Instructor:	Dr. Stathis Charalampidis	Office:	25-319 (Faculty Offices East)
Email:	echarala@calpoly.edu	Phone:	(805) 756-2465

<u>Definition</u> [Parametric curves and equations] A parametric curve C is a two-dimensional curve whose x and y points are defined by a **pair** of functions

$$x = f(t), \quad y = g(t), \quad t \in I$$

called **parametric equations** with t usually standing for time. If  $t \in [a, b]$ , then the points (f(a), g(a)) and (f(b), g(b)) correspond to the **initial** and **terminal points** of the curve, respectively.

<u>Definition</u> [Tangents, Areas, and Lengths] Let x = f(t) and y = g(t) be a parametrization of a curve C described by y = F(x). Then:

- The slope of the tangent line to the curve is  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt}$ .
- Similarly,  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt}\right)$ .
- The area under y = F(x) is given by

$$\mathbf{l} = \int_a^b g(t) f'(t) \, dt, \quad x(a) = \alpha, \quad x(b) = \beta.$$

• The length (or arclength) of the curve C is given by

$$L = \int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^{2} + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^{2}} dt.$$

<u>Definition</u> [Polar coordinates, slope, polar area and length formulas]

- Given  $P(r, \theta)$ , we can find P(x, y) via  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $y = r \sin \theta$ .
- Given P(x,y), we can find  $P(r,\theta)$  via  $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  and  $\theta = \arctan(y/x)$ .
- Let  $r = f(\theta)$  be a polar equation with parametric equations:  $x = r \cos \theta = f(\theta) \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta = f(\theta) \sin \theta.$

Then the **slope** at  $(r, \theta)$  is given by

$$\frac{dy}{dx}\Big|_{(r,\theta)} = \frac{f'(\theta)\sin\theta + f(\theta)\cos\theta}{f'(\theta)\cos\theta - f(\theta)\sin\theta}.$$

• The **area** of  $r = f(\theta)$  between  $\theta = a$  and  $\theta = b$  is given by

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \int_{a}^{b} \left[ f(\theta) \right]^{2} d\theta.$$

• The **length** of a polar curve is given by

$$L = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \sqrt{r^2 + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2} \, d\theta.$$

- Remarks for graphing polar curves:
  - 1. The graph with r = a is a circle with radius |a| centered at (0, 0).
  - 2. The graph with polar equation  $\theta = \theta_0$  is a line through (0, 0) making an angle  $\theta_0$  with the x-axis.
  - 3. The equation for a **circle**:  $r = a \sin \theta$  or  $r = a \cos \theta$ .
  - 4. The equations for **flowers**:  $r = a \cos(n\theta)$  or  $r = a \sin(n\theta)$ . Note that if n is odd, we have n petals; if n is even we have 2n petals.
  - 5. The equations for the **cardioid**:  $r = a + b \cos \theta$  or  $r = a + b \sin \theta$ .

**Definition** [Sequence] A sequence is a list of ordered numbers:  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, \ldots, a_n, \ldots$ 

<u>Definition</u> [Limit Test for convergence/divergence of sequences] A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  has the limit L:

if we can make the terms 
$$a_n$$
 as close to  $L$  as  $n \gg 1$ . If the limit exists, we say that the sequence **converges** (or is **convergent**). Otherwise the sequence **diverges**.

<u>Theorem</u> [Limit Rules] If  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  are convergent sequences, and c = const., then

•  $\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \pm \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n$ 

• 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} c a_n = c \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \quad \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} c = c\right)$$
  
•  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n b_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \cdot \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n$ 

• 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n} \quad \text{if} \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n \neq 0$$

• 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n^p = \left[\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n\right]^p$$
 if  $p > 0$  and  $a_n > 0$ 

<u>Theorem</u> [Sandwich Theorem] Let  $\{a_n\}$ ,  $\{b_n\}$  and  $\{c_n\}$ . If

$$a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$$
 for  $\forall n \geq n_0$  and  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} c_n = L$ , then  
 $\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = L.$ 

<u>Theorem</u> If  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L$  and the function f is continuous at L, then  $\lim_{n \to \infty} f(a_n) = f(L).$ 

<u>**Theorem**</u> Let f(x) be defined  $\forall x \ge n_0$  and  $\{a_n\}$  such that  $a_n = f(n)$  for  $n \ge n_0$ . Then

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L \Rightarrow \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L$$

<u>Theorem</u> The above sequences converge to the limits indicated below:

• 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n} = 0.$$
 •  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{n} = 1.$ 

• 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x^{1/n} = 1, \forall x > 0.$$
 •  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x^n = 0 \text{ if } |x| \le 1.$ 

• 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{x}{n} \right)^n = e^x, \forall x.$$
 •  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0, \forall x.$ 

## <u>Theorem</u> [Monotonicity of sequences]

- A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is called **increasing** (non-decreasing) if  $a_n < a_{n+1}$  holds  $\forall n \ge 1$ .
- A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is called **decreasing** (non-increasing) if  $a_n > a_{n+1}$  holds  $\forall n \ge 1$ .
- A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is called **monotonic** if it is either increasing or decreasing.

<u>Theorem</u> [Monotonic Sequence Theorem] Every bounded and monotonic sequence is convergent.

## <u>Definition</u> [Infinite series, partial sums and convergence]

• Given  $\{a_n\}$ , an expression of the form

$$a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n + \dots$$

is an **infinite series**.

• The *n*th **partial sum** is the sum of the first *n* terms:

 $s_n \doteq a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n$ 

# In addition, $\{s_n\}$ is the sequence of partial sums.

• If  $s_n \to s$ , the series **converges** and that its sum is s:

$$a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = s.$$

• On the contrary, if  $\{s_n\}$  does not converge, the series **diverges**.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L \Rightarrow a_n \to L, \quad \text{as} \quad n \to \infty,$$

# **Definition** [Geometric series]

• Geometric series is a series of the form of

$$a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots + ar^{n-1} + \dots \doteq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} \left( \doteq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n \right),$$
  
where  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  is called the **leading term** and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  is the **ratio**.

• A geometric series **converges** if |r| < 1. Its sum is given by

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = \frac{a}{1-r} \qquad (|r|<1)$$

- If  $|r| \ge 1$  the geometric series **diverges**.
- Its *n*th partial sum,  $s_n$ , is given by

$$s_n = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r}, \quad r \neq 1.$$

<u>Definition</u> [Telescoping series] A telescoping series is any series where nearly every term cancels with a preceding or following term.

<u>Theorem</u> [The *n*th-term test] If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is convergent, then  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0$  (or  $a_n \to 0$ ). On the contrary,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges if  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$  fails to exist or if  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \neq 0$ .

<u>Theorem</u> [Combining series] If  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  are convergent series, then so are the series  $\sum c a_n$  (where c = const.), and  $\sum (a_n \pm b_n)$ , and

•  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c a_n = c \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n.$ •  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \pm \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n.$ 

#### Theorem [The integral test]

Suppose f(x) is a continuous, positive function where f'(x) < 0(i.e., decreasing) on  $[N, \infty)$  with N > 0, and let  $a_n = f(n)$ . Then the series  $\sum_{n=N}^{\infty} a_n$  and the integral  $\int_N^{\infty} f(x) dx$  both converge **or** both diverge.

<u>Theorem [The *p*-test for series]</u> The *p*-series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ :

- Converges if p > 1.
- Diverges if  $p \leq 1$ .

<u>Theorem</u> [Remainder Estimate for the Integral Test] Suppose  $f(k) = a_k$  where f is a continuous, positive, and decreasing function for  $x \ge n$ , and  $\sum a_n$  is convergent to s. If  $R_n = s - s_n$ , then

$$\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x)dx \le R_n \le \int_n^{\infty} f(x)dx.$$

The value of the sum s satisfies:

$$s_n + \int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x)dx \le s \le s_n + \int_n^{\infty} f(x)dx.$$

<u>Theorem</u> [The Direct Comparison Test (DCT)] Suppose that  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  are series with  $a_n, b_n > 0$  (i.e., non-negative terms) and let N being some fixed integer. Then, the following two cases are discerned:

- If  $\sum b_n$  is convergent and  $a_n \leq b_n$ ,  $\forall n \geq N$ , then  $\sum a_n$  is also convergent.
- If  $\sum b_n$  is divergent and  $a_n \ge b_n$ ,  $\forall n \ge N$ , then  $\sum a_n$  is also divergent.

<u>Theorem</u> [The Limit Comparison Test (LCT)] Suppose  $a_n, b_n > 0, \forall n \ge N$  for some fixed integer N.

• If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = c > 0$ , then  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  both converge or both diverge.

- If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 0$  and  $\sum b_n$  converges, then  $\sum a_n$  converges.
- If  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \infty$  and  $\sum b_n$  diverges, then  $\sum a_n$  diverges.

<u>Theorem</u> [Alternating series test (AST)] If the alternating series:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} b_n = b_1 - b_2 + b_3 - b_4 + \dots, \quad b_n > 0 \quad \forall n,$$

satisfies

1.  $b_{n+1} \leq b_n, \forall n \geq N \text{ (for some } N)$ 

2.  $b_n \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ 

then the series is convergent.

<u>Theorem</u> [Alternating series estimation theorem] If the alternating series converges, then for  $n \ge N$ 

$$s_n = b_1 - b_2 + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} b_n$$

approximates the sum s of the series with an error whose absolute value is less than  $b_{n+1}$ , the absolute value of the first unused term (i.e.,  $|a_{n+1}| = b_n$ ). Furthermore, the sum s lies between any two successive partial sums  $s_n$  and  $s_{n+1}$  and the remainder,  $s - s_n$  has the same sign as the first unused term. In other words, we write

$$|R_n| = |s - s_n| \le b_{n+1}.$$

<u>Definition</u> [Absolute and Conditional convergence]

- $\sum a_n$  is absolutely convergent if  $\sum |a_n|$  is convergent.
- $\sum a_n$  is conditionally convergent if it is convergent but not absolutely convergent.
- If  $\sum a_n$  is absolutely convergent, then  $\sum a_n$  is convergent.

<u>Theorem</u> [The Ratio Test] Let  $\sum a_n$  be a series and suppose that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = L$$

Then,

Then.

- The series is absolutely convergent if L < 1 (and therefore convergent!).
- The series is **divergent** if L > 1 (or infinite).
- The test fails (or is inconclusive) if L = 1 (no conclusion can be drawn about the convergence or divergence).

**<u>Theorem</u>** [The Root Test] Let  $\sum a_n$  be a series and suppose that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = L.$$

- The series is **absolutely convergent** if L < 1 (and therefore convergent!).
- The series is **divergent** if L > 1 (or infinite).
- The test fails (or is inconclusive) if L = 1.

<u>Definition</u> [Power series and their convergence] A power series in x or a power series about 0 or centered at 0 is a series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n = c_0 + c_1 (x-a) + c_2 (x-a)^2 + \dots + c_n (x-a)^n + \dots$$

#### Remarks:

- The series converges only when x = a corresponding to R = 0.
- Use the **ratio test** to find the **radius** R and **interval** I of convergence. Note that I is **an open interval**.
- Check the endpoints separately to find the complete interval of convergence.
- $\exists$  three possibilities:  $R = 0, R = \infty$ , or R = c where c is a finite number.
- In the third case, there are **four** possibilities: (a - R, a + R), (a - R, a + R], [a - R, a + R), [a - R, a + R].

<u>Definition</u> [Taylor and Mclaurin series] The power series representation of f(x) is called Taylor series and is given by

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k, \quad f^{(k)}(a) \doteq f^{(k)}(x) \Big|_{x=a}$$

If a = 0, then the Taylor series is called **Mclaurin series**.

<u>Definition</u> [Taylor's formula/theorem] If  $f^{(k)} \in C[a, b] \forall k = 1, n \text{ and } f^{(n+1)} \in C(a, b)$  then

$$f(x) = \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^{k}}_{T_{n}(x)} + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x-a)^{n+1}}_{R_{n}(x)},$$

where  $T_n(x)$  is the **Taylor polynomial of order** n and  $R_n$  is the **remainder**. The value c is between a and b.

<u>Definition</u> [Remainder estimation theorem/Taylor's inequality] If  $\exists M > 0$  such that  $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| \leq M$  holds for  $|x-a| \leq d$ , then the remainder term  $R_n(x)$  of the Taylor series satisfies

$$\left| R_n(x) \right| \le M \frac{|x-a|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}, \quad |x-a| \le d$$

<u>Definition</u> [Binomial series] If k is any real number and |x| < 1, then the series

where  

$$(1+x)^{k} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^{n} = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^{n},$$

$$\binom{k}{n} = \frac{k(k-1)(k-2)\dots(k-n+1)}{n!},$$

are called the **binomial series** and  $\binom{k}{n}$  the **binomial coefficients**.

<u>Definition</u> [Frequently used Mclaurin series]

• 
$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$$
 with  $|x| < 1$  or  $I = (-1, 1)$ .  
•  $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$  with  $I = \mathbb{R}$ .  
•  $\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{n!}$  with  $I = \mathbb{P}$ 

• 
$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$
 with  $I = \mathbb{R}$ .

• 
$$\cos x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$$
 with  $I = \mathbb{R}$ .

• 
$$\log(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}x^n}{n}$$
 with  $I = (-1,1]$ .

• 
$$\arctan x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}$$
 with  $I = [-1, 1]$ .

**Definition** [Vector] Given points  $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  and  $B(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , then  $\overrightarrow{AB} = \langle x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1, z_2 - z_1 \rangle$  denotes the arrow or vector based at A with terminal point B.

<u>Definition</u> [Equation of the sphere] The equation of the sphere centered at (h, k, l) with radius r is given by

$$(x-h)^{2} + (x-k)^{2} + (x-l)^{2} = r^{2}$$

<u>Theorem</u> [Length and distance] Let  $\mathbf{a} = \langle x_1, y_1, z_1 \rangle$  be vector and let  $A(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ ,  $B(x_3, y_3, z_3)$  be points. Then:

1. The length of **a** is  $|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + y_1^2 + z_1^2}$ .

2. The distance d(A, B) from the point A to the point B is:

$$d(A,B) = |\overrightarrow{AB}| = \sqrt{(x_3 - x_2)^2 + (y_3 - y_2)^2 + (z_3 - z_2)^2}$$

 $\underline{\mathbf{Theorem}} \ [ \textbf{Dot product and angle of vectors} ] \ \mathrm{For \ nonzero \ vectors \ } \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}$ 

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta,$$

where  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$  is the angle between the vectors. Furthermore, if  $\mathbf{a} = \langle x_1, y_1, z_1 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{b} = \langle x_2, y_2, z_2 \rangle$ , then

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2 + z_1 z_2$$

<u>Definition</u> [Direction angles and direction cosines] The direction angles of a vector  $\vec{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$  are the angles  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  that  $\vec{a}$  makes with the positive x-, y- and z- axes:

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{a_1}{|\vec{a}|}, \quad \cos \beta = \frac{a_2}{|\vec{a}|}, \quad \cos \gamma = \frac{a_3}{|\vec{a}|}$$

# **Definition** [Vector and scalar projections]

• The vector projection of **b** onto (in the direction of) **a** is

$$\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}}\right)\mathbf{a} = \operatorname{comp}_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b} \frac{\mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|}.$$

• The scalar projection of **b** onto (in the direction of) **a** is

$$\operatorname{comp}_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}|} = |\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta.$$

<u>Definition</u> [Cross product] The cross product  $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$  of vectors  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$  can be calculated by:

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & a_3 \\ b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} - \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{j} + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}.$$

Note that  $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$  is  $\perp$  to both  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  by construction.

<u>Theorem</u> The length of  $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$  is given by:  $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}| = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\sin(\theta)$ , where  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ . Also  $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|$  is **area** of the parallelogram with sides  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ . Note that it follows that area of the triangle with vertices  $\langle 0, 0, 0 \rangle$  and the position vectors  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  is:  $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|/2$ .

<u>Theorem</u> Let two vectors **a** and **b**. Then:

•  $\mathbf{a} \perp \mathbf{b}$  if  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$  (number). •  $\mathbf{a} / / \mathbf{b}$  if  $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$  (vector!).

<u>Definition</u> [Scalar triple product] The scalar triple product of  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{c} = \langle c_1, c_2, c_3 \rangle$  can be calculated by the determinant:

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = a_1 \begin{vmatrix} b_2 & b_3 \\ c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} - a_2 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} + a_3 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \\ c_1 & c_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

<u>Theorem</u> The volume of the parallelepiped determined by the vectors  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{c}$  is the absolute value  $V = |\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})|$ .

<u>Definition</u> Given a point  $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  and a vector  $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ , the vector equation of the line L passing through  $P_0$  in the direction of  $\mathbf{v}$  is:

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{OP} + t\mathbf{v} = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle + t \langle a, b, c \rangle = \langle x_0 + at, y_0 + bt, z_0 + ct \rangle.$$

The resulting equations:  $x = x_0 + at$ ,

$$y = y_0 + bt,$$

$$z = z_0 + ct,$$

are called the **parametric equations** for L.

<u>Definition</u> If t is eliminated from the parametric equations of the line L, we obtain the **symmetric equations** for L given by

$$\frac{x-x_0}{a} = \frac{y-y_0}{b} = \frac{z-z_0}{c}.$$

<u>Definition</u> The distance D from a point S to a line that passes through P parallel to a vector **v** is given by

$$D = |\mathbf{PS}| \sin \theta = \frac{|\mathbf{PS} \times \mathbf{v}|}{|\mathbf{v}|}.$$

Definition

or

• The **plane** passing through the point  $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  with normal vector  $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$  is given by the following **vector** equation:

$$\mathbf{n} \cdot \langle x - x_0, y - y_0, z - z_0 \rangle = 0,$$

where (x, y, z) denotes a **general point** on the plane.

• Equivalently, we have:

$$a(x - x_0) + b(y - y_0) + c(z - z_0) = 0$$

$$ax + by + cz = d$$
 with  $d = -(ax_0 + by_0 + cz_0)$ .

• The **angle** between two intersecting planes with normal vectors  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  is the angle between their normal vectors given by

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\mathbf{n}_1 \cdot \mathbf{n}_2}{|\mathbf{n}_1| |\mathbf{n}_2|}\right)$$

• The distance D from a point  $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  to the plane ax + by + cz + d = 0 with normal vector  $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$  is given by

$$D = |\text{comp}_{n}\mathbf{b}| = \frac{|ax_{1} + by_{1} + cz_{1} + d|}{\sqrt{a^{2} + b^{2} + c^{2}}}$$

<u>Definition</u> [Vector functions and properties] Consider  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  with x = f(t), y = g(t), and z = h(t) and  $t \in [a, b]$ . Then:

- $\lim_{t \to t_0} \mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \lim_{t \to t_0} f(t), \lim_{t \to t_0} g(t), \lim_{t \to t_0} h(t) \rangle.$
- If **r** is continuous at  $t = t_0$ , then  $\lim_{t \to t_0} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(t_0)$ .
- $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$  is continuous if  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  is continuous  $\forall t \in I$ .
- The velocity field is  $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle x'(t), y'(t), z'(t) \rangle$ .
- The acceleration field is  $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{r}''(t) = \langle x''(t), y''(t), z''(t) \rangle = \mathbf{v}'(t).$
- The indefinite integral of  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  wrt t is

$$\int \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \langle \int f(t) dt, \int g(t) dt, \int h(t) dt \rangle + \mathbf{c},$$

where **c** is an **arbitrary constant vector**.

• The **definite integral** of  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  from a to b is

$$\int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \langle \int_{a}^{b} f(t) dt, \int_{a}^{b} g(t) dt, \int_{a}^{b} h(t) dt \rangle,$$

• The length L of  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  is the integral of the speed:

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

<u>Definition</u> [Curvature and TNB frame] Let a parametrization of C in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  be  $\mathbf{r} = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$ . Then:

- The unit tangent vector is  $\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{r}'}{|\mathbf{r}'|}$ .
- The unit normal vector is  $\mathbf{N} = \frac{d\mathbf{T}/dt}{|d\mathbf{T}/dt|}$ .
- The unit binormal vector is  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}$ .
- The curvature of the curve is

$$\mathbf{r} \doteq \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{|\mathbf{r}'|^3},$$

• The speed is given by  $\frac{ds}{dt} = |\mathbf{r}'(t)|$ , where s stands for the arclength function:

$$s(t) = \int_a^t |\mathbf{r}'(u)| \, du.$$

<u>Definition</u> The acceleration vector can be decomposed as

 $\mathbf{a} \doteq a_T \mathbf{T} + a_N \mathbf{N},$ 

whence

- $a_T \doteq \frac{d}{dt} |\mathbf{r}'|$  is the **tangential** component of **a**, and
- $a_N = \kappa |\mathbf{r}'|^2 = \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{|\mathbf{r}'|} = \sqrt{|\mathbf{a}|^2 a_T^2}$  is the **normal** component of a.

Mathematics Department, California Polytechnic State University San Luis Obispo, CA 93407-0403, USA

Copyright  $\bigodot$  2022-2023 by Efstathios Charalampidis. All rights reserved.