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.

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{r}(t_i^*) \Delta t$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n f(t_i^*) \Delta t \right) \mathbf{i} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n g(t_i^*) \Delta t \right) \mathbf{j} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n h(t_i^*) \Delta t \right) \mathbf{k} \right]$$

and so

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

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 **R** is an antiderivative of **r**, that is, $\mathbf{R}'(t) = \mathbf{r}(t)$.

We use the notation $\int \mathbf{r}(t) dt$ for indefinite integrals (antiderivatives).

If $\mathbf{r}(t) = 2 \cos t \mathbf{i} + \sin t \mathbf{j} + 2t \mathbf{k}$, then find $\int \mathbf{r}(t) dt$ and $\int_0^{\pi/2} \mathbf{r}(t) dt$.

13.3

Arc Length and Curvature

Suppose that the curve has the vector equation, $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$, $a \le t \le b$, 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

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

Notice that the arc length formula (2) can be put into the more compact form

3

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

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

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

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 $(1, 0, 2\pi)$.

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

$$\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle \quad 1 \le t \le 2$$

could also be represented by the function

$$\mathbf{r}_{2}(u) = \langle e^{u}, e^{2u}, e^{3u} \rangle \quad 0 \le u \le \ln 2$$

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

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

where **r**' is continuous and *C* is traversed exactly once as *t* increases from *a* to *b*.

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We define its **arc length function** s by

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

Thus s(t) is the length of the part of C between r(a) and r(t).

(See Figure 3.)

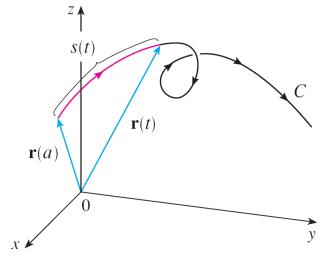


Figure 3

If we differentiate both sides of Equation 6 using Part 1 of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, we obtain

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

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.

Reparametrize the helix

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

with respect to arc length measured from (1, 0, 0) in the direction of increasing t.

A parametrization $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is called **smooth** on an interval l if \mathbf{r}' is continuous and $\mathbf{r}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$ on l.

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.

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 T(t) changes direction very slowly when C is fairly straight, but it changes direction more quickly when C bends or twists more sharply.

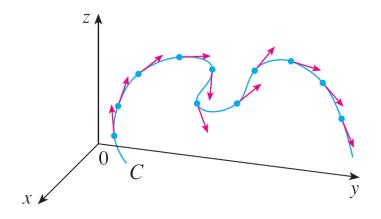


Figure 4
Unit tangent vectors at equally spaced points on *C*

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 **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 to write

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

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

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

Show that the curvature of a circle of radius *a* is 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.

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

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

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).

The Normal and Binormal Vectors

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 $\mathbf{T}(t) \cdot \mathbf{T}'(t) = 0$, so $\mathbf{T}'(t)$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{T}(t)$.

Note that T'(t) is itself not a unit vector.

But at any point where $\kappa \neq 0$ we can define the **principal** unit normal vector N(t) (or simply unit normal) as

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

The Normal and Binormal Vectors

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

It is perpendicular to both **T** and **N** and is also a unit vector. (See Figure 6.)

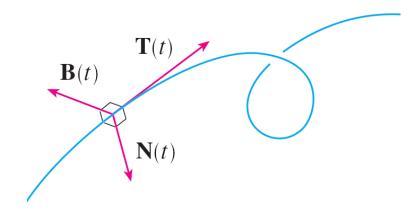


Figure 6

The Normal and Binormal Vectors

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

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

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