

DETAILED COURSE OUTLINE FOR MATH 21a

What follows is a rough, section by section outline of the material that we covered this semester in Math 21a. The outline for the sections in Chapter 5 of Ostebee and Zorn is only relevant for the Regular and Physics sections, while the outline for Chapters 2-5 of the Rosner text is only relevant for the BioChem sections.

Chapter 1.1:

- $\mathbb{R}^3 = 3\text{-d space}$, $\mathbb{R}^2 = 2\text{-d space}$.
- Abstract spaces versus coordinates.
- Drawing and labeling axis. Rotating axis.
- Distances and midpoints.
- Graphing equations.
- Simple surfaces, spheres, ellipses, parabolas, saddles.
- Orientations.
- Graphing in 2-d. Graphs as curves.
- Curves which aren't graphs.

Chapter 1.2 and Appendix A:

- Introduce curves in the plane as graphs of functions and pieces of graphs.
- Introduce parametrized curves in the plane.
- Parametrized curves in \mathbb{R}^3 . $t \rightarrow (x(t), y(t), z(t))$ for t ranging over some part of \mathbb{R} .
- Explain the difference between a curve and its parametrization. The curve sits as a path in \mathbb{R}^3 ; the parametrization tells the speed of an ant walking the path.
- Parametrization and reversing direction on the path.
- Polar coordinates and parametrized curves in polar coordinates.

Chapter 1.3:

- Vectors in the plane as arrows, or algebraically as 2-tuples (a, b) . Vectors in space as arrows or 3-tuples (a, b, c) .
- If a vector $\mathbf{v} = (a, b)$, then a and b are called the components of \mathbf{v} . Likewise for a 3-d vector, $\mathbf{v} = (a, b, c)$.
- A vector, \mathbf{v} , has a length or magnitude, $|\mathbf{v}| = (a^2 + b^2 + c^2)^{1/2}$.

- Adding two vectors, $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$. Multiplying by numbers (scalars) $r \mathbf{v}$ where $r = 2, -.556$, etc. Give graphical picture of addition and multiplication. (Also, multiplying by -1 to get $-\mathbf{v}$.)
- The zero vector $\mathbf{0} = (0, 0)$ or $(0, 0, 0)$ in 3-d.
- The triangle inequality $|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}| \leq |\mathbf{v}| + |\mathbf{w}|$.
- The standard basis, $\mathbf{i} = (1, 0, 0)$, $\mathbf{j} = (0, 1, 0)$, $\mathbf{k} = (0, 0, 1)$. Thus, any $\mathbf{v} = (a, b, c)$ can be decomposed as $\mathbf{v} = a \mathbf{i} + b \mathbf{j} + c \mathbf{k}$ in terms of the standard basis. (We shall play with other basis as well later on.)

Chapter 1.4:

- Vector valued functions of time, $t \rightarrow \mathbf{v}(t) = (a(t), b(t), c(t))$. Thus, as t changes, the end point of $\mathbf{v}(t)$ traces out a parameterized curve in \mathbb{R}^3 .
- For example, the line segment running between (x_0, y_0) and $(x_0 + a, y_0 + b)$ can be parametrized as $(x_0, y_0) + t(a, b)$ as t runs between 0 and 1 (written $t \in [0, 1]$). Writing $\mathbf{P}_0 = (x_0, y_0)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (a, b)$, this becomes $\mathbf{P}(t) = \mathbf{P}_0 + t \mathbf{v}$.
- The derivative of a vector valued function of time $\mathbf{v}(t)$ gives a new vector valued function of time, $\frac{d}{dt} \mathbf{v}(t) \equiv \mathbf{v}'(t) = (a'(t), b'(t), c'(t))$.
- The derivative $\mathbf{v}'(t)$ lives on a “different” version of \mathbb{R}^3 as does $\mathbf{v}(t)$ since its tail sits naturally at $\mathbf{v}(t)$, not at the origin. This is because $\mathbf{v}'(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} (\mathbf{v}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{v}(t))/\Delta t$ and so is a vector which might naturally be interpreted as having its end, not at the origin, but at $\mathbf{v}(t)$.
- Lets use different notation: If we view $t \rightarrow \mathbf{r}(t)$ as a vector valued function which traces out a path in space, then $\frac{d}{dt} \mathbf{r} \equiv \mathbf{r}'(t)$ is the instantaneous velocity at time t of the particle on the path; $|\mathbf{r}'(t)|$ is its instantaneous speed, and $\frac{d}{dt} \mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{r}''(t)$ is its instantaneous acceleration of the particle.
- Algebraic rules: $(\mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{w}(t))' = \mathbf{v}'(t) + \mathbf{w}'(t)$ and $(r(t) \mathbf{v}(t))' = r'(t) \mathbf{v}(t) + r(t) \mathbf{v}'(t)$ when r is a function of t as well as \mathbf{v} .
- Anti-derivatives of $\mathbf{v}(t)$. This is the vector $\mathbf{f}(t) = \int_0^t \mathbf{v}(\tau) d\tau$. If $\mathbf{v}(t) = (a(t), b(t), c(t))$, then the vector \mathbf{f} has components $(\int_0^t a(\tau) d\tau, \int_0^t b(\tau) d\tau, \int_0^t c(\tau) d\tau)$.
- Thus, if $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t)$, then $\int_0^t \mathbf{v}(\tau) d\tau = \mathbf{r}(t) - \mathbf{r}(0)$.

Chapter 1.5:

- Newton’s law: $m \mathbf{r}''(t) = \mathbf{F}$.