

Two other important ideas:

1) Using series in limits:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x - \sin x}{x^3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x - (x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \dots)}{x^3}$

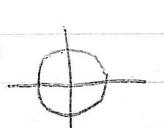
$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{x^3}{6} - \dots}{x^3} = \frac{1}{6} \quad (\text{Easier than L'Hop after!})$$

2) Taylor series can also be centered at any point  $a$ :

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 + \dots$$

Exam 2 material is now finished.

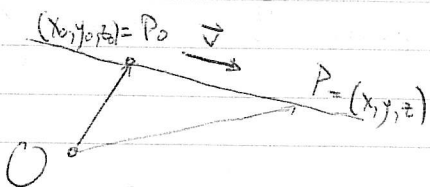
Hold off in this section - do lines & planes first.  
Vector functions & parametric equations

So far, we've talked a lot about functions  $y=f(x)$  giving us curves in the  $x$ - $y$  plane; but not every curve is associated to a function, e.g., (ask for examples)  ← given by 2 different fns, or implicit equation, or parametric equations

$y = \sin t, x = \cos t$  (so  $x, y$  are both functions of a third variable,  $t$ ) Equivalently, a single vector-valued function  
 $F(t) = \langle \cos t, \sin t \rangle$ .

## Lines & planes in 3-space.

A line is determined by a point  $P_0$  & a direction  
nonzero  
 (vector parallel to it)  $\vec{v}$ . Every point on a line



can be found by starting at  $P_0$  &  
 moving in direction  $\vec{v}$  for some distance

$$\Rightarrow \text{There is some } t, \quad \vec{P_0P} = t\vec{v} = t \cdot \langle a, b, c \rangle$$

$$\langle x-x_0, y-y_0, z-z_0 \rangle = \langle ta, tb, tc \rangle$$

So every point on the line is given by

$$x = x_0 + ta$$

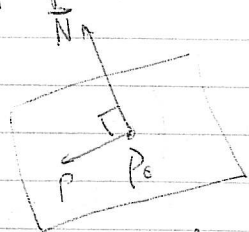
$$y = y_0 + tb$$

$$z = z_0 + tc$$

We can also eliminate  $t$  between  
 these (parametric) equations to

get  $\frac{x-x_0}{a} = \frac{y-y_0}{b} = \frac{z-z_0}{c}$ , the symmetric equations  
 for the line.

A plane is determined by a point  $P_0$  & a normal vector  $\vec{N}$   
 perpendicular to it. For any  $P = (x, y, z)$  in plane,



$$\vec{P_0P} \perp \vec{N}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{N} \cdot \vec{P_0P} = 0$$

equiv

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

$$ax + by + cz = d$$

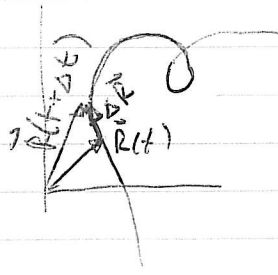
Also, a plane is determined by 3 noncollinear points,  
 $P_0, P_1, P_2$ . Get  $\vec{N}$  how?

$$\vec{N} = \vec{P_0P_1} \times \vec{P_0P_2}$$

Exercises: • line through  $(1, -1, 0)$  &  $(2, 1, -2)$ ? Does this line  
 contain  $(3, 3, 4)$ ?

Plane through  $(1, 0, 0)$ ,  $(2, 1, 0)$  &  $(-1, 0, 1)$ ? Intersection of  
 this plane & line? Now go back & do parametric.

We can also do the same thing to describe motion of a particle in 3-space. Its position  $(x(t), y(t), z(t))$  will be a function of  $t$  (time), & the position vector is

$$\vec{R}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$$


The velocity (vector) of such a particle is

$$\vec{v}(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{R}}{\Delta t} =: \frac{d\vec{R}}{dt}$$

Coordinatewise, this is precisely what you would hope

$$\text{So: } \vec{v} = \left\langle \frac{dx}{dt}, \frac{dy}{dt}, \frac{dz}{dt} \right\rangle = \langle x', y', z' \rangle = \langle \dot{x}, \dot{y}, \dot{z} \rangle = \frac{d\vec{R}}{dt}$$

(dot = Newton's notation = physicists notation = derivatives w.r.t. time)

The speed is just the length of the velocity vector,

$$|\vec{v}| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2}$$

really gets exactly  $\frac{ds}{dt}$  = derivative of arc length, i.e., speed how fast you're moving along the curve.

Note: velocity is always tangent to the curve (Newton's rule that a particle with no force acting on it would continue in a straight line)

so  $\hat{v} = \hat{T} = \frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|}$  is the unit tangent, &

$$\vec{v} = \frac{ds}{dt} \cdot \hat{T}$$

Acceleration  $\vec{a} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = \frac{d^2\vec{R}}{dt^2} = \left\langle \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}, \frac{d^2y}{dt^2}, \frac{d^2z}{dt^2} \right\rangle = \langle \ddot{x}, \ddot{y}, \ddot{z} \rangle$