

# Calc III Section Notes with Answers

Fall 2025

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## Calc III-Week 1 (8/25-29)

### Logistics

- TA: Hui.
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- Office Hours: Tuesday 4-6 PM, Krieger 211; Friday 1-2 PM Zoom.
- Biweekly Quizzes: 15 min, 10%.
- Attendance: 5%. (If you can't make it, email me).

### Icebreaking Activity

- In a group of three or four:
  1. Learn each other names, year, pronouns.
  2. Find something in common and different among you and share with the entire class.
  3. Play Buzz if you have time, with prime 7: say the number if it doesn't contain or is not divisible by 7, say buzz otherwise.

**Problem 1.** Draw the following vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ :

$$u = (1, 2), \quad v = (3, -2)$$

Compute  $u + v$ ,  $u - v$ , and draw them in the plane.

*Proof.*

$$u + v = (4, 0), \quad u - v = (-2, 4)$$

□

**Problem 2.** Consider the following vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ :

$$u = (1, 2, 3), \quad v = (-2, 1, 4)$$

1. Compute their norms.
2. Two vectors  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^3$  are called **orthogonal** if  $a \cdot b = 0$ . Are  $u, v$  orthogonal? If not, find a nonzero vector orthogonal to  $u$ .

*Proof.* 1.

$$\|u\| = (u \cdot u)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{14}, \quad \|v\| = \sqrt{21}$$

2. We check

$$u \cdot v = -2 + 2 + 12 = 12 \neq 0$$

thus not orthogonal. A vector that is orthogonal to  $u$ :  $(-3, 0, 1)$ . Note that this vector is **not** unique! For example,  $(-1, -1, 1)$  is another such vector.

□

**Problem 3.** Let  $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , suppose that  $u, v$  are orthogonals, show that

$$\|u + v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2$$

Bonus: is the converse true? (meaning assuming  $\|u + v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2$ , is it true that  $u \cdot v = 0$ ?)

*Proof.* We have

$$\begin{aligned}\|u + v\|^2 &= (u + v) \cdot (u + v) \\ &= u \cdot u + u \cdot v + v \cdot u + v \cdot v \\ &= \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2\end{aligned}$$

because  $u \cdot v = v \cdot u = 0$ . The converse is also true: we know by definition that

$$\|u + v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2 + 2u \cdot v$$

given the assumption, we also have

$$\|u + v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2$$

Thus equating them we get

$$\|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2 + 2u \cdot v = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2 \Rightarrow u \cdot v = 0$$

□

### Reminders

1. First HW due this Friday.
2. First Quiz next Tuesday.

## Calc III-Week 2 (9/1-5)

Topics: (1) cross product, (2) plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Definition 1 (cross product).** Let  $a = (a_1, a_2, a_3), b = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$  be vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , the cross product of  $a, b$  is the vector  $a \times b$ ,

$$a \times b = \begin{bmatrix} i & j & k \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $i, j, k$  are the standard vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Definition 2 (Plane in three dimensions).** A perpendicular vector and a normal vector uniquely define a plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ : given the plane  $\mathcal{P}$  passing containing the point  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  that has a normal vector  $(A, B, C)$  is given by the equation:

$$\mathcal{P} : A(x - x_0) + B(y - y_0) + C(z - z_0) = 0$$

**Proposition 1.** Here are some properties of the cross product:

1.  $a \times b$  is perpendicular to vectors  $a, b$ .
2. The length of the cross product is the area of the parallelogram:

$$\|a \times b\| = \|a\| \|b\| \sin \theta$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between them. (Compare this with the dot product).

3.  $a \times b = -b \times a$ , and  $a \times (b + c) = a \times b + a \times c$ . Moreover,  $a \times b = 0$  iff  $a, b$  are parallel or either  $a$  or  $b$  are 0.
4. (HW) The cross product is **not** associative! For example, compute

$$(i \times i) \times j, \quad i \times (i \times j)$$

**Problem 4.** Let  $\vec{u} = (1, 2, 3), \vec{v} = (0, 1, 1)$  be vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , compute the area of the parallelogram spanned by these two vectors.

*Proof.*

$$u \times v = \begin{bmatrix} i & j & k \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = -i - j + k = (-1, -1, 1)$$

Thus the area of the parallelogram is

$$\|u \times v\| = \sqrt{3}$$

□

**Problem 5.** Compute the plane containing all three points:

$$(1, 0, 2), \quad (2, -1, 0), \quad (-1, 2, 3)$$

*Proof.* Let  $A = (1, 0, 2)$ ,  $B = (2, -1, 0)$ ,  $C = (-1, 2, 3)$ , then consider two vectors in this plane

$$AB = (1, -1, -2), AC = (-2, 2, 1)$$

Then taking their cross product we find a normal vector to this plane:

$$AB \times AC = \begin{bmatrix} i & j & k \\ 1 & -1 & -2 \\ -2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 3i + 3j + 0k = (3, 3, 0)$$

Thus using the definition above, and point  $A$ , we know the formula is given by

$$3(x - 1) + 3(y) = 0$$

One can simplify this to

$$x + y - 1 = 0$$

□

**Reminders** HW is due Sunday 11:59PM.

## Calc III-Week 3 (9/8-9/12)

Topics: (1) graphing multivariable functions, (2) limits and continuity.

**Definition 3 (graph).** The **image** of a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ,

$$\text{Image}(f) = \{f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^m : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

and the **graph** of  $f$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+m}$ ,

$$\text{Graph}(f) = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

**Definition 4 (limit).** Let  $f : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , where  $A$  is open, let  $x_0$  be in  $A$  or be a boundary point of  $A$  and  $N$  be a neighborhood of a point  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Now let  $x$  approach  $x_0$ ,  $f$  is said to be **eventually in**  $N$  if there exists a neighborhood  $U$  of  $x_0$  such that

$$\text{if } x \in U, \text{ then } f(x) \in N$$

If  $f$  is eventually in  $N$  for *any* neighborhood  $N$  around  $b$ , then the **limit** of  $f$  as  $x \rightarrow x_0$  exists, denoted as

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = b$$

**Definition 5 (limit').** If the limit exists, then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x'} f(x) = b$  is when  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow x' = (x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n)$  from **all directions**, and  $f(x)$  approaches  $b = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$ .

**Definition 6 (continuity).** Let  $f : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is said to be **continuous** at  $x_0 \in A$  if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$$

And  $f$  is called continuous if  $f$  is continuous at every  $x_0 \in A$ .

**Example 1.** The limit doesn't need to exist! For example, let

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \geq 0 \\ -1, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Note the limit doesn't exist at  $x = 0$ .

**Problem 6.** For the following functions, find their (1) image, (2) graph, (3) draw their graphs.

1. Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ .
2. Let  $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and  $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ .

*Proof.* 1.  $\text{Image}(f) = \{x^2 + 1 : x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ , and  $\text{Graph}(f) = \{(x, x^2 + 1) : x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ .

2.  $\text{Image}(g) = \{x^2 + y^2, (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2\}$ , and  $\text{Graph}(g) = \{(x, y, x^2 + y^2) : (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2\}$ .

□

**Problem 7.** Compute the following limits:

1.

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{\sin xy}{y}$$

(Hint: try writing  $\frac{\sin xy}{y} = \frac{\sin xy}{xy} \cdot x$ , and recall  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin t}{t} = 1$ ).

2.

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{e^{xy} - 1}{y}$$

3.

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{(x-y)^2}{x^2 + y^2}$$

*Proof.* 1. Following the hint, we see

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{\sin xy}{y} = \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{\sin xy}{xy} x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x = 0$$

2. This one uses the exact same trick:

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{e^{xy} - 1}{xy} \cdot y = 0$$

3. First letting  $x \rightarrow 0$  along  $y = 0$ , we see the limit is 1; letting  $x = y \rightarrow 0$ , we see the limit is 0, thus the limit doesn't exist!

□

**Problem 8.** Compute the limit of the following functions:

1.

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x}{x+y}$$

2.

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{xy}{x+y}$$

(Hint: try considering  $y = x^2 - x$  and  $y = x$ )

3.

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{\sin(xy)}{x+y}$$

*Proof.* 1. First fix  $x = 0$ , let  $y \rightarrow 0$ , then the limit is 0; now fix  $y = 0$ , let  $x \rightarrow 0$ , the limit is 1. The limit doesn't exist!

2. Consider  $y = x^2 - x$ , (as  $x \rightarrow 0$ ,  $y \rightarrow 0$ ), then

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{xy}{x+y} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^3 - x^2}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x - 1 = -1$$

and consider  $y = x$ , we see the limit is 0, thus the limit doesn't exist!



**Warning 0.1.** 2 does not follow from 1! A student suggests a proof:  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} = \frac{x}{x+y} \cdot y$ , and by 1, the limit  $\frac{x}{x+y}$  doesn't exist, this implies the limit of  $\frac{xy}{x+y}$  also doesn't exist. This argument is not correct! Consider the following counterexample:  $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{y}$  doesn't exist, but the limit

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{y} \cdot y = 1$$

exists! More concretely, if you multiply by any function that doesn't tend to 0, the argument follows, but it doesn't work when the function tends to 0! (Sorry I wasn't able to give a concrete counterexample in class other than saying this gives "bad and untrue vibes"). Thank you (the student) who brought it up, your attempt still remains very very good.

3. We see that

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{\sin(xy)}{xy} \frac{xy}{x+y}$$

Note that the limit of  $\sin(xy)/(xy) = 1$ , but the second one doesn't exist, thus the limit doesn't exist! □

How to find a limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$ :

- Step 1: Guess what the limit should be.
- Step 2: Try from approaching  $x_0$  from different directions.
- Step 3: Try to replace terms with expressions you are familiar with.



## Calc III-Week 4 (9/15-9/19)

Topics: (1) Partial derivatives. (2) Definition of total derivatives.

**Problem 9.** Compute  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  for the following functions:

1.

$$x^3y^4 - xy^2$$

2.

$$x^2 \sin(2y) + 3$$

3.

$$\ln\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) + \ln\left(\frac{1}{x+y}\right) - \ln\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$$

You may use the following identities to simplify the equation first:

$$\ln\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = \ln a - \ln b, \quad \ln\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) = -\ln a$$

*Proof.* We have

1.

$$\partial x : 3x^2y^4 - y^2, \quad \partial y : 4x^3y^3 - 2xy$$

2.

$$\partial x : 2x \sin(2y), \quad \partial y : 2x^2 \cos(2y)$$

3.

$$\partial x : -\frac{2}{x} - \frac{1}{x+y}, \quad \partial y : \frac{1}{y} - \frac{1}{x+y}$$

□

**Definition 7 (tangent plane).** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$ , then the **tangent plane** to the graph  $f$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is the given by

$$z = f(x_0, y_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\bigg|_{(x_0, y_0)}(x - x_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\bigg|_{(x_0, y_0)}(y - y_0)$$

**Problem 10.** Compute the plane tangent to the graph of  $f(x, y) = x^2y + 2xy - y^2$  at  $(1, 2)$ .

*Proof.* We have

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1, 2) = 2xy + 2y|_{(1,2)} = 8, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(1, 2) = x^2 + 2x - 2y|_{(1,2)} = -1$$

and  $f(1, 2) = 2$ , thus the plane is given by

$$z = 2 + 8(x - 1) - (y - 2)$$

i.e.,  $z = 8x - y - 4$ .

□

**Definition 8 (derivative for two variables).** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then  $f$  is said to be **differentiable** at  $(x_0, y_0)$  if  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$  exist at  $(x_0, y_0)$  and if

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (x_0,y_0)} \frac{f(x,y) - \mathcal{P}(x,y)}{\|(x,y) - (x_0,y_0)\|} = 0$$

where  $\mathcal{P}(x,y) = f(x_0,y_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Big|_{(x_0,y_0)} (x - x_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Big|_{(x_0,y_0)} (y - y_0)$  is the tangent plane to  $f$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

**Definition 9 (derivative for  $n$  variables).** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then the **gradient** of  $f$ , denoted as  $\nabla f$  is given by

$$\nabla f = \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \right]$$

is a  $1 \times n$  matrix. And  $f$  is said to be **differentiable** at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{\|f(x) - f(x_0) - \nabla f(x_0)(x - x_0)\|}{\|x - x_0\|} = 0$$

and the derivative of  $f$  is exactly the gradient  $\nabla f$  at  $x_0$ .

**Definition 10 (derivative for  $m$  outputs).** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , where  $f(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_m(x))$ , then let  $T$  denote the  $n \times 1$  matrix

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{df_1}{dx}(x_0) \\ \frac{df_2}{dx}(x_0) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{df_m}{dx}(x_0) \end{bmatrix}$$

Then  $f$  is said to be **differentiable** at  $x_0$  if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{|f(x) - f(x_0) - T(x - x_0)|}{|x - x_0|} = 0$$

and the matrix  $T$  is the derivative at  $x_0$ .

**Example 2.** Let  $f(x) = (x^2, 2x, -x)$ , then

$$T = Df(1) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Definition 11 (derivative for general functions).** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , let  $T$  be the  $m \times n$  matrix with entries  $\partial f_i / \partial x_j$  evaluated at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $f$  is said to be **differentiable** at  $x_0$  if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{\|f(x) - f(x_0) - T(x - x_0)\|}{\|x - x_0\|} = 0$$

then  $f$  is differentiable at  $x_0$ , and the matrix  $T$  is the derivative at  $x_0$ . Note that  $T$  look like

$$T = Df(x_0), \quad Df = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

**Example 3.** Let  $f(x, y, z) = (ze^x, -ye^z)$ , then

$$Df(x, y, z) = \begin{bmatrix} ze^x & 0 & e^x \\ 0 & -e^z & -ye^z \end{bmatrix}$$

**Problem 11.** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by

$$f(x, y, z) = x^2y + y \sin(z) + ze^x.$$

Compute the gradient of  $f$  at  $(1, 2, 0)$ .

*Proof.* You can compute the partial derivatives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= 2xy + ze^x, \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= x^2 + \sin(z), \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} &= y \cos(z) + e^x. \end{aligned}$$

thus the gradient is

$$\nabla f = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right) = (2xy + ze^x, x^2 + \sin z, y \cos z + e^x)$$

Hence

$$\nabla f(1, 2, 0) = (4, 1, 2 + e)$$

□

## Calc III-Week 5 (9/22-9/26)

Topics: (1) properties of derivatives, (2) directional derivatives, (3) gradient.

**Definition 12 (path).** A **path**  $c$  is a map  $c : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ . We can write  $c(t) = (c_1(t), \dots, c_n(t))$ . If  $c$  is differentiable, then we can define the **velocity** of  $c$  at any  $t_0 \in [a, b]$  as

$$c'(t_0) = (c'_1(t_0), \dots, c'_n(t_0))$$

The velocity vector of  $c$  at  $t_0$  is also a **tangent** vector to  $c$  at  $t_0$ . The **speed** of the path  $c$  at  $t_0$  is the length of the velocity vector  $\|c'(t_0)\|$ .

**Definition 13 (tangent line to a path).** Let  $c : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a path, if  $c'(t_0) \neq 0$ , then the **tangent line** at  $x_0$  is given by

$$l(t) = c(t_0) + c'(t_0)(t - t_0)$$

**Proposition 2.** Let  $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be differentiable at  $x_0$ , then the derivative of  $f$  at  $x_0$  is an  $m \times n$  matrix  $Df(x_0) = \left( \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \right)_{ij}$ . The derivative follows the same properties as derivative for single variable functions:

1. Let  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$D(cf)(x_0) = cDf(x_0) \quad (\text{multiplication of a matrix by constant } c)$$

2. Let  $g : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  also be differentiable at  $x_0$ , then

$$D(f + g)(x_0) = Df(x_0) + Dg(x_0) \quad (\text{sum of two matrices})$$

3. Let  $h_1 : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, h_2 : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$D(h_1 h_2)(x_0) = Dh_1(x_0)h_2(x_0) + h_1(x_0)Dh_2(x_0) \quad (\text{product rule})$$

and if  $h_2 \neq 0$  on  $U$ .

$$D(h_1/h_2)(x_0) = \frac{Dh_1(x_0)h_2(x_0) - h_1(x_0)Dh_2(x_0)}{h_2^2(x_0)} \quad (\text{quotient rule})$$

4. Let  $g : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, f : V \subset \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  such that  $g(U) \subset V$ , then

$$D(f \circ g)(x_0) = Df(g(x_0))Dg(x_0) \quad (\text{chain rule})$$

**Definition 14 (directional derivative).** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , be differentiable, then the directional derivative at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^3$  in the direction of a **unit vector**  $v$  is given by

$$\nabla f(x_0) \cdot v = \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x_0) \right] v_1 + \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}(x_0) \right] v_2 + \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_3}(x_0) \right] v_3$$

where  $v = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ .

**Proposition 3.** Suppose that  $\nabla f(x_0) \neq 0$ , then the direction for which  $f$  increases the fastest at  $x_0$  is along  $\nabla f(x_0)$ .

**Proposition 4.** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable, let  $S$  be a level surface of  $f$ , i.e.,  $S$  is a surface described by

$$f(x, y, z) = k$$

where  $k$  is some constant. Let  $(x_0, y_0, z_0) \in S$ , then

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) \text{ is normal to the level surface at } (x_0, y_0, z_0)$$

This means if  $c(t)$  is a path in  $S$ , and  $v(0) = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$ , and if  $v$  is a tangent vector to  $c(t)$  at  $t = 0$ , then

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) \cdot v = 0$$

Moreover, if  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) \neq 0$ , the **tangent plane** of  $S$  at  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is given by

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) \cdot (x - x_0, y - y_0, z - z_0) = 0$$

**Problem 12.** Consider the curve in  $\mathbb{R}$ :  $c(t) = (2t, t^2, -t)$ . Find the speed of the  $c$  at  $t = 2$  and the tangent line at  $t = 1$ .

*Proof.* The velocity vector of  $c$  at  $t = 2$  is

$$c'(t) = (2, 2t, -1)$$

evaluated at  $t = 2$  is  $c'(2) = (2, 4, -1)$ . Thus the speed is the length of the velocity vector

$$\|c'(2)\| = (2^2 + 4^2 + (-1)^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{21}$$

For the tangent line: the tangent vector is

$$c'(1) = (2, 2, -1)$$

and  $c(1) = (2, 1, -1)$ . Thus the tangent line  $l$  at  $t = 1$  is given by

$$l(t) = (2, 1, -1) + t(2, 2, -1) = (2 + 2t, 1 + 2t, -1 - t)$$

□

**Problem 13 (2.5, Q7).** Let  $f(u, v) = (\tan(u - 1) - e^v, u^2 - v^2)$  and

$$g(x, y) = (e^{x-y}, x - y).$$

Calculate  $f \circ g$  and

$$D(f \circ g)(1, 1).$$

*Proof.* We have

$$f \circ g(x, y) = (\tan(e^{x-y} - 1) - e^{x-y}, e^{2(x-y)} - (x - y)^2)$$

and  $g(1, 1) = (1, 0)$ , thus using chain rule, we have

$$D(f \circ g)(1, 1) = Df(1, 0)Dg(1, 1)$$

where

$$Df(u, v) = \begin{bmatrix} \sec^2(u - 1) & -e^v \\ 2u & -2v \end{bmatrix}, \quad Dg(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{x-y} & -e^{x-y} \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} D(f \circ g)(1, 1) &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

□

**Problem 14 (2.5, Q8).** Let  $f(u, v, w) = (e^{u-w}, \cos(v+u)+\sin(u+v+w))$  and  $g(x, y) = (e^x, \cos(y-x), e^{-y})$ . Calculate  $f \circ g$  and  $D(f \circ g)(0, 0)$ .

*Proof.* We have

$$f \circ g = (e^{e^x - \cos(y-x)}, \cos(e^x + \cos(y-x)), \sin(e^x + e^{-y} + \cos(y-x)))$$

and  $g(0, 0) = (1, 1, 1)$ . Thus

$$D(f \circ g)(0, 0) = Df(1, 1, 1)Dg(0, 0)$$

where

$$Df(u, v, w) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{u-w} & 0 & -e^{u-w} \\ -\sin(v+u) + \cos(u+v+w) & -\sin(v+u) + \cos(u+v+w) & \cos(u+v+w) \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$Dg(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} e^x & 0 \\ \sin(y-x) & -\sin(y-x) \\ 0 & -e^{-y} \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} D(f \circ g)(0, 0) &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ -\sin 2 + \cos 3 & -\sin 2 + \cos 3 & \cos 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -\sin 2 + \cos 3 & -\cos 3 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

□

**Problem 15 (2.5, Q11).** Let  $f(x, y, z) = (3y + 2, x^2 + y^2, x + z^2)$ . Let

$$c(t) = (\cos(t), \sin(t), t).$$

(a) Find the path  $p = f \circ c$  and the velocity vector

$$p'(\pi).$$

(b) Find  $c(\pi)$ ,  $c'(\pi)$  and  $Df(-1, 0, \pi)$ .

(c) Thinking of  $Df(-1, 0, \pi)$  as a linear map, find

$$Df(-1, 0, \pi)(c'(\pi)).$$

*Proof.* (a) We have

$$p(t) = (3 \sin t + 2, 1, \cos t + t^2)$$

and

$$p'(t) = (3 \cos t + 0, -\sin t + 2t)$$

thus

$$p'(\pi) = (-3, 0, 2\pi)$$

(b) We have  $c(\pi) = (-1, 0, \pi)$ , and  $c'(t) = (-\sin t, \cos t, 1)$ , and  $c'(\pi) = (0, -1, 1)$ . And

$$Df(x, y, z) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 2x & 2y & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 2z \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus

$$Df(-1, 0, \pi) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 2\pi \end{bmatrix}$$

(c) We have

$$Df(-1, 0, \pi)(c'(\pi)) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 2\pi \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 2\pi \end{bmatrix}$$

□

**Problem 16 (2.6, Q3).** Compute the directional derivatives of the following functions along unit vectors at the indicated points in directions parallel to the given vector:

(a)

$$f(x, y) = x^y, (x_0, y_0) = (e, e), \quad \mathbf{d} = 5\mathbf{i} + 12\mathbf{j}$$

(b)

$$f(x, y, z) = e^x + yz, (x_0, y_0, z_0) = (1, 1, 1), \quad \mathbf{d} = (1, -1, 1)$$

(c)

$$f(x, y, z) = xyz, (x_0, y_0, z_0) = (1, 0, 1), \quad \mathbf{d} = (1, 0, -1)$$

*Proof.* We find  $\nabla f$  for all these functions and find the directional derivative

$$\nabla f(x_0) \cdot \frac{\mathbf{d}}{\|\mathbf{d}\|}$$

(a) We have

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = (yx^{y-1}, x^y \ln x)$$

hence

$$\nabla f(e, e) \cdot \frac{\mathbf{d}}{\|\mathbf{d}\|} = (e^e, e^e) \cdot \left( \frac{5}{13}, \frac{12}{13} \right) = \frac{17}{13} e^e$$

(b) We have

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = (e^x, z, y)$$

hence

$$\nabla f(1, 1, 1) \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(1, -1, 1) = \frac{e}{\sqrt{3}}$$

(c) We have

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = (yz, xz, xy)$$

hence

$$\nabla f(1, 0, 1) \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, 0, -1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0, 1, 0) \cdot (1, 0, -1) = 0$$

□

**Problem 17 (2.6, Q6).** Find a vector which is normal to the curve

$$x^3 + xy + y^3 = 11 \text{ at } (1, 2).$$

*Proof.* Consider the function  $f(x, y) = x^3 + xy + y^3$ , then the level set of  $f(x, y) = 11$  coincides with the curve above. Thus it suffices to compute

$$\nabla f(x, y) = (3x^2 + y, x + 3y^2)$$

and

$$\nabla f(1, 2) = (5, 13)$$

is perpendicular to the the level curve. □

**Problem 18 (2.6, Q7).** Find the rate of change of  $f(x, y, z) = xyz$  in the direction normal to the surface

$$yx^2 + xy^2 + yz^2 = 3 \text{ at } (1, 1, 1).$$

*Proof.* We first find a normal vector to the surface, consider the surface as a level set of the function

$$g(x, y, z) = yx^2 + xy^2 + yz^2$$

Thus

$$\nabla g(x, y, z) = (2xy + y^2, x^2 + 2xy + z^2, 2yz)$$

hence

$$u = \nabla g(1, 1, 1) = (3, 4, 2)$$

is a normal vector to the surface, and we normalize it to get a unit normal vector  $n = \frac{u}{\|u\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{29}}(3, 4, 2)$ . Now we find the directional derivative of  $f(x, y, z) = xyz$  along  $(3, 4, 2)$ :

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = (yz, xz, xy)$$

hence

$$\nabla f(1, 1, 1) = (1, 1, 1)$$

and the directional derivative is

$$\nabla f(1, 1, 1) \cdot n = \frac{9}{\sqrt{29}}$$

□

### Summary

- If asked to find directional derivative/rate of change along a unit vector  $v$  at point  $x_0$ : find  $\nabla f(x_0) \cdot v$ .
- If asked to find along with direction  $f$  increases the fastest: find  $\nabla f(x_0)$ .
- If asked to find a normal vector to a surface at a point  $x_0$ : construct a function such that the surface is the level set of this function, then find  $\nabla f(x_0)$ .



## Calc III-Week 6 (9/29-10/3)

Topics: (1) Higher-order derivatives, (2) Taylor expansion.

**Proposition 5.** Let  $f(x, y)$  be twice continuously differentiable, then

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$$

**Definition 15 (First order Taylor expansion).** Let  $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $a \in U$ , then

$$f(x) = f(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)(x_i - a_i) + R_1(a, x)$$

where

$$\frac{R_1(a, x)}{\|x - a\|} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow a$$

**Definition 16 (Alternative Definition (First-order)).** Let  $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $a \in U$ . Then

$$f(a + h) = f(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) + R_1(a, h)$$

where  $R_1(a, h)/\|h\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$ .

**Definition 17 (Second order Taylor expansion).** Let  $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be twice continuously differentiable at  $a \in U$ , then

$$f(x) = f(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a)(x_i - a_i) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(a)(x_i - a_i)(x_j - a_j) + R_2(a, x)$$

where

$$\frac{R_2(a, x)}{\|x - a\|^2} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow a$$

**Definition 18 (Alternative Definition (Second-order)).** Let  $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  have continuous partial derivatives of third order. Then we can write

$$f(a + h) = f(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n h_i h_j \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(a) + R_2(a, h)$$

where  $R_2(a, h)/\|h\|^2 \rightarrow 0$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$ .

**Problem 19.** Find all the second partial derivatives of  $f(x, y) = xy + \ln(x - y)$ .  
(This includes  $\partial^2 f / \partial x^2$ ,  $\partial^2 f / \partial x \partial y$ ,  $\partial^2 f / \partial y \partial x$ ,  $\partial^2 f / \partial y^2$ ).

*Proof.* For first-order derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = y + \frac{1}{x - y}, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x - \frac{1}{x - y}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} &= -\frac{1}{(x-y)^2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = 1 + \frac{1}{(x-y)^2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} &= -\frac{1}{(x-y)^2}\end{aligned}$$

□

**Problem 20.** Write the second-order Taylor expansion for the following function,

$$f(x, y) = e^{x+y}$$

centered at  $(x, y) = (0, 0)$ .

*Proof.* We first compute all the partial derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = e^{x+y}$$

then

$$f(x, y) = 1 + x + y + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + xy + \frac{1}{2}y^2 + R_2(x, y)$$

where  $R_2(x, y)/\|x\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $\|x\| \rightarrow 0$ .

□

## Calc III-Week 7 (10/6-10/10)

Topics: Extremum.

**Definition 19 (quadratic function).** A function  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called a **quadratic function** if it is given by

$$g(h_1, \dots, h_n) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} h_i h_j$$

where  $(a_{ij})$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix. We can also write  $g$  as follows:

$$g(h_1, \dots, h_n) = [h_1, \dots, h_n] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ \vdots \\ h_n \end{bmatrix}$$

**Definition 20 (Hessian matrix).** Let  $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and suppose all the second-order partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$  exist, then the Hessian matrix of  $f$  is the  $n \times n$  matrix given by

$$Hf = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

The Hessian as a quadratic function is defined by

$$Hf(x)(h) = \frac{1}{2} [h_1 \quad \dots \quad h_n] Hf(x) \begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ \vdots \\ h_n \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $h = (h_1, \dots, h_n)$ .

**Definition 21 (degenerate/nondegenerate points).** Let  $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be of  $C^2$ , let  $(x_0, y_0)$  be a critical point. We define the **discriminant**,  $\mathcal{D}$ , of the Hessian by

$$\mathcal{D} = \det(Hf) = \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right) \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \right) - \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \right)^2$$

If  $\mathcal{D} \neq 0$ , the critical point  $(x_0, y_0)$  is called **nondegenerate**; if  $\mathcal{D} = 0$ , the point  $(x_0, y_0)$  is called **degenerate**.

**Definition 22 (positive, negative-definite).** A quadratic function  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called **positive-definite** if  $g(h) \geq 0$  for all  $h \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $g(h) = 0$  implies  $h = 0$ . Similarly,  $g$  is **negative-definite** if  $g(h) \leq 0$  for all  $h \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $g(h) = 0$  implies  $h = 0$ . (The matrix is positive-definite iff it is symmetric  $A^T = A$  and the eigenvalues are nonnegative).

**Definition 23 (bounded set).** A set  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be **bounded** if there is a number  $M > 0$  such that  $\|x\| \leq M$  for all  $x \in A$ .

**Proposition 6 (extremums are critical points).** Let  $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable, where  $U$  is open. If  $x_0$  is a local extremum, then  $Df(x_0) = 0$ .

**Proposition 7 (extremum).** Let  $f: U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be in  $C^3$ , and  $x_0$  is a critical point of  $f$ . If the Hessian  $Hf(x_0)$  is positive-definite, then  $x_0$  is a local minimum of  $f$ ; if  $Hf(x_0)$  is negative-definite, then  $x_0$  is a local maximum.

**Proposition 8 (local minimum).** Let  $f(x, y)$  be of  $C^2$ , and  $U$  is open in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . A point  $(x_0, y_0)$  is a strict local **minimum** of  $f$  if the following conditions hold:

1.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) = 0$$

2.

$$\mathcal{D}(x_0, y_0) > 0$$

where  $\mathcal{D}$  is the **discriminant** of the Hessian, defined by

$$\mathcal{D} = \det(Hf) = \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right) \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \right) - \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \right)^2$$

where  $Hf$  is the  $2 \times 2$  Hessian matrix.

3.

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x_0, y_0) > 0$$

If  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x_0, y_0) < 0$  in 3, then it becomes a local maximum.

**Proposition 9 (saddle points).** Let  $f(x, y) : U \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be of  $C^2$ , if  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) = 0$ , and  $\mathcal{D}(x_0, y_0) < 0$ , where  $\mathcal{D}$  is the discriminant, then the critical point  $(x_0, y_0)$  is a saddle point, i.e., neither a maximum or a minimum.

**Proposition 10 (continuous functions attain extremum on closed bounded sets).** Let  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuous, where  $D$  is closed and bounded in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $f$  assumes its absolute maximum and absolute minimum values at some point  $x_0, x_1 \in D$ .

**Problem 21.** Is the following matrix positive-definite?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

*Proof.* It is not! Consider the vector  $(0, 1)$ , we have

$$[0, 1] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 1] \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = -1$$

□

**Problem 22.** Find the critical point of  $f(x, y) = y + x \sin y$  and classify whether it is a local max/min or a saddle point.

*Proof.* We compute

$$f_x = \sin y, \quad f_y = 1 + x \cos y$$

Setting them both to 0 gives

$$(1, n\pi), \text{ when } n \text{ is odd, } \quad (-1, n\pi) \text{ when } n \text{ is even}$$

Now we compute the discriminant:

$$f_{xx} = 0, \quad f_{xy} = f_{yx} = \cos y, \quad f_{yy} = -x \sin y$$

Thus

$$\mathcal{D} = \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cos y \\ \cos y & -x \sin y \end{bmatrix} = -\cos^2 y$$

Thus  $\mathcal{D} < 0$  for all the critical points, hence they are saddle points!

□

## Calc III-Week 7 Additional Content

**Proposition 11.** If  $f$  has a maximum or minimum at  $x_0$  when constrained to a surface  $S$ , then  $\nabla f(x)$  is perpendicular to  $S$  at  $x_0$ .

Consequence of Proposition 11:

**Proposition 12.** Let  $f, g : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $\vec{x}_0 \in U$  such that  $g(x_0) = c$ . Let  $\mathcal{L}_c$  be the level set for  $g$  with value  $c$  and assume

$$\nabla g(\vec{x}_0) \neq \vec{0}.$$

If  $f$  restricted to  $\mathcal{L}_c$  has a local minimum or maximum on  $\mathcal{L}_c$  at  $x_0$ , then there exists  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\nabla f(x_0) = \lambda \nabla g(x_0).$$

**Problem 23 (Marsden-Tromba, III. 2).** Let  $f(x, y, z) = x - y + z$ , find the extremum of  $f$  subject to the constraint  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2$ .

*Proof.* We compute the gradient of  $f$  and  $g(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ :

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = [1 \quad -1 \quad 1] \quad \nabla g(x, y, z) = [2x \quad 2y \quad 2z]$$

By the proposition above, we need to have

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &= 2x \\ -\lambda &= 2y \\ \lambda &= 2z \end{aligned}$$

Equating all  $\lambda$  gives

$$x = z = -y$$

Plugging in the constraint we get

$$3x^2 = 2$$

Hence two critical points

$$\left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}, -\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}, \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\right), \quad \left(-\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}, \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}, -\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\right)$$

Plugging them in we find the extremums are  $\sqrt{6}$  and  $-\sqrt{6}$ . □

**Problem 24 (Marsden-Tromba, III. 16).** Use Lagrange multipliers to find the distance from the point  $(2, 0, -1)$  to the plane  $3x - 2y + 8z + 1 = 0$ .

*Proof.* Let  $(x, y, z)$  be a point on the plane, then we would like to minimize the function

$$f(x, y, z) = (x - 2)^2 + y^2 + (z + 1)^2$$

with the constraint

$$3x - 2y + 8z + 1 = 0$$

Writing  $g(x, y, z) = 3x - 2y + 8z + 1$ , we do the exact same thing as we did above:

$$\nabla f = [2x - 4 \quad 2y \quad 2z + 2], \quad \nabla g = [3 \quad -2 \quad 8]$$

Then setting

$$2x - 4 = 3\lambda$$

$$2y = -2\lambda$$

$$2z + 2 = 8\lambda$$

One can then replace  $x, y, z$  with expressions in  $\lambda$  in the constraint:

$$3x - 2y + 8z + 1 = 0$$

which gives

$$\lambda = 2/77$$

Then plugging in  $\lambda$  to solve for  $x, y, z$ , the  $\sqrt{f(x, y, z)}$  is the final answer. (I am too lazy to do the computation).  $\square$

## Calc III-Week 8 (Fall Break)

Topics: (1) Acceleration and Arc Length, (2) Vector Fields.

**Proposition 13 (Newton's second law).** Let  $c(t)$  be a path of a particle with mass  $m$  and  $a(t) = c''(t)$  be the acceleration, then

$$F(c(t)) = ma(t)$$

where  $F$  is the force applying on the particle.

**Definition 24 (arc length).** Let  $c(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t))$  be a path, then the length of the path in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  from  $t_0 \leq t \leq t_1$  is

$$\begin{aligned} L_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1}(c) &= \int_{t_0}^{t_1} (x(t)^2 + y(t)^2 + z(t)^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} dt \\ &= \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \|c'(t)\| dt \end{aligned}$$

More generally, if  $c(t) = (x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t))$  is a path in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$$L_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1}(c) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i(t)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} dt$$

**Definition 25 (vector field).** A vector field is a function  $F : A \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  that assigns  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  to another vector  $F(x) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Problem 25.** Find the velocity, speed, and acceleration of the following path at  $t = 0$ :

$$c(t) = (\cos t, 2t, -\sin t)$$

*Proof.* The velocity is

$$c'(t) = (-\sin t, 2, -\cos t), \quad c'(0) = (0, 2, -1)$$

And the speed is

$$\|c'(t)\| = \sqrt{5}$$

□

**Problem 26.** Find the length of the curve above from  $t = 0$  to  $t = 2$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} L_{0 \rightarrow 2} \|c'(t)\| dt &= \int_0^2 (\sin^2 t + 4 + \cos^2 t)^{\frac{1}{2}} dt \\ &= \int_0^2 \sqrt{5} dt \\ &= 2\sqrt{5} \end{aligned}$$

□