

# CHAPTER 10

## PARAMETRIC, VECTOR, AND POLAR FUNCTIONS

### 10.1. PARAMETRIC FUNCTIONS

A) Recall that for parametric equations,  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt}$ .

B) If the equations  $x = f(t)$ , and  $y = g(t)$  define  $y$  as a twice-differentiable function of  $x$ ,

then at any point where  $\frac{dx}{dt} \neq 0$ ,

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right) = \frac{\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)}{\frac{dx}{dt}} = \frac{\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)}{\frac{dx}{dt}}$$

C) A parametric curve is differentiable at a point if  $\frac{dx}{dt}$  and  $\frac{dy}{dt}$  both are differentiable at

the point. A parametric curve is smooth if  $\frac{dx}{dt}$  and  $\frac{dy}{dt}$  are each continuous and not simultaneously zero.

D) Length (Arc Length) of a Smooth Parametrized Curve: If a smooth curve is traversed exactly once as  $t$  increases from  $a$  to  $b$ , the curve's length is  $L =$

$$\int_a^b \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt$$

F) Assignment: P.518 {2 - 20 even, 24}

### 10.2. VECTORS IN THE PLANE - All of which was covered in Pre-Calculus

A) Definition: A vector in the plane is represented by a directed line segment.

B) Definition: Two vectors are equal if they have the same length and direction.

C) Definition: If  $\mathbf{v}$  is a vector in the plane equal to the vector with initial point  $(0,0)$  and terminal point  $(v_1, v_2)$  then the component form of  $\mathbf{v}$  is:  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$

D) The direction of  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$  is  $\theta = \mathbf{Tan}^{-1} \left( \frac{v_2}{v_1} \right)$  (Possibly adjusting for quadrants).

E) The length (or magnitude or norm) of  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$ , denoted  $|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2}$ .

F) Definition: A unit vector has a length of one. Any non-zero vector can be scaled to a unit vector by dividing it by its length.

- G) Definition: The zero vector is  $\mathbf{0} = \langle 0, 0 \rangle$ . It has a length of zero and no direction.
- H) You should be able to operate on vectors (add, subtract, scalar multiples), for vectors in graphical and/or component form.
- I) Definition: The *Dot Product* of vectors  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$ , and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$  is the number
- $$\mathbf{u} \bullet \mathbf{v} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2$$

J) Theorem: The angle between two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is:  $\theta = \mathbf{COS}^{-1} \left( \frac{\mathbf{u} \bullet \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|} \right)$

K) Definition: The slope of a vector  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$  is  $\frac{u_2}{u_1}$

- L) Two vectors are orthogonal/normal if their dot product is zero. For any non-zero vector there are two unit vectors and two unit normal vectors.
- M) The airplane example for vector addition.
- N) Assignment: P. 527 {2 - 26 even, 44, 45}

### 10.3. VECTOR-VALUED FUNCTIONS

- A) The standard unit vectors are  $\mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1 \rangle$ . Any vector,  $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b \rangle = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j}$ .
- B) A vector-valued function takes parametric equations and writes each of  $x = f(t)$  and  $y = g(t)$  as components of the vector  $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j}$ . The graph is the path of the vector. (To actually graph a vector-valued, we just use parametric equations).
- C) Most of the Calculus of vector-valued functions is taken care of componentially.

If  $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j}$ , then

$$\text{I) } \lim_{t \rightarrow c} \mathbf{r}(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow c} f(t)\mathbf{i} + \lim_{t \rightarrow c} g(t)\mathbf{j}.$$

$$\text{II) } \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \frac{df}{dt} \mathbf{i} + \frac{dg}{dt} \mathbf{j}$$

$$\text{III) } \int \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \int f(t) dt \mathbf{i} + \int g(t) dt \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{C}$$

$$\text{IV) } \int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \int_a^b f(t) dt \mathbf{i} + \int_a^b g(t) dt \mathbf{j}$$

D) Definitions for particle movement for the function  $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j}$

I)  $\mathbf{v}(t) = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}$  is the particle's velocity vector and is tangent to the curve.

II)  $|\mathbf{v}(t)|$ , the magnitude of  $\mathbf{v}$ , is the particle's speed.

III)  $\mathbf{a}(t) = \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \frac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2}$  is the particles acceleration vector.

IV)  $\frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}$ , a unit vector, is the direction of motion

E) Differentiability and smoothicity of vector-valued functions mirror parametric function.

F) Note that velocity = speed • direction =  $|\mathbf{v}| \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}$

G) Assignment: P.537 {6 - 26 even, 27, 33}

## 10.4. MODELING PROJECTILE MOTION

- A) Let  $g$  be the force of gravity.  $g = 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2 = 32 \text{ ft/s}^2$ . Since gravity is only a vertical component,  $\mathbf{a}(t) = -g\mathbf{j}$
- B) If  $v_0$  is the initial velocity and  $\theta$  is the launch angle, the initial velocity can be broken down into its component parts as  $\mathbf{v}(0) = v_0 \cos \theta \mathbf{i} + v_0 \sin \theta \mathbf{j}$ .
- C) We can solve for  $\mathbf{v}(t) = v_0 \cos \theta \mathbf{i} + (-gt + v_0 \sin \theta) \mathbf{j}$
- D) If the initial position is  $\mathbf{r}(0) = h\mathbf{i} + k\mathbf{j}$ , then
- $$\mathbf{r}(t) = (v_0 \cos \theta t + h)\mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{-1}{2}gt^2 + v_0 \sin \theta t + k\right)\mathbf{j}$$
- E) The baseball problem and other problems.
- F) If the initial position is the origin then here are three handy formulas:
- 1) Maximum height  $= \frac{(v_0 \sin \theta)^2}{2g}$     2) Flight time  $= \frac{2v_0 \sin \theta}{g}$     3) Range  $= \frac{v_0^2}{g} \sin(2\theta)$
- G) Assignment: P. 549 {1 - 7, 11, 12, 26}

## 10.5. POLAR COORDINATES AND POLAR GRAPHS - A Pre-Calculus Review

- A) We use  $(x,y)$  in the Cartesian Coordinate system and  $(r, \theta)$  in the Polar Coordinate system.
- B) Degenerate cases of one variable in Cartesian and in Polar.
- C) Converting between coordinate systems:
- I) From Polar to Cartesian:  $x = r \cos \theta$ , and  $y = r \sin \theta$
- II) From Cartesian to Polar:  $r^2 = x^2 + y^2$ , and  $\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}$
- D) When graphing, make sure your domain is large enough.
- E) Assignment: P. 558 {2 - 6 even, 8 - 56 multiples of 4}

## 10.6. CALCULUS OF POLAR CURVES

- A) We will be viewing lines in terms of  $x$  and  $y$ . First we will write the radius as a function of  $\theta$ . Since  $x = r \cos \theta$ , and  $y = r \sin \theta$ , we will use  $x = f(\theta) \cos \theta$ , and  $y = f(\theta) \sin \theta$ .

As with parametric equations,  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/d\theta}{dx/d\theta} = \frac{f'(\theta) \sin(\theta) + f(\theta) \cos(\theta)}{f'(\theta) \cos(\theta) - f(\theta) \sin(\theta)}$

- B) Using the slope equation to find horizontal and vertical asymptotes.
- 1) Potential horizontal asymptotes exist when the top = 0.
  - 2) Potential vertical asymptotes when the bottom = 0.
  - 3) Actual horizontal asymptotes exist when the top = 0 and the bottom  $\neq 0$ .
  - 4) Actual vertical asymptotes exist when the bottom = 0 and the top  $\neq 0$ .
  - 5) If the top and bottom are simultaneously zero, we must use L'Hopital to find the value of the slope. It may be a horizontal or vertical asymptote and it might be

something else.

- 6) We often want to write these tangent lines in Cartesian form and must use the parametric portion of  $x = f(\theta) \cos \theta$ , or  $y = f(\theta) \sin \theta$  to find the line.
- C) Tangent lines that go through the origin (or pole) occur when the radius,  $f(\theta) = 0$ . Once we find these values of  $\theta$ , the tangent lines are of the form  $y = \tan(\theta) x$ , unless  $\tan(\theta)$  is undefined. In this case the line tangent to the pole is  $x = 0$ .
- D) The good news is that the calculator can find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  (and  $\frac{dr}{d\theta}$ ) for a given graph.
- E) Assignment: p. 566 {2 - 12 do 3, skip 1}

F) Our first application of integration requires the area of a sector.  $A = \frac{1}{2} \theta r^2$ .

G) The area of the region between the origin and the curve  $r = f(\theta)$ ,  $\alpha \leq \theta \leq \beta$ , is

$$A = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{2} r^2 d\theta$$

H) To find the area between two curves we must make sure that the radii are always positive and that the radii do not cross. The area of the region  $0 \leq r_1(\theta) \leq r_2(\theta)$ ,  $\alpha \leq \theta \leq \beta$ , is

$$A = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{2} r_2^2 d\theta - \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{2} r_1^2 d\theta = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{2} (r_2^2 - r_1^2) d\theta$$

I) The Length of a Polar Curve: if  $r = f(\theta)$  has a continuous first derivative for  $\alpha \leq \theta \leq \beta$  and if the point  $P(r, \theta)$  traces the curve  $r = f(\theta)$  exactly once as  $\theta$  runs from  $\alpha$  to  $\beta$ , then

the length of the curve is: 
$$L = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \sqrt{r^2 + \left( \frac{dr}{d\theta} \right)^2} d\theta$$

J) Assignment: P. 566 {17, 18 - 27 multiples of 3, 33, 36, 40}

Mandatory Assignment: P. 569 {3 - 42 multiples of 3, 43 - 47, 51, 55, 58, 63 - 65, 67}