

Calculus 3 Notes

Matthew Stringer

Contents

1	Section 13.2	3
1.1	Ideal Projectile Motion	3
1.1.1	Range of a Projectile	3
1.1.2	Maximum Height of a Projectile	3
2	Section 13.3	3
2.1	Finding Tangent Vector to a Path	3
2.2	Length of Path	3
3	Section 13.4	4
3.1	Curvature	4
3.2	Formula for Calculating Curvature	4
3.3	Principal Unit Normal	4
3.4	Formula for Calculating N	4
4	Section 13.5	4
4.1	Binormal Vector	4
4.2	Acceleration Vector	5
4.3	Torsion	5
4.4	Calculating Torsion	5
5	Section 13.6	5
5.1	Motion in Polar and Cylindrical Coordinates	5
5.2	Polar Velocity Vector	6
5.3	Polar Acceleration Vector	6
5.4	Planet Movement	6
5.5	Kepler's First Law	7
5.6	Kepler's Third Law	7
6	Section 14.6	7
6.1	Standard Linear Approximation	7
6.2	The Error in the Standard Linear Approximation	7
6.3	Tangent Plane	7
6.4	Normal Line	8
7	Section 14.7	9

7.1	Definitions of local maximums and minimums	9
7.2	First Derivative Test for Local Extreme Values	9
7.3	Second Derivative Test for Local Extreme Values	9
7.4	Finding Absolute Maxima and Minima on Closed Bounded Regions	9

1 Section 13.2

1.1 Ideal Projectile Motion

If v_0 makes an angle α with the horizon, then

$$v_0 = (|v_0| \cos \alpha)\hat{i} + (|v_0| \sin \alpha)\hat{j}$$

Also, assume $r_0 = 0\hat{i} + 0\hat{j}$. With these formulas it can be derived that

$$r(t) = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2\hat{j} + v_0t$$

1.1.1 Range of a Projectile

$$R = \frac{v_0^2}{g} \sin(2\alpha)$$

Where R is the range, v_0 is the initial velocity, g is acceleration due to gravity, and α is the launch angle

1.1.2 Maximum Height of a Projectile

Lets say that y_{max} is the maximum height, then:

$$y_{max} = \frac{v_0 \sin \alpha}{2g}$$

2 Section 13.3

2.1 Finding Tangent Vector to a Path

If $r(t)$ is the function for the path, then $r'(t)$ represents the tangent vector for the path.

2.2 Length of Path

If $r(t)$ is the function for the path and D represents the length of the path from $t \in (t_0, t_1)$, then

$$D = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} |r'(t)| dt$$

3 Section 13.4

3.1 Curvature

If T is the tangent unit vector of a smooth curve, then the curvature of the curve is

$$\kappa = \left| \frac{dT}{ds} \right|$$

where s is arc length.

3.2 Formula for Calculating Curvature

If $s(t)$ is a smooth curve, then curvature is

$$\kappa = \left| \frac{\frac{dT}{dt}}{\frac{ds}{dt}} \right|$$

where

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

and $v = r'(t)$

3.3 Principal Unit Normal

At any point $\kappa \neq 0$, the principal unit normal vector for a curve is

$$N = \frac{1}{\kappa} \frac{dT}{ds}$$

3.4 Formula for Calculating N

If $r(t)$ is a smooth curve, then the principal unit normal is

$$N = \frac{\frac{dT}{dt}}{\left| \frac{dT}{dt} \right|}$$

4 Section 13.5

4.1 Binormal Vector

The binormal vector (B) is a vector that is orthogonal to both T and N .

$$B = T \times N$$

4.2 Acceleration Vector

If the acceleration vector is

$$a = a_T T + a_N N$$

then

$$a_T = s''(t) = \frac{d}{dt}|s'(t)| \text{ and } a_N = \kappa \left(\frac{ds}{dt} \right)^2 = \kappa |s'(t)|^2$$

also

$$a_N = \sqrt{|s''(t)|^2 - a_T^2}$$

4.3 Torsion

$$\frac{dB}{ds} = \frac{d(T \times N)}{ds} = \frac{dT}{ds} \times N + T \times \frac{dN}{ds}$$

Since N has the same direction as $\frac{dT}{ds}$, $N \times \frac{dT}{ds} = 0$

$$\frac{dB}{ds} = T \times \frac{dN}{ds}$$

Because $\frac{dB}{ds}$ is orthogonal to B and T , it must be parallel to N . Therefore, $\frac{dB}{ds}$ is a scalar multiple of N and

$$\frac{dB}{ds} = -\tau N$$

where τ is called the *torsion* of the curve. Note that

$$\frac{dB}{ds} \cdot N = -\tau N \cdot N = -\tau$$

4.4 Calculating Torsion

If $B = T \times N$, the torsion of a smooth curve is

$$\tau = -\frac{dB}{ds} \cdot N$$

5 Section 13.6

5.1 Motion in Polar and Cylindrical Coordinates

When a particle at $P(r, \theta)$ moves along a curve in the polar coordinate plane, we express its position in terms of moving unit vectors:

$$u_r = (\cos \theta)\hat{i} + (\sin \theta)\hat{j} \quad u_\theta = -(\sin \theta)\hat{i} + (\cos \theta)\hat{j}$$

where u_r is tangent to the vector $\begin{bmatrix} \theta \\ r \end{bmatrix}$ and u_θ is normal to it. When we differentiate u_r and u_θ with respect to t , we can see how they change with time.

$$\dot{u}_r = (-\dot{\theta} \sin \theta)\hat{i} + (\dot{\theta} \cos \theta)\hat{j} \quad u_\theta = -(\dot{\theta} \sin \theta)\hat{i} - (\dot{\theta} \cos \theta)\hat{j}$$

which equals

$$\dot{u}_r = \dot{\theta} u_\theta \quad u_\theta = -\dot{\theta} u_r$$

5.2 Polar Velocity Vector

$$v = \dot{r} = \frac{d}{dt}(ru_r) = \dot{r}u_r + r\dot{u}_r = \dot{r}u_r + r\dot{\theta}u_\theta$$

5.3 Polar Acceleration Vector

$$a = \dot{v} = (\ddot{r}u_r + \dot{r}\dot{u}_r) + (\dot{r}\dot{\theta}u_\theta + r\ddot{\theta}u_\theta + r\dot{\theta}\dot{u}_\theta)$$

which becomes

$$a = (\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2)u_r + (r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta})u_\theta$$

5.4 Planet Movement

If r is the radius vector from the center of a sun of mass M to the center of a planet of mass m , then the force F of the gravitational attraction between the planet and the sun is:

$$F = -\frac{GmM}{|r|^2} \frac{r}{|r|}$$

where G is the universal gravitational constant.

$$G = 6.6726 \times 10^{-11} \text{Nm}^2\text{kg}^{-2}$$

By using Newton's second law, we can find

$$\ddot{r} = -\frac{GM}{|r|^2} \frac{r}{|r|}$$

Because \ddot{r} is a scalar multiple of r , we know

$$r \times \ddot{r} = 0$$

so we know

$$\frac{d}{dt}(r \times \dot{r}) = \dot{r} \times \dot{r} + r \times \ddot{r} = r \times \ddot{r} = 0$$

meaning that the cross between r and \dot{r} is constant

$$r \times \dot{r} = C$$

5.5 Kepler's First Law

The eccentricity of the ellipse that the planet follows is

$$e = \frac{r_0 v_0^2}{GM} - 1$$

and the polar equation is

$$r = \frac{(1 + e)r_0}{1 + e \cos \theta}$$

where r_0 is the minimum distance from the sun. The sun's mass M is 1.99×10^{30} kg

5.6 Kepler's Third Law

The time T it takes a planet to go around its sun once is the planet's orbital period. Kepler's Third Law says that and the orbit's semimajor axis a are related by

$$\frac{T^2}{a^3} = \frac{4\pi^2}{GM}$$

6 Section 14.6

6.1 Standard Linear Approximation

For $f(x, y)$ at (x_0, y_0) , the Standard Linear Approximation of $f(x, y)$ is

$$L(x, y) = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) \quad (6.1.1)$$

6.2 The Error in the Standard Linear Approximation

If f has continuous first and second partial derivative throughout an open set containing a rectangle R centered at (x_0, y_0) and if M is any upper bound for the values of $|f_{xx}|$, $|f_{yy}|$, and $|f_{xy}|$ on R , then the error $E(x, y)$ incurred in replacing $f(x, y)$ on R by its linearization satisfies the inequality

$$|E(x, y)| \leq \frac{1}{2}M(|x - x_0| + |y - y_0|)^2. \quad (6.2.1)$$

6.3 Tangent Plane

For $f(x, y)$ at (x_0, y_0) , the tangent plane of $f(x, y)$ is:

$$f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) \quad (6.3.1)$$

If you have a surface $z = f(x, y)$ at $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ use

$$f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) - (z - z_0) = 0 \quad (6.3.2)$$

6.4 Normal Line

The normal line to $f(x, y, z)$ at $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ has the following equations:

$$x = x_0 + f_x(P_0)t$$

$$y = y_0 + f_y(P_0)t$$

$$z = z_0 + f_z(P_0)t$$

7 Section 14.7

7.1 Definitions of local maximums and minimums

If $f(x, y)$ is defined on a region R containing the point (a, b) , then:

1. $f(a, b)$ is a **local maximum** value of f if $f(a, b) \geq f(x, y)$ for all domain points (x, y) in an open disk centered at (a, b) .
2. $f(a, b)$ is a **local minimum** value of f if $f(a, b) \leq f(x, y)$ for all domain points (x, y) in an open disk centered at (a, b) .

7.2 First Derivative Test for Local Extreme Values

If all partial derivatives are equal to zero or undefined, then they are critical points. In order to find local extrema, you must set all partial derivatives to zero and solve the system of equations.

7.3 Second Derivative Test for Local Extreme Values

Let D be the **discriminant** or **Hessian** of f so that

$$D = f_{xx}f_{yy} - f_{xy}^2$$

then

1. f has a **local maximum** at (a, b) if $f_{xx} < 0$ and $D > 0$ at (a, b) .
2. f has a **local minimum** at (a, b) if $f_{xx} > 0$ and $D > 0$ at (a, b) .
3. f has a **saddle point** at (a, b) if $D < 0$ at (a, b) .
4. **the test is inconclusive** at (a, b) if $D = 0$ at (a, b) and another method must be in order to determine the behavior at (a, b) .

7.4 Finding Absolute Maxima and Minima on Closed Bounded Regions

In order to find absolute extrema for $f(x, y)$ on a closed and bounded region R ,

1. *List the interior points of R* where f may have local maxima or minima and evaluate f at these points. These are critical points of f .
2. *List the boundary points of R* where f has local maxima and minima and evaluate f at these points. For every boundary, fix one or more of the variables in order to create a function of a single variable and find its local maxima and minima.
3. *Look through the lists* for the maximum and minimum values of f . These will be the absolute maximum and minimum values of f on R .