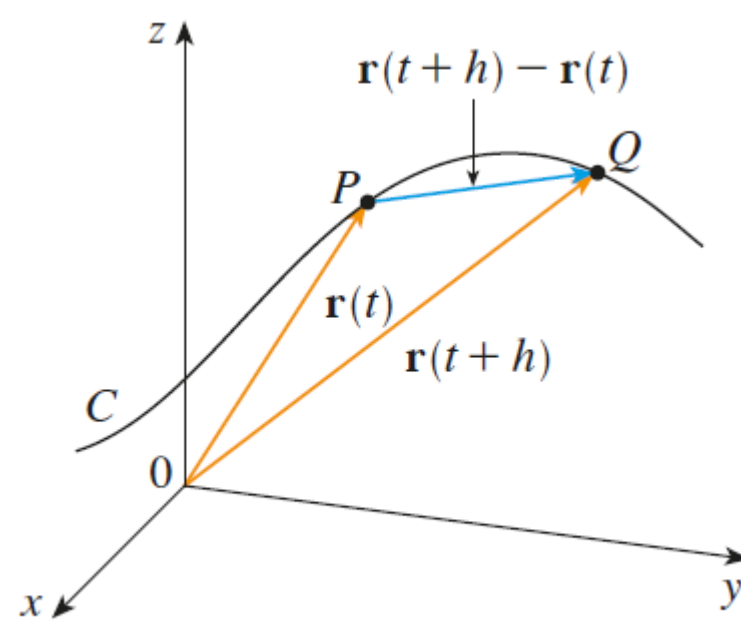
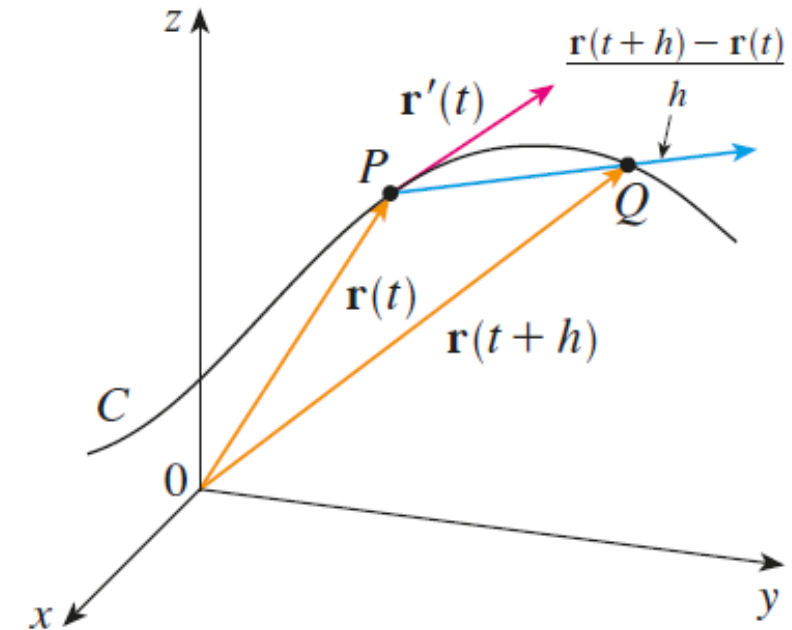


Derivatives of Vector Functions



(a) The secant vector



(b) The tangent vector

Vector Calculus(MATH-243)
Instructor: Dr. Naila Amir

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Vectors And The Geometry Of Space

Book: Thomas' Calculus Early Transcendentals (14th Edition) By George B. Thomas, Jr., Joel Hass, Christopher Heil, Maurice D. Weir.

Chapter: 13 , Section: 13.1

Book: Calculus Early Transcendentals (6th Edition) By James Stewart.

Chapter: 13 , Section: 13.2

Derivatives

The derivative of a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is defined in much the same way as for real-valued functions.

Definition:

If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is a vector function, then derivative $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is given as:

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

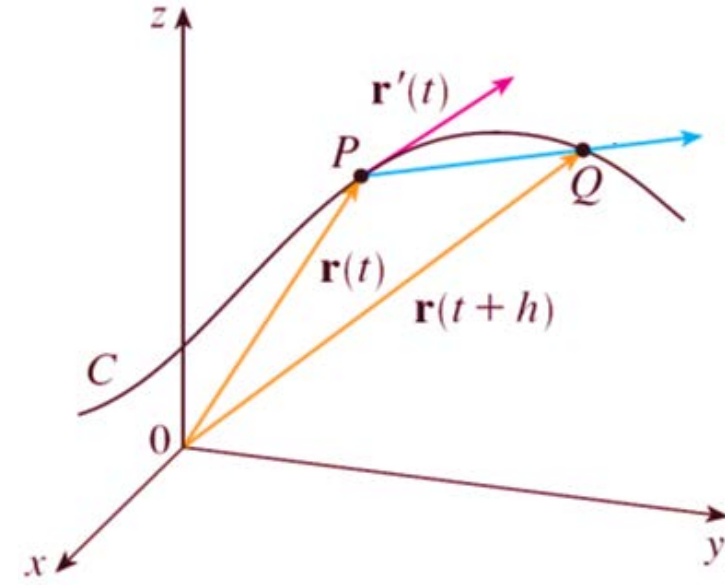
provided this limit exists.

Derivative Geometric Significance

The geometric significance of this definition is shown as follows. If the points P and Q have position vectors $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}(t + h)$, then \overrightarrow{PQ} represents the vector:

$$\mathbf{r}(t + h) - \mathbf{r}(t).$$

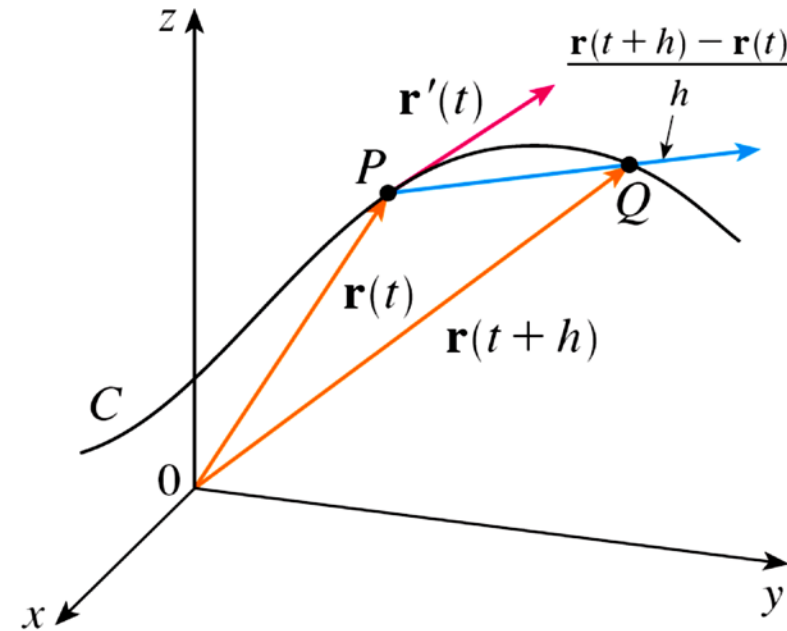
This can therefore be regarded as a secant vector. If $h > 0$, then the scalar multiple $(1/h)(\mathbf{r}(t + h) - \mathbf{r}(t))$ has the same direction as $\mathbf{r}(t + h) - \mathbf{r}(t)$. As $h \rightarrow 0$, it appears that this vector approaches a vector that lies on the tangent line.



Derivative Geometric Significance

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 $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ exists and $\mathbf{r}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$. We require $\mathbf{r}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$ for a smooth curve to make sure the curve has a continuously turning tangent at each point. On a smooth curve, there are no sharp corners or cusps. The **tangent line** to C at P is defined to be the line through P parallel to the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$. The **unit tangent vector** is defined as:

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



The tangent vector

Derivatives

The following theorem provides us with a convenient way for computing the derivative of a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

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:

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

Example:

a. Determine the derivative of the vector function:

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + t^3)\mathbf{i} + te^{-t}\mathbf{j} + \sin(2t)\mathbf{k}.$$

b. Moreover, find the unit tangent vector at the point where $t = 0$.

Solution:

(a) According to theorem: we differentiate each component of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and get:

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

(b) As $\mathbf{r}'(0) = \mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$, so the unit tangent vector at the point $(1, 0, 0)$ is given as:

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

Example:

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 $\mathbf{r}'(1)$.

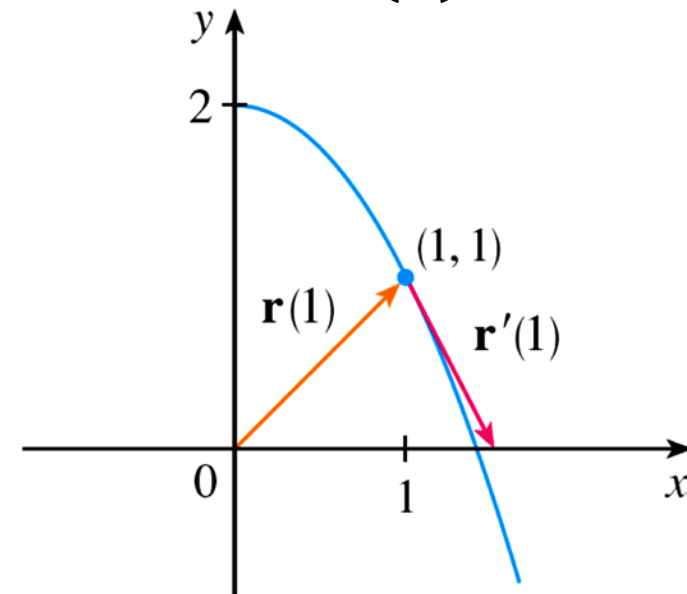
Solution:

We have: $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}}\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{r}'(1) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$. The given curve is a plane curve.

Elimination of the parameter from the equations $x = \sqrt{t}$; $y = 2 - t$ gives:

$$y = 2 - x^2, \quad x \geq 0.$$

The position vector $\mathbf{r}(1) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$ starts at the origin. The tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(1)$ starts at the corresponding point $(1, 1)$.



Second Derivative

Just as for real-valued functions, the second derivative of a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the derivative of \mathbf{r}' , that is, $\mathbf{r}'' = (\mathbf{r}')'$.

For instance, the second derivative of the function:

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

can be determined as:

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle 3t^2, (1 - t)e^{-t}, 2 \cos(2t) \rangle,$$

$$\mathbf{r}''(t) = \langle 6t, (t - 2)e^{-t}, -4 \sin(2t) \rangle.$$

Velocity and Acceleration Vectors

If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the position vector of a particle moving along a smooth curve in space, then $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t)$ is the particle's **velocity vector**, tangent to the curve. At any time t , the direction of \mathbf{v} is the **direction of motion**, the magnitude of \mathbf{v} is the particle's **speed**, and the derivative $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = \mathbf{r}''(t)$ when it exists, is the particle's **acceleration vector**. In conclusion,

1. Velocity is the derivative of position: $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t)$.
2. Speed is the magnitude of velocity: $\text{Speed} = |\mathbf{v}(t)|$.
3. Acceleration is the derivative of velocity: $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = \mathbf{r}''(t)$.
4. The unit vector $\frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{|\mathbf{v}(t)|}$ is the direction of motion at time t .

Example:

A person on a hang glider is spiraling upward due to rapidly rising air on a path having position vector: $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 3 \cos t, 3 \sin t, t^2 \rangle$. Find

- (a) the velocity and acceleration vectors,
- (b) the glider's speed at any time t ,
- (c) the times, if any, when the glider's acceleration is orthogonal to its velocity.

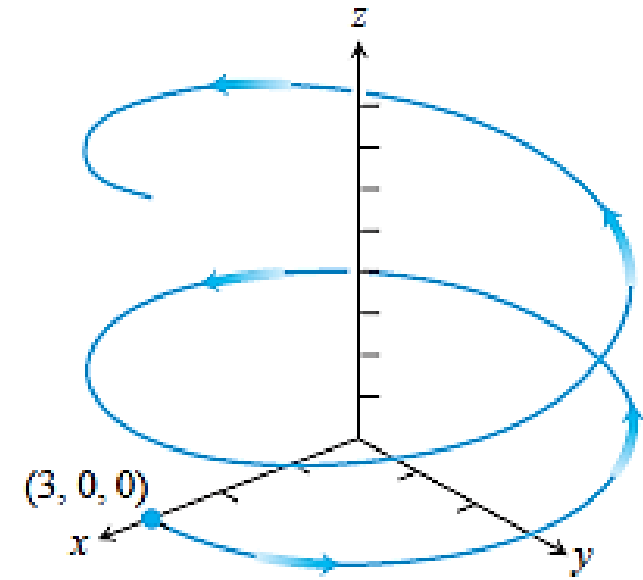
Solution:

- (a) For the present case the velocity and acceleration vectors are respectively given as:

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle -3 \sin t, 3 \cos t, 2t \rangle,$$

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{r}''(t) = \langle -3 \cos t, -3 \sin t, 2 \rangle.$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x = 3 \cos t \\ y = 3 \sin t \\ z = t^2 \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \text{circle in } xy\text{-plane} \\ x^2 + y^2 = (3)^2$$



The path of a hang glider with position vector:
 $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 3 \cos t, 3 \sin t, t^2 \rangle$.

Solution:

(b) The glider's speed at any time t is given as:

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{v}(t)| &= \sqrt{(-3 \sin t)^2 + (3 \cos t)^2 + (2t)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{9 + 4t^2} \end{aligned}$$

The glider is moving faster and faster as it rises along its path.

(c) To find the times when \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{a} are orthogonal, we look for values of t for which

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a} = 0,$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle -3 \sin t, 3 \cos t, 2t \rangle \cdot \langle -3 \cos t, -3 \sin t, 2 \rangle = 0,$$

$$\Rightarrow 9 \sin t \cos t - 9 \sin t \cos t + 4t = 0 \Rightarrow t = 0.$$

Thus, the only time the acceleration vector is orthogonal to \mathbf{v} is when $t = 0$.

Differentiation Rules

Let \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} be differentiable vector functions of t , \mathbf{C} a constant vector, c any scalar, and f any differentiable scalar function.

1. *Constant Function Rule:* $\frac{d}{dt} \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{0}$

2. *Scalar Multiple Rules:* $\frac{d}{dt} [c\mathbf{u}(t)] = c\mathbf{u}'(t)$

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

3. *Sum Rule:* $\frac{d}{dt} [\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) + \mathbf{v}'(t)$

4. *Difference Rule:* $\frac{d}{dt} [\mathbf{u}(t) - \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) - \mathbf{v}'(t)$

5. *Dot Product Rule:* $\frac{d}{dt} [\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}'(t)$

6. *Cross Product Rule:* $\frac{d}{dt} [\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}'(t)$

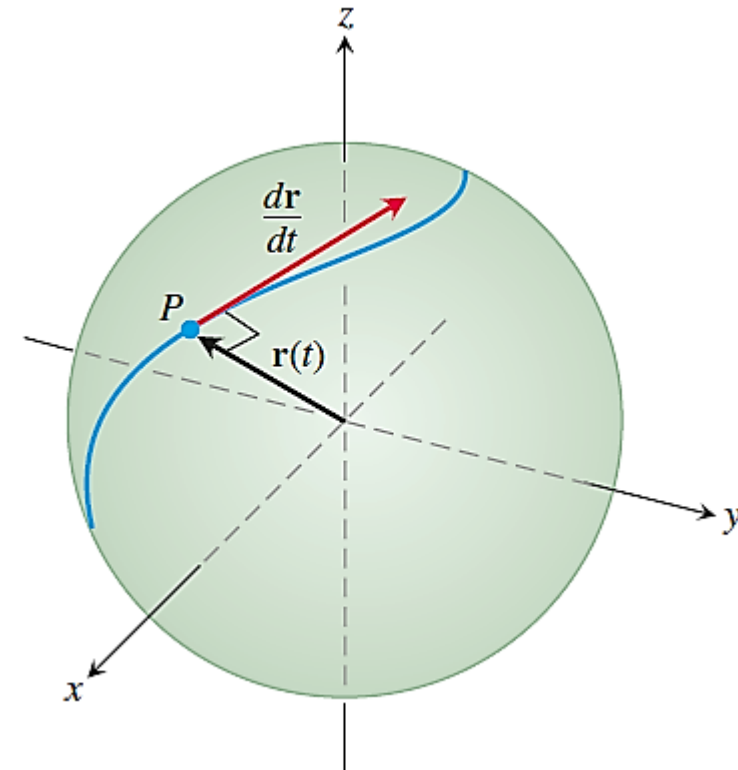
7. *Chain Rule:* $\frac{d}{dt} [\mathbf{u}(f(t))] = f'(t)\mathbf{u}'(f(t))$

Vector Functions of Constant Length

When we track a particle moving on a sphere centered at the origin, the position vector has a constant length equal to the radius of the sphere. The velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t)$, tangent to the path of motion, is tangent to the sphere and hence perpendicular to $\mathbf{r}(t)$. Thus, if $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is a differentiable vector function of t and the length of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is constant, then:

$$\mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) = 0.$$

The converse of above is also true.



Integrals of Vector Functions

INTEGRALS OF VECTOR-VALUED FUNCTIONS

$$\int_a^b \underline{r}(t) dt = \left[\underline{R}(t) \right]_a^b \\ = \underline{R}(b) - \underline{R}(a)$$

$$\int 4t^2 \underline{i} + 3t \underline{j} dt \\ = \left(\frac{4}{3} t^3 + a \right) \underline{i} + \left(\frac{3}{2} t^2 + b \right) \underline{j} \\ = \frac{4}{3} t^3 \underline{i} + \frac{3}{2} t^2 \underline{j} + \underline{C}$$

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Integrals

The definite integral of a continuous vector function:

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

can be defined in much the same way as for real-valued functions—except that the integral is a vector. Thus,

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

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

Integrals

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

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

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

For indefinite integrals, we have:

$$\int \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \mathbf{R}(t) + \mathbf{C}.$$

Example:

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

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

$\vec{C} = \langle c_1, c_2, c_3 \rangle$

where: \mathbf{C} is a vector constant of integration.

If $0 \leq t \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$, then we can evaluate the corresponding definite integral as:

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

Example: Revisiting the Flight of a Glider

Suppose that we did not know the path of the glider in a previous example, but only its acceleration vector is known to us:

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

We also know that initially (at time $t = 0$), the glider departed from the point: $(3,0,0)$ with velocity $\mathbf{v}(0) = 3\mathbf{j}$. Find the glider's position as a function of t . Our goal is to find $\mathbf{r}(t)$ knowing the differential equation:

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \frac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2} = -3\cos t \mathbf{i} - 3\sin t \mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}. \quad (\text{I})$$

The initial conditions: $\mathbf{v}(0) = 3\mathbf{j}$, $\mathbf{r}(0) = 3\mathbf{i}$.

Example: Revisiting the Flight of a Glider

Integrating eq. (I) with respect to t we get:

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = -3 \sin t \, \mathbf{i} + 3 \cos t \, \mathbf{j} + 2t \, \mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C}_1.$$

Using the initial conditions: $\mathbf{v}(0) = 3\mathbf{j}$ in above we get:

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = -3 \sin t \, \mathbf{i} + 3 \cos t \, \mathbf{j} + 2t \, \mathbf{k}. \quad (\text{II})$$

Integrating eq. (II) with respect to t we get:

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = 3 \cos t \, \mathbf{i} + 3 \sin t \, \mathbf{j} + t^2 \mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C}_2. \quad (\text{III})$$

By using the initial condition: $\mathbf{r}(0) = 3\mathbf{i}$, in (III) we will get the glider's position as:

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

Practice Questions

Book: Calculus Early Transcendentals (6th Edition) By James Stewart.

Chapter: 13

Exercise-13.2: Q – 1, Q – 3 to 29, Q – 33 to 40.

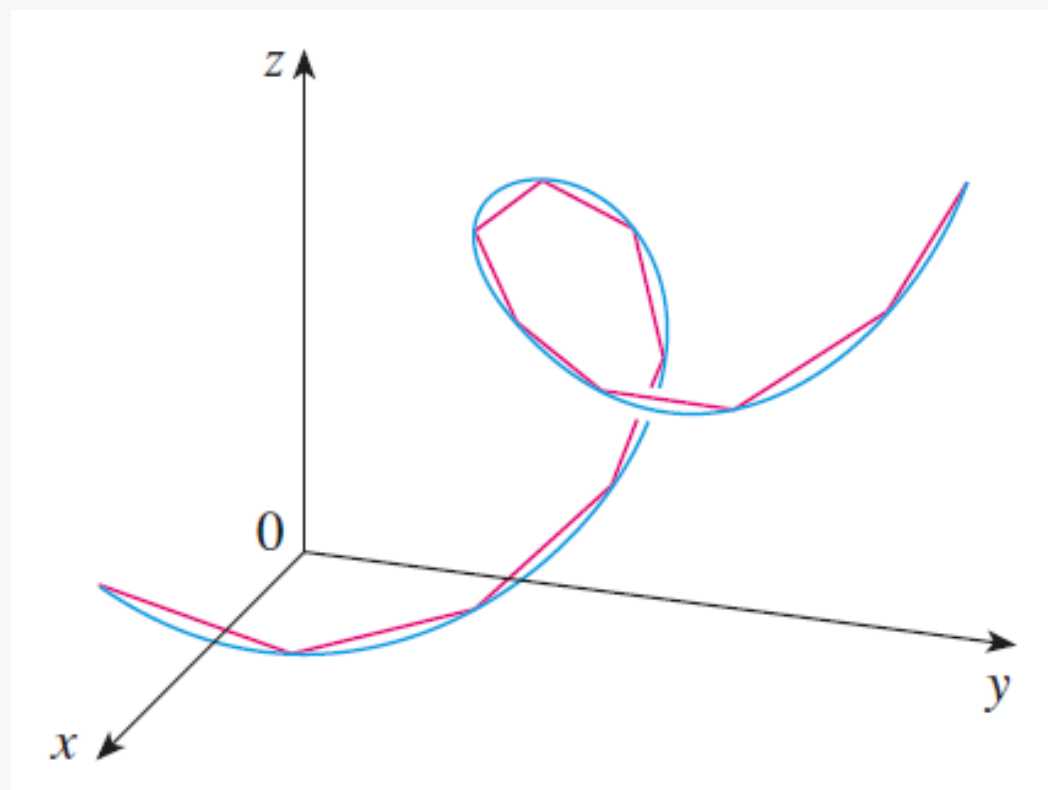
Book: Thomas' Calculus Early Transcendentals (14th Edition) By George B. Thomas, Jr., Joel Hass, Christopher Heil, Maurice D. Weir.

Chapter: 13

Exercise-13.1: Q – 1 to 30.

Exercise-13.2: Q – 1 to 30.

Arc Length in Space



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

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \int_a^b |\mathbf{r}'(t)| \, dt \\ &= \int_a^b \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2 + [h'(t)]^2} \, dt \end{aligned}$$

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Chapter: 13 , Section: 13.3

Arc Length

We defined the length of a **plane curve** with parametric equations:

$$x = f(t), \quad y = g(t); \quad a \leq t \leq b,$$

as the limit of lengths of inscribed polygons and, for the case where $f'(t)$ and $g'(t)$ are continuous, we arrived at the formula:

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

The length of a space curve is defined in exactly the same way.

Arc Length

Suppose that the curve has the vector equation:

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle, \quad a \leq t \leq b,$$

or, equivalently, the parametric equations:

$$x = f(t), \quad y = g(t), \quad z = h(t); \quad a \leq t \leq b,$$

where $f'(t)$, $g'(t)$, and $h'(t)$ 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:

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

Notice that both of the arc length formulas (1) and (2) can be put into the more compact form:

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