta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{a_3}{\|\vec{a}\|}\right)$ (angle between $\vec{a}$ and the z-axis)

> ## Definition 1.2.10 ▶ Work
>
> If F is a force moving a particle from a point P to a point Q, the *work* performed by the force is given by:
> $$W = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{PQ}$$

> **Example 1.2.11 ▸ Finding Work**
>
> Find the work done by a force $\vec{F} = \langle 3, 4, 5 \rangle$ in moving an object from $p = (2, 1, 0)$ to $q = (4, 6, 2)$.

First, we find $\vec{pq}$ as such:

$$\begin{aligned}
\vec{pq} &= \langle 4 - 2, 6 - 1, 2 - 0 \rangle \\
&= \langle 2, 5, 2 \rangle
\end{aligned}$$

Then, we can find work:

$$\begin{aligned}
W &= \vec{F} \cdot \vec{PQ} \\
&= \langle 3, 4, 5 \rangle \cdot \langle 2, 5, 2 \rangle \\
&= 6 + 20 + 10 \\
&= 36
\end{aligned}$$

1.3 Gradient

> **Definition 1.3.1 ▸ Gradient**
>
> Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function. The ***gradient*** of f is a function $\nabla f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ defined by:
> $$\nabla f(x_1, \dots x_n) = \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \right\rangle$$

> **Example 1.3.2 ▸ Gradient**
>
> Let $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function defined by $f(T, L, \rho) = \frac{1}{2L}\sqrt{\frac{T}{\rho}}$
>
> The gradient of $f(T, L, P)$ is denoted
>
> $$\begin{aligned}
\nabla f(T, L, \rho) &= \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial T}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial L}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial \rho} \right\rangle \\
&= \left\langle \frac{1}{4L\sqrt{T\rho}}, -\frac{1}{2L^2}\sqrt{\frac{T}{\rho}}, -\frac{1}{4L}\sqrt{\frac{T}{\rho^3}} \right\rangle
\end{aligned}$$

We can then calculate gradient as such:

$$\nabla f(2,1,1) = \left\langle \frac{1}{4(1)\sqrt{(2)(1)}}, -\frac{1}{2(1)}\sqrt{\frac{2}{1}}, -\frac{1}{(4)(1)}\sqrt{\frac{2}{1}} \right\rangle$$

$$= \left\langle \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{4} \right\rangle$$

Definition 1.3.3 ▶ Directional Derivative

The **_directional derivative_** of $f(x,y,z)$ in the direction of $\vec{a}$ is defined as:

$$\nabla f(x,y,z) \cdot \frac{\vec{a}}{\|\vec{a}\|}$$

Example 1.3.4 ▶ Directional Derivative

If $f(x,y,z) = xy^2z^5$, find the directional derivative of $f(x,y,z)$ at the point $(1,0,-2)$ in the direction of the unit vector $\vec{u} = \frac{\vec{a}}{\|\vec{a}\|}, \vec{a} = \langle 1,2,-2 \rangle$.

For this, we calculate $\nabla f(1,0,-1)$, then calculate the dot product of $\nabla f(1,0,-1)$ with the unit vector $\vec{u} = \langle 1/3, 2/3, -2/3 \rangle$. Thus, the directional derivative of $f(x,y,z)$ at $(1,0,-1)$ denoted by $Df(1,0,-1)$ in the direction of $\vec{u}$ is:

$$Df(1,0,-1) = \nabla f(1,2,-2) \cdot \vec{u}$$

$$= \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right\rangle \cdot \vec{u}$$

$$= \langle 0,0,0 \rangle \cdot \left\langle \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{2}{3} \right\rangle$$

$$= 0$$

1.4 Projecting Vectors

Projecting a vector onto another vector

Definition 1.4.1 ▶ Scalar Projection

Given $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$, the **scalar projection** of $\vec{b}$ onto $\vec{a}$ is the norm of the vector projection of $\vec{b}$ onto $\vec{a}$.

$$\text{comp}_{\vec{a}}\, \vec{b} := \frac{\vec{b} \cdot \vec{a}}{\|\vec{a}\|}$$

Definition 1.4.2 ▶ Vector Projection

Given $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ that are non-zero vectors, the **vector projection** of $\vec{b}$ onto the vector $\vec{a}$ is defined by:

$$\text{proj}_{\vec{a}}\, \vec{b} := \text{comp}_{\vec{a}}\, \vec{b}\, \frac{\vec{a}}{\|\vec{a}\|}$$

1.5   Cross Product

Definition 1.5.1 ▶ Cross Product

Given two vectors $\vec{a}, \vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^3$, the **cross product** of $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ is a vector that is orthogonal to both $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$.

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} := \vec{c} \quad \text{where} \quad \vec{a} \cdot \vec{c} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{b} \cdot \vec{c} = 0$$

The cross product is exclusive to vectors in three dimensions.

Technique 1.5.2 ▶ Calculating Cross Product

Let $\vec{a} := \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\vec{b} := \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$ To find $\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$, we:

1. Create a matrix as such:
$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

2. Find the determinant of the matrix by cofactor expansion on the first row.

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \hat{i} \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & a_3 \\ b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} - \hat{j} \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} + \hat{k} \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \hat{i}(a_2 b_3 - b_2 a_3) - \hat{j}(a_1 b_3 - b_1 a_3) + \hat{k}(a_1 b_2 - b_1 a_2)$$

$$= \langle a_2 b_3 - b_2 a_3, \ -a_1 b_3 + b_1 a_3, \ a_1 b_2 - b_1 a_2 \rangle$$

- $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = -\vec{b} \times \vec{a}$

- $\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = \vec{a} \times \vec{b} + \vec{a} \times \vec{c}$

- $(\vec{a} + \vec{b}) \times \vec{c} = \vec{a} \times \vec{c} + \vec{b} \times \vec{c}$

- If $r \in \mathbb{R}$, then $(r\vec{a}) \times \vec{b} = \vec{a} \times (r\vec{b}) = r(\vec{a} \times \vec{b})$

- $\vec{a} \cdot (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) = (\vec{a} \times \vec{b}) \cdot c$

- $\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) = (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{c})\vec{b} - (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b})\vec{c}.$

Theorem 1.5.3

If $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ are two non-zero vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$ and θ is the angle between $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$, then:

$$\|\vec{a} \times \vec{b}\| = \|\vec{a}\|\|\vec{b}\| \sin \theta$$

Technique 1.5.4 ▶ Using Cross Product to Calculate Torque

If $\vec{F}$ is a force applied to an object with position vector $\vec{r}$, then the torque $\vec{T}$ produced by $\vec{F}$ is given by:

$$\vec{T} := \vec{r} \times \vec{F}$$

1.6 Cylinders and Quadratic Surfaces

Definition 1.6.1 ▶ Planar Curve

A **planar curve** is any curve that lies on a single plane.

> ### Definition 1.6.2 ▸ Cylinder
>
> Given a planar curve c, the surface in $\mathbb{R}^3$ defined by all parallel lines crossing the curve c is called a **cylinder**.

Note that our broad definition of cylinder does not require the cylinder to be circular, nor does it require it to be straight. For example, we could have a planar curve defined by $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and create a circular cylinder with radius 1. We could also have a planar curve defined by $y = x^2$ and create a **parabolic cylinder**.

> ### Example 1.6.3
>
> Consider the curve $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$. For every z_0 at $x = y = 0$, we have a point, say $p := (0, 0, 0)$yh

> ### Definition 1.6.4 ▸ Cone

> ### Definition 1.6.5 ▸ Conic Surface
>
> A **conic surface** is a surface that is attained by taking a cross-section of a cone.

There are four types of conic surfaces:

1. The cross-section parallel to the xy-plane is a **circle**.
2. The cross-section slightly angled from the xy-plane is a **ellipse**.
3. The cross-section parallel to a generating line is a **parabola**.
4. The cross-section parallel to the z axis is a **hyperbola**.

> ### Definition 1.6.6 ▸ Quadratic Surface
>
> A **quadratic surface** in $\mathbb{R}^3$ is the set of points whose coordinates satisfy a quadratic polynomial in the variables x, y, z.

For example, the standard equation for a sphere is a quadratic surface.

> **Definition 1.6.7 ▶ Ellipsoid**
>
> An *ellipsoid* is a quadratic surface in $\mathbb{R}^3$ defined by the equation:
>
> $$\frac{(x-h)^2}{a^2} + \frac{(y-k)^2}{b^2} + \frac{(z-l)^2}{c^2} = 1$$

The cross-sections of an ellipsoid with each coordinate plane (xy-plane, xz-plane, yz-plane) is just an ellipse. In other words:

- If we set $z = l$, we get an ellipse in the xy-plane
- If we set $y = k$, we get an ellipse in the xz-plane
- If we set $x = h$, we get an ellipse in the yz-plane

We can also have **hyperboloids**:

- Type 1: $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$
- Type 2: $\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$

For type 2 hyperboloids, its cross-section with the xy and xz plane is a hyperbola. Note that there is no cross-section with the yz plane. This is because the equation $-\frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$ has no solution in the real numbers.

The standard form equation for a parabola is:

$$z - l = \pm c \left[(x-l)^2 + (y-k)^2 \right]$$

TODO: more quadratic surfaces here

Vector Functions

> ### Definition 2.0.1 ▶ Vector Function
>
> A **vector function** $\vec{r}(t)$ is a function that maps each $t \in \mathbb{R}$ to a corresponding vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$. In other words:
> $$\vec{r} : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^n$$

For example, we can have $\vec{r}(t) = \langle 2 - 3t, 5 - 7t, t \rangle$. Then $\vec{r}(t)$ is a vector function that parameterizes a line that passes through $(2, 5, 0)$ and with vector direction $\vec{v} = \langle -3, -7, 1 \rangle$.

> ### Example 2.0.2 ▶ Circle Vector Function
>
> Let $\vec{r_1}(t) = \langle \cos t, \sin t \rangle$ where $0 \le t < 2\pi$. This function's graph is a circle of radius 1. We can think of this as $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$.
>
> Similarly, consider $\vec{r_2}(t) = \langle 5 \cos t, 8 \sin t \rangle$. Thus, $x/5 = \cos t$ and $y/8 = \sin t$. Using the equation $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$, we now have $(x/5)^2 + (y/8)^2 = 1$. It's an ellipse.

If a vector function is given by $\vec{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$, then the domain of $\vec{r}(t)$ is the intersection of the domains of f, g, h. This is denoted as $\text{Dom}(\vec{r}(t))$.

2.1 Limits and Continuity

If $\vec{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$ is a vector function, we say that:

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

> Recall L'Hopital's rule:
> $$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$
> Only applies if the left-hand side is an indeterminate form (i.e. a fraction whose denominator is 0).

> ### Definition 2.1.1 ▶ Continuity
>
> We say a function $f : X \to Y$ is **continuous** at some value a if:
> 1. $a \in X$,
> 2. $\lim_{x \to a} f(x)$ exists, and
> 3. $f(a) = \lim_{x \to a} f(x)$

Similarly, a vector function is continuous if it satisfies the above conditions.

Recall that for a function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, the derivative at some value x can be generalized by:

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

Similarly, the derivative of a vector function at some value x can be generalized as:

$$\vec{r}(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\vec{r}(x+h) - \vec{r}(x)}{h}$$

Thus, if $\vec{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$, we have:

$$\vec{r}'(t) = \langle f'(t), g'(t), h'(t) \rangle$$

> ### Theorem 2.1.2 ▶ Properties of the differentials of vector functions
>
> Let $\vec{u}(t) = \langle f_1(t), g_1(t), h_1(t) \rangle$ and $\vec{v}(t) = \langle f_2(t), g_2(t), h_2(t) \rangle$ where $f_1, g_1, h_1, f_2, g_2, h_2$ are differentiable. Let c be a scalar. Then:
>
> - $\frac{d}{dt}\vec{u}(t) = \langle f_1{}'(t), g_1{}'(t), h_1{}'(t) \rangle$
>
> - $\frac{d}{dt}\left(\vec{u}(t) + \vec{v}(t)\right) = \frac{d}{dt}\vec{u}(t) + \frac{d}{dt}\vec{v}(t)$
>
> - $\frac{d}{dt}c\vec{v}(t) = c\frac{d}{dt}\vec{v}(t)$
>
> - $\frac{d}{dt}f(t)\vec{v}(t) = f'(t)\vec{v}(t) + f(t)\vec{v}'(t)$
>
> - $\frac{d}{dt}\vec{u}(t) \cdot \vec{v}(t) = \vec{u}'(t) \cdot \vec{v}(t) + \vec{u}(t) \cdot \vec{v}'(t)$
>
> - $\frac{d}{dt}\vec{u}(t) \times \vec{v}(t) = \vec{u}'(t) \times \vec{v}(t) + \vec{u}(t) \times \vec{v}'(t)$ (note that order here is sensitive)
>
> - $\frac{d}{dt}\vec{u}(f(t)) = \vec{u}'(f(t))f'(t)$

If we consider the curve C formed by all the terminal points of the graph of a continuous vector function $\vec{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$, we call $\vec{r}(t)$ a ***parameterization*** of the curve C, and we call $\vec{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$ the ***displacement vector***.

Example 2.1.3

Find the parametric equations of the tangent line to the helix with parameterization $\vec{r}(t) := \langle 2\cos t, \sin t, t \rangle$ at the point $(0, 1, \pi/2)$

$$\vec{r}'\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \left\langle -2\sin\frac{\pi}{2}, \cos\frac{\pi}{2}, 1 \right\rangle$$

Then the parameterized line is:

$$\left\langle 0, 1, \frac{\pi}{2} \right\rangle + t\langle -2, 0, 1 \rangle$$

2.2 Integrability

If $\vec{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$ for $t \in \mathbb{R}$, and $x(t)$, $y(t)$, and $z(t)$ are integrable on the interval $[a, b]$, then:

$$\int_a^b \vec{r}(t)\,dt = \int_a^b \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle\,dt$$

$$= \left\langle \int_a^b x(t)\,dt, \int_a^b y(t)\,dt, \int_a^b z(t)\,dt \right\rangle$$

If $\vec{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$ where $t \in [a, b]$, and if $\vec{r}$ is a parameterization of a curve C, then $\vec{v}(t) = \vec{r}'(t)$ is the ***velocity*** vector, and $\vec{a}(t) = \vec{r}''(t)$ is the ***acceleration vector***. Also, $\|\vec{r}'(t)\|$ is the ***speed***, and $\|\vec{r}''(t)\|$ is the ***acceleration***.

Definition 2.2.1 ▶ Unit Tangent Vector

Given $\vec{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$, the ***unit tangent vector*** is a unit vector that is tangent to the curve defined by $\vec{r}(t)$.

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

> **Definition 2.2.2 ▶ Normal Vector**
>
> Given $\vec{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t)\rangle$, the **normal vector** is a unit vector that
>
> finish definition
>
> $$N(t) := \frac{\vec{r}''(t)}{\|\vec{r}''(t)\|}$$

> **Definition 2.2.3 ▶ Osculating Plane, Binormal Vector**
>
> At each point t, $T(t)$ and $N(t)$ determine a plane called the **osculating plane**. An equation of the osculating plane to C at $P_0 = \vec{r}(t)$ has a normal direction $B(t) := T(t) \times N(t)$ called the **binormal vector** to the curve C at p_0. The plane determined by $N(t)$ and $B(t)$ is called the **normal plane** to the curve C at terminal point of $\vec{r}(t) = p_0$, and it has normal direction given by $T(t)$.

2.3   Arc Length and Curvature

If a curve in the xy-plane is parameterized by $x = f(t)$ and $y = g(t)$ for $t \in [a, b]$, and f and g are differentiable on $[a, b]$, then the total arc length of the curve is given by:

$$\int_a^b \sqrt{f'(t)^2 + g'(t)^2}\, dt$$

Similarly, if C is a curve in $\mathbb{R}^3$ parameterized by a vector function $\vec{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t)\rangle$ for $t \in [a, b]$. Then the total arc length of the curve is given by:

> **Arc Length of a Curve in $\mathbb{R}^3$**
>
> $$\int_a^b \sqrt{f'(t)^2 + g'(t)^2 + h'(t)^2}\, dt$$

> **Definition 2.3.1 ▶ Curvature, Osculating Circle**
>
> The **curvature** of a curve at some point is how much it curves at that point. More specifically, it's the inverse of the radius of the **osculating circle**, tangent to the point that most closely "matches" the curve. This circle is called the **osculation circle**, and it lies in the osculating plane.

Formally, if C is a curve parameterized by $\vec{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$ for $t \in [a, b]$, and f, g, h are differentiable twice on $[a, b]$, then the **curvature** of C is given by:

$$k(t) := \left\| \frac{d}{ds} \vec{T}(t) \right\| = \frac{\|\vec{T}'(t)\|}{\|\vec{r}'(t)\|}$$

A lower curvature at some point actually means that it curves more.

Theorem 2.3.2

The curvature given by a vector function $\vec{r}(t) : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^3$ is given by:

$$k(t) = \frac{\|\vec{r}'(t) \times \vec{r}''(t)\|}{\|\vec{r}'(t)\|^3}$$

If C is a planar curve given by $y = f(x)$, then $k(t) = \dfrac{\|f''(t)\|}{\left(1 + [f'(t)]^2\right)^{3/2}}$

Definition 2.3.3 ▶ Torsion

The **torsion** of a curve C at a point $\vec{r}(t)$ (the endpoint of $\vec{r}(t)$) is a measure of how much C departs from the osculating plane.

$$\tau := \frac{d}{ds} \vec{B}(t) \cdot \vec{N}(t)$$

Theorem 2.3.4

If C is a "smooth" curve parameterized by $\vec{r}(t)$, then the torsion is given by:

$$\tau := \frac{\left[\vec{r}'(t) \times \vec{r}''(t) \right] \cdot \vec{r}'''(t)}{\|\vec{r}'(t) \times \vec{r}''(t)\|}$$

Tangential component of $\vec{a}$ is given by:

$$a_T = \frac{\vec{r}'(t) \cdot \vec{r}''(t)}{\|\vec{r}'(t)\|}$$

2.4 Projectile Motion

Suppose we launch some projectile from an initial position $(0, 0)$, initial angle θ, and initial velocity $\vec{v}_0$. Disregarding air resistance, the only force acting on this projectile is gravity. Thus, the force vector is given by $\vec{F} = \langle 0, -g, 0 \rangle$ where g is a gravitational constant. Then, the velocity at any time t is given by:

$$\vec{t} = Q1RFSDA$$

Partial Derivatives

3.1   Functions of Several Variables

We will only be concerned with functions in the real numbers.

> **Definition 3.1.1** ▸ **Function of n Variables**
>
> A **function of n variables** is a function $f : X \to Y$ where $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. In other words, it maps ordered pairs of real numbers $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ to some real number $y \in \mathbb{R}$. In this context, we call $x_1, \dots, x_n$ **independent variables** and call y a **dependent variable**.

We will mostly be concerned with functions of two variables, mapping ordered pairs of real numbers to a unique real number. These functions exist in a three-dimensional space, and are thus relatively easy to visualize.

> **Definition 3.1.2** ▸ **Graph**
>
> Let f be a function of two variables with domain D. The **graph** of f is the set of points $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ such that $(x, y) \in D$ and $z = f(x, y)$

The graph of a function gives us a really nice visualization of three-dimensional functions. Take for instance a function in two variables defined as $f(x, y) = 6 - 3x - 2y$. ————— finish example

> **Definition 3.1.3** ▸ **Level Curve**
>
> Let f be a function of two variables. A **level curve** of f is a curve with equation $f(x, y) = k$ for a fixed k in the range of f.
>
> Formally, let $f : A \to B$ be a function where $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ and $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Let $z \in f[A]$ (the range of f). A **level curve** is the set of all (x, y, z) such that $f(x, y) = z$.

We call a collection of level curves a **contour map**. Contour maps are most descriptive when the level curves are equally spaced; that is, we choose equally spaced z values.

3.2 Limits and Continuity

Definition 3.2.1 ▶ Limits for functions of two variables

Let f be a function of two variables with domain D. We say the **limit** as f approaches (a, b) is L if, for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists some $\delta > 0$ such that for all $(x, y) \in D$, if $0 < \sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2} < \delta$, then $|f(x, y) - L| < \epsilon$.

$$\forall(\epsilon > 0)\exists(\delta > 0)\forall((x, y) \in D)\left(0 < \sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2} < \delta \implies |f(x, y) - L| < \epsilon\right)$$

> make sure this definition is correct

In other words, for any arbitrarily small distance ϵ, there is some disc of points around (x, y) such that every point in that disc maps to something within ϵ distance of the limit L.

Example 3.2.2 ▶ Proving the Limit

Let $f(x, y) = \frac{3x^2}{x^2+y^2}$. Prove that $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x, y) = 0$.

Intuition: We may be tempted to try a bunch of curves approaching $(0, 0)$ and show that those curves follow the limit. However, this would have to work for every possible curve, so this method is not exhaustive. Instead, we need to leverage the formal definition of the limit.

Note that $x^2 \leq x^2 + y^2$. If $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$, then we can divide both sides by $x^2 + y^2$ to attain $\frac{x^2}{x^2+y^2} \leq 1$. Multiplying both sides by 3, we get $\frac{3x^2}{x^2+y^2} \leq 3$. Also, since $y \neq 0$, then $|y| > 0$. Thus, we can multiply both sides by $|y|$ to get:

$$|f(x, y)| = \left|\frac{3x^2 y}{x^2 + y^2}\right| = \frac{3x^2 |y|}{x^2 + y^2} \leq 3|y|$$

Also note that the distance between $(0, 0)$ and (x, y) is given by $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. Thus, we also have:

$$3|y| \leq 3\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < 3\delta < \epsilon$$

Thus, we want to choose some $\delta \leq \frac{\epsilon}{3}$.

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$. Let $\delta \le \frac{\epsilon}{3}$. Then, for all $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < \delta = \frac{\epsilon}{3}$, we have:

$$\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

$$\implies \quad |y| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

$$\implies \quad 3|y| < \epsilon$$

$$\implies \quad \frac{3x^2|y|}{x^2 + y^2} < \epsilon$$

$$\implies \quad \left|\frac{3x^2 y}{x^2 + y^2}\right| < \epsilon$$

$$\implies \quad \left|\frac{3x^2 y}{x^2 + y^2} - 0\right| < \epsilon$$

$$\implies \quad |f(x, y) - 0| < \epsilon$$

Therefore, $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x, y) = 0$. $\qquad\square$

The calculation of limits can be greatly simplified by using the properties of limits:

Theorem 3.2.3 ▶ Properties of Limits

Suppose we had had:

$$\lim_{(x,y,z)\to(a,b,c)} f(x, y, z) = l_f \quad \textbf{and} \quad \lim_{(x,y,z)\to(a,b,c)} g(x, y, z) = l_g$$

Then:

1. $\lim_{(x,y,z)\to(a,b,c)} [f(x, y, z) + g(x, y, z)] = l_f + l_g$
2. For a constant $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $\lim_{(x,y,z)\to(a,b,c)} [cf(x, y, z)] = cl_f$
3. $\lim_{(x,y,z)\to(a,b,c)} [f(x, y, z) \cdot g(x, y, z)] = l_f \cdot l_g$
4. If $l_g \ne 0$, then $\lim_{(x,y,z)\to(a,b,c)} \left[\frac{f(x,y,z)}{g(x,y,z)}\right] = \frac{l_f}{l_g}$.

Definition 3.2.4 ▶ Continuity

Let f be a function of two variables with domain D. We say that f is ***continuous*** at a point $(a, b) \in D$ if:

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,b)} f(x, y) = f(a, b)$$

We say that f is ***continuous*** on D if f is continuous at every point $(a, b) \in D$.

Intuitively, we can think of a function being continuous if it has no gaps or sudden breaks.

> All polynomials are continuous on $\mathbb{R}^2$, and all rational functions are continuous on their domains.

Consider the function $f(x, y) = \frac{3x^2 y}{x^2 + y^2}$. This function is defined every except at $(0, 0)$. Thus, we have a gap discontinuity at $(0, 0)$. We could define a function like:

$$g(x) =$$

piecewise function where $g(x) = 0$

3.3 Partial Derivatives

Let's first consider a function f in one variable. In Calculus I, we define the derivative of f at some point x as:

$$f'(x) := \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x + h) - f(x)}{h}$$

We are usually taught to think of this as the "slope of the line tangent to f at the point x"

Now let f be a function in two variables. If $f(x, y) = z$, we define the **partial derivative with respect to** x as follows.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x, y) := \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x + h, y) - f(x, y)}{h}$$

In the above, we treat y as a constant and only care about how f changes as x changes. If instead we wanted the partial derivative with respect to y, we would have:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(x, y) := \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x, y + h) - f(x, y)}{h}$$

Definition 3.3.1 ▶ Partial Derivative

Let $f : A \to B$ where $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = z$ for some $z \in B$. The **partial derivative** with respect to x_k is defined as:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) := \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_k + h, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{h}$$

Maybe add a neat image here for the geometric interpretation of partial derivatives

We can also write $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x, y)$ as f_x or $D_x f$. If we wanted to take the partial derivative with respect to x twice, we write that as:

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} f(x, y)$$

We can also take a partial derivative with respect x first, then partial derivative respect to y. This is written as:

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial x} f(x, y)$$

> **Theorem 3.3.2 ▶ Clairaut's Theorem**
>
> Suppose that f is a function in two variables that is defined on some disk D containing the point (a, b). If f_{xy} and f_{yx} are both continuous on D, then $f_{xy}(a, b) = f_{yx}(a, b)$.

3.4   Tangent Planes

If $z = f(x, y)$ defines a surface S in $\mathbb{R}^3$ by _____ finish this part

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