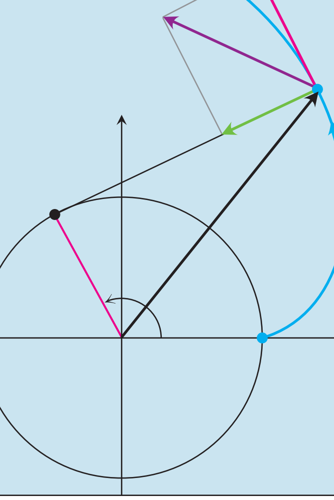


Chapter

13

Vector-Valued Functions and Motion in Space

OVERVIEW When a body (or object) travels through space, the equations $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, and $z = h(t)$ that give the body's coordinates as functions of time serve as parametric equations for the body's motion and path. With vector notation, we can condense these into a single equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ that gives the body's position as a vector function of time. For an object moving in the xy-plane, the component function $h(t)$ is zero for all time (that is, identically zero).

In this chapter, we use calculus to study the paths, velocities, and accelerations of moving bodies. As we go along, we will see how our work answers the standard questions about the paths and motions of projectiles, planets, and satellites. In the final section, we use our new vector calculus to derive Kepler's laws of planetary motion from Newton's laws of motion and gravitation.

13.1 Vector Functions

When a particle moves through space during a time interval I, we think of the particle's coordinates as functions defined on I:

$$x = f(t), \qquad y = g(t), \qquad z = h(t), \qquad t \in I. \tag{1}$$

The points $(x, y, z) = (f(t), g(t), h(t))$, $t \in I$, make up the **curve** in space that we call the particle's **path**. The equations and interval in Equation (1) **parametrize** the curve. A curve in space can also be represented in vector form. The vector

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \overrightarrow{OP} = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k} \tag{2}$$

from the origin to the particle's **position** $P(f(t), g(t), h(t))$ at time t is the particle's **position vector** (Figure 13.1). The functions f, g, and h are the **component functions (components)** of the position vector. We think of the particle's path as the **curve traced by r** during the time interval I. Figure 13.2 displays several space curves generated by a computer graphing program. It would not be easy to plot these curves by hand.

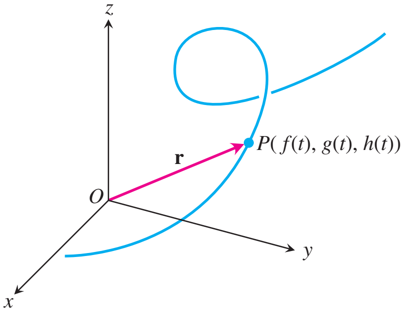


FIGURE 13.1 The position vector $\mathbf{r} = \overrightarrow{OP}$ of a particle moving through space is a function of time.

Equation (2) defines $\mathbf{r}$ as a vector function of the real variable t on the interval I. More generally, a **vector function** or **vector-valued function** on a domain set D is a rule that assigns a vector in space to each element in D. For now, the domains will be intervals of real numbers resulting in a space curve. Later, in Chapter 16, the domains will be regions in the plane. Vector functions will then represent surfaces in space. Vector functions on a domain in the plane or space also give rise to "vector fields," which are important to the study of the flow of a fluid, gravitational fields, and electromagnetic phenomena. We investigate vector fields and their applications in Chapter 16.

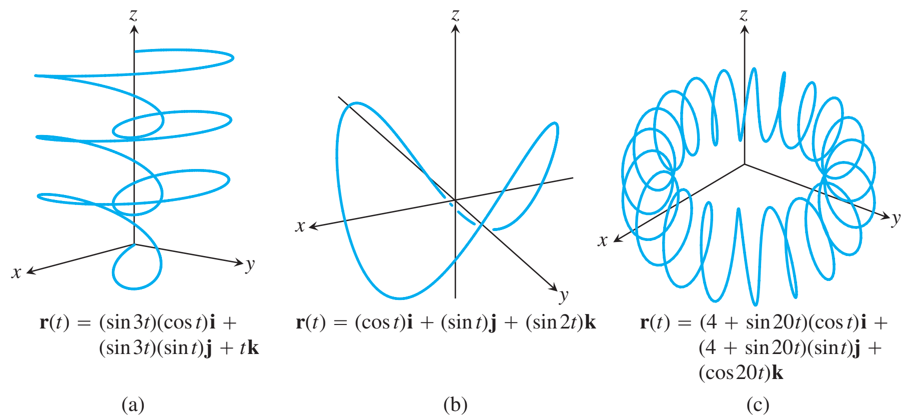


FIGURE 13.2 Computer-generated space curves are defined by the position vectors $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

We refer to real-valued functions as **scalar functions** to distinguish them from vector functions. The components of $\mathbf{r}$ are scalar functions of t. When we define a vector-valued function by giving its component functions, we assume the vector function's domain to be the common domain of the components.

EXAMPLE 1 Graphing a Helix

Graph the vector function

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

Solution The vector function

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

is defined for all real values of t. The curve traced by $\mathbf{r}$ is a helix (from an old Greek word for "spiral") that winds around the circular cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ (Figure 13.3). The curve lies on the cylinder because the $\mathbf{i}$- and $\mathbf{j}$-components of $\mathbf{r}$, being the x- and y-coordinates of the tip of $\mathbf{r}$, satisfy the cylinder's equation:

$$x^2 + y^2 = (\cos t)^2 + (\sin t)^2 = 1.$$

The curve rises as the $\mathbf{k}$-component $z = t$ increases. Each time t increases by 2π, the curve completes one turn around the cylinder. The equations

$$x = \cos t, \qquad y = \sin t, \qquad z = t$$

parametrize the helix, the interval $-\infty < t < \infty$ being understood. You will find more helices in Figure 13.4. ■

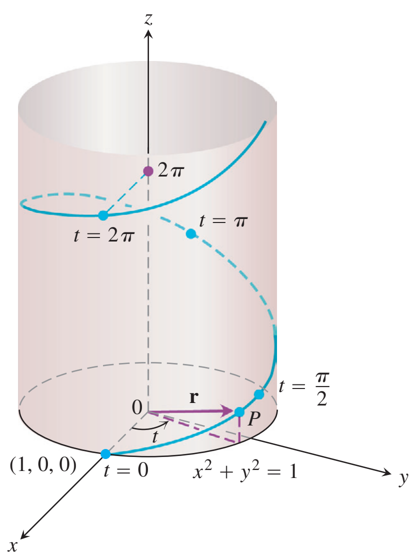
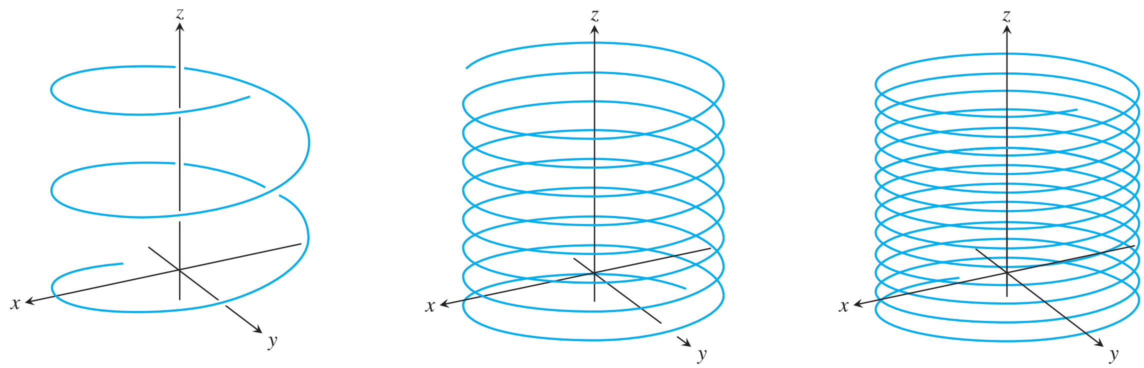


FIGURE 13.3 The upper half of the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$ (Example 1).



$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$ $\quad$ $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + 0.3t\mathbf{k}$ $\quad$ $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos 5t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin 5t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$

FIGURE 13.4 Helices drawn by computer.

Limits and Continuity

The way we define limits of vector-valued functions is similar to the way we define limits of real-valued functions.

DEFINITION Limit of Vector Functions

Let $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ be a vector function and $\mathbf{L}$ a vector. We say that $\mathbf{r}$ has **limit** $\mathbf{L}$ as t approaches t_0 and write

$$\lim_{t \to t_0} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{L}$$

if, for every number $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a corresponding number $\delta > 0$ such that for all t

$$0 < |t - t_0| < \delta \quad \Rightarrow \quad |\mathbf{r}(t) - \mathbf{L}| < \epsilon.$$

If $\mathbf{L} = L_1\mathbf{i} + L_2\mathbf{j} + L_3\mathbf{k}$, then $\lim_{t \to t_0} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{L}$ precisely when

$$\lim_{t \to t_0} f(t) = L_1, \qquad \lim_{t \to t_0} g(t) = L_2, \qquad \text{and} \qquad \lim_{t \to t_0} h(t) = L_3.$$

The equation

$$\lim_{t \to t_0} \mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\lim_{t \to t_0} f(t)\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\lim_{t \to t_0} g(t)\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\lim_{t \to t_0} h(t)\right)\mathbf{k} \tag{3}$$

provides a practical way to calculate limits of vector functions.

EXAMPLE 2 Finding Limits of Vector Functions

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

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{t \to \pi/4} \mathbf{r}(t) &= \left(\lim_{t \to \pi/4} \cos t\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\lim_{t \to \pi/4} \sin t\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\lim_{t \to \pi/4} t\right)\mathbf{k} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\pi}{4}\mathbf{k}.\end{aligned}$$ ■

We define continuity for vector functions the same way we define continuity for scalar functions.

DEFINITION Continuous at a Point

A vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is **continuous at a point** $t = t_0$ in its domain if $\lim_{t \to t_0} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(t_0)$. The function is **continuous** if it is continuous at every point in its domain.

From Equation (3), we see that $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is continuous at $t = t_0$ if and only if each component function is continuous there.

EXAMPLE 3 Continuity of Space Curves

(a) All the space curves shown in Figures 13.2 and 13.4 are continuous because their component functions are continuous at every value of t in $(-\infty, \infty)$.

(b) The function

$$\mathbf{g}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + \lfloor t \rfloor \mathbf{k}$$

is discontinuous at every integer, where the greatest integer function $\lfloor t \rfloor$ is discontinuous. ■

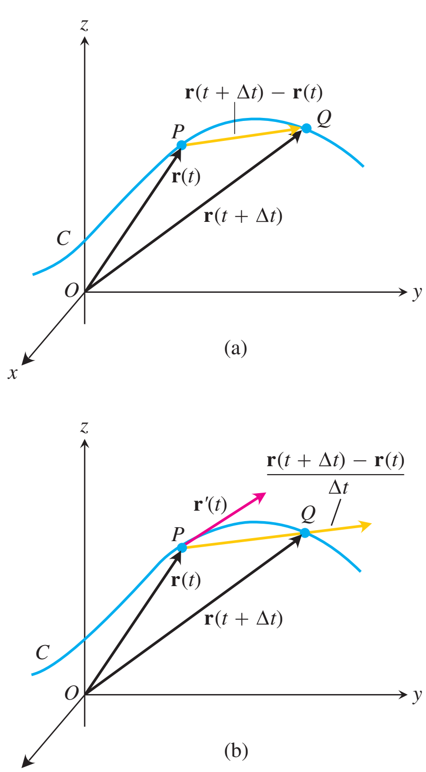


FIGURE 13.5 As $\Delta t \to 0$, the point Q approaches the point P along the curve C. In the limit, the vector $\overrightarrow{PQ}/\Delta t$ becomes the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$.

Derivatives and Motion

Suppose that $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ is the position vector of a particle moving along a curve in space and that f, g, and h are differentiable functions of t. Then the difference between the particle's positions at time t and time $t + \Delta t$ is

$$\Delta \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)$$

(Figure 13.5a). In terms of components,

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta \mathbf{r} &= \mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t) \\ &= [f(t + \Delta t)\mathbf{i} + g(t + \Delta t)\mathbf{j} + h(t + \Delta t)\mathbf{k}] \\ &\quad - [f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}] \\ &= [f(t + \Delta t) - f(t)]\mathbf{i} + [g(t + \Delta t) - g(t)]\mathbf{j} + [h(t + \Delta t) - h(t)]\mathbf{k}.\end{aligned}$$

As Δt approaches zero, three things seem to happen simultaneously. First, Q approaches P along the curve. Second, the secant line PQ seems to approach a limiting position tangent to the curve at P. Third, the quotient $\Delta \mathbf{r}/\Delta t$ (Figure 13.5b) approaches the limit

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta \mathbf{r}}{\Delta t} &= \left[\lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{f(t + \Delta t) - f(t)}{\Delta t}\right]\mathbf{i} + \left[\lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{g(t + \Delta t) - g(t)}{\Delta t}\right]\mathbf{j} \\ &\quad + \left[\lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{h(t + \Delta t) - h(t)}{\Delta t}\right]\mathbf{k} \\ &= \left[\frac{df}{dt}\right]\mathbf{i} + \left[\frac{dg}{dt}\right]\mathbf{j} + \left[\frac{dh}{dt}\right]\mathbf{k}.\end{aligned}$$

We are therefore led by past experience to the following definition.

DEFINITION Derivative

The vector function $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ has a **derivative (is differentiable) at t** if f, g, and h have derivatives at t. The derivative is the vector function

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{\Delta t} = \frac{df}{dt}\mathbf{i} + \frac{dg}{dt}\mathbf{j} + \frac{dh}{dt}\mathbf{k}.$$

A vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is **differentiable** if it is differentiable at every point of its domain. The curve traced by $\mathbf{r}$ is **smooth** if $d\mathbf{r}/dt$ is continuous and never $\mathbf{0}$, that is, if f, g, and h have continuous first derivatives that are not simultaneously 0.

The geometric significance of the definition of derivative is shown in Figure 13.5. The points P and Q have position vectors $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t)$, and the vector $\overrightarrow{PQ}$ is represented by $\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)$. For $\Delta t > 0$, the scalar multiple $(1/\Delta t)(\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t))$ points in the same direction as the vector $\overrightarrow{PQ}$. As $\Delta t \to 0$, this vector approaches a vector that is tangent to the curve at P (Figure 13.5b). The vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$, when different from $\mathbf{0}$, is defined to be the vector **tangent** to the curve at P. The **tangent line** to the curve at a point $(f(t_0), g(t_0), h(t_0))$ is defined to be the line through the point parallel to $\mathbf{r}'(t_0)$. We require $d\mathbf{r}/dt \neq \mathbf{0}$ 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.

A curve that is made up of a finite number of smooth curves pieced together in a continuous fashion is called **piecewise smooth** (Figure 13.6).

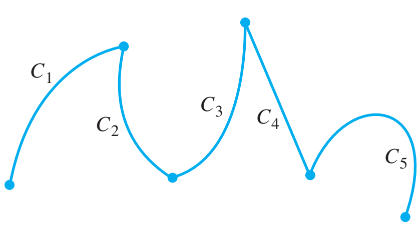


FIGURE 13.6 A piecewise smooth curve made up of five smooth curves connected end to end in continuous fashion.

Look once again at Figure 13.5. We drew the figure for Δt positive, so $\Delta\mathbf{r}$ points forward, in the direction of the motion. The vector $\Delta\mathbf{r}/\Delta t$, having the same direction as $\Delta\mathbf{r}$, points forward too. Had Δt been negative, $\Delta\mathbf{r}$ would have pointed backward, against the direction of motion. The quotient $\Delta\mathbf{r}/\Delta t$, however, being a negative scalar multiple of $\Delta\mathbf{r}$, would once again have pointed forward. No matter how $\Delta\mathbf{r}$ points, $\Delta\mathbf{r}/\Delta t$ points forward and we expect the vector $d\mathbf{r}/dt = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \Delta\mathbf{r}/\Delta t$, when different from $\mathbf{0}$, to do the same. This means that the derivative $d\mathbf{r}/dt$ is just what we want for modeling a particle's velocity. It points in the direction of motion and gives the rate of change of position with respect to time. For a smooth curve, the velocity is never zero; the particle does not stop or reverse direction.

Video Video You Try It

DEFINITIONS Velocity, Direction, Speed, Acceleration

If $\mathbf{r}$ is the position vector of a particle moving along a smooth curve in space, then

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}$$

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 $\mathbf{a} = d\mathbf{v}/dt$, when it exists, is the particle's **acceleration vector**. In summary,

1. Velocity is the derivative of position: $\mathbf{v} = \dfrac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}$.
2. Speed is the magnitude of velocity: Speed $= |\mathbf{v}|$.
3. Acceleration is the derivative of velocity: $\mathbf{a} = \dfrac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \dfrac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2}$.
4. The unit vector $\mathbf{v}/|\mathbf{v}|$ is the direction of motion at time t.

We can express the velocity of a moving particle as the product of its speed and direction:

$$\text{Velocity} = |\mathbf{v}|\left(\frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}\right) = (\text{speed})(\text{direction}).$$

In Section 12.5, Example 4 we found this expression for velocity useful in locating, for example, the position of a helicopter moving along a straight line in space. Now let's look at an example of an object moving along a (nonlinear) space curve.

You Try It

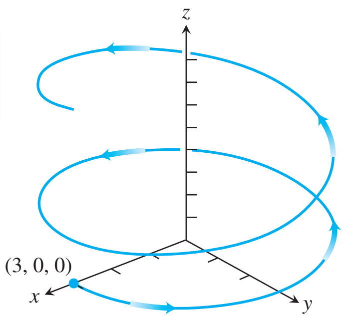


FIGURE 13.7 The path of a hang glider with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (3\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$ (Example 4).

EXAMPLE 4 Flight of a Hang Glider

A person on a hang glider is spiraling upward due to rapidly rising air on a path having position vector $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (3\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$. The path is similar to that of a helix (although it's *not* a helix, as you will see in Section 13.4) and is shown in Figure 13.7 for $0 \le t \le 4\pi$. 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)
$$\mathbf{r} = (3\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (3\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$$

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

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

(b) Speed is the magnitude of $\mathbf{v}$:

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

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

$$\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{a} = 9\sin t\cos t - 9\cos t\sin t + 4t = 4t = 0.$$

Thus, the only time the acceleration vector is orthogonal to $\mathbf{v}$ is when $t = 0$. We study acceleration for motions along paths in more detail in Section 13.5. There we discover how the acceleration vector reveals the curving nature and tendency of the path to "twist" out of a certain plane containing the velocity vector. ■

Differentiation Rules

Because the derivatives of vector functions may be computed component by component, the rules for differentiating vector functions have the same form as the rules for differentiating scalar functions.

Differentiation Rules for Vector Functions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

When you use the Cross Product Rule, remember to preserve the order of the factors. If **u** comes first on the left side of the equation, it must also come first on the right or the signs will be wrong.

We will prove the product rules and Chain Rule but leave the rules for constants, scalar multiples, sums, and differences as exercises.

Proof of the Dot Product Rule Suppose that

$$\mathbf{u} = u_1(t)\mathbf{i} + u_2(t)\mathbf{j} + u_3(t)\mathbf{k}$$

and

$$\mathbf{v} = v_1(t)\mathbf{i} + v_2(t)\mathbf{j} + v_3(t)\mathbf{k}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v}) &= \frac{d}{dt}(u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + u_3v_3)\\ &= \underbrace{u_1'v_1 + u_2'v_2 + u_3'v_3}_{\mathbf{u}'\cdot\mathbf{v}} + \underbrace{u_1v_1' + u_2v_2' + u_3v_3'}_{\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v}'}.\end{aligned}$$

■

Proof of the Cross Product Rule We model the proof after the proof of the Product Rule for scalar functions. According to the definition of derivative,

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{u}\times\mathbf{v}) = \lim_{h\to 0}\frac{\mathbf{u}(t+h)\times\mathbf{v}(t+h) - \mathbf{u}(t)\times\mathbf{v}(t)}{h}.$$

To change this fraction into an equivalent one that contains the difference quotients for the derivatives of **u** and **v**, we subtract and add $\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t+h)$ in the numerator. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
&\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \\
&\quad = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{u}(t+h) \times \mathbf{v}(t+h) - \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t+h) + \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t+h) - \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)}{h} \\
&\quad = \lim_{h \to 0} \left[\frac{\mathbf{u}(t+h) - \mathbf{u}(t)}{h} \times \mathbf{v}(t+h) + \mathbf{u}(t) \times \frac{\mathbf{v}(t+h) - \mathbf{v}(t)}{h} \right] \\
&\quad = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{u}(t+h) - \mathbf{u}(t)}{h} \times \lim_{h \to 0} \mathbf{v}(t+h) + \lim_{h \to 0} \mathbf{u}(t) \times \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{v}(t+h) - \mathbf{v}(t)}{h}.
\end{aligned}$$

The last of these equalities holds because the limit of the cross product of two vector functions is the cross product of their limits if the latter exist (Exercise 52). As h approaches zero, $\mathbf{v}(t+h)$ approaches $\mathbf{v}(t)$ because **v**, being differentiable at t, is continuous at t (Exercise 53). The two fractions approach the values of $d\mathbf{u}/dt$ and $d\mathbf{v}/dt$ at t. In short,

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) = \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} \times \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} \times \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt}. \qquad \blacksquare$$

As an algebraic convenience, we sometimes write the product of a scalar c and a vector **v** as $\mathbf{v}c$ instead of $c\mathbf{v}$. This permits us, for instance, to write the Chain Rule in a familiar form:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{ds}\frac{ds}{dt},$$

where $s = f(t)$.

Proof of the Chain Rule Suppose that $\mathbf{u}(s) = a(s)\mathbf{i} + b(s)\mathbf{j} + c(s)\mathbf{k}$ is a differentiable vector function of s and that $s = f(t)$ is a differentiable scalar function of t. Then a, b, and c are differentiable functions of t, and the Chain Rule for differentiable real-valued functions gives

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(s)] &= \frac{da}{dt}\mathbf{i} + \frac{db}{dt}\mathbf{j} + \frac{dc}{dt}\mathbf{k} \\
&= \frac{da}{ds}\frac{ds}{dt}\mathbf{i} + \frac{db}{ds}\frac{ds}{dt}\mathbf{j} + \frac{dc}{ds}\frac{ds}{dt}\mathbf{k} \\
&= \frac{ds}{dt}\left(\frac{da}{ds}\mathbf{i} + \frac{db}{ds}\mathbf{j} + \frac{dc}{ds}\mathbf{k}\right) \\
&= \frac{ds}{dt}\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{ds} \\
&= f'(t)\mathbf{u}'(f(t)). && s = f(t) \qquad \blacksquare
\end{aligned}$$

Vector Functions of Constant Length

When we track a particle moving on a sphere centered at the origin (Figure 13.8), the position vector has a constant length equal to the radius of the sphere. The velocity vector $d\mathbf{r}/dt$, tangent to the path of motion, is tangent to the sphere and hence perpendicular to **r**. This is always the case for a differentiable vector function of constant length: The vector and its first derivative are orthogonal. With the length constant, the change in the function is a change in direction only, and direction changes take place at right angles. We can also obtain this result by direct calculation:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t) &= c^2 && |\mathbf{r}(t)| = c \text{ is constant.} \\
\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t)] &= 0 && \text{Differentiate both sides.} \\
\mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t) + \mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) &= 0 && \text{Rule 5 with } \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{u}(t) = \mathbf{v}(t) \\
2\mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t) &= 0.
\end{aligned}$$

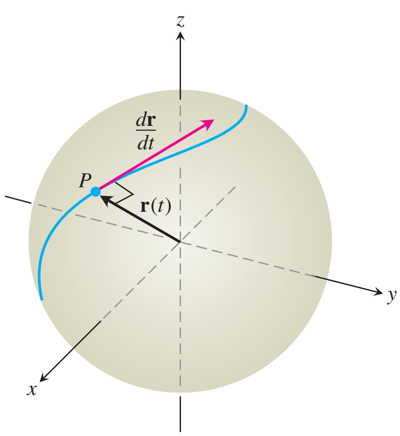


FIGURE 13.8 If a particle moves on a sphere in such a way that its position **r** is a differentiable function of time, then $\mathbf{r} \cdot (d\mathbf{r}/dt) = 0$.

The vectors $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}(t)$ are orthogonal because their dot product is 0. In summary,

> If $\mathbf{r}$ is a differentiable vector function of t of constant length, then
> $$\mathbf{r} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = 0. \qquad (4)$$

We will use this observation repeatedly in Section 13.4.

EXAMPLE 5 Supporting Equation (4)

Show that $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t)\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{3}\mathbf{k}$ has constant length and is orthogonal to its derivative.

Solution

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t)\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{3}\mathbf{k}$$
$$|\mathbf{r}(t)| = \sqrt{(\sin t)^2 + (\cos t)^2 + \left(\sqrt{3}\right)^2} = \sqrt{1 + 3} = 2$$
$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} - (\sin t)\mathbf{j}$$
$$\mathbf{r} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \sin t \cos t - \sin t \cos t = 0$$

Integrals of Vector Functions

A differentiable vector function $\mathbf{R}(t)$ is an **antiderivative** of a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ on an interval I if $d\mathbf{R}/dt = \mathbf{r}$ at each point of I. If $\mathbf{R}$ is an antiderivative of $\mathbf{r}$ on I, it can be shown, working one component at a time, that every antiderivative of $\mathbf{r}$ on I has the form $\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{C}$ for some constant vector $\mathbf{C}$ (Exercise 56). The set of all antiderivatives of $\mathbf{r}$ on I is the **indefinite integral** of $\mathbf{r}$ on I.

> **DEFINITION** Indefinite Integral
>
> The **indefinite integral** of $\mathbf{r}$ with respect to t is the set of all antiderivatives of $\mathbf{r}$, denoted by $\int \mathbf{r}(t)\, dt$. If $\mathbf{R}$ is any antiderivative of $\mathbf{r}$, then
> $$\int \mathbf{r}(t)\, dt = \mathbf{R}(t) + \mathbf{C}.$$

The usual arithmetic rules for indefinite integrals apply.

EXAMPLE 6 Finding Indefinite Integrals

$$\int ((\cos t)\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - 2t\mathbf{k})\, dt = \left(\int \cos t\, dt\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\int dt\right)\mathbf{j} - \left(\int 2t\, dt\right)\mathbf{k} \qquad (5)$$
$$= (\sin t + C_1)\mathbf{i} + (t + C_2)\mathbf{j} - (t^2 + C_3)\mathbf{k} \qquad (6)$$
$$= (\sin t)\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} - t^2\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C} \qquad \mathbf{C} = C_1\mathbf{i} + C_2\mathbf{j} - C_3\mathbf{k}$$

As in the integration of scalar functions, we recommend that you skip the steps in Equations (5) and (6) and go directly to the final form. Find an antiderivative for each component and add a constant vector at the end. ■

Definite integrals of vector functions are best defined in terms of components.

DEFINITION Definite Integral

If the components of $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ are integrable over $[a, b]$, then so is $\mathbf{r}$, and the **definite integral** of $\mathbf{r}$ from a to b is

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

EXAMPLE 7 Evaluating Definite Integrals

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^\pi ((\cos t)\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - 2t\mathbf{k})\,dt &= \left(\int_0^\pi \cos t\,dt\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\int_0^\pi dt\right)\mathbf{j} - \left(\int_0^\pi 2t\,dt\right)\mathbf{k}\\ &= \Big[\sin t\Big]_0^\pi \mathbf{i} + \Big[t\Big]_0^\pi \mathbf{j} - \Big[t^2\Big]_0^\pi \mathbf{k}\\ &= [0 - 0]\mathbf{i} + [\pi - 0]\mathbf{j} - [\pi^2 - 0^2]\mathbf{k}\\ &= \pi\mathbf{j} - \pi^2\mathbf{k}\end{aligned}$$

■

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus for continuous vector functions says that

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

where $\mathbf{R}$ is any antiderivative of $\mathbf{r}$, so that $\mathbf{R}'(t) = \mathbf{r}(t)$ (Exercise 57).

EXAMPLE 8 Revisiting the Flight of a Glider

Suppose that we did not know the path of the glider in Example 4, but only its acceleration vector $\mathbf{a}(t) = -(3\cos t)\mathbf{i} - (3\sin t)\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$. 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.

Solution Our goal is to find $\mathbf{r}(t)$ knowing

The differential equation: $\quad \mathbf{a} = \dfrac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2} = -(3\cos t)\mathbf{i} - (3\sin t)\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$

The initial conditions: $\quad \mathbf{v}(0) = 3\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{r}(0) = 3\mathbf{i} + 0\mathbf{j} + 0\mathbf{k}$.

Integrating both sides of the differential equation with respect to t gives

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

We use $\mathbf{v}(0) = 3\mathbf{j}$ to find $\mathbf{C}_1$:

$$\begin{aligned}3\mathbf{j} &= -(3\sin 0)\mathbf{i} + (3\cos 0)\mathbf{j} + (0)\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C}_1\\ 3\mathbf{j} &= 3\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{C}_1\\ \mathbf{C}_1 &= \mathbf{0}.\end{aligned}$$

The glider's velocity as a function of time is

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

Integrating both sides of this last differential equation gives

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

We then use the initial condition $\mathbf{r}(0) = 3\mathbf{i}$ to find $\mathbf{C}_2$:

$$\begin{aligned} 3\mathbf{i} &= (3 \cos 0)\mathbf{i} + (3 \sin 0)\mathbf{j} + (0^2)\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C}_2 \\ 3\mathbf{i} &= 3\mathbf{i} + (0)\mathbf{j} + (0)\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C}_2 \\ \mathbf{C}_2 &= \mathbf{0}. \end{aligned}$$

The glider's position as a function of t is

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

This is the path of the glider we know from Example 4 and is shown in Figure 13.7.

Note: It was peculiar to this example that both of the constant vectors of integration, $\mathbf{C}_1$ and $\mathbf{C}_2$, turned out to be $\mathbf{0}$. Exercises 31 and 32 give different results for these constants. ∎

EXERCISES 13.1

Motion in the xy-plane

In Exercises 1–4, $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the position of a particle in the xy-plane at time t. Find an equation in x and y whose graph is the path of the particle. Then find the particle's velocity and acceleration vectors at the given value of t.

1. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t + 1)\mathbf{i} + (t^2 - 1)\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 1$
2. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^2 + 1)\mathbf{i} + (2t - 1)\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 1/2$
3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\mathbf{i} + \frac{2}{9}e^{2t}\mathbf{j}, \quad t = \ln 3$
4. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos 2t)\mathbf{i} + (3 \sin 2t)\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 0$

Exercises 5–8 give the position vectors of particles moving along various curves in the xy-plane. In each case, find the particle's velocity and acceleration vectors at the stated times and sketch them as vectors on the curve.

5. **Motion on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$**

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t)\mathbf{j}; \quad t = \pi/4 \text{ and } \pi/2$$

6. **Motion on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 16$**

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(4 \cos \frac{t}{2}\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(4 \sin \frac{t}{2}\right)\mathbf{j}; \quad t = \pi \text{ and } 3\pi/2$$

7. **Motion on the cycloid $x = t - \sin t,\ y = 1 - \cos t$**

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (t - \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (1 - \cos t)\mathbf{j}; \quad t = \pi \text{ and } 3\pi/2$$

8. **Motion on the parabola $y = x^2 + 1$**

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + (t^2 + 1)\mathbf{j}; \quad t = -1, 0, \text{ and } 1$$

Velocity and Acceleration in Space

In Exercises 9–14, $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the position of a particle in space at time t. Find the particle's velocity and acceleration vectors. Then find the particle's speed and direction of motion at the given value of t. Write the particle's velocity at that time as the product of its speed and direction.

9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t + 1)\mathbf{i} + (t^2 - 1)\mathbf{j} + 2t\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 1$
10. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + t)\mathbf{i} + \frac{t^2}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{j} + \frac{t^3}{3}\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 1$
11. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2 \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (3 \sin t)\mathbf{j} + 4t\mathbf{k}, \quad t = \pi/2$
12. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sec t)\mathbf{i} + (\tan t)\mathbf{j} + \frac{4}{3}t\mathbf{k}, \quad t = \pi/6$
13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2 \ln (t + 1))\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + \frac{t^2}{2}\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 1$
14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (e^{-t})\mathbf{i} + (2 \cos 3t)\mathbf{j} + (2 \sin 3t)\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 0$

In Exercises 15–18, $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the position of a particle in space at time t. Find the angle between the velocity and acceleration vectors at time $t = 0$.

15. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3t + 1)\mathbf{i} + \sqrt{3}t\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$

16. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}t\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}t - 16t^2\right)\mathbf{j}$

17. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\ln(t^2 + 1))\mathbf{i} + (\tan^{-1} t)\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{t^2 + 1}\,\mathbf{k}$

18. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \frac{4}{9}(1 + t)^{3/2}\mathbf{i} + \frac{4}{9}(1 - t)^{3/2}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{3}t\mathbf{k}$

In Exercises 19 and 20, $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the position vector of a particle in space at time t. Find the time or times in the given time interval when the velocity and acceleration vectors are orthogonal.

19. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t - \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (1 - \cos t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \le t \le 2\pi$

20. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sin t)\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + (\cos t)\mathbf{k}, \quad t \ge 0$

Integrating Vector-Valued Functions

Evaluate the integrals in Exercises 21–26.

21. $\displaystyle\int_0^1 [t^3\mathbf{i} + 7\mathbf{j} + (t + 1)\mathbf{k}]\,dt$

22. $\displaystyle\int_1^2 \left[(6 - 6t)\mathbf{i} + 3\sqrt{t}\mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{4}{t^2}\right)\mathbf{k}\right] dt$

23. $\displaystyle\int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} [(\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (1 + \cos t)\mathbf{j} + (\sec^2 t)\mathbf{k}]\,dt$

24. $\displaystyle\int_0^{\pi/3} [(\sec t \tan t)\mathbf{i} + (\tan t)\mathbf{j} + (2 \sin t \cos t)\mathbf{k}]\,dt$

25. $\displaystyle\int_1^4 \left[\frac{1}{t}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{5 - t}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{2t}\mathbf{k}\right] dt$

26. $\displaystyle\int_0^1 \left[\frac{2}{\sqrt{1 - t^2}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{1 + t^2}\mathbf{k}\right] dt$

Initial Value Problems for Vector-Valued Functions

Solve the initial value problems in Exercises 27–32 for $\mathbf{r}$ as a vector function of t.

27. Differential equation: $\dfrac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = -t\mathbf{i} - t\mathbf{j} - t\mathbf{k}$

Initial condition: $\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$

28. Differential equation: $\dfrac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = (180t)\mathbf{i} + (180t - 16t^2)\mathbf{j}$

Initial condition: $\mathbf{r}(0) = 100\mathbf{j}$

29. Differential equation: $\dfrac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \frac{3}{2}(t + 1)^{1/2}\mathbf{i} + e^{-t}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{t + 1}\mathbf{k}$

Initial condition: $\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{k}$

30. Differential equation: $\dfrac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = (t^3 + 4t)\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + 2t^2\mathbf{k}$

Initial condition: $\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$

31. Differential equation: $\dfrac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2} = -32\mathbf{k}$

Initial conditions: $\mathbf{r}(0) = 100\mathbf{k}$ and

$\left.\dfrac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}\right|_{t=0} = 8\mathbf{i} + 8\mathbf{j}$

32. Differential equation: $\dfrac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2} = -(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})$

Initial conditions: $\mathbf{r}(0) = 10\mathbf{i} + 10\mathbf{j} + 10\mathbf{k}$ and

$\left.\dfrac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}\right|_{t=0} = \mathbf{0}$

Tangent Lines to Smooth Curves

As mentioned in the text, the tangent line to a smooth curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ at $t = t_0$ is the line that passes through the point $(f(t_0), g(t_0), h(t_0))$ parallel to $\mathbf{v}(t_0)$, the curve's velocity vector at t_0. In Exercises 33–36, find parametric equations for the line that is tangent to the given curve at the given parameter value $t = t_0$.

33. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (t^2 - \cos t)\mathbf{j} + e^t\mathbf{k}, \quad t_0 = 0$

34. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2 \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (2 \cos t)\mathbf{j} + 5t\mathbf{k}, \quad t_0 = 4\pi$

35. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (a \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (a \cos t)\mathbf{j} + bt\mathbf{k}, \quad t_0 = 2\pi$

36. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + (\sin 2t)\mathbf{k}, \quad t_0 = \dfrac{\pi}{2}$

Motion on Circular Paths

37. Each of the following equations in parts (a)–(e) describes the motion of a particle having the same path, namely the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Although the path of each particle in parts (a)–(e) is the same, the behavior, or "dynamics," of each particle is different. For each particle, answer the following questions.

i. Does the particle have constant speed? If so, what is its constant speed?

ii. Is the particle's acceleration vector always orthogonal to its velocity vector?

iii. Does the particle move clockwise or counterclockwise around the circle?

iv. Does the particle begin at the point (1, 0)?

a. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j}, \quad t \ge 0$

b. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos(2t)\mathbf{i} + \sin(2t)\mathbf{j}, \quad t \ge 0$

c. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos(t - \pi/2)\mathbf{i} + \sin(t - \pi/2)\mathbf{j}, \quad t \ge 0$

d. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} - (\sin t)\mathbf{j}, \quad t \ge 0$

e. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos(t^2)\mathbf{i} + \sin(t^2)\mathbf{j}, \quad t \ge 0$

38. Show that the vector-valued function

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}) + \cos t\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{i} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{j}\right) + \sin t\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\mathbf{k}\right)$$

describes the motion of a particle moving in the circle of radius 1 centered at the point (2, 2, 1) and lying in the plane $x + y - 2z = 2$.

Motion Along a Straight Line

39. At time $t = 0$, a particle is located at the point $(1, 2, 3)$. It travels in a straight line to the point $(4, 1, 4)$, has speed 2 at $(1, 2, 3)$ and constant acceleration $3\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$. Find an equation for the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ of the particle at time t.

40. A particle traveling in a straight line is located at the point $(1, -1, 2)$ and has speed 2 at time $t = 0$. The particle moves toward the point $(3, 0, 3)$ with constant acceleration $2\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$. Find its position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at time t.

Theory and Examples

41. Motion along a parabola A particle moves along the top of the parabola $y^2 = 2x$ from left to right at a constant speed of 5 units per second. Find the velocity of the particle as it moves through the point $(2, 2)$.

42. Motion along a cycloid A particle moves in the xy-plane in such a way that its position at time t is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (t - \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (1 - \cos t)\mathbf{j}.$$

T **a.** Graph $\mathbf{r}(t)$. The resulting curve is a cycloid.

b. Find the maximum and minimum values of $|\mathbf{v}|$ and $|\mathbf{a}|$. (*Hint:* Find the extreme values of $|\mathbf{v}|^2$ and $|\mathbf{a}|^2$ first and take square roots later.)

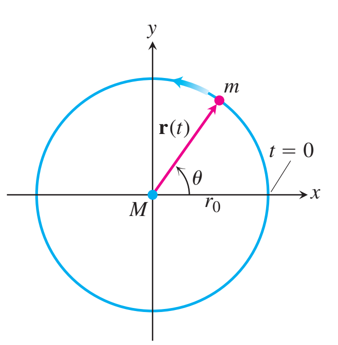
43. Motion along an ellipse A particle moves around the ellipse $(y/3)^2 + (z/2)^2 = 1$ in the yz-plane in such a way that its position at time t is

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

Find the maximum and minimum values of $|\mathbf{v}|$ and $|\mathbf{a}|$. (*Hint:* Find the extreme values of $|\mathbf{v}|^2$ and $|\mathbf{a}|^2$ first and take square roots later.)

44. A satellite in circular orbit A satellite of mass m is revolving at a constant speed v around a body of mass M (Earth, for example) in a circular orbit of radius r_0 (measured from the body's center of mass). Determine the satellite's orbital period T (the time to complete one full orbit), as follows:

a. Coordinatize the orbital plane by placing the origin at the body's center of mass, with the satellite on the x-axis at $t = 0$ and moving counterclockwise, as in the accompanying figure.



Let $\mathbf{r}(t)$ be the satellite's position vector at time t. Show that $\theta = vt/r_0$ and hence that

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(r_0 \cos\frac{vt}{r_0}\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(r_0 \sin\frac{vt}{r_0}\right)\mathbf{j}.$$

b. Find the acceleration of the satellite.

c. According to Newton's law of gravitation, the gravitational force exerted on the satellite is directed toward M and is given by

$$\mathbf{F} = \left(-\frac{GmM}{r_0^{\,2}}\right)\frac{\mathbf{r}}{r_0},$$

where G is the universal constant of gravitation. Using Newton's second law, $\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$, show that $v^2 = GM/r_0$.

d. Show that the orbital period T satisfies $vT = 2\pi r_0$.

e. From parts (c) and (d), deduce that

$$T^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{GM}r_0^{\,3}.$$

That is, the square of the period of a satellite in circular orbit is proportional to the cube of the radius from the orbital center.

45. Let $\mathbf{v}$ be a differentiable vector function of t. Show that if $\mathbf{v}\cdot(d\mathbf{v}/dt) = 0$ for all t, then $|\mathbf{v}|$ is constant.

46. Derivatives of triple scalar products

a. Show that if $\mathbf{u}$, $\mathbf{v}$, and $\mathbf{w}$ are differentiable vector functions of t, then

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v}\times\mathbf{w}) = \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt}\cdot\mathbf{v}\times\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{u}\cdot\frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt}\times\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v}\times\frac{d\mathbf{w}}{dt}. \tag{7}$$

b. Show that Equation (7) is equivalent to

$$\frac{d}{dt}\begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \\ w_1 & w_2 & w_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{du_1}{dt} & \frac{du_2}{dt} & \frac{du_3}{dt} \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \\ w_1 & w_2 & w_3 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ \frac{dv_1}{dt} & \frac{dv_2}{dt} & \frac{dv_3}{dt} \\ w_1 & w_2 & w_3 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \\ \frac{dw_1}{dt} & \frac{dw_2}{dt} & \frac{dw_3}{dt} \end{vmatrix}. \tag{8}$$

Equation (8) says that the derivative of a 3 by 3 determinant of differentiable functions is the sum of the three determinants obtained from the original by differentiating one row at a time. The result extends to determinants of any order.

47. (*Continuation of Exercise 46.*) Suppose that $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ and that f, g, and h have derivatives through order three. Use Equation (7) or (8) to show that

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\mathbf{r}\cdot\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}\times\frac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2}\right) = \mathbf{r}\cdot\left(\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}\times\frac{d^3\mathbf{r}}{dt^3}\right). \tag{9}$$

(*Hint:* Differentiate on the left and look for vectors whose products are zero.)

48. **Constant Function Rule** Prove that if $\mathbf{u}$ is the vector function with the constant value $\mathbf{C}$, then $d\mathbf{u}/dt = \mathbf{0}$.

49. **Scalar Multiple Rules**
    a. Prove that if $\mathbf{u}$ is a differentiable function of t and c is any real number, then

$$\frac{d(c\mathbf{u})}{dt} = c\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt}.$$

    b. Prove that if $\mathbf{u}$ is a differentiable function of t and f is a differentiable scalar function of t, then

$$\frac{d}{dt}(f\mathbf{u}) = \frac{df}{dt}\mathbf{u} + f\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt}.$$

50. **Sum and Difference Rules** Prove that if $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are differentiable functions of t, then

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}) = \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} + \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt}$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{u}-\mathbf{v}) = \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} - \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt}.$$

51. **Component Test for Continuity at a Point** Show that the vector function $\mathbf{r}$ defined by $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ is continuous at $t = t_0$ if and only if f, g, and h are continuous at t_0.

52. **Limits of cross products of vector functions** Suppose that $\mathbf{r}_1(t) = f_1(t)\mathbf{i} + f_2(t)\mathbf{j} + f_3(t)\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{r}_2(t) = g_1(t)\mathbf{i} + g_2(t)\mathbf{j} + g_3(t)\mathbf{k}$, $\lim_{t\to t_0}\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \mathbf{A}$, and $\lim_{t\to t_0}\mathbf{r}_2(t) = \mathbf{B}$. Use the determinant formula for cross products and the Limit Product Rule for scalar functions to show that

$$\lim_{t\to t_0}(\mathbf{r}_1(t)\times\mathbf{r}_2(t)) = \mathbf{A}\times\mathbf{B}$$

53. **Differentiable vector functions are continuous** Show that if $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ is differentiable at $t = t_0$, then it is continuous at t_0 as well.

54. Establish the following properties of integrable vector functions.
    a. The *Constant Scalar Multiple Rule:*

$$\int_a^b k\mathbf{r}(t)\,dt = k\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt \quad \text{(any scalar } k)$$

    The *Rule for Negatives*,

$$\int_a^b (-\mathbf{r}(t))\,dt = -\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt,$$

    is obtained by taking $k = -1$.

    b. The *Sum and Difference Rules:*

$$\int_a^b (\mathbf{r}_1(t) \pm \mathbf{r}_2(t))\,dt = \int_a^b \mathbf{r}_1(t)\,dt \pm \int_a^b \mathbf{r}_2(t)\,dt$$

    c. The *Constant Vector Multiple Rules:*

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{C}\cdot\mathbf{r}(t)\,dt = \mathbf{C}\cdot\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt \quad \text{(any constant vector } \mathbf{C})$$

    and

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{C}\times\mathbf{r}(t)\,dt = \mathbf{C}\times\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt \quad \text{(any constant vector } \mathbf{C})$$

55. **Products of scalar and vector functions** Suppose that the scalar function $u(t)$ and the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ are both defined for $a \le t \le b$.
    a. Show that $u\mathbf{r}$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ if u and $\mathbf{r}$ are continuous on $[a, b]$.
    b. If u and $\mathbf{r}$ are both differentiable on $[a, b]$, show that $u\mathbf{r}$ is differentiable on $[a, b]$ and that

$$\frac{d}{dt}(u\mathbf{r}) = u\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} + \mathbf{r}\frac{du}{dt}.$$

56. **Antiderivatives of vector functions**
    a. Use Corollary 2 of the Mean Value Theorem for scalar functions to show that if two vector functions $\mathbf{R}_1(t)$ and $\mathbf{R}_2(t)$ have identical derivatives on an interval I, then the functions differ by a constant vector value throughout I.
    b. Use the result in part (a) to show that if $\mathbf{R}(t)$ is any antiderivative of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ on I, then any other antiderivative of $\mathbf{r}$ on I equals $\mathbf{R}(t) + \mathbf{C}$ for some constant vector $\mathbf{C}$.

57. **The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus** The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus for scalar functions of a real variable holds for vector functions of a real variable as well. Prove this by using the theorem for scalar functions to show first that if a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is continuous for $a \le t \le b$, then

$$\frac{d}{dt}\int_a^t \mathbf{r}(\tau)\,d\tau = \mathbf{r}(t)$$

at every point t of (a, b). Then use the conclusion in part (b) of Exercise 56 to show that if $\mathbf{R}$ is any antiderivative of $\mathbf{r}$ on $[a, b]$ then

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

COMPUTER EXPLORATIONS

Drawing Tangents to Space Curves

Use a CAS to perform the following steps in Exercises 58–61.

a. Plot the space curve traced out by the position vector $\mathbf{r}$.

b. Find the components of the velocity vector $d\mathbf{r}/dt$.

c. Evaluate $d\mathbf{r}/dt$ at the given point t_0 and determine the equation of the tangent line to the curve at $\mathbf{r}(t_0)$.

d. Plot the tangent line together with the curve over the given interval.

58. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sin t - t\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t + t\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 6\pi, \quad t_0 = 3\pi/2$

59. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{2}t\mathbf{i} + e^t\mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\mathbf{k}, \quad -2 \le t \le 3, \quad t_0 = 1$

60. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sin 2t)\mathbf{i} + (\ln(1 + t))\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 4\pi$, $t_0 = \pi/4$

61. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\ln(t^2 + 2))\mathbf{i} + (\tan^{-1} 3t)\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{t^2 + 1}\,\mathbf{k}$, $-3 \le t \le 5, \quad t_0 = 3$

In Exercises 62 and 63, you will explore graphically the behavior of the helix

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

as you change the values of the constants a and b. Use a CAS to perform the steps in each exercise.

62. Set $b = 1$. Plot the helix $\mathbf{r}(t)$ together with the tangent line to the curve at $t = 3\pi/2$ for $a = 1, 2, 4$, and 6 over the interval $0 \le t \le 4\pi$. Describe in your own words what happens to the graph of the helix and the position of the tangent line as a increases through these positive values.

63. Set $a = 1$. Plot the helix $\mathbf{r}(t)$ together with the tangent line to the curve at $t = 3\pi/2$ for $b = 1/4, 1/2, 2$, and 4 over the interval $0 \le t \le 4\pi$. Describe in your own words what happens to the graph of the helix and the position of the tangent line as b increases through these positive values.

13.2 Modeling Projectile Motion

When we shoot a projectile into the air we usually want to know beforehand how far it will go (will it reach the target?), how high it will rise (will it clear the hill?), and when it will land (when do we get results?). We get this information from the direction and magnitude of the projectile's initial velocity vector, using Newton's second law of motion.

The Vector and Parametric Equations for Ideal Projectile Motion

To derive equations for projectile motion, we assume that the projectile behaves like a particle moving in a vertical coordinate plane and that the only force acting on the projectile during its flight is the constant force of gravity, which always points straight down. In practice, none of these assumptions really holds. The ground moves beneath the projectile as the earth turns, the air creates a frictional force that varies with the projectile's speed and altitude, and the force of gravity changes as the projectile moves along. All this must be taken into account by applying corrections to the predictions of the *ideal* equations we are about to derive. The corrections, however, are not the subject of this section.

We assume that the projectile is launched from the origin at time $t = 0$ into the first quadrant with an initial velocity $\mathbf{v}_0$ (Figure 13.9). If $\mathbf{v}_0$ makes an angle α with the horizontal, then

$$\mathbf{v}_0 = (|\mathbf{v}_0|\cos\alpha)\mathbf{i} + (|\mathbf{v}_0|\sin\alpha)\mathbf{j}.$$

If we use the simpler notation v_0 for the initial speed $|\mathbf{v}_0|$, then

$$\mathbf{v}_0 = (v_0\cos\alpha)\mathbf{i} + (v_0\sin\alpha)\mathbf{j}. \tag{1}$$

The projectile's initial position is

$$\mathbf{r}_0 = 0\mathbf{i} + 0\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{0}. \tag{2}$$

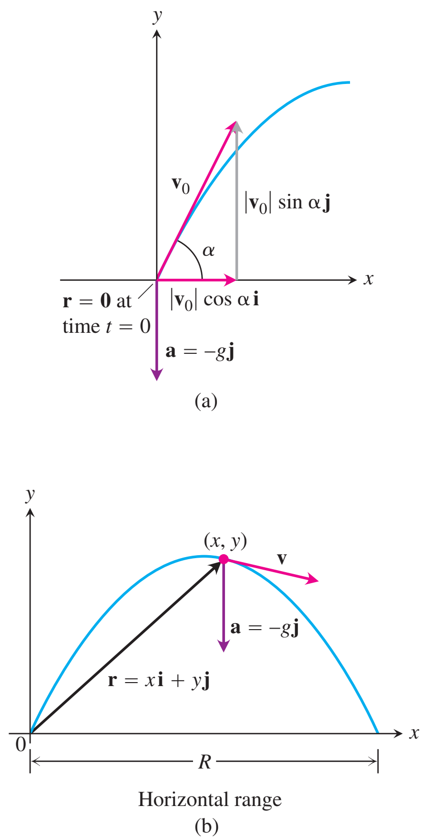


FIGURE 13.9 (a) Position, velocity, acceleration, and launch angle at $t = 0$. (b) Position, velocity, and acceleration at a later time t.

Newton's second law of motion says that the force acting on the projectile is equal to the projectile's mass m times its acceleration, or $m(d^2\mathbf{r}/dt^2)$ if $\mathbf{r}$ is the projectile's position vector and t is time. If the force is solely the gravitational force $-mg\mathbf{j}$, then

$$m\frac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2} = -mg\mathbf{j} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2} = -g\mathbf{j}.$$

We find $\mathbf{r}$ as a function of t by solving the following initial value problem.

$$\text{Differential equation:} \qquad \frac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2} = -g\mathbf{j}$$

$$\text{Initial conditions:} \qquad \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_0 \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \mathbf{v}_0 \qquad \text{when } t = 0$$

The first integration gives

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = -(gt)\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{v}_0.$$

A second integration gives

$$\mathbf{r} = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{v}_0 t + \mathbf{r}_0.$$

Substituting the values of $\mathbf{v}_0$ and $\mathbf{r}_0$ from Equations (1) and (2) gives

$$\mathbf{r} = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2\mathbf{j} + \underbrace{(v_0 \cos \alpha)t\mathbf{i} + (v_0 \sin \alpha)t\mathbf{j}}_{\mathbf{v}_0 t} + \mathbf{0}$$

Collecting terms, we have

Ideal Projectile Motion Equation

$$\mathbf{r} = (v_0 \cos \alpha)t\mathbf{i} + \left((v_0 \sin \alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2\right)\mathbf{j}. \tag{3}$$

Equation (3) is the *vector equation* for ideal projectile motion. The angle α is the projectile's **launch angle** (**firing angle**, **angle of elevation**), and v_0, as we said before, is the projectile's **initial speed**. The components of $\mathbf{r}$ give the parametric equations

$$x = (v_0 \cos \alpha)t \qquad \text{and} \qquad y = (v_0 \sin \alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2, \tag{4}$$

where x is the distance downrange and y is the height of the projectile at time $t \geq 0$.

Video

You Try It

EXAMPLE 1 Firing an Ideal Projectile

A projectile is fired from the origin over horizontal ground at an initial speed of 500 m/sec and a launch angle of 60°. Where will the projectile be 10 sec later?

Solution We use Equation (3) with $v_0 = 500$, $\alpha = 60°$, $g = 9.8$, and $t = 10$ to find the projectile's components 10 sec after firing.

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{r} &= (v_0 \cos\alpha)t\mathbf{i} + \left((v_0 \sin\alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2\right)\mathbf{j} \\
&= (500)\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)(10)\mathbf{i} + \left((500)\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)10 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)(9.8)(100)\right)\mathbf{j} \\
&\approx 2500\mathbf{i} + 3840\mathbf{j}.
\end{aligned}$$

Ten seconds after firing, the projectile is about 3840 m in the air and 2500 m downrange. ■

Height, Flight Time, and Range

Equation (3) enables us to answer most questions about the ideal motion for a projectile fired from the origin.

The projectile reaches its highest point when its vertical velocity component is zero, that is, when

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = v_0 \sin\alpha - gt = 0, \qquad \text{or} \qquad t = \frac{v_0 \sin\alpha}{g}.$$

For this value of t, the value of y is

$$y_{\max} = (v_0 \sin\alpha)\left(\frac{v_0 \sin\alpha}{g}\right) - \frac{1}{2}g\left(\frac{v_0 \sin\alpha}{g}\right)^2 = \frac{(v_0 \sin\alpha)^2}{2g}.$$

To find when the projectile lands when fired over horizontal ground, we set the vertical component equal to zero in Equation (3) and solve for t.

$$\begin{aligned}
(v_0 \sin\alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 &= 0 \\
t\left(v_0 \sin\alpha - \frac{1}{2}gt\right) &= 0 \\
t = 0, \qquad t &= \frac{2v_0 \sin\alpha}{g}
\end{aligned}$$

Since 0 is the time the projectile is fired, $(2v_0 \sin\alpha)/g$ must be the time when the projectile strikes the ground.

To find the projectile's **range** R, the distance from the origin to the point of impact on horizontal ground, we find the value of the horizontal component when $t = (2v_0 \sin\alpha)/g$.

$$\begin{aligned}
x &= (v_0 \cos\alpha)t \\
R &= (v_0 \cos\alpha)\left(\frac{2v_0 \sin\alpha}{g}\right) = \frac{v_0^2}{g}(2\sin\alpha\cos\alpha) = \frac{v_0^2}{g}\sin 2\alpha
\end{aligned}$$

The range is largest when $\sin 2\alpha = 1$ or $\alpha = 45°$.

Height, Flight Time, and Range for Ideal Projectile Motion

For ideal projectile motion when an object is launched from the origin over a horizontal surface with initial speed v_0 and launch angle α:

$$\textit{Maximum height:} \quad y_{\max} = \frac{(v_0 \sin \alpha)^2}{2g}$$

$$\textit{Flight time:} \quad t = \frac{2v_0 \sin \alpha}{g}$$

$$\textit{Range:} \quad R = \frac{v_0^2}{g} \sin 2\alpha .$$

EXAMPLE 2 Investigating Ideal Projectile Motion

Find the maximum height, flight time, and range of a projectile fired from the origin over horizontal ground at an initial speed of 500 m/sec and a launch angle of 60º (same projectile as Example 1).

Solution

$$\text{Maximum height:} \quad y_{\max} = \frac{(v_0 \sin \alpha)^2}{2g} = \frac{(500 \sin 60°)^2}{2(9.8)} \approx 9566 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Flight time:} \quad t = \frac{2v_0 \sin \alpha}{g} = \frac{2(500) \sin 60°}{9.8} \approx 88.4 \text{ sec}$$

$$\text{Range:} \quad R = \frac{v_0^2}{g} \sin 2\alpha = \frac{(500)^2 \sin 120°}{9.8} \approx 22{,}092 \text{ m}$$

From Equation (3), the position vector of the projectile is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r} &= (v_0 \cos \alpha)t\mathbf{i} + \left((v_0 \sin \alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2\right)\mathbf{j} \\ &= (500 \cos 60°)t\mathbf{i} + \left((500 \sin 60°)t - \frac{1}{2}(9.8)t^2\right)\mathbf{j} \\ &= 250t\mathbf{i} + \left(\left(250\sqrt{3}\right)t - 4.9t^2\right)\mathbf{j}. \end{aligned}$$

A graph of the projectile's path is shown in Figure 13.10. ■

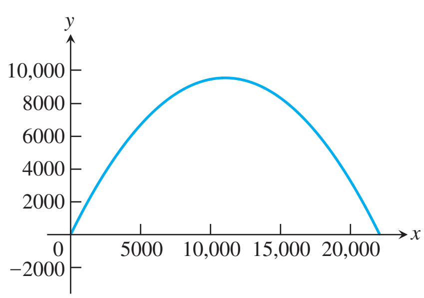


FIGURE 13.10 The graph of the projectile described in Example 2.

Ideal Trajectories Are Parabolic

It is often claimed that water from a hose traces a parabola in the air, but anyone who looks closely enough will see this is not so. The air slows the water down, and its forward progress is too slow at the end to keep pace with the rate at which it falls.

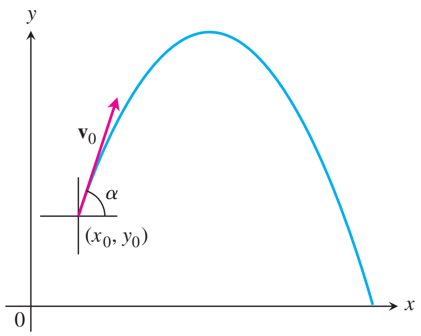


FIGURE 13.11 The path of a projectile fired from (x_0, y_0) with an initial velocity $\mathbf{v}_0$ at an angle of α degrees with the horizontal.

What is really being claimed is that ideal projectiles move along parabolas, and this we can see from Equations (4). If we substitute $t = x/(v_0 \cos\alpha)$ from the first equation into the second, we obtain the Cartesian-coordinate equation

$$y = -\left(\frac{g}{2v_0^2 \cos^2\alpha}\right)x^2 + (\tan\alpha)x.$$

This equation has the form $y = ax^2 + bx$, so its graph is a parabola.

Firing from (x_0, y_0)

If we fire our ideal projectile from the point (x_0, y_0) instead of the origin (Figure 13.11), the position vector for the path of motion is

$$\mathbf{r} = (x_0 + (v_0 \cos\alpha)t)\mathbf{i} + \left(y_0 + (v_0 \sin\alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2\right)\mathbf{j}, \tag{5}$$

as you are asked to show in Exercise 19.

Video

You Try It

EXAMPLE 3 Firing a Flaming Arrow

To open the 1992 Summer Olympics in Barcelona, bronze medalist archer Antonio Rebollo lit the Olympic torch with a flaming arrow (Figure 13.12). Suppose that Rebollo shot the arrow at a height of 6 ft above ground level 90 ft from the 70-ft-high cauldron, and he wanted the arrow to reach maximum height exactly 4 ft above the center of the cauldron (Figure 13.12).

Photograph is not available.

FIGURE 13.12 Spanish archer Antonio Rebollo lights the Olympic torch in Barcelona with a flaming arrow.

(a) Express y_{max} in terms of the initial speed v_0 and firing angle α.

(b) Use $y_{max} = 74$ ft (Figure 13.13) and the result from part (a) to find the value of $v_0 \sin\alpha$.

(c) Find the value of $v_0 \cos\alpha$.

(d) Find the initial firing angle of the arrow.

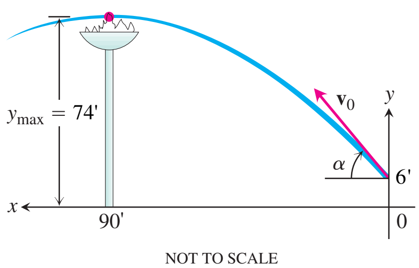


FIGURE 13.13 Ideal path of the arrow that lit the Olympic torch (Example 3).

Solution

(a) We use a coordinate system in which the positive x-axis lies along the ground toward the left (to match the second photograph in Figure 13.12) and the coordinates of the flaming arrow at $t = 0$ are $x_0 = 0$ and $y_0 = 6$ (Figure 13.13). We have

$$y = y_0 + (v_0 \sin\alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2 \qquad \text{Equation (5), } \mathbf{j}\text{-component}$$

$$= 6 + (v_0 \sin\alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2. \qquad y_0 = 6$$

We find the time when the arrow reaches its highest point by setting $dy/dt = 0$ and solving for t, obtaining

$$t = \frac{v_0 \sin\alpha}{g}.$$

For this value of t, the value of y is

$$y_{max} = 6 + (v_0 \sin\alpha)\left(\frac{v_0 \sin\alpha}{g}\right) - \frac{1}{2}g\left(\frac{v_0 \sin\alpha}{g}\right)^2$$

$$= 6 + \frac{(v_0 \sin\alpha)^2}{2g}.$$

(b) Using $y_{max} = 74$ and $g = 32$, we see from the preceeding equation in part (a) that

$$74 = 6 + \frac{(v_0 \sin\alpha)^2}{2(32)}$$

or

$$v_0 \sin\alpha = \sqrt{(68)(64)}.$$

(c) When the arrow reaches y_{max}, the horizontal distance traveled to the center of the cauldron is $x = 90$ ft. We substitute the time to reach y_{max} from part (a) and the horizontal distance $x = 90$ ft into the **i**-component of Equation (5) to obtain

$$x = x_0 + (v_0 \cos\alpha)t \qquad \text{Equation (5), } \mathbf{i}\text{-component}$$

$$90 = 0 + (v_0 \cos\alpha)t \qquad x = 90,\ x_0 = 0$$

$$= (v_0 \cos\alpha)\left(\frac{v_0 \sin\alpha}{g}\right). \qquad t = (v_0 \sin\alpha)/g$$

Solving this equation for $v_0 \cos\alpha$ and using $g = 32$ and the result from part (b), we have

$$v_0 \cos\alpha = \frac{90g}{v_0 \sin\alpha} = \frac{(90)(32)}{\sqrt{(68)(64)}}.$$

(d) Parts (b) and (c) together tell us that

$$\tan\alpha = \frac{v_0 \sin\alpha}{v_0 \cos\alpha} = \frac{\left(\sqrt{(68)(64)}\right)^2}{(90)(32)} = \frac{68}{45}$$

or

$$\alpha = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{68}{45}\right) \approx 56.5°.$$

This is Rebollo's firing angle. ■

Projectile Motion with Wind Gusts

The next example shows how to account for another force acting on a projectile. We also assume that the path of the baseball in Example 4 lies in a vertical plane.

EXAMPLE 4 Hitting a Baseball

A baseball is hit when it is 3 ft above the ground. It leaves the bat with initial speed of 152 ft/sec, making an angle of 20° with the horizontal. At the instant the ball is hit, an instantaneous gust of wind blows in the horizontal direction directly opposite the direction the ball is taking toward the outfield, adding a component of $-8.8\mathbf{i}$ (ft/sec) to the ball's initial velocity (8.8 ft/sec = 6 mph).

(a) Find a vector equation (position vector) for the path of the baseball.

(b) How high does the baseball go, and when does it reach maximum height?

(c) Assuming that the ball is not caught, find its range and flight time.

Solution

(a) Using Equation (1) and accounting for the gust of wind, the initial velocity of the baseball is

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{v}_0 &= (v_0 \cos\alpha)\mathbf{i} + (v_0 \sin\alpha)\mathbf{j} - 8.8\mathbf{i}\\ &= (152\cos 20°)\mathbf{i} + (152 \sin 20°)\mathbf{j} - (8.8)\mathbf{i}\\ &= (152\cos 20° - 8.8)\mathbf{i} + (152\sin 20°)\mathbf{j}.\end{aligned}$$

The initial position is $\mathbf{r}_0 = 0\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$. Integration of $d^2\mathbf{r}/dt^2 = -g\mathbf{j}$ gives

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = -(gt)\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{v}_0.$$

A second integration gives

$$\mathbf{r} = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{v}_0 t + \mathbf{r}_0.$$

Substituting the values of $\mathbf{v}_0$ and $\mathbf{r}_0$ into the last equation gives the position vector of the baseball.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{r} &= -\frac{1}{2}gt^2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{v}_0 t + \mathbf{r}_0\\ &= -16t^2\mathbf{j} + (152\cos 20° - 8.8)t\mathbf{i} + (152\sin 20°)t\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{j}\\ &= (152\cos 20° - 8.8)t\mathbf{i} + \left(3 + (152\sin 20°)t - 16t^2\right)\mathbf{j}.\end{aligned}$$

(b) The baseball reaches its highest point when the vertical component of velocity is zero, or

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = 152 \sin 20° - 32t = 0.$$

Solving for t we find

$$t = \frac{152 \sin 20°}{32} \approx 1.62 \text{ sec}.$$

Substituting this time into the vertical component for $\mathbf{r}$ gives the maximum height

$$\begin{aligned} y_{\text{max}} &= 3 + (152 \sin 20°)(1.62) - 16(1.62)^2 \\ &\approx 45.2 \text{ ft}. \end{aligned}$$

That is, the maximum height of the baseball is about 45.2 ft, reached about 1.6 sec after leaving the bat.

(c) To find when the baseball lands, we set the vertical component for $\mathbf{r}$ equal to 0 and solve for t:

$$\begin{aligned} 3 + (152 \sin 20°)t - 16t^2 &= 0 \\ 3 + (51.99)t - 16t^2 &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

The solution values are about $t = 3.3$ sec and $t = -0.06$ sec. Substituting the positive time into the horizontal component for $\mathbf{r}$, we find the range

$$\begin{aligned} R &= (152 \cos 20° - 8.8)(3.3) \\ &\approx 442 \text{ ft}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the horizontal range is about 442 ft, and the flight time is about 3.3 sec. ■

In Exercises 29 through 31, we consider projectile motion when there is air resistance slowing down the flight.

EXERCISES 13.2

Exercises

Projectile flights in the following exercises are to be treated as ideal unless stated otherwise. All launch angles are assumed to be measured from the horizontal. All projectiles are assumed to be launched from the origin over a horizontal surface unless stated otherwise.

1. **Travel time** A projectile is fired at a speed of 840 m/sec at an angle of 60°. How long will it take to get 21 km downrange?

2. **Finding muzzle speed** Find the muzzle speed of a gun whose maximum range is 24.5 km.

3. **Flight time and height** A projectile is fired with an initial speed of 500 m/sec at an angle of elevation of 45°.

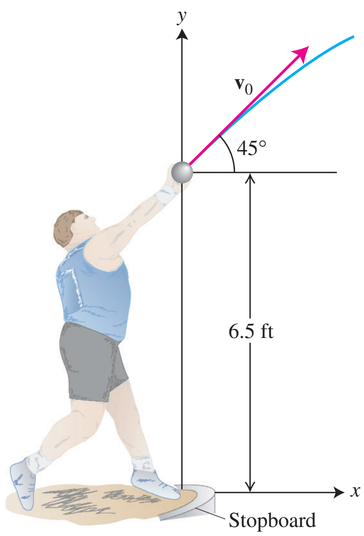
   a. When and how far away will the projectile strike?

   b. How high overhead will the projectile be when it is 5 km downrange?

   c. What is the greatest height reached by the projectile?

4. **Throwing a baseball** A baseball is thrown from the stands 32 ft above the field at an angle of 30° up from the horizontal. When and how far away will the ball strike the ground if its initial speed is 32 ft/sec?

5. **Shot put** An athlete puts a 16-lb shot at an angle of 45° to the horizontal from 6.5 ft above the ground at an initial speed of 44 ft/sec as suggested in the accompanying figure. How long after launch and how far from the inner edge of the stopboard does the shot land?



6. (*Continuation of Exercise* 5.) Because of its initial elevation, the shot in Exercise 5 would have gone slightly farther if it had been launched at a 40° angle. How much farther? Answer in inches.

7. **Firing golf balls** A spring gun at ground level fires a golf ball at an angle of 45°. The ball lands 10 m away.

   a. What was the ball's initial speed?

   b. For the same initial speed, find the two firing angles that make the range 6 m.

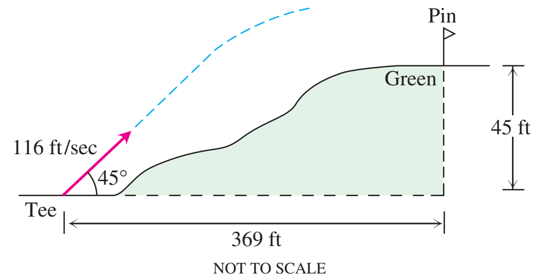
8. **Beaming electrons** An electron in a TV tube is beamed horizontally at a speed of 5×10^6 m/sec toward the face of the tube 40 cm away. About how far will the electron drop before it hits?

9. **Finding golf ball speed** Laboratory tests designed to find how far golf balls of different hardness go when hit with a driver showed that a 100-compression ball hit with a club-head speed of 100 mph at a launch angle of 9° carried 248.8 yd. What was the launch speed of the ball? (It was more than 100 mph. At the same time the club head was moving forward, the compressed ball was kicking away from the club face, adding to the ball's forward speed.)

10. A *human cannonball* is to be fired with an initial speed of $v_0 = 80\sqrt{10}/3$ ft/sec. The circus performer (of the right caliber, naturally) hopes to land on a special cushion located 200 ft downrange at the same height as the muzzle of the cannon. The circus is being held in a large room with a flat ceiling 75 ft higher than the muzzle. Can the performer be fired to the cushion without striking the ceiling? If so, what should the cannon's angle of elevation be?

11. A golf ball leaves the ground at a 30° angle at a speed of 90 ft/sec. Will it clear the top of a 30-ft tree that is in the way, 135 ft down the fairway? Explain.

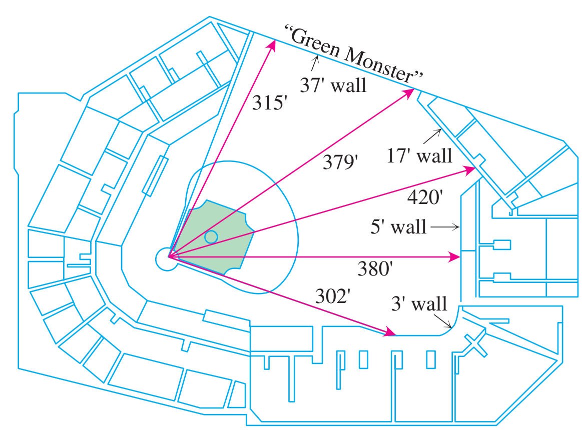
12. **Elevated green** A golf ball is hit with an initial speed of 116 ft/sec at an angle of elevation of 45° from the tee to a green that is elevated 45 ft above the tee as shown in the diagram. Assuming that the pin, 369 ft downrange, does not get in the way, where will the ball land in relation to the pin?



13. **The Green Monster** A baseball hit by a Boston Red Sox player at a 20° angle from 3 ft above the ground just cleared the left end of the "Green Monster," the left-field wall in Fenway Park. This wall is 37 ft high and 315 ft from home plate (see the accompanying figure).

   a. What was the initial speed of the ball?

   b. How long did it take the ball to reach the wall?



14. **Equal-range firing angles** Show that a projectile fired at an angle of α degrees, $0 < \alpha < 90$, has the same range as a projectile fired at the same speed at an angle of $(90 - \alpha)$ degrees. (In models that take air resistance into account, this symmetry is lost.)

15. **Equal-range firing angles** What two angles of elevation will enable a projectile to reach a target 16 km downrange on the same level as the gun if the projectile's initial speed is 400 m/sec?

16. **Range and height versus speed**

   a. Show that doubling a projectile's initial speed at a given launch angle multiplies its range by 4.

   b. By about what percentage should you increase the initial speed to double the height and range?

17. **Shot put** In Moscow in 1987, Natalya Lisouskaya set a women's world record by putting an 8 lb 13 oz shot 73 ft 10 in. Assuming that she launched the shot at a 40° angle to the horizontal from 6.5 ft above the ground, what was the shot's initial speed?

18. Height versus time Show that a projectile attains three-quarters of its maximum height in half the time it takes to reach the maximum height.

19. Firing from (x_0, y_0) Derive the equations

$$x = x_0 + (v_0 \cos \alpha)t,$$

$$y = y_0 + (v_0 \sin \alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2,$$

(see Equation (5) in the text) by solving the following initial value problem for a vector $\mathbf{r}$ in the plane.

Differential equation: $\dfrac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2} = -g\mathbf{j}$

Initial conditions: $\mathbf{r}(0) = x_0\mathbf{i} + y_0\mathbf{j}$

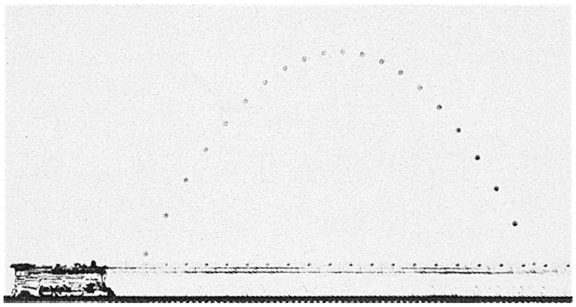
$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}(0) = (v_0 \cos \alpha)\mathbf{i} + (v_0 \sin \alpha)\mathbf{j}$$

20. Flaming arrow Using the firing angle found in Example 3, find the speed at which the flaming arrow left Rebollo's bow. See Figure 13.13.

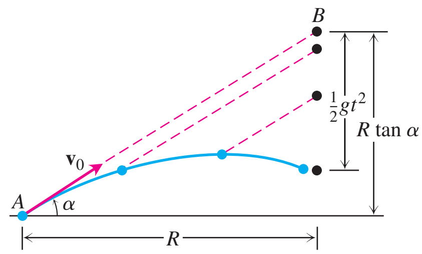
21. Flaming arrow The cauldron in Example 3 is 12 ft in diameter. Using Equation (5) and Example 3c, find how long it takes the flaming arrow to cover the horizontal distance to the rim. How high is the arrow at this time?

22. Describe the path of a projectile given by Equations (4) when $\alpha = 90°$.

23. Model train The accompanying multiflash photograph shows a model train engine moving at a constant speed on a straight horizontal track. As the engine moved along, a marble was fired into the air by a spring in the engine's smokestack. The marble, which continued to move with the same forward speed as the engine, rejoined the engine 1 sec after it was fired. Measure the angle the marble's path made with the horizontal and use the information to find how high the marble went and how fast the engine was moving.



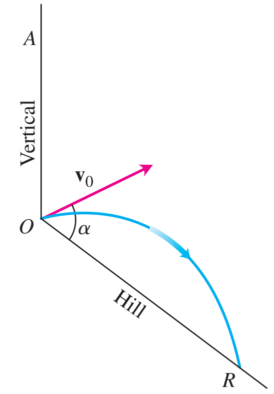
24. Colliding marbles The figure shows an experiment with two marbles. Marble A was launched toward marble B with launch angle α and initial speed v_0. At the same instant, marble B was released to fall from rest at $R \tan \alpha$ units directly above a spot R units downrange from A. The marbles were found to collide regardless of the value of v_0. Was this mere coincidence, or must this happen? Give reasons for your answer.



25. Launching downhill An ideal projectile is launched straight down an inclined plane as shown in the accompanying figure.

a. Show that the greatest downhill range is achieved when the initial velocity vector bisects angle AOR.

b. If the projectile were fired uphill instead of down, what launch angle would maximize its range? Give reasons for your answer.



26. Hitting a baseball under a wind gust A baseball is hit when it is 2.5 ft above the ground. It leaves the bat with an initial velocity of 145 ft/sec at a launch angle of 23°. At the instant the ball is hit, an instantaneous gust of wind blows against the ball, adding a component of $-14\mathbf{i}$ (ft/sec) to the ball's initial velocity. A 15-ft-high fence lies 300 ft from home plate in the direction of the flight.

a. Find a vector equation for the path of the baseball.

b. How high does the baseball go, and when does it reach maximum height?

c. Find the range and flight time of the baseball, assuming that the ball is not caught.

d. When is the baseball 20 ft high? How far (ground distance) is the baseball from home plate at that height?

e. Has the batter hit a home run? Explain.

27. Volleyball A volleyball is hit when it is 4 ft above the ground and 12 ft from a 6-ft-high net. It leaves the point of impact with an initial velocity of 35 ft/sec at an angle of 27° and slips by the opposing team untouched.

Exercises

Exercises

a. Find a vector equation for the path of the volleyball.

b. How high does the volleyball go, and when does it reach maximum height?

c. Find its range and flight time.

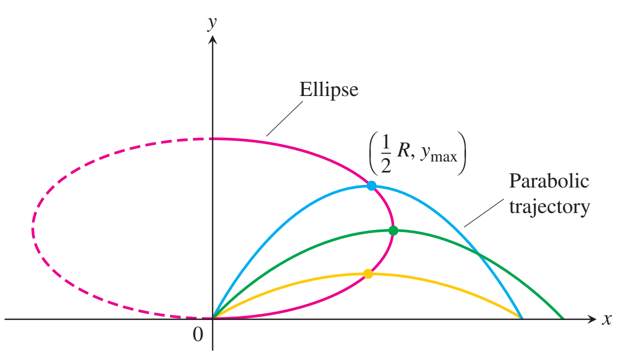
d. When is the volleyball 7 ft above the ground? How far (ground distance) is the volleyball from where it will land?

e. Suppose that the net is raised to 8 ft. Does this change things? Explain.

28. Where trajectories crest For a projectile fired from the ground at launch angle α with initial speed v_0, consider α as a variable and v_0 as a fixed constant. For each α, $0 < \alpha < \pi/2$, we obtain a parabolic trajectory as shown in the accompanying figure. Show that the points in the plane that give the maximum heights of these parabolic trajectories all lie on the ellipse

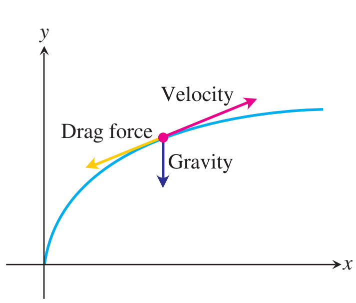
$$x^2 + 4\left(y - \frac{v_0^2}{4g}\right)^2 = \frac{v_0^4}{4g^2},$$

where $x \geq 0$.



Projectile Motion with Linear Drag

The main force affecting the motion of a projectile, other than gravity, is air resistance. This slowing down force is **drag force**, and it acts in a direction *opposite* to the velocity of the projectile (see accompanying figure). For projectiles moving through the air at relatively low speeds, however, the drag force is (very nearly) proportional to the speed (to the first power) and so is called **linear**.



29. Linear drag Derive the equations

$$x = \frac{v_0}{k}(1 - e^{-kt})\cos\alpha$$

$$y = \frac{v_0}{k}(1 - e^{-kt})(\sin\alpha) + \frac{g}{k^2}(1 - kt - e^{-kt})$$

by solving the following initial value problem for a vector **r** in the plane.

Differential equation: $\dfrac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2} = -g\mathbf{j} - k\mathbf{v} = -g\mathbf{j} - k\dfrac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}$

Initial conditions: $\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{0}$

$$\left.\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}\right|_{t=0} = \mathbf{v}_0 = (v_0\cos\alpha)\mathbf{i} + (v_0\sin\alpha)\mathbf{j}$$

The **drag coefficient** k is a positive constant representing resistance due to air density, v_0 and α are the projectile's initial speed and launch angle, and g is the acceleration of gravity.

30. Hitting a baseball with linear drag Consider the baseball problem in Example 4 when there is linear drag (see Exercise 29). Assume a drag coefficient $k = 0.12$, but no gust of wind.

a. From Exercise 29, find a vector form for the path of the baseball.

b. How high does the baseball go, and when does it reach maximum height?

c. Find the range and flight time of the baseball.

d. When is the baseball 30 ft high? How far (ground distance) is the baseball from home plate at that height?

e. A 10-ft-high outfield fence is 340 ft from home plate in the direction of the flight of the baseball. The outfielder can jump and catch any ball up to 11 ft off the ground to stop it from going over the fence. Has the batter hit a home run?

31. Hitting a baseball with linear drag under a wind gust Consider again the baseball problem in Example 4. This time assume a drag coefficient of 0.08 *and* an instantaneous gust of wind that adds a component of $-17.6\mathbf{i}$ (ft/sec) to the initial velocity at the instant the baseball is hit.

a. Find a vector equation for the path of the baseball.

b. How high does the baseball go, and when does it reach maximum height?

c. Find the range and flight time of the baseball.

d. When is the baseball 35 ft high? How far (ground distance) is the baseball from home plate at that height?

e. A 20-ft-high outfield fence is 380 ft from home plate in the direction of the flight of the baseball. Has the batter hit a home run? If "yes," what change in the horizontal component of the ball's initial velocity would have kept the ball in the park? If "no," what change would have allowed it to be a home run?

13.3 Arc Length and the Unit Tangent Vector T

Project

Project

Imagine the motions you might experience traveling at high speeds along a path through the air or space. Specifically, imagine the motions of turning to your left or right and the up-and-down motions tending to lift you from, or pin you down to, your seat. Pilots flying through the atmosphere, turning and twisting in flight acrobatics, certainly experience these motions. Turns that are too tight, descents or climbs that are too steep, or either one coupled with high and increasing speed can cause an aircraft to spin out of control, possibly even to break up in midair, and crash to Earth.

In this and the next two sections, we study the features of a curve's shape that describe mathematically the sharpness of its turning and its twisting perpendicular to the forward motion.

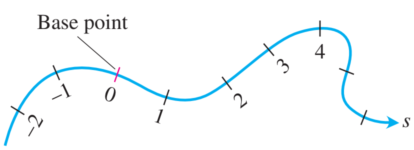


FIGURE 13.14 Smooth curves can be scaled like number lines, the coordinate of each point being its directed distance along the curve from a preselected base point.

Arc Length Along a Space Curve

One of the features of smooth space curves is that they have a measurable length. This enables us to locate points along these curves by giving their directed distance s along the curve from some **base point**, the way we locate points on coordinate axes by giving their directed distance from the origin (Figure 13.14). Time is the natural parameter for describing a moving body's velocity and acceleration, but s is the natural parameter for studying a curve's shape. Both parameters appear in analyses of space flight.

To measure distance along a smooth curve in space, we add a z-term to the formula we use for curves in the plane.

DEFINITION Length of a Smooth Curve

The **length** of a smooth curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$, $a \le t \le b$, that is traced exactly once as t increases from $t = a$ to $t = b$, is

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2}\, dt. \tag{1}$$

Just as for plane curves, we can calculate the length of a curve in space from any convenient parametrization that meets the stated conditions. We omit the proof.

The square root in Equation (1) is $|\mathbf{v}|$, the length of a velocity vector $d\mathbf{r}/dt$. This enables us to write the formula for length a shorter way.

Arc Length Formula

$$L = \int_a^b |\mathbf{v}|\, dt \tag{2}$$

EXAMPLE 1 Distance Traveled by a Glider

A glider is soaring upward along the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$. How far does the glider travel along its path from $t = 0$ to $t = 2\pi \approx 6.28$ sec?

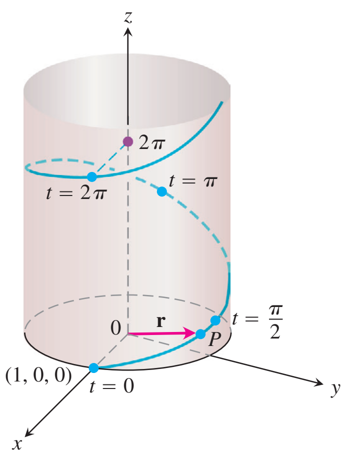


FIGURE 13.15 The helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$ in Example 1.

Solution The path segment during this time corresponds to one full turn of the helix (Figure 13.15). The length of this portion of the curve is

$$L = \int_a^b |\mathbf{v}|\, dt = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{(-\sin t)^2 + (\cos t)^2 + (1)^2}\, dt$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{2}\, dt = 2\pi\sqrt{2} \text{ units of length.}$$

This is $\sqrt{2}$ times the length of the circle in the xy-plane over which the helix stands. ■

If we choose a base point $P(t_0)$ on a smooth curve C parametrized by t, each value of t determines a point $P(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t))$ on C and a "directed distance"

$$s(t) = \int_{t_0}^{t} |\mathbf{v}(\tau)|\, d\tau,$$

measured along C from the base point (Figure 13.16). If $t > t_0$, $s(t)$ is the distance from $P(t_0)$ to $P(t)$. If $t < t_0$, $s(t)$ is the negative of the distance. Each value of s determines a point on C and this parametrizes C with respect to s. We call s an **arc length parameter** for the curve. The parameter's value increases in the direction of increasing t. The arc length parameter is particularly effective for investigating the turning and twisting nature of a space curve.

We use the Greek letter τ ("tau") as the variable of integration because the letter t is already in use as the upper limit.

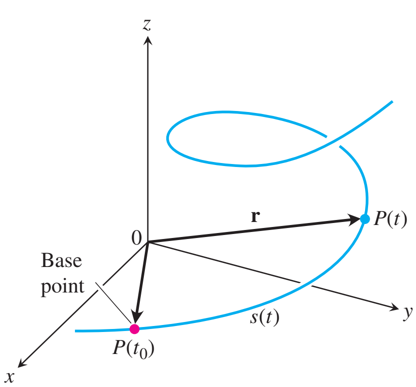


FIGURE 13.16 The directed distance along the curve from $P(t_0)$ to any point $P(t)$ is

$$s(t) = \int_{t_0}^{t} |\mathbf{v}(\tau)|\, d\tau.$$

Arc Length Parameter with Base Point $P(t_0)$

$$s(t) = \int_{t_0}^{t} \sqrt{[x'(\tau)]^2 + [y'(\tau)]^2 + [z'(\tau)]^2}\, d\tau = \int_{t_0}^{t} |\mathbf{v}(\tau)|\, d\tau \qquad (3)$$

If a curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is already given in terms of some parameter t and $s(t)$ is the arc length function given by Equation (3), then we may be able to solve for t as a function of s: $t = t(s)$. Then the curve can be reparametrized in terms of s by substituting for t: $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t(s))$.

You Try It

EXAMPLE 2 Finding an Arc Length Parametrization

If $t_0 = 0$, the arc length parameter along the helix

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

from t_0 to t is

$$s(t) = \int_{t_0}^{t} |\mathbf{v}(\tau)|\, d\tau \qquad \text{Equation (3)}$$

$$= \int_0^t \sqrt{2}\, d\tau \qquad \text{Value from Example 1}$$

$$= \sqrt{2}\, t.$$

Solving this equation for t gives $t = s/\sqrt{2}$. Substituting into the position vector $\mathbf{r}$ gives the following arc length parametrization for the helix:

$$\mathbf{r}(t(s)) = \left(\cos\frac{s}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\sin\frac{s}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\mathbf{j} + \frac{s}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{k}. \qquad \blacksquare$$

Unlike Example 2, the arc length parametrization is generally difficult to find analytically for a curve already given in terms of some other parameter t. Fortunately, however, we rarely need an exact formula for $s(t)$ or its inverse $t(s)$.

EXAMPLE 3 Distance Along a Line

Show that if $\mathbf{u} = u_1\mathbf{i} + u_2\mathbf{j} + u_3\mathbf{k}$ is a unit vector, then the arc length parameter along the line

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (x_0 + tu_1)\mathbf{i} + (y_0 + tu_2)\mathbf{j} + (z_0 + tu_3)\mathbf{k}$$

from the point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ where $t = 0$ is t itself.

Solution

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{d}{dt}(x_0 + tu_1)\mathbf{i} + \frac{d}{dt}(y_0 + tu_2)\mathbf{j} + \frac{d}{dt}(z_0 + tu_3)\mathbf{k} = u_1\mathbf{i} + u_2\mathbf{j} + u_3\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{u},$$

so

$$s(t) = \int_0^t |\mathbf{v}|\,d\tau = \int_0^t |\mathbf{u}|\,d\tau = \int_0^t 1\,d\tau = t. \qquad \blacksquare$$

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY

Josiah Willard Gibbs
(1839–1903)

Biography

Speed on a Smooth Curve

Since the derivatives beneath the radical in Equation (3) are continuous (the curve is smooth), the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus tells us that s is a differentiable function of t with derivative

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = |\mathbf{v}(t)|. \tag{4}$$

As we already knew, the speed with which a particle moves along its path is the magnitude of $\mathbf{v}$.

Notice that although the base point $P(t_0)$ plays a role in defining s in Equation (3), it plays no role in Equation (4). The rate at which a moving particle covers distance along its path is independent of how far away it is from the base point.

Notice also that $ds/dt > 0$ since, by definition, $|\mathbf{v}|$ is never zero for a smooth curve. We see once again that s is an increasing function of t.

Unit Tangent Vector T

We already know the velocity vector $\mathbf{v} = d\mathbf{r}/dt$ is tangent to the curve and that the vector

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}$$

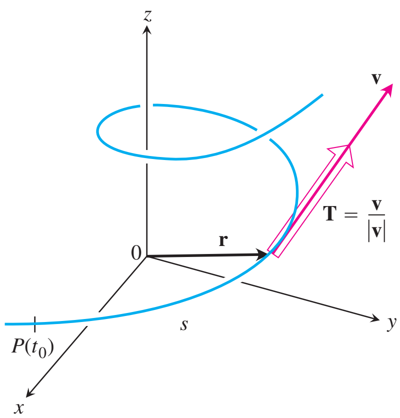


FIGURE 13.17 We find the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}$ by dividing $\mathbf{v}$ by $|\mathbf{v}|$.

is therefore a unit vector tangent to the (smooth) curve. Since $ds/dt > 0$ for the curves we are considering, s is one-to-one and has an inverse that gives t as a differentiable function of s (Section 7.1). The derivative of the inverse is

$$\frac{dt}{ds} = \frac{1}{ds/dt} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|}.$$

This makes $\mathbf{r}$ a differentiable function of s whose derivative can be calculated with the Chain Rule to be

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{ds} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}\frac{dt}{ds} = \mathbf{v}\frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} = \mathbf{T}.$$

This equation says that $d\mathbf{r}/ds$ is the unit tangent vector in the direction of the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}$ (Figure 13.17).

DEFINITION Unit Tangent Vector

The **unit tangent vector** of a smooth curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{ds} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}/dt}{ds/dt} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}. \qquad (5)$$

The unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}$ is a differentiable function of t whenever $\mathbf{v}$ is a differentiable function of t. As we see in Section 13.5, $\mathbf{T}$ is one of three unit vectors in a traveling reference frame that is used to describe the motion of space vehicles and other bodies traveling in three dimensions.

EXAMPLE 4 Finding the Unit Tangent Vector T

Find the unit tangent vector of the curve

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

representing the path of the glider in Example 4, Section 13.1.

Solution In that example, we found

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

and

$$|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{9 + 4t^2}.$$

Thus,

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} = -\frac{3\sin t}{\sqrt{9+4t^2}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{3\cos t}{\sqrt{9+4t^2}}\mathbf{j} + \frac{2t}{\sqrt{9+4t^2}}\mathbf{k}.$$ ■

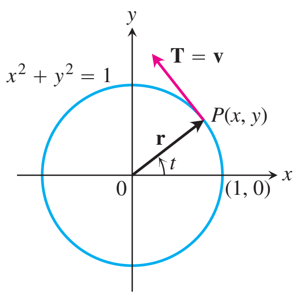


FIGURE 13.18 The motion $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j}$ (Example 5).

EXAMPLE 5 Motion on the Unit Circle

For the counterclockwise motion

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

around the unit circle,

$$\mathbf{v} = (-\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t)\mathbf{j}$$

is already a unit vector, so $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{v}$ (Figure 13.18). ■

EXERCISES 13.3

Exercises

Finding Unit Tangent Vectors and Lengths of Curves

In Exercises 1–8, find the curve's unit tangent vector. Also, find the length of the indicated portion of the curve.

1. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (2\sin t)\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{5}t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le \pi$
2. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (6\sin 2t)\mathbf{i} + (6\cos 2t)\mathbf{j} + 5t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le \pi$
3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + (2/3)t^{3/2}\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 8$
4. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2 + t)\mathbf{i} - (t + 1)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 3$
5. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos^3 t)\mathbf{j} + (\sin^3 t)\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le \pi/2$
6. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 6t^3\mathbf{i} - 2t^3\mathbf{j} - 3t^3\mathbf{k}, \quad 1 \le t \le 2$
7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (t\sin t)\mathbf{j} + \left(2\sqrt{2}/3\right)t^{3/2}\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le \pi$
8. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t\sin t + \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (t\cos t - \sin t)\mathbf{j}, \quad \sqrt{2} \le t \le 2$
9. Find the point on the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (5\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (5\cos t)\mathbf{j} + 12t\mathbf{k}$$

at a distance 26π units along the curve from the origin in the direction of increasing arc length.

10. Find the point on the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (12\sin t)\mathbf{i} - (12\cos t)\mathbf{j} + 5t\mathbf{k}$$

at a distance 13π units along the curve from the origin in the direction opposite to the direction of increasing arc length.

Arc Length Parameter

In Exercises 11–14, find the arc length parameter along the curve from the point where $t = 0$ by evaluating the integral

$$s = \int_0^t |\mathbf{v}(\tau)|\,d\tau$$

from Equation (3). Then find the length of the indicated portion of the curve.

11. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (4\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (4\sin t)\mathbf{j} + 3t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le \pi/2$
12. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t + t\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t - t\cos t)\mathbf{j}, \quad \pi/2 \le t \le \pi$
13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (e^t\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (e^t\sin t)\mathbf{j} + e^t\mathbf{k}, \quad -\ln 4 \le t \le 0$
14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + 2t)\mathbf{i} + (1 + 3t)\mathbf{j} + (6 - 6t)\mathbf{k}, \quad -1 \le t \le 0$

Exercises

Theory and Examples

15. **Arc length** Find the length of the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\sqrt{2}t\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\sqrt{2}t\right)\mathbf{j} + (1 - t^2)\mathbf{k}$$

from (0, 0, 1) to $\left(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}, 0\right)$.

16. **Length of helix** The length $2\pi\sqrt{2}$ of the turn of the helix in Example 1 is also the length of the diagonal of a square 2π units on a side. Show how to obtain this square by cutting away and flattening a portion of the cylinder around which the helix winds.

17. **Ellipse**
    a. Show that the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + (1 - \cos t)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$, is an ellipse by showing that it is the intersection of a right circular cylinder and a plane. Find equations for the cylinder and plane.
    b. Sketch the ellipse on the cylinder. Add to your sketch the unit tangent vectors at $t = 0, \pi/2, \pi$, and $3\pi/2$.
    c. Show that the acceleration vector always lies parallel to the plane (orthogonal to a vector normal to the plane). Thus, if you draw the acceleration as a vector attached to the ellipse, it will lie in the plane of the ellipse. Add the acceleration vectors for $t = 0, \pi/2, \pi$, and $3\pi/2$ to your sketch.
    d. Write an integral for the length of the ellipse. Do not try to evaluate the integral; it is nonelementary.
    T e. **Numerical integrator** Estimate the length of the ellipse to two decimal places.

18. **Length is independent of parametrization** To illustrate that the length of a smooth space curve does not depend on

the parametrization you use to compute it, calculate the length of one turn of the helix in Example 1 with the following parametrizations.

a. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos 4t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin 4t)\mathbf{j} + 4t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le \pi/2$

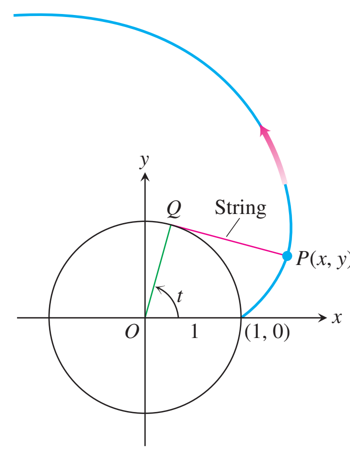
b. $\mathbf{r}(t) = [\cos (t/2)]\mathbf{i} + [\sin (t/2)]\mathbf{j} + (t/2)\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 4\pi$

c. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} - (\sin t)\mathbf{j} - t\mathbf{k}, \quad -2\pi \le t \le 0$

19. The involute of a circle If a string wound around a fixed circle is unwound while held taut in the plane of the circle, its end P traces an *involute* of the circle. In the accompanying figure, the circle in question is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the tracing point starts at $(1, 0)$. The unwound portion of the string is tangent to the circle at Q, and t is the radian measure of the angle from the positive x-axis to segment OQ. Derive the parametric equations

$$x = \cos t + t \sin t, \quad y = \sin t - t \cos t, \quad t > 0$$

of the point $P(x, y)$ for the involute.



20. (*Continuation of Exercise 19.*) Find the unit tangent vector to the involute of the circle at the point $P(x, y)$.

13.4 Curvature and the Unit Normal Vector N

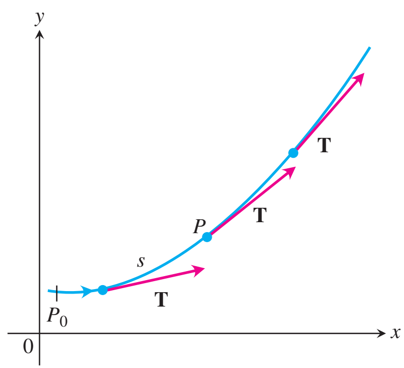


FIGURE 13.19 As P moves along the curve in the direction of increasing arc length, the unit tangent vector turns. The value of $|d\mathbf{T}/ds|$ at P is called the *curvature* of the curve at P.

In this section we study how a curve turns or bends. We look first at curves in the coordinate plane, and then at curves in space.

Curvature of a Plane Curve

As a particle moves along a smooth curve in the plane, $\mathbf{T} = d\mathbf{r}/ds$ turns as the curve bends. Since $\mathbf{T}$ is a unit vector, its length remains constant and only its direction changes as the particle moves along the curve. The rate at which $\mathbf{T}$ turns per unit of length along the curve is called the *curvature* (Figure 13.19). The traditional symbol for the curvature function is the Greek letter κ ("kappa").

DEFINITION Curvature

If $\mathbf{T}$ is the unit vector of a smooth curve, the **curvature** function of the curve is

$$\kappa = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\right|.$$

If $|d\mathbf{T}/ds|$ is large, $\mathbf{T}$ turns sharply as the particle passes through P, and the curvature at P is large. If $|d\mathbf{T}/ds|$ is close to zero, $\mathbf{T}$ turns more slowly and the curvature at P is smaller.

If a smooth curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is already given in terms of some parameter t other than the arc length parameter s, we can calculate the curvature as

$$\begin{aligned}
\kappa &= \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\right| = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}\frac{dt}{ds}\right| && \text{Chain Rule} \\
&= \frac{1}{|ds/dt|}\left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}\right| \\
&= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|}\left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}\right|. && \frac{ds}{dt} = |\mathbf{v}|
\end{aligned}$$

Formula for Calculating Curvature

If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is a smooth curve, then the curvature is

$$\kappa = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|}\left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}\right|, \tag{1}$$

where $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{v}/|\mathbf{v}|$ is the unit tangent vector.

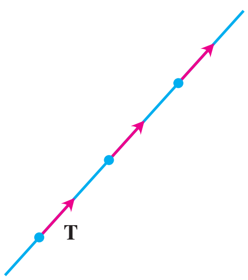


FIGURE 13.20 Along a straight line, **T** always points in the same direction. The curvature, $|d\mathbf{T}/ds|$, is zero (Example 1).

Testing the definition, we see in Examples 1 and 2 below that the curvature is constant for straight lines and circles.

EXAMPLE 1 The Curvature of a Straight Line Is Zero

On a straight line, the unit tangent vector **T** always points in the same direction, so its components are constants. Therefore, $|d\mathbf{T}/ds| = |\mathbf{0}| = 0$ (Figure 13.20). ■

EXAMPLE 2 The Curvature of a Circle of Radius a is $1/a$

To see why, we begin with the parametrization

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

of a circle of radius a. Then,

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = -(a\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (a\cos t)\mathbf{j}$$

$$|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{(-a\sin t)^2 + (a\cos t)^2} = \sqrt{a^2} = |a| = a.$$

Since $a > 0$, $|a| = a$.

From this we find

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} = -(\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t)\mathbf{j}$$

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} = -(\cos t)\mathbf{i} - (\sin t)\mathbf{j}$$

$$\left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}\right| = \sqrt{\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t} = 1.$$

Hence, for any value of the parameter t,

$$\kappa = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|}\left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}\right| = \frac{1}{a}(1) = \frac{1}{a}.$$ ■

Although the formula for calculating κ in Equation (1) is also valid for space curves, in the next section we find a computational formula that is usually more convenient to apply.

Among the vectors orthogonal to the unit tangent vector **T** is one of particular significance because it points in the direction in which the curve is turning. Since **T** has constant length (namely, 1), the derivative $d\mathbf{T}/ds$ is orthogonal to **T** (Section 13.1). Therefore, if we divide $d\mathbf{T}/ds$ by its length κ, we obtain a *unit* vector **N** orthogonal to **T** (Figure 13.21).

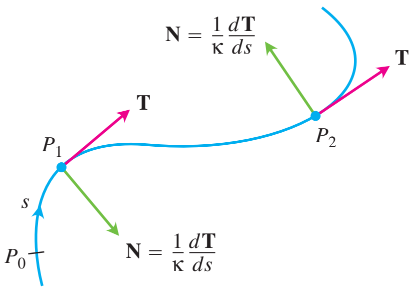


FIGURE 13.21 The vector $d\mathbf{T}/ds$, normal to the curve, always points in the direction in which **T** is turning. The unit normal vector **N** is the direction of $d\mathbf{T}/ds$.

DEFINITION **Principal Unit Normal**

At a point where $\kappa \neq 0$, the **principal unit normal** vector for a smooth curve in the plane is

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{1}{\kappa}\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}.$$

The vector $d\mathbf{T}/ds$ points in the direction in which **T** turns as the curve bends. Therefore, if we face in the direction of increasing arc length, the vector $d\mathbf{T}/ds$ points toward the right if **T** turns clockwise and toward the left if **T** turns counterclockwise. In other words, the principal normal vector **N** will point toward the concave side of the curve (Figure 13.21).

If a smooth curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is already given in terms of some parameter t other than the arc length parameter s, we can use the Chain Rule to calculate **N** directly:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{N} &= \frac{d\mathbf{T}/ds}{|d\mathbf{T}/ds|} \\ &= \frac{(d\mathbf{T}/dt)(dt/ds)}{|d\mathbf{T}/dt||dt/ds|} \\ &= \frac{d\mathbf{T}/dt}{|d\mathbf{T}/dt|}. \qquad \frac{dt}{ds} = \frac{1}{ds/dt} > 0 \text{ cancels}\end{aligned}$$

This formula enables us to find **N** without having to find κ and s first.

Formula for Calculating N

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

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{d\mathbf{T}/dt}{|d\mathbf{T}/dt|}, \tag{2}$$

where $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{v}/|\mathbf{v}|$ is the unit tangent vector.

EXAMPLE 3 Finding **T** and **N**

You Try It

Find **T** and **N** for the circular motion

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

Solution We first find **T**:

$$\mathbf{v} = -(2\sin 2t)\mathbf{i} + (2\cos 2t)\mathbf{j}$$

$$|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{4\sin^2 2t + 4\cos^2 2t} = 2$$

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} = -(\sin 2t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos 2t)\mathbf{j}.$$

From this we find

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} = -(2\cos 2t)\mathbf{i} - (2\sin 2t)\mathbf{j}$$

$$\left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}\right| = \sqrt{4\cos^2 2t + 4\sin^2 2t} = 2$$

and

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{d\mathbf{T}/dt}{|d\mathbf{T}/dt|}$$

$$= -(\cos 2t)\mathbf{i} - (\sin 2t)\mathbf{j}. \qquad \text{Equation (2)}$$

Notice that $\mathbf{T}\cdot\mathbf{N} = 0$, verifying that $\mathbf{N}$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{T}$. Notice too, that for the circular motion here, $\mathbf{N}$ points from $\mathbf{r}(t)$ towards the circle's center at the origin. ■

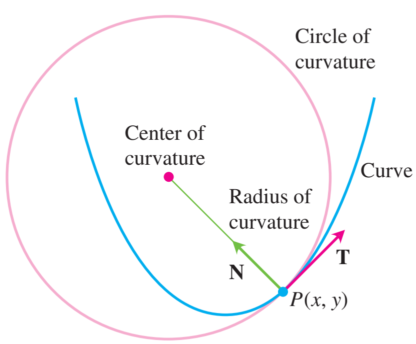


FIGURE 13.22 The osculating circle at $P(x, y)$ lies toward the inner side of the curve.

Circle of Curvature for Plane Curves

The **circle of curvature** or **osculating circle** at a point P on a plane curve where $\kappa \neq 0$ is the circle in the plane of the curve that

1. is tangent to the curve at P (has the same tangent line the curve has)
2. has the same curvature the curve has at P
3. lies toward the concave or inner side of the curve (as in Figure 13.22).

The **radius of curvature** of the curve at P is the radius of the circle of curvature, which, according to Example 2, is

$$\text{Radius of curvature} = \rho = \frac{1}{\kappa}.$$

To find ρ, we find κ and take the reciprocal. The **center of curvature** of the curve at P is the center of the circle of curvature.

EXAMPLE 4 Finding the Osculating Circle for a Parabola

You Try It

Find and graph the osculating circle of the parabola $y = x^2$ at the origin.

Solution We parametrize the parabola using the parameter $t = x$ (Section 10.4, Example 1)

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j}.$$

First we find the curvature of the parabola at the origin, using Equation (1):

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \mathbf{i} + 2t\mathbf{j}$$

$$|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{1 + 4t^2}$$

so that

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} = (1 + 4t^2)^{-1/2}\mathbf{i} + 2t(1 + 4t^2)^{-1/2}\mathbf{j}.$$

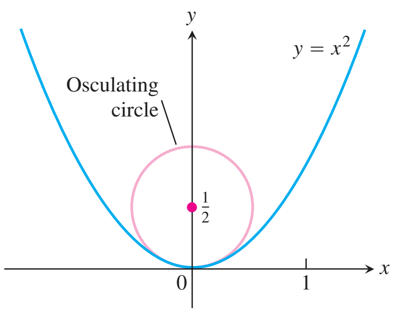


FIGURE 13.23 The osculating circle for the parabola $y = x^2$ at the origin (Example 4).

From this we find

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} = -4t(1 + 4t^2)^{-3/2}\mathbf{i} + [2(1 + 4t^2)^{-1/2} - 8t^2(1 + 4t^2)^{-3/2}]\mathbf{j}.$$

At the origin, $t = 0$, so the curvature is

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa(0) &= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}(0)|}\left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}(0)\right| \qquad \text{Equation (1)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}}|0\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}| \\ &= (1)\sqrt{0^2 + 2^2} = 2. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the radius of curvature is $1/\kappa = 1/2$ and the center of the circle is $(0, 1/2)$ (see Figure 13.23). The equation of the osculating circle is

$$(x - 0)^2 + \left(y - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2$$

or

$$x^2 + \left(y - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{4}.$$

You can see from Figure 13.23 that the osculating circle is a better approximation to the parabola at the origin than is the tangent line approximation $y = 0$. ■

Curvature and Normal Vectors for Space Curves

If a smooth curve in space is specified by the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ as a function of some parameter t, and if s is the arc length parameter of the curve, then the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}$ is $d\mathbf{r}/ds = \mathbf{v}/|\mathbf{v}|$. The **curvature** in space is then defined to be

$$\kappa = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\right| = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|}\left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}\right| \tag{3}$$

just as for plane curves. The vector $d\mathbf{T}/ds$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{T}$, and we define the **principal unit normal** to be

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{1}{\kappa}\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = \frac{d\mathbf{T}/dt}{|d\mathbf{T}/dt|}. \tag{4}$$

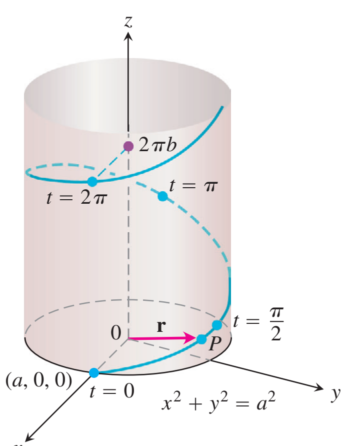


FIGURE 13.24 The helix

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

drawn with a and b positive and $t \geq 0$ (Example 5).

EXAMPLE 5 Finding Curvature

You Try It Video

Find the curvature for the helix (Figure 13.24)

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (a\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin t)\mathbf{j} + bt\mathbf{k}, \qquad a, b \geq 0, \qquad a^2 + b^2 \neq 0.$$

Solution We calculate $\mathbf{T}$ from the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}$:

$$\mathbf{v} = -(a \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (a \cos t)\mathbf{j} + b\mathbf{k}$$

$$|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{a^2 \sin^2 t + a^2 \cos^2 t + b^2} = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}[-(a \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (a \cos t)\mathbf{j} + b\mathbf{k}].$$

Then using Equation (3),

$$\begin{aligned}
\kappa &= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|}\left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}\right| \\
&= \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}[-(a \cos t)\mathbf{i} - (a \sin t)\mathbf{j}]\right| \\
&= \frac{a}{a^2 + b^2}\left|-(\cos t)\mathbf{i} - (\sin t)\mathbf{j}\right| \\
&= \frac{a}{a^2 + b^2}\sqrt{(\cos t)^2 + (\sin t)^2} = \frac{a}{a^2 + b^2}.
\end{aligned}$$

From this equation, we see that increasing b for a fixed a decreases the curvature. Decreasing a for a fixed b eventually decreases the curvature as well. Stretching a spring tends to straighten it.

If $b = 0$, the helix reduces to a circle of radius a and its curvature reduces to $1/a$, as it should. If $a = 0$, the helix becomes the z-axis, and its curvature reduces to 0, again as it should. ■

EXAMPLE 6 Finding the Principal Unit Normal Vector N

Find $\mathbf{N}$ for the helix in Example 5.

Solution We have

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}[(a \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a \sin t)\mathbf{j}] \qquad \text{Example 5}$$

$$\left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}\right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}\sqrt{a^2 \cos^2 t + a^2 \sin^2 t} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{N} &= \frac{d\mathbf{T}/dt}{|d\mathbf{T}/dt|} \qquad \text{Equatiion (4)} \\
&= -\frac{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}{a} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}[(a \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a \sin t)\mathbf{j}] \\
&= -(\cos t)\mathbf{i} - (\sin t)\mathbf{j}.
\end{aligned}$$

■

EXERCISES 13.4

Plane Curves

Find **T**, **N**, and κ for the plane curves in Exercises 1–4.

1. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + (\ln \cos t)\mathbf{j}, \quad -\pi/2 < t < \pi/2$

2. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\ln \sec t)\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j}, \quad -\pi/2 < t < \pi/2$

3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2t + 3)\mathbf{i} + (5 - t^2)\mathbf{j}$

4. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t + t \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t - t \cos t)\mathbf{j}, \quad t > 0$

5. A formula for the curvature of the graph of a function in the *xy*-plane

a. The graph $y = f(x)$ in the xy-plane automatically has the parametrization $x = x, y = f(x)$, and the vector formula $\mathbf{r}(x) = x\mathbf{i} + f(x)\mathbf{j}$. Use this formula to show that if f is a twice-differentiable function of x, then

$$\kappa(x) = \frac{|f''(x)|}{\left[1 + (f'(x))^2\right]^{3/2}}.$$

b. Use the formula for κ in part (a) to find the curvature of $y = \ln(\cos x), -\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$. Compare your answer with the answer in Exercise 1.

c. Show that the curvature is zero at a point of inflection.

6. A formula for the curvature of a parametrized plane curve

a. Show that the curvature of a smooth curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j}$ defined by twice-differentiable functions $x = f(t)$ and $y = g(t)$ is given by the formula

$$\kappa = \frac{|\dot{x}\ddot{y} - \dot{y}\ddot{x}|}{(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2)^{3/2}}.$$

Apply the formula to find the curvatures of the following curves.

b. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + (\ln \sin t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 < t < \pi$

c. $\mathbf{r}(t) = [\tan^{-1}(\sinh t)]\mathbf{i} + (\ln \cosh t)\mathbf{j}$.

7. Normals to plane curves

a. Show that $\mathbf{n}(t) = -g'(t)\mathbf{i} + f'(t)\mathbf{j}$ and $-\mathbf{n}(t) = g'(t)\mathbf{i} - f'(t)\mathbf{j}$ are both normal to the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j}$ at the point $(f(t), g(t))$.

To obtain **N** for a particular plane curve, we can choose the one of **n** or $-$**n** from part (a) that points toward the concave side of the curve, and make it into a unit vector. (See Figure 13.21.) Apply this method to find **N** for the following curves.

b. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + e^{2t}\mathbf{j}$

c. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{4 - t^2}\,\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j}, \quad -2 \le t \le 2$

8. (*Continuation of Exercise 7.*)

a. Use the method of Exercise 7 to find **N** for the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + (1/3)t^3\mathbf{j}$ when $t < 0$; when $t > 0$.

b. Calculate

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{d\mathbf{T}/dt}{|d\mathbf{T}/dt|}, \quad t \neq 0,$$

for the curve in part (a). Does **N** exist at $t = 0$? Graph the curve and explain what is happening to **N** as t passes from negative to positive values.

Space Curves

Find **T**, **N**, and κ for the space curves in Exercises 9–16.

9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3 \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (3 \cos t)\mathbf{j} + 4t\mathbf{k}$

10. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t + t \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t - t \cos t)\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$

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

12. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (6 \sin 2t)\mathbf{i} + (6 \cos 2t)\mathbf{j} + 5t\mathbf{k}$

13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^3/3)\mathbf{i} + (t^2/2)\mathbf{j}, \quad t > 0$

14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos^3 t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin^3 t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 < t < \pi/2$

15. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + (a \cosh(t/a))\mathbf{j}, \quad a > 0$

16. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cosh t)\mathbf{i} - (\sinh t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$

More on Curvature

17. Show that the parabola $y = ax^2, a \neq 0$, has its largest curvature at its vertex and has no minimum curvature. (*Note:* Since the curvature of a curve remains the same if the curve is translated or rotated, this result is true for any parabola.)

18. Show that the ellipse $x = a \cos t, y = b \sin t, a > b > 0$, has its largest curvature on its major axis and its smallest curvature on its minor axis. (As in Exercise 17, the same is true for any ellipse.)

19. Maximizing the curvature of a helix In Example 5, we found the curvature of the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = (a \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a \sin t)\mathbf{j} + bt\mathbf{k}$ $(a, b \ge 0)$ to be $\kappa = a/(a^2 + b^2)$. What is the largest value κ can have for a given value of b? Give reasons for your answer.

20. Total curvature We find the **total curvature** of the portion of a smooth curve that runs from $s = s_0$ to $s = s_1 > s_0$ by integrating κ from s_0 to s_1. If the curve has some other parameter, say t, then the total curvature is

$$K = \int_{s_0}^{s_1} \kappa\, ds = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \kappa \frac{ds}{dt}\, dt = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \kappa |\mathbf{v}|\, dt,$$

where t_0 and t_1 correspond to s_0 and s_1. Find the total curvatures of

a. The portion of the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3 \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (3 \sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$, $0 \le t \le 4\pi$.

b. The parabola $y = x^2, -\infty < x < \infty$.

21. Find an equation for the circle of curvature of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j}$ at the point $(\pi/2, 1)$. (The curve parametrizes the graph of $y = \sin x$ in the xy-plane.)

22. Find an equation for the circle of curvature of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2\ln t)\mathbf{i} - [t + (1/t)]\mathbf{j}$, $e^{-2} \le t \le e^2$, at the point $(0, -2)$, where $t = 1$.

T Grapher Explorations

The formula

$$\kappa(x) = \frac{|f''(x)|}{\left[1 + (f'(x))^2\right]^{3/2}},$$

derived in Exercise 5, expresses the curvature $\kappa(x)$ of a twice-differentiable plane curve $y = f(x)$ as a function of x. Find the curvature function of each of the curves in Exercises 23–26. Then graph $f(x)$ together with $\kappa(x)$ over the given interval. You will find some surprises.

23. $y = x^2, \quad -2 \le x \le 2$

24. $y = x^4/4, \quad -2 \le x \le 2$

25. $y = \sin x, \quad 0 \le x \le 2\pi$

26. $y = e^x, \quad -1 \le x \le 2$

COMPUTER EXPLORATIONS

Circles of Curvature

In Exercises 27–34 you will use a CAS to explore the osculating circle at a point P on a plane curve where $\kappa \ne 0$. Use a CAS to perform the following steps:

a. Plot the plane curve given in parametric or function form over the specified interval to see what it looks like.

b. Calculate the curvature κ of the curve at the given value t_0 using the appropriate formula from Exercise 5 or 6. Use the parametrization $x = t$ and $y = f(t)$ if the curve is given as a function $y = f(x)$.

c. Find the unit normal vector $\mathbf{N}$ at t_0. Notice that the signs of the components of $\mathbf{N}$ depend on whether the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}$ is turning clockwise or counterclockwise at $t = t_0$. (See Exercise 7.)

d. If $\mathbf{C} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j}$ is the vector from the origin to the center (a, b) of the osculating circle, find the center $\mathbf{C}$ from the vector equation

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{r}(t_0) + \frac{1}{\kappa(t_0)}\mathbf{N}(t_0).$$

The point $P(x_0, y_0)$ on the curve is given by the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t_0)$.

e. Plot implicitly the equation $(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 = 1/\kappa^2$ of the osculating circle. Then plot the curve and osculating circle together. You may need to experiment with the size of the viewing window, but be sure it is square.

27. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (5\sin t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \le t \le 2\pi, \quad t_0 = \pi/4$

28. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos^3 t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin^3 t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \le t \le 2\pi, \quad t_0 = \pi/4$

29. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + (t^3 - 3t)\mathbf{j}, \quad -4 \le t \le 4, \quad t_0 = 3/5$

30. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^3 - 2t^2 - t)\mathbf{i} + \dfrac{3t}{\sqrt{1 + t^2}}\mathbf{j}, \quad -2 \le t \le 5, \quad t_0 = 1$

31. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2t - \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (2 - 2\cos t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \le t \le 3\pi, \quad t_0 = 3\pi/2$

32. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (e^{-t}\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (e^{-t}\sin t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \le t \le 6\pi, \quad t_0 = \pi/4$

33. $y = x^2 - x, \quad -2 \le x \le 5, \quad x_0 = 1$

34. $y = x(1 - x)^{2/5}, \quad -1 \le x \le 2, \quad x_0 = 1/2$

13.5 Torsion and the Unit Binormal Vector B

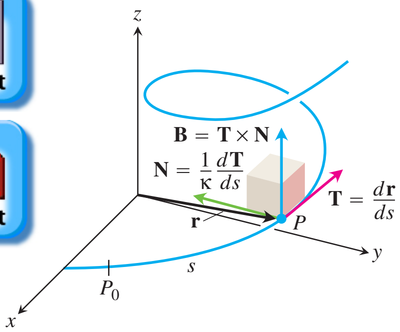


FIGURE 13.25 The **TNB** frame of mutually orthogonal unit vectors traveling along a curve in space.

If you are traveling along a space curve, the Cartesian **i**, **j**, and **k** coordinate system for representing the vectors describing your motion are not truly relevant to you. What is meaningful instead are the vectors representative of your forward direction (the unit tangent vector **T**), the direction in which your path is turning (the unit normal vector **N**), and the tendency of your motion to "twist" out of the plane created by these vectors in the direction perpendicular to this plane (defined by the *unit binormal vector* $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}$). Expressing the acceleration vector along the curve as a linear combination of this **TNB** frame of mutually orthogonal unit vectors traveling with the motion (Figure 13.25) is particularly revealing of the nature of the path and motion along it.

Torsion

The **binormal vector** of a curve in space is $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}$, a unit vector orthogonal to both **T** and **N** (Figure 13.26). Together **T**, **N**, and **B** define a moving right-handed vector frame that plays a significant role in calculating the paths of particles moving through space. It is

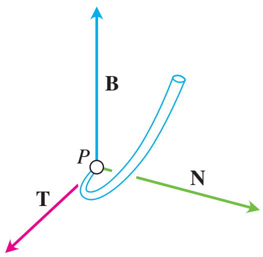


FIGURE 13.26 The vectors **T**, **N**, and **B** (in that order) make a right-handed frame of mutually orthogonal unit vectors in space.

called the **Frenet** ("fre-*nay*") **frame** (after Jean-Frédéric Frenet, 1816–1900), or the **TNB frame**.

How does $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ behave in relation to **T**, **N**, and **B**? From the rule for differentiating a cross product, we have

$$\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} = \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} \times \mathbf{N} + \mathbf{T} \times \frac{d\mathbf{N}}{ds}.$$

Since **N** is the direction of $d\mathbf{T}/ds$, $(d\mathbf{T}/ds) \times \mathbf{N} = \mathbf{0}$ and

$$\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{T} \times \frac{d\mathbf{N}}{ds} = \mathbf{T} \times \frac{d\mathbf{N}}{ds}.$$

From this we see that $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ is orthogonal to **T** since a cross product is orthogonal to its factors.

Since $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ is also orthogonal to **B** (the latter has constant length), it follows that $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ is orthogonal to the plane of **B** and **T**. In other words, $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ is parallel to **N**, so $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ is a scalar multiple of **N**. In symbols,

$$\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} = -\tau\mathbf{N}.$$

The negative sign in this equation is traditional. The scalar τ is called the *torsion* along the curve. Notice that

$$\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} \cdot \mathbf{N} = -\tau\mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{N} = -\tau(1) = -\tau,$$

so that

$$\tau = -\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} \cdot \mathbf{N}.$$

You Try It

DEFINITION Torsion

Let $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}$. The **torsion** function of a smooth curve is

$$\tau = -\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} \cdot \mathbf{N}. \qquad (1)$$

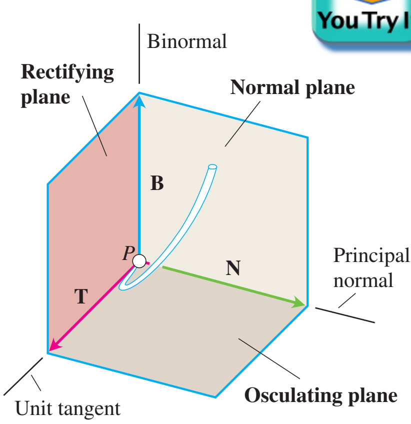


FIGURE 13.27 The names of the three planes determined by **T**, **N**, and **B**.

Unlike the curvature κ, which is never negative, the torsion τ may be positive, negative, or zero.

The three planes determined by **T**, **N**, and **B** are named and shown in Figure 13.27. The curvature $\kappa = |d\mathbf{T}/ds|$ can be thought of as the rate at which the normal plane turns as the point P moves along its path. Similarly, the torsion $\tau = -(d\mathbf{B}/ds) \cdot \mathbf{N}$ is the rate at which the osculating plane turns about **T** as P moves along the curve. Torsion measures how the curve twists.

If we think of the curve as the path of a moving body, then $|d\mathbf{T}/ds|$ tells how much the path turns to the left or right as the object moves along; it is called the *curvature* of the object's path. The number $-(d\mathbf{B}/ds) \cdot \mathbf{N}$ tells how much a body's path rotates or twists out of its plane of motion as the object moves along; it is called the *torsion* of the body's path. Look at Figure 13.28. If P is a train climbing up a curved track, the rate at which the headlight turns from side to side per unit distance is the curvature of the track. The rate at which the engine tends to twist out of the plane formed by **T** and **N** is the torsion.

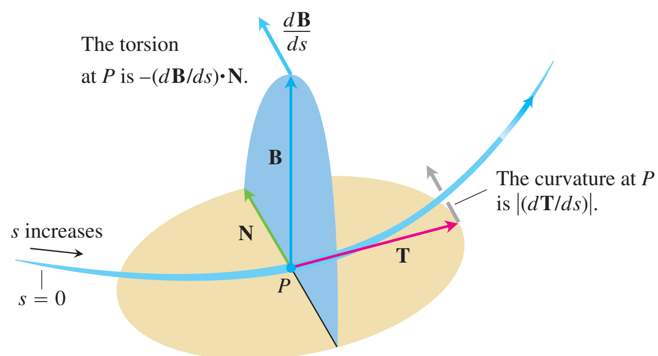


FIGURE 13.28 Every moving body travels with a **TNB** frame that characterizes the geometry of its path of motion.

Tangential and Normal Components of Acceleration

When a body is accelerated by gravity, brakes, a combination of rocket motors, or whatever, we usually want to know how much of the acceleration acts in the direction of motion, in the tangential direction **T**. We can calculate this using the Chain Rule to rewrite **v** as

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{ds}\frac{ds}{dt} = \mathbf{T}\frac{ds}{dt}$$

and differentiating both ends of this string of equalities to get

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a} &= \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}\left(\mathbf{T}\frac{ds}{dt}\right) = \frac{d^2s}{dt^2}\mathbf{T} + \frac{ds}{dt}\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} \\ &= \frac{d^2s}{dt^2}\mathbf{T} + \frac{ds}{dt}\left(\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\frac{ds}{dt}\right) = \frac{d^2s}{dt^2}\mathbf{T} + \frac{ds}{dt}\left(\kappa\mathbf{N}\frac{ds}{dt}\right) \qquad \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = \kappa\mathbf{N} \\ &= \frac{d^2s}{dt^2}\mathbf{T} + \kappa\left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2\mathbf{N}.\end{aligned}$$

DEFINITION Tangential and Normal Components of Acceleration

$$\mathbf{a} = a_{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{T} + a_{\mathrm{N}}\mathbf{N}, \tag{2}$$

where

$$a_{\mathrm{T}} = \frac{d^2s}{dt^2} = \frac{d}{dt}|\mathbf{v}| \quad \text{and} \quad a_{\mathrm{N}} = \kappa\left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 = \kappa|\mathbf{v}|^2 \tag{3}$$

are the **tangential** and **normal** scalar components of acceleration.

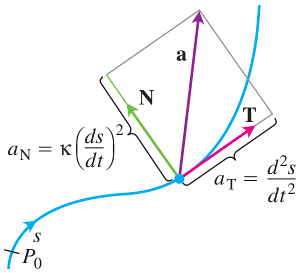


FIGURE 13.29 The tangential and normal components of acceleration. The acceleration **a** always lies in the plane of **T** and **N**, orthogonal to **B**.

Notice that the binormal vector **B** does not appear in Equation (2). No matter how the path of the moving body we are watching may appear to twist and turn in space, the acceleration **a** *always lies in the plane of* **T** and **N** orthogonal to **B**. The equation also tells us exactly how much of the acceleration takes place tangent to the motion (d^2s/dt^2) and how much takes place normal to the motion $[\kappa(ds/dt)^2]$ (Figure 13.29).

What information can we glean from Equations (3)? By definition, acceleration **a** is the rate of change of velocity **v**, and in general, both the length and direction of **v** change as a body moves along its path. The tangential component of acceleration a_T measures the rate of change of the *length* of **v** (that is, the change in the speed). The normal component of acceleration a_N measures the rate of change of the *direction* of **v**.

Notice that the normal scalar component of the acceleration is the curvature times the *square* of the speed. This explains why you have to hold on when your car makes a sharp (large κ), high-speed (large $|\mathbf{v}|$) turn. If you double the speed of your car, you will experience four times the normal component of acceleration for the same curvature.

If a body moves in a circle at a constant speed, d^2s/dt^2 is zero and all the acceleration points along **N** toward the circle's center. If the body is speeding up or slowing down, **a** has a nonzero tangential component (Figure 13.30).

To calculate a_N, we usually use the formula $a_N = \sqrt{|\mathbf{a}|^2 - a_T^2}$, which comes from solving the equation $|\mathbf{a}|^2 = \mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{a} = a_T^2 + a_N^2$ for a_N. With this formula, we can find a_N without having to calculate κ first.

Formula for Calculating the Normal Component of Acceleration

$$a_N = \sqrt{|\mathbf{a}|^2 - a_T^2} \tag{4}$$

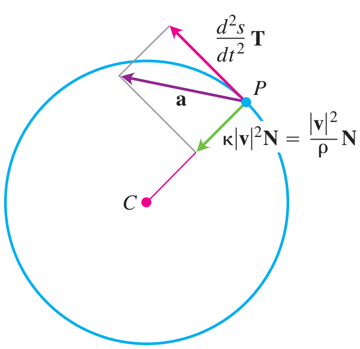


FIGURE 13.30 The tangential and normal components of the acceleration of a body that is speeding up as it moves counterclockwise around a circle of radius ρ.

EXAMPLE 1 Finding the Acceleration Scalar Components a_T, a_N

You Try It

Without finding **T** and **N**, write the acceleration of the motion

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t + t\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t - t\cos t)\mathbf{j}, \qquad t > 0$$

in the form $\mathbf{a} = a_T\mathbf{T} + a_N\mathbf{N}$. (The path of the motion is the involute of the circle in Figure 13.31.)

Solution We use the first of Equations (3) to find a_T:

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = (-\sin t + \sin t + t\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\cos t - \cos t + t\sin t)\mathbf{j}$$
$$= (t\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (t\sin t)\mathbf{j}$$
$$|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{t^2\cos^2 t + t^2\sin^2 t} = \sqrt{t^2} = |t| = t \qquad t > 0$$
$$a_T = \frac{d}{dt}|\mathbf{v}| = \frac{d}{dt}(t) = 1. \qquad \text{Equation (3)}$$

Knowing a_T, we use Equation (4) to find a_N:

$$\mathbf{a} = (\cos t - t\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t + t\cos t)\mathbf{j}$$
$$|\mathbf{a}|^2 = t^2 + 1 \qquad \text{After some algebra}$$
$$a_N = \sqrt{|\mathbf{a}|^2 - a_T^2}$$
$$= \sqrt{(t^2+1) - (1)} = \sqrt{t^2} = t.$$

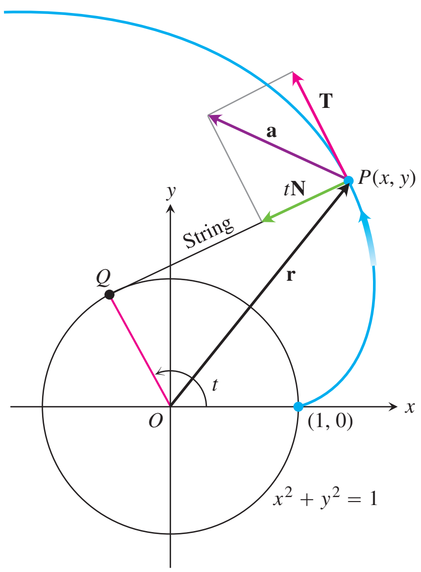


FIGURE 13.31 The tangential and normal components of the acceleration of the motion $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t + t\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t - t\cos t)\mathbf{j}$, for $t > 0$. If a string wound around a fixed circle is unwound while held taut in the plane of the circle, its end P traces an involute of the circle (Example 1).

We then use Equation (2) to find **a**:

$$\mathbf{a} = a_{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{T} + a_{\mathrm{N}}\mathbf{N} = (1)\mathbf{T} + (t)\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{T} + t\mathbf{N}.$$

Formulas for Computing Curvature and Torsion

We now give some easy-to-use formulas for computing the curvature and torsion of a smooth curve. From Equation (2), we have

$$\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a} = \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\mathbf{T}\right) \times \left[\frac{d^2s}{dt^2}\mathbf{T} + \kappa\left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2\mathbf{N}\right] \qquad \mathbf{v} = d\mathbf{r}/dt = (ds/dt)\mathbf{T}$$

$$= \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\frac{d^2s}{dt^2}\right)(\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{T}) + \kappa\left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^3(\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N})$$

$$= \kappa\left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^3\mathbf{B}. \qquad \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{0} \text{ and } \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N} = \mathbf{B}$$

It follows that

$$|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}| = \kappa\left|\frac{ds}{dt}\right|^3|\mathbf{B}| = \kappa|\mathbf{v}|^3. \qquad \frac{ds}{dt} = |\mathbf{v}| \text{ and } |\mathbf{B}| = 1$$

Solving for κ gives the following formula.

Vector Formula for Curvature

$$\kappa = \frac{|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}|}{|\mathbf{v}|^3} \tag{5}$$

Equation (5) calculates the curvature, a geometric property of the curve, from the velocity and acceleration of any vector representation of the curve in which $|\mathbf{v}|$ is different from zero. Take a moment to think about how remarkable this really is: From any formula for motion along a curve, no matter how variable the motion may be (as long as **v** is never zero), we can calculate a physical property of the curve that seems to have nothing to do with the way the curve is traversed.

The most widely used formula for torsion, derived in more advanced texts, is

$$\tau = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} \dot{x} & \dot{y} & \dot{z} \\ \ddot{x} & \ddot{y} & \ddot{z} \\ \dddot{x} & \dddot{y} & \dddot{z} \end{vmatrix}}{|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}|^2} \qquad (\text{if } \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{0}). \tag{6}$$

Newton's Dot Notation for Derivatives

The dots in Equation (6) denote differentiation with respect to t, one derivative for each dot. Thus, $\dot{x}$ ("x dot") means dx/dt, $\ddot{x}$ ("x double dot") means d^2x/dt^2, and $\dddot{x}$ ("x triple dot") means d^3x/dt^3. Similarly, $\dot{y} = dy/dt$, and so on.

This formula calculates the torsion directly from the derivatives of the component functions $x = f(t), y = g(t), z = h(t)$ that make up $\mathbf{r}$. The determinant's first row comes from $\mathbf{v}$, the second row comes from $\mathbf{a}$, and the third row comes from $\dot{\mathbf{a}} = d\mathbf{a}/dt$.

Video

You Try It

EXAMPLE 2 Finding Curvature and Torsion

Use Equations (5) and (6) to find κ and τ for the helix

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (a\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin t)\mathbf{j} + bt\mathbf{k}, \qquad a, b \geq 0, \qquad a^2 + b^2 \neq 0.$$

Solution We calculate the curvature with Equation (5):

$$\mathbf{v} = -(a\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (a\cos t)\mathbf{j} + b\mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{a} = -(a\cos t)\mathbf{i} - (a\sin t)\mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -a\sin t & a\cos t & b \\ -a\cos t & -a\sin t & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (ab\sin t)\mathbf{i} - (ab\cos t)\mathbf{j} + a^2\mathbf{k}$$

$$\kappa = \frac{|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}|}{|\mathbf{v}|^3} = \frac{\sqrt{a^2b^2 + a^4}}{(a^2 + b^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{a\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}{(a^2 + b^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{a}{a^2 + b^2}. \tag{7}$$

Notice that Equation (7) agrees with the result in Example 5 in Section 13.4, where we calculated the curvature directly from its definition.

To evaluate Equation (6) for the torsion, we find the entries in the determinant by differentiating $\mathbf{r}$ with respect to t. We already have $\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{a}$, and

$$\dot{\mathbf{a}} = \frac{d\mathbf{a}}{dt} = (a\sin t)\mathbf{i} - (a\cos t)\mathbf{j}.$$

Hence,

$$\tau = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} \dot{x} & \dot{y} & \dot{z} \\ \ddot{x} & \ddot{y} & \ddot{z} \\ \dddot{x} & \dddot{y} & \dddot{z} \end{vmatrix}}{|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}|^2} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} -a\sin t & a\cos t & b \\ -a\cos t & -a\sin t & 0 \\ a\sin t & -a\cos t & 0 \end{vmatrix}}{\left(a\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}\right)^2}$$

Value of $|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}|$ from Equation (7)

$$= \frac{b(a^2\cos^2 t + a^2\sin^2 t)}{a^2(a^2 + b^2)}$$

$$= \frac{b}{a^2 + b^2}.$$

From this last equation we see that the torsion of a helix about a circular cylinder is constant. In fact, constant curvature and constant torsion characterize the helix among all curves in space. ■

Formulas for Curves in Space

Unit tangent vector: $\mathbf{T} = \dfrac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}$

Principal unit normal vector: $\mathbf{N} = \dfrac{d\mathbf{T}/dt}{|d\mathbf{T}/dt|}$

Binormal vector: $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}$

Curvature: $\kappa = \left|\dfrac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\right| = \dfrac{|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}|}{|\mathbf{v}|^3}$

Torsion: $\tau = -\dfrac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} \cdot \mathbf{N} = \dfrac{\begin{vmatrix} \dot{x} & \dot{y} & \dot{z} \\ \ddot{x} & \ddot{y} & \ddot{z} \\ \dddot{x} & \dddot{y} & \dddot{z} \end{vmatrix}}{|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}|^2}$

Tangential and normal scalar components of acceleration:

$$\mathbf{a} = a_{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{T} + a_{\mathrm{N}}\mathbf{N}$$

$$a_{\mathrm{T}} = \frac{d}{dt}|\mathbf{v}|$$

$$a_{\mathrm{N}} = \kappa|\mathbf{v}|^2 = \sqrt{|\mathbf{a}|^2 - a_{\mathrm{T}}{}^2}$$

EXERCISES 13.5

Finding Torsion and the Binormal Vector

For Exercises 1–8 you found **T**, **N**, and κ in Section 13.4 (Exercises 9–16). Find now **B** and τ for these space curves.

1. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (3\cos t)\mathbf{j} + 4t\mathbf{k}$
2. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t + t\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t - t\cos t)\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$
3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (e^t\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (e^t\sin t)\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$
4. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (6\sin 2t)\mathbf{i} + (6\cos 2t)\mathbf{j} + 5t\mathbf{k}$
5. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^3/3)\mathbf{i} + (t^2/2)\mathbf{j}, \quad t > 0$
6. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos^3 t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin^3 t)\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 < t < \pi/2$
7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + (a\cosh(t/a))\mathbf{j}, \quad a > 0$
8. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cosh t)\mathbf{i} - (\sinh t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$

Tangential and Normal Components of Acceleration

In Exercises 9 and 10, write **a** in the form $a_T\mathbf{T} + a_N\mathbf{N}$ without finding **T** and **N**.

9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (a\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin t)\mathbf{j} + bt\mathbf{k}$
10. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + 3t)\mathbf{i} + (t - 2)\mathbf{j} - 3t\mathbf{k}$

In Exercises 11–14, write **a** in the form $\mathbf{a} = a_T\mathbf{T} + a_N\mathbf{N}$ at the given value of t without finding **T** and **N**.

11. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t + 1)\mathbf{i} + 2t\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 1$
12. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (t\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 0$
13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + (t + (1/3)t^3)\mathbf{j} + (t - (1/3)t^3)\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 0$
14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (e^t\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (e^t\sin t)\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{2}e^t\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 0$

In Exercises 15 and 16, find **r**, **T**, **N**, and **B** at the given value of t. Then find equations for the osculating, normal, and rectifying planes at that value of t.

15. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}, \quad t = \pi/4$
16. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 0$

Physical Applications

17. The speedometer on your car reads a steady 35 mph. Could you be accelerating? Explain.
18. Can anything be said about the acceleration of a particle that is moving at a constant speed? Give reasons for your answer.
19. Can anything be said about the speed of a particle whose acceleration is always orthogonal to its velocity? Give reasons for your answer.

20. An object of mass m travels along the parabola $y = x^2$ with a constant speed of 10 units/sec. What is the force on the object due to its acceleration at (0, 0)? at $(2^{1/2}, 2)$? Write your answers in terms of $\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{j}$. (Remember Newton's law, $\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$.)

21. The following is a quotation from an article in *The American Mathematical Monthly*, titled "Curvature in the Eighties" by Robert Osserman (October 1990, page 731):

> Curvature also plays a key role in physics. The magnitude of a force required to move an object at constant speed along a curved path is, according to Newton's laws, a constant multiple of the curvature of the trajectories.

Explain mathematically why the second sentence of the quotation is true.

22. Show that a moving particle will move in a straight line if the normal component of its acceleration is zero.

23. A sometime shortcut to curvature If you already know $|a_N|$ and $|\mathbf{v}|$, then the formula $a_N = \kappa|\mathbf{v}|^2$ gives a convenient way to find the curvature. Use it to find the curvature and radius of curvature of the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t + t\sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t - t\cos t)\mathbf{j}, \quad t > 0.$$

(Take a_N and $|\mathbf{v}|$ from Example 1.)

24. Show that κ and τ are both zero for the line

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (x_0 + At)\mathbf{i} + (y_0 + Bt)\mathbf{j} + (z_0 + Ct)\mathbf{k}.$$

Theory and Examples

25. What can be said about the torsion of a smooth plane curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j}$? Give reasons for your answer.

26. The torsion of a helix In Example 2, we found the torsion of the helix

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (a\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin t)\mathbf{j} + bt\mathbf{k}, \quad a, b \geq 0$$

to be $\tau = b/(a^2 + b^2)$. What is the largest value τ can have for a given value of a? Give reasons for your answer.

27. Differentiable curves with zero torsion lie in planes That a sufficiently differentiable curve with zero torsion lies in a plane is a special case of the fact that a particle whose velocity remains perpendicular to a fixed vector $\mathbf{C}$ moves in a plane perpendicular to $\mathbf{C}$. This, in turn, can be viewed as the solution of the following problem in calculus.

Suppose $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ is twice differentiable for all t in an interval $[a, b]$, that $\mathbf{r} = 0$ when $t = a$, and that $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{k} = 0$ for all t in $[a, b]$. Then $h(t) = 0$ for all t in $[a, b]$.

Solve this problem. (*Hint:* Start with $\mathbf{a} = d^2\mathbf{r}/dt^2$ and apply the initial conditions in reverse order.)

28. A formula that calculates τ from B and v If we start with the definition $\tau = -(d\mathbf{B}/ds)\cdot\mathbf{N}$ and apply the Chain Rule to rewrite $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ as

$$\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} = \frac{d\mathbf{B}}{dt}\frac{dt}{ds} = \frac{d\mathbf{B}}{dt}\frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|},$$

we arrive at the formula

$$\tau = -\frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|}\left(\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{dt}\cdot\mathbf{N}\right).$$

The advantage of this formula over Equation (6) is that it is easier to derive and state. The disadvantage is that it can take a lot of work to evaluate without a computer. Use the new formula to find the torsion of the helix in Example 2.

COMPUTER EXPLORATIONS

Curvature, Torsion, and the TNB Frame

Rounding the answers to four decimal places, use a CAS to find $\mathbf{v}$, $\mathbf{a}$, speed, $\mathbf{T}$, $\mathbf{N}$, $\mathbf{B}$, κ, τ, and the tangential and normal components of acceleration for the curves in Exercises 29–32 at the given values of t.

29. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (t\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \quad t = \sqrt{3}$

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

31. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t - \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (1 - \cos t)\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{-t}\,\mathbf{k}, \quad t = -3\pi$

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

13.6 Planetary Motion and Satellites

In this section, we derive Kepler's laws of planetary motion from Newton's laws of motion and gravitation and discuss the orbits of Earth satellites. The derivation of Kepler's laws from Newton's is one of the triumphs of calculus. It draws on almost everything we have studied so far, including the algebra and geometry of vectors in space, the calculus of vector functions, the solutions of differential equations and initial value problems, and the polar coordinate description of conic sections.

Motion in Polar and Cylindrical Coordinates

When a particle moves along a curve in the polar coordinate plane, we express its position, velocity, and acceleration in terms of the moving unit vectors

$$\mathbf{u}_r = (\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (\sin\theta)\mathbf{j}, \qquad \mathbf{u}_\theta = -(\sin\theta)\mathbf{i} + (\cos\theta)\mathbf{j}, \tag{1}$$

shown in Figure 13.32. The vector $\mathbf{u}_r$ points along the position vector $\overrightarrow{OP}$, so $\mathbf{r} = r\mathbf{u}_r$. The vector $\mathbf{u}_\theta$, orthogonal to $\mathbf{u}_r$, points in the direction of increasing θ.

We find from Equations (1) that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\mathbf{u}_r}{d\theta} &= -(\sin\theta)\mathbf{i} + (\cos\theta)\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{u}_\theta \\ \frac{d\mathbf{u}_\theta}{d\theta} &= -(\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} - (\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} = -\mathbf{u}_r. \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

When we differentiate $\mathbf{u}_r$ and $\mathbf{u}_\theta$ with respect to t to find how they change with time, the Chain Rule gives

$$\dot{\mathbf{u}}_r = \frac{d\mathbf{u}_r}{d\theta}\dot{\theta} = \dot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_\theta, \qquad \dot{\mathbf{u}}_\theta = \frac{d\mathbf{u}_\theta}{d\theta}\dot{\theta} = -\dot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_r. \tag{3}$$

Hence,

$$\mathbf{v} = \dot{\mathbf{r}} = \frac{d}{dt}\left(r\mathbf{u}_r\right) = \dot{r}\mathbf{u}_r + r\dot{\mathbf{u}}_r = \dot{r}\mathbf{u}_r + r\dot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_\theta. \tag{4}$$

See Figure 13.33. As in the previous section, we use Newton's dot notation for time derivatives to keep the formulas as simple as we can: $\dot{\mathbf{u}}_r$ means $d\mathbf{u}_r/dt$, $\dot{\theta}$ means $d\theta/dt$, and so on.

The acceleration is

$$\mathbf{a} = \dot{\mathbf{v}} = (\ddot{r}\mathbf{u}_r + \dot{r}\dot{\mathbf{u}}_r) + (\dot{r}\dot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_\theta + r\ddot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_\theta + r\dot{\theta}\dot{\mathbf{u}}_\theta). \tag{5}$$

When Equations (3) are used to evaluate $\dot{\mathbf{u}}_r$ and $\dot{\mathbf{u}}_\theta$ and the components are separated, the equation for acceleration becomes

$$\mathbf{a} = (\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2)\mathbf{u}_r + (r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta})\mathbf{u}_\theta. \tag{6}$$

To extend these equations of motion to space, we add $z\mathbf{k}$ to the right-hand side of the equation $\mathbf{r} = r\mathbf{u}_r$. Then, in these *cylindrical coordinates*,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r} &= r\mathbf{u}_r + z\mathbf{k} \\ \mathbf{v} &= \dot{r}\mathbf{u}_r + r\dot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_\theta + \dot{z}\mathbf{k} \\ \mathbf{a} &= (\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2)\mathbf{u}_r + (r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta})\mathbf{u}_\theta + \ddot{z}\mathbf{k}. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

The vectors $\mathbf{u}_r$, $\mathbf{u}_\theta$, and $\mathbf{k}$ make a right-handed frame (Figure 13.34) in which

$$\mathbf{u}_r \times \mathbf{u}_\theta = \mathbf{k}, \qquad \mathbf{u}_\theta \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{u}_r, \qquad \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{u}_r = \mathbf{u}_\theta. \tag{8}$$

Planets Move in Planes

Newton's law of gravitation says that if $\mathbf{r}$ 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 $\mathbf{F}$ of the gravitational attraction between the planet and sun is

$$\mathbf{F} = -\frac{GmM}{|\mathbf{r}|^2}\frac{\mathbf{r}}{|\mathbf{r}|} \tag{9}$$

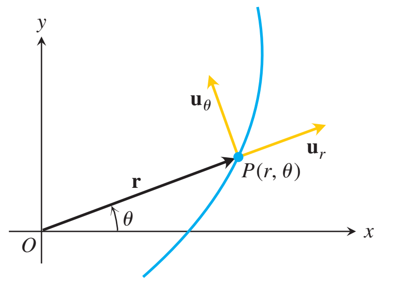


FIGURE 13.32 The length of $\mathbf{r}$ is the positive polar coordinate r of the point P. Thus, $\mathbf{u}_r$, which is $\mathbf{r}/|\mathbf{r}|$, is also $\mathbf{r}/r$. Equations (1) express $\mathbf{u}_r$ and $\mathbf{u}_\theta$ in terms of $\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{j}$.

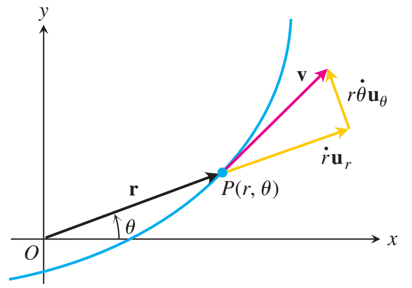


FIGURE 13.33 In polar coordinates, the velocity vector is

$$\mathbf{v} = \dot{r}\,\mathbf{u}_r + r\dot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_\theta$$

Notice that $|\mathbf{r}| \neq r$ if $z \neq 0$.

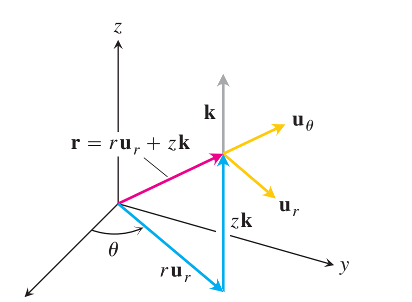


FIGURE 13.34 Position vector and basic unit vectors in cylindrical coordinates.

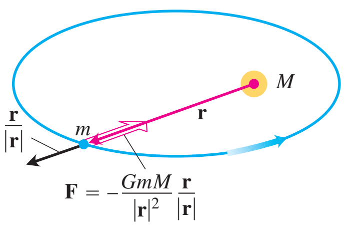


FIGURE 13.35 The force of gravity is directed along the line joining the centers of mass.

(Figure 13.35). The number G is the **universal gravitational constant**. If we measure mass in kilograms, force in newtons, and distance in meters, G is about $6.6726 \times 10^{-11}\ \mathrm{Nm^2\,kg^{-2}}$.

Combining Equation (9) with Newton's second law, $\mathbf{F} = m\ddot{\mathbf{r}}$, for the force acting on the planet gives

$$m\ddot{\mathbf{r}} = -\frac{GmM}{|\mathbf{r}|^2}\frac{\mathbf{r}}{|\mathbf{r}|},$$

$$\ddot{\mathbf{r}} = -\frac{GM}{|\mathbf{r}|^2}\frac{\mathbf{r}}{|\mathbf{r}|}. \tag{10}$$

The planet is accelerated toward the sun's center at all times.

Equation (10) says that $\ddot{\mathbf{r}}$ is a scalar multiple of $\mathbf{r}$, so that

$$\mathbf{r} \times \ddot{\mathbf{r}} = \mathbf{0}. \tag{11}$$

A routine calculation shows $\mathbf{r} \times \ddot{\mathbf{r}}$ to be the derivative of $\mathbf{r} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}}$:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{r} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}}) = \underbrace{\dot{\mathbf{r}} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}}}_{\mathbf{0}} + \mathbf{r} \times \ddot{\mathbf{r}} = \mathbf{r} \times \ddot{\mathbf{r}}. \tag{12}$$

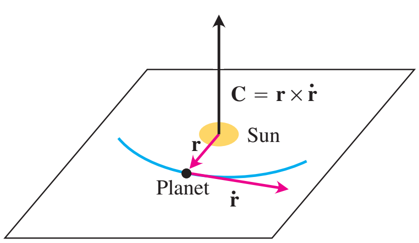


FIGURE 13.36 A planet that obeys Newton's laws of gravitation and motion travels in the plane through the sun's center of mass perpendicular to $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{r} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}}$.

Hence Equation (11) is equivalent to

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{r} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}}) = \mathbf{0}, \tag{13}$$

which integrates to

$$\mathbf{r} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}} = \mathbf{C} \tag{14}$$

for some constant vector $\mathbf{C}$.

Equation (14) tells us that $\mathbf{r}$ and $\dot{\mathbf{r}}$ always lie in a plane perpendicular to $\mathbf{C}$. Hence, the planet moves in a fixed plane through the center of its sun (Figure 13.36).

Coordinates and Initial Conditions

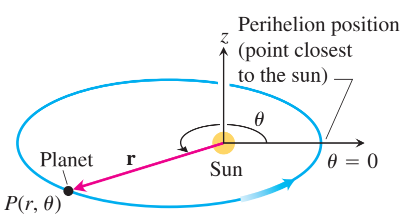


FIGURE 13.37 The coordinate system for planetary motion. The motion is counterclockwise when viewed from above, as it is here, and $\dot{\theta} > 0$.

We now introduce coordinates in a way that places the origin at the sun's center of mass and makes the plane of the planet's motion the polar coordinate plane. This makes $\mathbf{r}$ the planet's polar coordinate position vector and makes $|\mathbf{r}|$ equal to r and $\mathbf{r}/|\mathbf{r}|$ equal to $\mathbf{u}_r$. We also position the z-axis in a way that makes $\mathbf{k}$ the direction of $\mathbf{C}$. Thus, $\mathbf{k}$ has the same right-hand relation to $\mathbf{r} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}}$ that $\mathbf{C}$ does, and the planet's motion is counterclockwise when viewed from the positive z-axis. This makes θ increase with t, so that $\dot{\theta} > 0$ for all t. Finally, we rotate the polar coordinate plane about the z-axis, if necessary, to make the initial ray coincide with the direction $\mathbf{r}$ has when the planet is closest to the sun. This runs the ray through the planet's **perihelion** position (Figure 13.37).

If we measure time so that $t = 0$ at perihelion, we have the following initial conditions for the planet's motion.

1. $r = r_0$, the minimum radius, when $t = 0$
2. $\dot{r} = 0$ when $t = 0$ (because r has a minimum value then)
3. $\theta = 0$ when $t = 0$
4. $|\mathbf{v}| = v_0$ when $t = 0$

Since

$$\begin{aligned}
v_0 &= |\mathbf{v}|_{t=0} \\
&= |\dot{r}\mathbf{u}_r + r\dot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_\theta|_{t=0} && \text{Equation (4)} \\
&= |r\dot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_\theta|_{t=0} && \dot{r} = 0 \text{ when } t = 0 \\
&= (|r\dot{\theta}||\mathbf{u}_\theta|)_{t=0} \\
&= |r\dot{\theta}|_{t=0} && |\mathbf{u}_\theta| = 1 \\
&= (r\dot{\theta})_{t=0}, && r \text{ and } \dot{\theta} \text{ both positive}
\end{aligned}$$

we also know that

5. $r\dot{\theta} = v_0$ when $t = 0$.

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY

Johannes Kepler
(1571–1630)

Biography

Kepler's First Law (The Conic Section Law)

Kepler's first law says that a planet's path is a conic section with the sun at one focus. The eccentricity of the conic is

$$e = \frac{r_0 v_0^2}{GM} - 1 \tag{15}$$

and the polar equation is

$$r = \frac{(1 + e)r_0}{1 + e\cos\theta}. \tag{16}$$

The derivation uses Kepler's second law, so we will state and prove the second law before proving the first law.

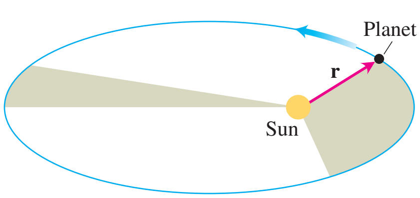


FIGURE 13.38 The line joining a planet to its sun sweeps over equal areas in equal times.

Kepler's Second Law (The Equal Area Law)

Kepler's second law says that the radius vector from the sun to a planet (the vector $\mathbf{r}$ in our model) sweeps out equal areas in equal times (Figure 13.38). To derive the law, we use Equation (4) to evaluate the cross product $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{r} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}}$ from Equation (14):

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{C} &= \mathbf{r} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v} \\
&= r\mathbf{u}_r \times (\dot{r}\mathbf{u}_r + r\dot{\theta}\mathbf{u}_\theta) && \text{Equation (4)} \\
&= r\dot{r}\underbrace{(\mathbf{u}_r \times \mathbf{u}_r)}_{\mathbf{0}} + r(r\dot{\theta})\underbrace{(\mathbf{u}_r \times \mathbf{u}_\theta)}_{\mathbf{k}} \\
&= r(r\dot{\theta})\mathbf{k}.
\end{aligned} \tag{17}$$

Setting t equal to zero shows that

$$\mathbf{C} = [r(r\dot{\theta})]_{t=0}\,\mathbf{k} = r_0 v_0 \mathbf{k}. \tag{18}$$

Substituting this value for $\mathbf{C}$ in Equation (17) gives

$$r_0 v_0 \mathbf{k} = r^2\dot{\theta}\mathbf{k}, \qquad \text{or} \qquad r^2\dot{\theta} = r_0 v_0. \tag{19}$$

This is where the area comes in. The area differential in polar coordinates is

$$dA = \frac{1}{2} r^2\, d\theta$$

(Section 10.7). Accordingly, dA/dt has the constant value

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2}r^2\dot{\theta} = \frac{1}{2}r_0 v_0. \tag{20}$$

So dA/dt is constant, giving Kepler's second law.

For Earth, r_0 is about 150,000,000 km, v_0 is about 30 km/sec, and dA/dt is about 2,250,000,000 km^2/sec. Every time your heart beats, Earth advances 30 km along its orbit, and the radius joining Earth to the sun sweeps out 2,250,000,000 km^2 of area.

Proof of Kepler's First Law

To prove that a planet moves along a conic section with one focus at its sun, we need to express the planet's radius r as a function of θ. This requires a long sequence of calculations and some substitutions that are not altogether obvious.

We begin with the equation that comes from equating the coefficients of $\mathbf{u}_r = \mathbf{r}/|\mathbf{r}|$ in Equations (6) and (10):

$$\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2 = -\frac{GM}{r^2}. \tag{21}$$

We eliminate $\dot{\theta}$ temporarily by replacing it with $r_0 v_0/r^2$ from Equation (19) and rearrange the resulting equation to get

$$\ddot{r} = \frac{r_0^2 v_0^2}{r^3} - \frac{GM}{r^2}. \tag{22}$$

We change this into a first-order equation by a change of variable. With

$$p = \frac{dr}{dt}, \qquad \frac{d^2r}{dt^2} = \frac{dp}{dt} = \frac{dp}{dr}\frac{dr}{dt} = p\frac{dp}{dr}, \qquad \text{Chain Rule}$$

Equation (22) becomes

$$p\frac{dp}{dr} = \frac{r_0^2 v_0^2}{r^3} - \frac{GM}{r^2}. \tag{23}$$

Multiplying through by 2 and integrating with respect to r gives

$$p^2 = (\dot{r})^2 = -\frac{r_0^2 v_0^2}{r^2} + \frac{2GM}{r} + C_1. \tag{24}$$

The initial conditions that $r = r_0$ and $\dot{r} = 0$ when $t = 0$ determine the value of C_1 to be

$$C_1 = v_0^2 - \frac{2GM}{r_0}.$$

Accordingly, Equation (24), after a suitable rearrangement, becomes

$$\dot{r}^2 = v_0^2\left(1 - \frac{r_0^2}{r^2}\right) + 2GM\left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{r_0}\right). \tag{25}$$

The effect of going from Equation (21) to Equation (25) has been to replace a second-order differential equation in r by a first-order differential equation in r. Our goal is still to express r in terms of θ, so we now bring θ back into the picture. To accomplish this, we divide both sides of Equation (25) by the squares of the corresponding sides of the equation $r^2\dot{\theta} = r_0 v_0$ (Equation 19) and use the fact that $\dot{r}/\dot{\theta} = (dr/dt)/(d\theta/dt) = dr/d\theta$ to get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{r^4}\left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2 &= \frac{1}{r_0{}^2} - \frac{1}{r^2} + \frac{2GM}{r_0{}^2 v_0{}^2}\left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{r_0}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{r_0{}^2} - \frac{1}{r^2} + 2h\left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{r_0}\right). \qquad h = \frac{GM}{r_0{}^2 v_0{}^2} \end{aligned} \tag{26}$$

To simplify further, we substitute

$$u = \frac{1}{r}, \qquad u_0 = \frac{1}{r_0}, \qquad \frac{du}{d\theta} = -\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{dr}{d\theta}, \qquad \left(\frac{du}{d\theta}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{r^4}\left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2,$$

obtaining

$$\left(\frac{du}{d\theta}\right)^2 = u_0{}^2 - u^2 + 2hu - 2hu_0 = (u_0 - h)^2 - (u - h)^2, \tag{27}$$

$$\frac{du}{d\theta} = \pm\sqrt{(u_0 - h)^2 - (u - h)^2}. \tag{28}$$

Which sign do we take? We know that $\dot{\theta} = r_0 v_0 / r^2$ is positive. Also, r starts from a minimum value at $t = 0$, so it cannot immediately decrease, and $\dot{r} \geq 0$, at least for early positive values of t. Therefore,

$$\frac{dr}{d\theta} = \frac{\dot{r}}{\dot{\theta}} \geq 0 \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{du}{d\theta} = -\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{dr}{d\theta} \leq 0.$$

The correct sign for Equation (28) is the negative sign. With this determined, we rearrange Equation (28) and integrate both sides with respect to θ:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{-1}{\sqrt{(u_0 - h)^2 - (u - h)^2}}\frac{du}{d\theta} &= 1 \\ \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{u - h}{u_0 - h}\right) &= \theta + C_2. \end{aligned} \tag{29}$$

The constant C_2 is zero because $u = u_0$ when $\theta = 0$ and $\cos^{-1}(1) = 0$. Therefore,

$$\frac{u - h}{u_0 - h} = \cos\theta$$

and

$$\frac{1}{r} = u = h + (u_0 - h)\cos\theta. \tag{30}$$

A few more algebraic maneuvers produce the final equation

$$r = \frac{(1 + e)r_0}{1 + e\cos\theta}, \tag{31}$$

where

$$e = \frac{1}{r_0 h} - 1 = \frac{r_0 v_0{}^2}{GM} - 1. \tag{32}$$

Together, Equations (31) and (32) say that the path of the planet is a conic section with one focus at the sun and with eccentricity $(r_0 v_0^2/GM) - 1$. This is the modern formulation of Kepler's first law.

Kepler's Third Law (The Time–Distance Law)

You Try It

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 T and the orbit's semimajor axis a are related by the equation

$$\frac{T^2}{a^3} = \frac{4\pi^2}{GM}. \tag{33}$$

Since the right-hand side of this equation is constant within a given solar system, the ratio of T^2 to a^3 *is the same for every planet in the system*.

Kepler's third law is the starting point for working out the size of our solar system. It allows the semimajor axis of each planetary orbit to be expressed in astronomical units, Earth's semimajor axis being one unit. The distance between any two planets at any time can then be predicted in astronomical units and all that remains is to find one of these distances in kilometers. This can be done by bouncing radar waves off Venus, for example. The astronomical unit is now known, after a series of such measurements, to be 149,597,870 km.

We derive Kepler's third law by combining two formulas for the area enclosed by the planet's elliptical orbit:

Formula 1: $\quad \text{Area} = \pi ab$ $\qquad$ The geometry formula in which a is the semimajor axis and b is the semiminor axis

Formula 2:
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area} &= \int_0^T dA \\ &= \int_0^T \frac{1}{2} r_0 v_0 \, dt \qquad \text{Equation (20)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} T r_0 v_0. \end{aligned}$$

Equating these gives

$$T = \frac{2\pi ab}{r_0 v_0} = \frac{2\pi a^2}{r_0 v_0}\sqrt{1 - e^2}. \qquad \text{For any ellipse, } b = a\sqrt{1-e^2} \tag{34}$$

It remains only to express a and e in terms of r_0, v_0, G, and M. Equation (32) does this for e. For a, we observe that setting θ equal to π in Equation (31) gives

$$r_{\max} = r_0 \frac{1 + e}{1 - e}.$$

Hence,

$$2a = r_0 + r_{\max} = \frac{2r_0}{1 - e} = \frac{2r_0 GM}{2GM - r_0 v_0^2}. \tag{35}$$

Squaring both sides of Equation (34) and substituting the results of Equations (32) and (35) now produces Kepler's third law (Exercise 15).

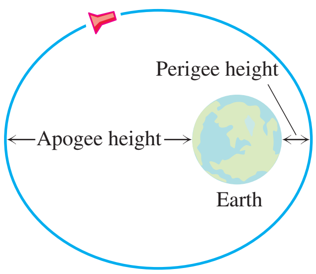


FIGURE 13.39 The orbit of an Earth satellite: $2a$ = diameter of Earth + perigee height + apogee height.

Orbit Data

Although Kepler discovered his laws empirically and stated them only for the six planets known at the time, the modern derivations of Kepler's laws show that they apply to any body driven by a force that obeys an inverse square law like Equation (9). They apply to Halley's comet and the asteroid Icarus. They apply to the moon's orbit about Earth, and they applied to the orbit of the spacecraft *Apollo 8* about the moon.

Tables 13.1 through 13.3 give additional data for planetary orbits and for the orbits of seven of Earth's artificial satellites (Figure 13.39). *Vanguard 1* sent back data that revealed differences between the levels of Earth's oceans and provided the first determination of the precise locations of some of the more isolated Pacific islands. The data also verified that the gravitation of the sun and moon would affect the orbits of Earth's satellites and that solar radiation could exert enough pressure to deform an orbit.

TABLE 13.1 Values of a, e, and T for the major planets

Planet	Semimajor axis a^*	Eccentricity e	Period T
Mercury	57.95	0.2056	87.967 days
Venus	108.11	0.0068	224.701 days
Earth	149.57	0.0167	365.256 days
Mars	227.84	0.0934	1.8808 years
Jupiter	778.14	0.0484	11.8613 years
Saturn	1427.0	0.0543	29.4568 years
Uranus	2870.3	0.0460	84.0081 years
Neptune	4499.9	0.0082	164.784 years
Pluto	5909	0.2481	248.35 years

*Millions of kilometers.

TABLE 13.2 Data on Earth's satellites

Name	Launch date	Time or expected time aloft	Mass at launch (kg)	Period (min)	Perigee height (km)	Apogee height (km)	Semimajor axis a (km)	Eccentricity
Sputnik 1	Oct. 1957	57.6 days	83.6	96.2	215	939	6955	0.052
Vanguard 1	Mar. 1958	300 years	1.47	138.5	649	4340	8872	0.208
Syncom 3	Aug. 1964	$>10^6$ years	39	1436.2	35,718	35,903	42,189	0.002
Skylab 4	Nov. 1973	84.06 days	13,980	93.11	422	437	6808	0.001
Tiros II	Oct. 1978	500 years	734	102.12	850	866	7236	0.001
GOES 4	Sept. 1980	$>10^6$ years	627	1436.2	35,776	35,800	42,166	0.0003
Intelsat 5	Dec. 1980	$>10^6$ years	1928	1417.67	35,143	35,707	41,803	0.007

TABLE 13.3 Numerical data

Universal gravitational constant:	$G = 6.6726 \times 10^{-11}\ \mathrm{Nm^2\ kg^{-2}}$
Sun's mass:	1.99×10^{30} kg
Earth's mass:	5.975×10^{24} kg
Equatorial radius of Earth:	6378.533 km
Polar radius of Earth:	6356.912 km
Earth's rotational period:	1436.1 min
Earth's orbital period:	1 year = 365.256 days

Syncom 3 is one of a series of U.S. Department of Defense telecommunications satellites. *Tiros II* (for "television infrared observation satellite") is one of a series of weather satellites. *GOES 4* (for "geostationary operational environmental satellite") is one of a series of satellites designed to gather information about Earth's atmosphere. Its orbital period, 1436.2 min, is nearly the same as Earth's rotational period of 1436.1 min, and its orbit is nearly circular ($e = 0.0003$). *Intelsat 5* is a heavy-capacity commercial telecommunications satellite.

EXERCISES 13.6

Reminder: When a calculation involves the gravitational constant G, express force in newtons, distance in meters, mass in kilograms, and time in seconds.

1. **Period of *Skylab 4*** Since the orbit of *Skylab 4* had a semimajor axis of $a = 6808$ km, Kepler's third law with M equal to Earth's mass should give the period. Calculate it. Compare your result with the value in Table 13.2.

2. **Earth's velocity at perihelion** Earth's distance from the sun at perihelion is approximately 149,577,000 km, and the eccentricity of Earth's orbit about the sun is 0.0167. Find the velocity v_0 of Earth in its orbit at perihelion. (Use Equation (15).)

3. **Semimajor axis of *Proton I*** In July 1965, the USSR launched *Proton I*, weighing 12,200 kg (at launch), with a perigee height of 183 km, an apogee height of 589 km, and a period of 92.25 min. Using the relevant data for the mass of Earth and the gravitational constant G, find the semimajor axis a of the orbit from Equation (3). Compare your answer with the number you get by adding the perigee and apogee heights to the diameter of the Earth.

4. **Semimajor axis of *Viking I*** The *Viking I* orbiter, which surveyed Mars from August 1975 to June 1976, had a period of 1639 min. Use this and the mass of Mars, 6.418×10^{23} kg, to find the semimajor axis of the *Viking I* orbit.

5. **Average diameter of Mars** (*Continuation of Exercise 4*.) The *Viking I* orbiter was 1499 km from the surface of Mars at its closest point and 35,800 km from the surface at its farthest point. Use this information together with the value you obtained in Exercise 4 to estimate the average diameter of Mars.

6. **Period of *Viking 2*** The *Viking 2* orbiter, which surveyed Mars from September 1975 to August 1976, moved in an ellipse whose semimajor axis was 22,030 km. What was the orbital period? (Express your answer in minutes.)

7. **Geosynchronous orbits** Several satellites in Earth's equatorial plane have nearly circular orbits whose periods are the same as Earth's rotational period. Such orbits are *geosynchronous* or *geostationary* because they hold the satellite over the same spot on the Earth's surface.

   a. Approximately what is the semimajor axis of a geosynchronous orbit? Give reasons for your answer.

   b. About how high is a geosynchronous orbit above Earth's surface?

   c. Which of the satellites in Table 13.2 have (nearly) geosynchronous orbits?

8. The mass of Mars is 6.418×10^{23} kg. If a satellite revolving about Mars is to hold a stationary orbit (have the same period as

the period of Mars's rotation, which is 1477.4 min), what must the semimajor axis of its orbit be? Give reasons for your answer.

9. Distance from Earth to the moon The period of the moon's rotation about Earth is 2.36055×10^6 sec. About how far away is the moon?

10. Finding satellite speed A satellite moves around Earth in a circular orbit. Express the satellite's speed as a function of the orbit's radius.

11. Orbital period If T is measured in seconds and a in meters, what is the value of T^2/a^3 for planets in our solar system? For satellites orbiting Earth? For satellites orbiting the moon? (The moon's mass is 7.354×10^{22} kg.)

12. Type of orbit For what values of v_0 in Equation (15) is the orbit in Equation (16) a circle? An ellipse? A parabola? A hyperbola?

13. Circular orbits Show that a planet in a circular orbit moves with a constant speed. (*Hint:* This is a consequence of one of Kepler's laws.)

14. Suppose that $\mathbf{r}$ is the position vector of a particle moving along a plane curve and dA/dt is the rate at which the vector sweeps out area. Without introducing coordinates, and assuming the necessary derivatives exist, give a geometric argument based on increments and limits for the validity of the equation

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{r} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}}|.$$

15. Kepler's third law Complete the derivation of Kepler's third law (the part following Equation (34)).

In Exercises 16 and 17, two planets, planet A and planet B, are orbiting their sun in circular orbits with A being the inner planet and B being farther away from the sun. Suppose the positions of A and B at time t are

$$\mathbf{r}_A(t) = 2\cos(2\pi t)\mathbf{i} + 2\sin(2\pi t)\mathbf{j}$$

and

$$\mathbf{r}_B(t) = 3\cos(\pi t)\mathbf{i} + 3\sin(\pi t)\mathbf{j},$$

respectively, where the sun is assumed to be located at the origin and distance is measured in astronomical units. (Notice that planet A moves faster than planet B.)

The people on planet A regard their planet, not the sun, as the center of their planetary system (their solar system).

16. Using planet A as the origin of a new coordinate system, give parametric equations for the location of planet B at time t. Write your answer in terms of $\cos(\pi t)$ and $\sin(\pi t)$.

T **17.** Using planet A as the origin, graph the path of planet B.

This exercise illustrates the difficulty that people before Kepler's time, with an earth-centered (planet A) view of our solar system, had in understanding the motions of the planets (i.e., planet B = Mars). See D. G. Saari's article in the *American Mathematical Monthly*, Vol. 97 (Feb. 1990), pp. 105–119.

18. Kepler discovered that the path of Earth around the sun is an ellipse with the sun at one of the foci. Let $\mathbf{r}(t)$ be the position vector from the center of the sun to the center of Earth at time t. Let $\mathbf{w}$ be the vector from Earth's South Pole to North Pole. It is known that $\mathbf{w}$ is constant and not orthogonal to the plane of the ellipse (Earth's axis is tilted). In terms of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and $\mathbf{w}$, give the mathematical meaning of (i) perihelion, (ii) aphelion, (iii) equinox, (iv) summer solstice, (v) winter solstice.

Chapter 13 Additional and Advanced Exercises

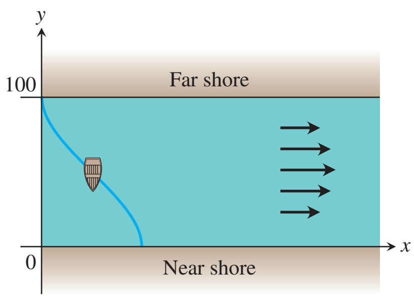
Applications

1. A straight river is 100 m wide. A rowboat leaves the far shore at time $t = 0$. The person in the boat rows at a rate of 20 m/min, always toward the near shore. The velocity of the river at (x, y) is

$$\mathbf{v} = \left(-\frac{1}{250}(y-50)^2 + 10\right)\mathbf{i} \text{ m/min}, \quad 0 < y < 100.$$

   a. Given that $\mathbf{r}(0) = 0\mathbf{i} + 100\mathbf{j}$, what is the position of the boat at time t?

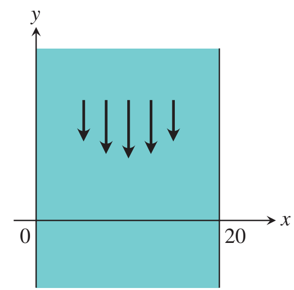
   b. How far downstream will the boat land on the near shore?



2. A straight river is 20 m wide. The velocity of the river at (x, y) is

$$\mathbf{v} = -\frac{3x(20-x)}{100}\mathbf{j} \text{ m/min}, \quad 0 \le x \le 20.$$

A boat leaves the shore at (0, 0) and travels through the water with a constant velocity. It arrives at the opposite shore at (20, 0). The speed of the boat is always $\sqrt{20}$ m/min.



   a. Find the velocity of the boat.

   b. Find the location of the boat at time t.

   c. Sketch the path of the boat.

3. A frictionless particle P, starting from rest at time $t = 0$ at the point $(a, 0, 0)$, slides down the helix

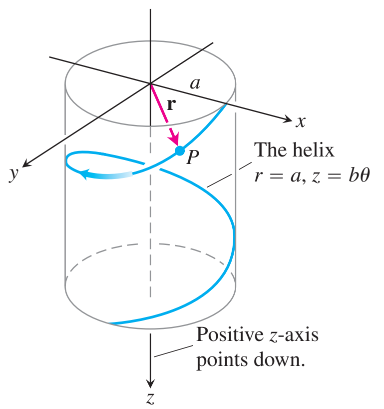
$$\mathbf{r}(\theta) = (a\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (a\sin\theta)\mathbf{j} + b\theta\mathbf{k} \quad (a, b > 0)$$

under the influence of gravity, as in the accompanying figure. The θ in this equation is the cylindrical coordinate θ and the helix is the curve $r = a, z = b\theta, \theta \geq 0$, in cylindrical coordinates. We assume θ to be a differentiable function of t for the motion. The law of conservation of energy tells us that the particle's speed after it has fallen straight down a distance z is $\sqrt{2gz}$, where g is the constant acceleration of gravity.

a. Find the angular velocity $d\theta/dt$ when $\theta = 2\pi$.

b. Express the particle's θ- and z-coordinates as functions of t.

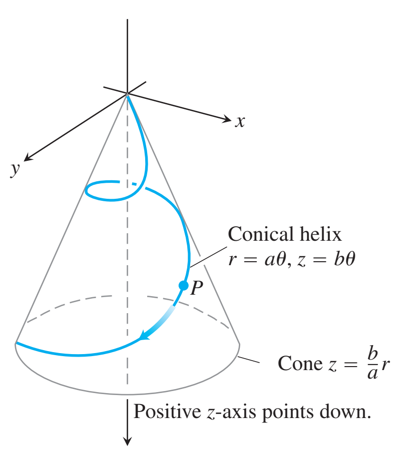
c. Express the tangential and normal components of the velocity $d\mathbf{r}/dt$ and acceleration $d^2\mathbf{r}/dt^2$ as functions of t. Does the acceleration have any nonzero component in the direction of the binormal vector $\mathbf{B}$?



4. Suppose the curve in Exercise 3 is replaced by the conical helix $r = a\theta, z = b\theta$ shown in the accompanying figure.

a. Express the angular velocity $d\theta/dt$ as a function of θ.

b. Express the distance the particle travels along the helix as a function of θ.



Polar Coordinate Systems and Motion in Space

5. Deduce from the orbit equation

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

that a planet is closest to its sun when $\theta = 0$ and show that $r = r_0$ at that time.

T 6. **A Kepler equation** The problem of locating a planet in its orbit at a given time and date eventually leads to solving "Kepler" equations of the form

$$f(x) = x - 1 - \frac{1}{2}\sin x = 0.$$

a. Show that this particular equation has a solution between $x = 0$ and $x = 2$.

b. With your computer or calculator in radian mode, use Newton's method to find the solution to as many places as you can.

7. In Section 13.6, we found the velocity of a particle moving in the plane to be

$$\mathbf{v} = \dot{x}\,\mathbf{i} + \dot{y}\,\mathbf{j} = \dot{r}\,\mathbf{u}_r + r\dot{\theta}\,\mathbf{u}_\theta.$$

a. Express $\dot{x}$ and $\dot{y}$ in terms of $\dot{r}$ and $r\dot{\theta}$ by evaluating the dot products $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{j}$.

b. Express $\dot{r}$ and $r\dot{\theta}$ in terms of $\dot{x}$ and $\dot{y}$ by evaluating the dot products $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{u}_r$ and $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{u}_\theta$.

8. Express the curvature of a twice-differentiable curve $r = f(\theta)$ in the polar coordinate plane in terms of f and its derivatives.

9. A slender rod through the origin of the polar coordinate plane rotates (in the plane) about the origin at the rate of 3 rad/min. A beetle starting from the point (2, 0) crawls along the rod toward the origin at the rate of 1 in./min.

a. Find the beetle's acceleration and velocity in polar form when it is halfway to (1 in. from) the origin.

T b. To the nearest tenth of an inch, what will be the length of the path the beetle has traveled by the time it reaches the origin?

10. **Conservation of angular momentum** Let $\mathbf{r}(t)$ denote the position in space of a moving object at time t. Suppose the force acting on the object at time t is

$$\mathbf{F}(t) = -\frac{c}{|\mathbf{r}(t)|^3}\mathbf{r}(t),$$

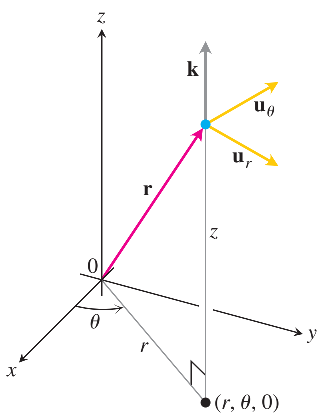
where c is a constant. In physics the **angular momentum** of an object at time t is defined to be $\mathbf{L}(t) = \mathbf{r}(t) \times m\mathbf{v}(t)$, where m is the mass of the object and $\mathbf{v}(t)$ is the velocity. Prove that angular momentum is a conserved quantity; i.e., prove that $\mathbf{L}(t)$ is a constant vector, independent of time. Remember Newton's law $\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$. (This is a calculus problem, not a physics problem.)

Cylindrical Coordinate Systems

11. Unit vectors for position and motion in cylindrical coordinates When the position of a particle moving in space is given in cylindrical coordinates, the unit vectors we use to describe its position and motion are

$$\mathbf{u}_r = (\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (\sin\theta)\mathbf{j}, \qquad \mathbf{u}_\theta = -(\sin\theta)\mathbf{i} + (\cos\theta)\mathbf{j},$$

and $\mathbf{k}$ (see accompanying figure). The particle's position vector is then $\mathbf{r} = r\,\mathbf{u}_r + z\,\mathbf{k}$, where r is the positive polar distance coordinate of the particle's position.



a. Show that $\mathbf{u}_r$, $\mathbf{u}_\theta$, and $\mathbf{k}$, in this order, form a right-handed frame of unit vectors.

b. Show that

$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}_r}{d\theta} = \mathbf{u}_\theta \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d\mathbf{u}_\theta}{d\theta} = -\mathbf{u}_r.$$

c. Assuming that the necessary derivatives with respect to t exist, express $\mathbf{v} = \dot{\mathbf{r}}$ and $\mathbf{a} = \ddot{\mathbf{r}}$ in terms of $\mathbf{u}_r$, $\mathbf{u}_\theta$, $\mathbf{k}$, $\dot{r}$, and $\dot{\theta}$. (The dots indicate derivatives with respect to t: $\dot{\mathbf{r}}$ means $d\mathbf{r}/dt$, $\ddot{\mathbf{r}}$ means $d^2\mathbf{r}/dt^2$, and so on.) Section 13.6 derives these formulas and shows how the vectors mentioned here are used in describing planetary motion.

12. Arc length in cylindrical coordinates

a. Show that when you express $ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$ in terms of cylindrical coordinates, you get $ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2\,d\theta^2 + dz^2$.

b. Interpret this result geometrically in terms of the edges and a diagonal of a box. Sketch the box.

c. Use the result in part (a) to find the length of the curve $r = e^\theta, z = e^\theta, 0 \le \theta \le \theta \ln 8$.

Chapter 13 Practice Exercises

Motion in a Cartesian Plane

In Exercises 1 and 2, graph the curves and sketch their velocity and acceleration vectors at the given values of t. Then write $\mathbf{a}$ in the form $\mathbf{a} = a_T\mathbf{T} + a_N\mathbf{N}$ without finding $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{N}$, and find the value of κ at the given values of t.

1. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (4\cos t)\mathbf{i} + \left(\sqrt{2}\sin t\right)\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 0$ and $\pi/4$
2. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\sqrt{3}\sec t\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\sqrt{3}\tan t\right)\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 0$
3. The position of a particle in the plane at time t is

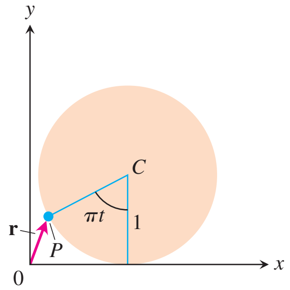
$$\mathbf{r} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+t^2}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{t}{\sqrt{1+t^2}}\mathbf{j}.$$

Find the particle's highest speed.

4. Suppose $\mathbf{r}(t) = (e^t\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (e^t\sin t)\mathbf{j}$. Show that the angle between $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{a}$ never changes. What *is* the angle?
5. **Finding curvature** At point P, the velocity and acceleration of a particle moving in the plane are $\mathbf{v} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{a} = 5\mathbf{i} + 15\mathbf{j}$. Find the curvature of the particle's path at P.
6. Find the point on the curve $y = e^x$ where the curvature is greatest.
7. A particle moves around the unit circle in the xy-plane. Its position at time t is $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$, where x and y are differentiable functions of t. Find dy/dt if $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{i} = y$. Is the motion clockwise, or counterclockwise?
8. You send a message through a pneumatic tube that follows the curve $9y = x^3$ (distance in meters). At the point (3, 3), $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{i} = 4$ and $\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{i} = -2$. Find the values of $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{j}$ at (3, 3).
9. **Characterizing circular motion** A particle moves in the plane so that its velocity and position vectors are always orthogonal. Show that the particle moves in a circle centered at the origin.
10. **Speed along a cycloid** A circular wheel with radius 1 ft and center C rolls to the right along the x-axis at a half-turn per second. (See the accompanying figure.) At time t seconds, the position vector of the point P on the wheel's circumference is

$$\mathbf{r} = (\pi t - \sin \pi t)\mathbf{i} + (1 - \cos \pi t)\mathbf{j}.$$

a. Sketch the curve traced by P during the interval $0 \le t \le 3$.
b. Find $\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{a}$ at $t = 0, 1, 2$, and 3 and add these vectors to your sketch.
c. At any given time, what is the forward speed of the topmost point of the wheel? Of C?



Projectile Motion and Motion in a Plane

11. **Shot put** A shot leaves the thrower's hand 6.5 ft above the ground at a 45° angle at 44 ft/sec. Where is it 3 sec later?
12. **Javelin** A javelin leaves the thrower's hand 7 ft above the ground at a 45° angle at 80 ft/sec. How high does it go?
13. A golf ball is hit with an initial speed v_0 at an angle α to the horizontal from a point that lies at the foot of a straight-sided hill that is inclined at an angle ϕ to the horizontal, where

$$0 < \phi < \alpha < \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

Show that the ball lands at a distance

$$\frac{2v_0^2\cos\alpha}{g\cos^2\phi}\sin(\alpha - \phi),$$

measured up the face of the hill. Hence, show that the greatest range that can be achieved for a given v_0 occurs when $\alpha = (\phi/2) + (\pi/4)$, i.e., when the initial velocity vector bisects the angle between the vertical and the hill.

T **14. The Dictator** The Civil War mortar Dictator weighed so much (17,120 lb) that it had to be mounted on a railroad car. It had a 13-in. bore and used a 20-lb powder charge to fire a 200-lb shell. The mortar was made by Mr. Charles Knapp in his ironworks in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and was used by the Union army in 1864 in the siege of Petersburg, Virginia. How far did it shoot? Here we have a difference of opinion. The ordnance manual claimed 4325 yd, while field officers claimed 4752 yd. Assuming a 45° firing angle, what muzzle speeds are involved here?

T **15. The World's record for popping a champagne cork**

a. Until 1988, the world's record for popping a champagne cork was 109 ft. 6 in., once held by Captain Michael Hill of the British Royal Artillery (of course). Assuming Cpt. Hill held the bottle neck at ground level at a 45° angle, and the cork behaved like an ideal projectile, how fast was the cork going as it left the bottle?

b. A new world record of 177 ft. 9 in. was set on June 5, 1988, by Prof. Emeritus Heinrich of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, firing from 4 ft. above ground level at the Woodbury Vineyards Winery, New York. Assuming an ideal trajectory, what was the cork's initial speed?

T **16. Javelin** In Potsdam in 1988, Petra Felke of (then) East Germany set a women's world record by throwing a javelin 262 ft 5 in.

a. Assuming that Felke launched the javelin at a 40° angle to the horizontal 6.5 ft above the ground, what was the javelin's initial speed?

b. How high did the javelin go?

17. Synchronous curves By eliminating α from the ideal projectile equations

$$x = (v_0 \cos \alpha)t, \quad y = (v_0 \sin \alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2,$$

show that $x^2 + (y + gt^2/2)^2 = v_0{}^2 t^2$. This shows that projectiles launched simultaneously from the origin at the same initial speed will, at any given instant, all lie on the circle of radius $v_0 t$ centered at $(0, -gt^2/2)$, regardless of their launch angle. These circles are the *synchronous curves* of the launching.

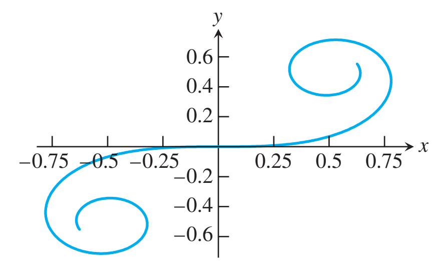
18. Radius of curvature Show that the radius of curvature of a twice-differentiable plane curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j}$ is given by the formula

$$\rho = \frac{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2}{\sqrt{\ddot{x}^2 + \ddot{y}^2 - \ddot{s}^2}}, \quad \text{where} \quad \ddot{s} = \frac{d}{dt}\sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2}.$$

19. Curvature Express the curvature of the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\int_0^t \cos\left(\frac{1}{2}\pi\theta^2\right) d\theta\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\int_0^t \sin\left(\frac{1}{2}\pi\theta^2\right) d\theta\right)\mathbf{j}$$

as a function of the directed distance s measured along the curve from the origin. (See the accompanying figure.)



20. An alternative definition of curvature in the plane An alternative definition gives the curvature of a sufficiently differentiable plane curve to be $|d\phi/ds|$, where ϕ is the angle between $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{i}$ (Figure 13.40a). Figure 13.40b shows the distance s measured counterclockwise around the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ from the point $(a, 0)$ to a point P, along with the angle ϕ at P. Calculate the circle's curvature using the alternative definition. (*Hint:* $\phi = \theta + \pi/2$.)

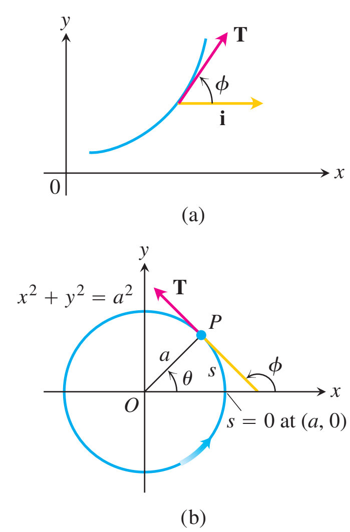


FIGURE 13.40 Figures for Exercise 20.

Motion in Space

Find the lengths of the curves in Exercises 21 and 22.

21. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2 \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (2 \sin t)\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le \pi/4$

22. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3 \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (3 \sin t)\mathbf{j} + 2t^{3/2}\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \le t \le 3$

In Exercises 23–26, find $\mathbf{T}$, $\mathbf{N}$, $\mathbf{B}$, κ, and τ at the given value of t.

23. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \frac{4}{9}(1 + t)^{3/2}\mathbf{i} + \frac{4}{9}(1 - t)^{3/2}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{3}t\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 0$

24. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (e^t \sin 2t)\mathbf{i} + (e^t \cos 2t)\mathbf{j} + 2e^t\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 0$

25. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{2}e^{2t}\mathbf{j}, \quad t = \ln 2$

26. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3\cosh 2t)\mathbf{i} + (3\sinh 2t)\mathbf{j} + 6t\mathbf{k}, \quad t = \ln 2$

In Exercises 27 and 28, write $\mathbf{a}$ in the form $\mathbf{a} = a_{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{T} + a_{\mathrm{N}}\mathbf{N}$ at $t = 0$ without finding $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{N}$.

27. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2 + 3t + 3t^2)\mathbf{i} + (4t + 4t^2)\mathbf{j} - (6\cos t)\mathbf{k}$

28. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2 + t)\mathbf{i} + (t + 2t^2)\mathbf{j} + (1 + t^2)\mathbf{k}$

29. Find $\mathbf{T}$, $\mathbf{N}$, $\mathbf{B}$, κ, and τ as functions of t if $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\sin t)\mathbf{i} + \left(\sqrt{2}\cos t\right)\mathbf{j} + (\sin t)\mathbf{k}$.

30. At what times in the interval $0 \le t \le \pi$ are the velocity and acceleration vectors of the motion $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i} + (5\cos t)\mathbf{j} + (3\sin t)\mathbf{k}$ orthogonal?

31. The position of a particle moving in space at time $t \ge 0$ is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = 2\mathbf{i} + \left(4\sin\frac{t}{2}\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(3 - \frac{t}{\pi}\right)\mathbf{k}.$$

Find the first time $\mathbf{r}$ is orthogonal to the vector $\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$.

32. Find equations for the osculating, normal, and rectifying planes of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^3\mathbf{k}$ at the point $(1, 1, 1)$.

33. Find parametric equations for the line that is tangent to the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + \ln(1 - t)\mathbf{k}$ at $t = 0$.

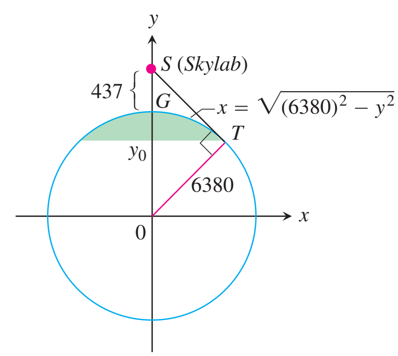
34. Find parametric equations for the line tangent to the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\sqrt{2}\cos t\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\sqrt{2}\sin t\right)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$ at the point where $t = \pi/4$.

35. The view from *Skylab 4* What percentage of Earth's surface area could the astronauts see when *Skylab 4* was at its apogee height, 437 km above the surface? To find out, model the visible surface as the surface generated by revolving the circular arc GT, shown here, about the y-axis. Then carry out these steps:

1. Use similar triangles in the figure to show that $y_0/6380 = 6380/(6380 + 437)$. Solve for y_0.
2. To four significant digits, calculate the visible area as

$$VA = \int_{y_0}^{6380} 2\pi x\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2}\, dy.$$

3. Express the result as a percentage of Earth's surface area.



Chapter 13 Questions to Guide Your Review

1. State the rules for differentiating and integrating vector functions. Give examples.
2. How do you define and calculate the velocity, speed, direction of motion, and acceleration of a body moving along a sufficiently differentiable space curve? Give an example.
3. What is special about the derivatives of vector functions of constant length? Give an example.
4. What are the vector and parametric equations for ideal projectile motion? How do you find a projectile's maximum height, flight time, and range? Give examples.
5. How do you define and calculate the length of a segment of a smooth space curve? Give an example. What mathematical assumptions are involved in the definition?
6. How do you measure distance along a smooth curve in space from a preselected base point? Give an example.
7. What is a differentiable curve's unit tangent vector? Give an example.
8. Define curvature, circle of curvature (osculating circle), center of curvature, and radius of curvature for twice-differentiable curves in the plane. Give examples. What curves have zero curvature? Constant curvature?
9. What is a plane curve's principal normal vector? When is it defined? Which way does it point? Give an example.
10. How do you define **N** and κ for curves in space? How are these quantities related? Give examples.

11. What is a curve's binormal vector? Give an example. How is this vector related to the curve's torsion? Give an example.
12. What formulas are available for writing a moving body's acceleration as a sum of its tangential and normal components? Give an example. Why might one want to write the acceleration this way? What if the body moves at a constant speed? At a constant speed around a circle?
13. State Kepler's laws. To what phenomena do they apply?

Chapter 13 Technology Application Projects

Mathematica/Maple Module

Radar Tracking of a Moving Object

Visualize position, velocity, and acceleration vectors to analyze motion.

Mathematica/Maple Module

Parametric and Polar Equations with a Figure Skater

Visualize position, velocity, and acceleration vectors to analyze motion.

Mathematica/Maple Module

Moving in Three Dimensions

Compute distance traveled, speed, curvature, and torsion for motion along a space curve. Visualize and compute the tangential, normal, and binormal vectors associated with motion along a space curve.