

Last time

Last time we discussed vector functions and saw the natural relation between vector functions and space curves.

On the technical side, we saw that one can define

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \vec{r}(t), \vec{r}'(t), \int_a^b \vec{r}(t) dt$$

in the same way as for real-valued functions.

Moreover, each of them is computed component-wise.

In other words, given  $\vec{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$ , we get

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

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

$$\int_a^b \vec{r}(t) dt = \left\langle \int_a^b f(t) dt, \int_a^b g(t) dt, \int_a^b h(t) dt \right\rangle$$

! When asked to match space curves with vector functions, our strategy is first to check if certain points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  belong to the curve and to the values of vector f-s, e.g. origin, pts on axes. Second, we study the projections on coordinate planes.

Prop 1:  $\vec{r}(t)$  is called continuous at  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  if  $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \vec{r}(t) = \vec{r}(a)$ .

Clearly,  $\vec{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$  is continuous if  $f, g, h$  are continuous at  $a$ .

Prop 2: The vector  $\vec{r}'(t)$  is tangent to the space curve  $C$  determined by  $\vec{r}$  at the point  $\vec{r}(t)$ . Moreover, the magnitude  $|\vec{r}'(t)|$  is just the speed of a particle travelling along  $C$  according to  $\vec{r}$ .

Ex 1 (= Ex 6 from Lecture 4): Find the parametric eq-n for the tangent line to the curve  $x = \ln(t^2 + 1)$ ,  $y = \sqrt{t^2 + 4}$ ,  $z = e^{2t} \cos t$  at the point  $(0, 2, 1)$ .

• Last time

The length of a planar curve  $x=f(t)$ ,  $y=g(t)$ ,  $a \leq t \leq b$  is given by

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{f'(t)^2 + g'(t)^2} dt \quad (1)$$

The length of a space curve  $x=f(t)$ ,  $y=g(t)$ ,  $z=h(t)$ ,  $a \leq t \leq b$ , equals

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{f'(t)^2 + g'(t)^2 + h'(t)^2} dt \quad (2)$$

Rmk1: Both formulas can be uniformly written as

$$L = \int_a^b |\vec{r}'(t)| dt \quad (3)$$

! Note that this  $\int |\vec{r}'|$  has an obvious geometric meaning:

"the total distance a particle travels equals the integral of its speed".

Rmk2: In the case  $x=t$ ,  $\int$ -la (1) reads as

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx \quad (4)$$

which should look familiar to most of you.

! Actually, one can derive (1) from (4) as follows:

make change of variable  $x=f(t) \Rightarrow dx = \frac{dx}{dt} dt = f'(t) dt$

Then  $\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}$ , due to chain rule.

Ask if there are any q-s in regards to Tuesday Lecture.

## • Velocity & Acceleration (see Sect. 13.4)

Imagine a particle moving in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , whose position at time  $t$  is given by  $\vec{r}(t)$ . The velocity vector  $\vec{v}(t)$  can be thought of as a limit of the ratio of a displacement vector per unit of time, i.e.

$$\vec{v}(t) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\vec{r}(t+h) - \vec{r}(t)}{h} = \vec{r}'(t)$$

Def: The speed of a particle at time  $t$  is the magnitude  $|\vec{v}(t)| = |\vec{r}'(t)|$ .

! This is intuitively clear as  $|\vec{v}(t)| = |\vec{r}'(t)| =$  rate of change of distance, due to the f-la  $L = \int_a^b |\vec{r}'(t)| dt$ .

Def: The acceleration of the particle is defined as the derivative of velocity:

$$\vec{a}(t) = \vec{v}'(t) = \vec{r}''(t)$$

Ex 2: Find the velocity, acceleration, and speed of a particle with the position vector  $\vec{r}(t) = \langle t^4, e^{t^2}, \ln(t^2+1) \rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v}(t) &= \langle 4t^3, 2t \cdot e^{t^2}, \frac{2t}{t^2+1} \rangle \\ \vec{a}(t) &= \langle 12t^2, (4t^2+2)e^{t^2}, \frac{2(t^2+1) - 2t \cdot 2t}{(t^2+1)^2} \rangle \\ |\vec{v}(t)| &= \sqrt{12t^6 + 4t^2 e^{2t^2} + \frac{4t^2}{(t^2+1)^2}} \end{aligned}$$

Ex 3: A moving particle starts at an initial position  $\vec{r}(0) = \langle -2, 3, 5 \rangle$ .

Its velocity is  $\vec{v}(t) = \sin t \cdot \vec{i} - te^{t^2} \cdot \vec{j} + \sin^3 t \cos t \cdot \vec{k}$ .

Find the position at time  $t$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r}(t) &= \vec{r}(0) + \int_0^t \vec{v}(u) du = \langle -2, 3, 5 \rangle + \int_0^t \langle \sin u, -te^{t^2}, \sin^3 t \cos t \rangle dt \\ &= \langle -2, 3, 5 \rangle + \langle 1 - \cos t, \frac{1-e^{t^2}}{2}, \frac{\sin^4 t}{4} \rangle \\ &= \langle -1 - \cos t, 3\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}e^{t^2}, 5 + \frac{\sin^4 t}{4} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

! Analogously, given  $\vec{r}(0), \vec{v}(0), \vec{a}(t)$ , we can recover  $\vec{v}(t)$  and  $\vec{r}(t)$  via

$$\vec{v}(t) = \vec{v}(0) + \int_0^t \vec{a}(u) du, \quad \vec{r}(t) = \vec{r}(0) + \int_0^t \vec{v}(u) du$$

Ex 4: A moving particle starts at an initial position  $\vec{r}(0) = \langle -1, 0, 2 \rangle$  with initial velocity  $\vec{v}(0) = \langle 1, 2, -3 \rangle$  and acceleration  $\vec{a}(t)$  given by  $\vec{a}(t) = e^t \cdot \vec{i} - 2t \cdot \vec{j} + \sin t \cdot \vec{k}$ .

Find its velocity and position at time  $t$ .

$$\vec{a}(t) = \vec{v}'(t) \Rightarrow \vec{v}(t) = \vec{v}(0) + \int_0^t \vec{a}(u) du.$$

Know:  $\int_0^t e^u du = e^t - 1$ ;  $\int_0^t -2u du = -u^2 \Big|_0^t = -t^2$ ;  $\int_0^t \sin u du = -\cos u \Big|_0^t = 1 - \cos t$ .

So:  $\vec{v}(t) = \langle 1, 2, -3 \rangle + \langle e^t - 1, -t^2, 1 - \cos t \rangle = \boxed{\langle e^t, 2 - t^2, -2 - \cos t \rangle}$

Likewise,  $\vec{v}(t) = \vec{r}'(t) \Rightarrow \vec{r}(t) = \vec{r}(0) + \int_0^t \vec{v}(u) du$

Know:  $\int_0^t e^u du = e^u \Big|_0^t = e^t - 1$ ;  $\int_0^t (2 - u^2) du = (2u - \frac{u^3}{3}) \Big|_0^t = 2t - \frac{t^3}{3}$ ;

$\int_0^t (-2 - \cos u) du = (-2u - \sin u) \Big|_0^t = -2t - \sin t$ .

So:  $\vec{r}(t) = \langle -1, 0, 2 \rangle + \langle e^t - 1, 2t - \frac{t^3}{3}, -2t - \sin t \rangle$   
 $= \boxed{\langle e^t - 2, 2t - \frac{t^3}{3}, 2 - 2t - \sin t \rangle}$

Answer:  $\vec{v}(t) = \langle e^t, 2 - t^2, -2 - \cos t \rangle$ ,  $\vec{r}(t) = \langle e^t - 2, 2t - \frac{t^3}{3}, 2 - 2t - \sin t \rangle$

• Our next & main topic: "Functions of several variables"

We will start by considering the first nontrivial case, i.e. functions of two variables.

Def: A function of two variables is a function whose domain  $D$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and whose range is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Convention: If a function  $f$  is given by the formula and no domain is specified, then the domain of  $f$  is the set of all pairs  $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , s.t.  $f(x,y)$  is a well-defined real number, while the range of  $f$  is the set of all possible values  $f(x,y)$ .

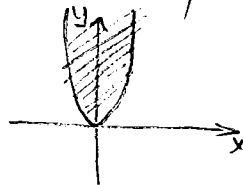
Ex 5: Sketch the domain for each of the following  $f$ 's:

(a)  $f(x,y) = \sqrt[6]{y-x^6}$

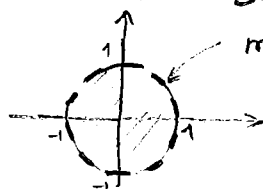
(b)  $f(x,y) = \ln(1-x^2-y^2)$

(c)  $f(x,y) = \frac{\sqrt{\sin x}}{y}$

(a)  $y-x^6 \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow y \geq x^6$ . The corresponding domain looks as:



(b)  $1-x^2-y^2 > 0 \Leftrightarrow x^2+y^2 < 1 \Leftrightarrow$  distance from  $(0,0)$  to  $(x,y)$  is less than 1. Hence, we get a unit disk without boundary.



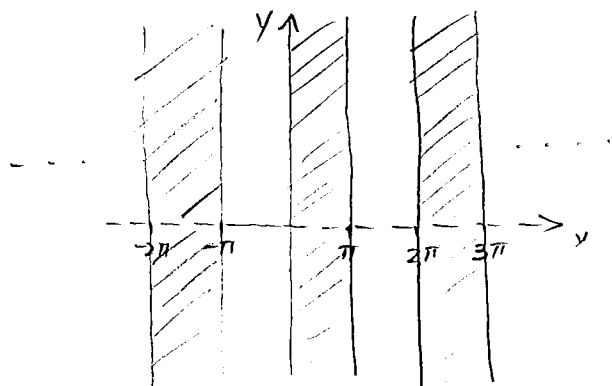
make the boundary "dotted" to show it is not included

(c) There are two conditions in this case:  $y \neq 0$  and  $\sin x \geq 0$ .

Recalling graph of  $\sin x$ ,  $\sin x \geq 0$  iff  $x \in \dots \cup [-2\pi, -\pi] \cup [0, \pi] \cup [2\pi, 3\pi] \cup \dots$

Continuation of Ex 5 (c)

Hence, the corresponding domain is a union of vertical strips with points on x-axis excluded



Ex 6: Find the range of each of 3 functions of Ex 5.

(a)  $[0, +\infty)$

(b)  $(-\infty; 0]$

(c)  $\mathbb{R} = (-\infty, +\infty)$

Pretty clear, but you are expected to provide an argument

### Graphs and Level Curves

The most common way to visualize a function of two variables is by considering the corresponding graph.

Def: If  $f$  is a function of two variables with domain  $\mathcal{D}$ , then the graph of  $f$  is the set of all points  $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , s.t.  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}$  and  $z = f(x, y)$

[Compare to the notion of a graph of function of one variable].  
An alternative way to visualize  $f(x, y)$  is by drawing level curves.

Def: The level curves of a function  $f$  of two variables are the curves with equation  $f(x, y) = k$ , where  $k$  is a constant (in the range of  $f$ )

Ex 7: Sketch the graphs of the following functions:

(a)  $f(x,y) = 2 - x - y$

(b)  $f(x,y) = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}$

(c)  $f(x,y) = x^2 + 9y^2$

(d)  $f(x,y) = \sqrt{4 - y^2}$

(e)  $f(x,y) = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

Draw the level curves in each of the above 5 cases.

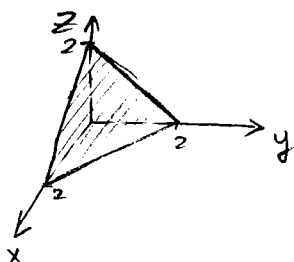
(a) Want to draw a surface given by  $z = 2 - x - y$ .

$$z = 2 - x - y \Leftrightarrow x + y + z = 2$$

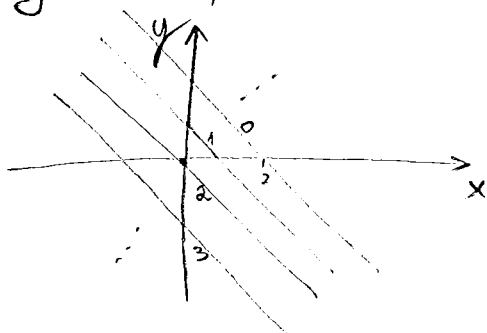
We know that the latter is an equation of a plane. To graph this plane, we find the intercepts (i.e. intersections with  $x, y, z$ -axes). To find  $x$ -intercept, set  $y = z = 0 \Rightarrow x + 0 + 0 = 2 \Rightarrow x = 2$ .

Analogously,  $y$ -intercept and  $z$ -intercept are also 2.

Thus, we can sketch part of the plane, which is a triangle whose vertices are exactly intercepts:



The corresponding level curves are given by  $k = 2 - x - y \Leftrightarrow x + y = 2 - k$ . Hence they are parallel lines depicted below:



! The numbers over level curves keep track of corresponding number  $k$

# Lecture #5

09/14/2017

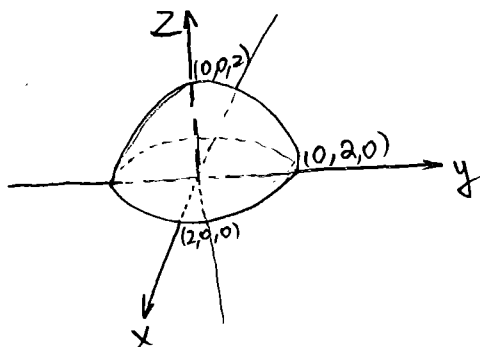
(Continuation of Ex 7)

(b)  $z = \sqrt{4-x^2-y^2} \Rightarrow z^2 = 4-x^2-y^2 \Leftrightarrow x^2+y^2+z^2 = 4.$

This equation determines a sphere of radius 2 with a center at the origin.

However: first arrow is not an equivalence, i.e.  $z^2 = 4-x^2-y^2 \not\Rightarrow z = \sqrt{4-x^2-y^2}$ .  
as  $-\sqrt{4-x^2-y^2}$  also satisfies  $z^2 = 4-x^2-y^2$ .

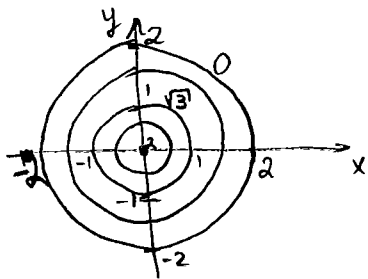
Hence, we need to take only part of sphere with  $z \geq 0$ .



or something in this spirit...

The level curves are given by  $k = \sqrt{4-x^2-y^2} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} k \geq 0 \\ x^2+y^2 = 4-k^2 \end{cases}$

Hence, we get a collection of circles centered at the origin of radius  $\leq 2$  (not that we get a pt = (0,0) viewed as a circle of radius 0).

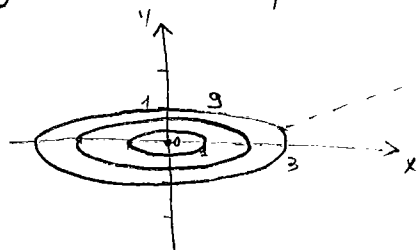


(c)  $z = x^2 + 9y^2$

Let us start by drawing level lines. The range is obviously  $[0, +\infty)$ .

For  $k=0$ , the corresponding level line is just a point (0,0).

For  $k>0$ , we get an ellipse. Hence the level curves look as:



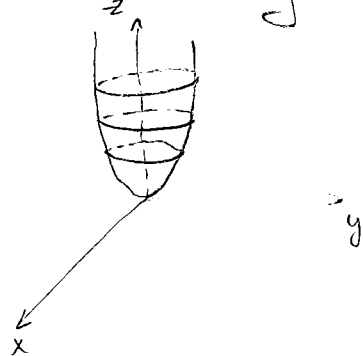
collection of scaled version of the same ellipse of an arbitrary big scale.



► (Continuation of Ex 7)

(c) On the other hand, intersections with  $yz$  and  $xz$  planes are parabolas  $z=gy^2$  and  $z=x^2$ , respectively.

Combining all this information, we can draw a final picture



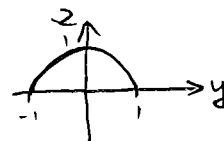
This is called

"elliptic paraboloid"

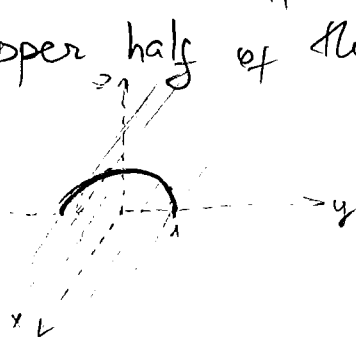
$$(d) z = \sqrt{1-y^2} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} z \geq 0 \\ z^2 = 1-y^2 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} z \geq 0 \\ y^2 + z^2 = 1 \end{cases}$$

The latter does not depend on  $x$  at all, hence, we will get the cone over the intersection of this graph with  $yz$ -plane.

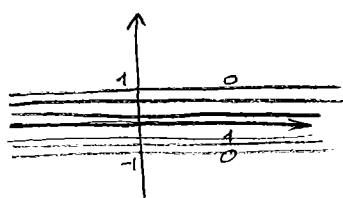
The latter is the upper half of the <sup>unit</sup> circle



Hence, we get



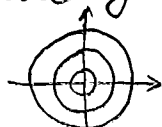
The level curves are defined via  $k = \sqrt{1-y^2} \Leftrightarrow y = \sqrt{1-k^2}$ . Hence, get



← a collection of lines parallel to the  $x$ -axis at the height  $\in [0, 1]$ .

e)  $z = 2\sqrt{x^2+y^2}$

The level curves are given by  $k = 2\sqrt{x^2+y^2} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} k \geq 0 \\ x^2+y^2 = k^2/4 \end{cases}$  - circles centered at the origin



Intersections with  $yz$  and  $xz$  planes are given by  $z=2|y|$  and  $z=2|x|$ , resp.

So: the graph will be a cone

