#### 1 Section 1.3

#### Question 2

A circular disk of radius 1 in the plane xy rolls without slipping along the x axis. The figure described by a point of the circumference of the disk is called a cycloid.

- Obtain a parametrized curve  $\alpha: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^2$  the trace of which is the cycloid, and determine its singular points.
- Compute the arc length of the cycloid corresponding to a complete rotation of the disk.

#### Solution:

Let us first parameterize the location of the centre of the circle. When it has rotated by  $\theta$ , it will also have moved  $\theta$  to the right. Hence, the position of the centre with respect to amount of rotation is  $(\theta, 1)$ .

Now consider the positional vector from the centre to the marked point on the circumference. At  $\theta = 0$ , this is at (0, -1). Then, for general  $\theta$ , this is at  $(-\sin \theta, -\cos \theta)$ . Summing this, it shows that the parameterization  $\alpha(\theta) = (\theta - \sin \theta, 1 - \cos \theta)$ .

We shall use the arc-length formula to yield

$$\int_0^{2\pi} |\nabla \alpha(x)| dx = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{(1 - \cos x)^2 + (\sin x)^2} dx$$
$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{2 - 2\cos x} dx$$
$$= \left[ -4\cos\frac{x}{2} \right]_{x=0}^{x=2\pi}$$
$$= 8.$$

# Question 3

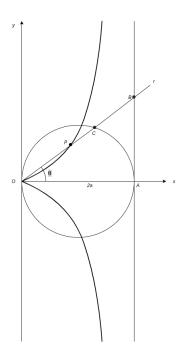
From errata: p. 8, Figure 1-8: The labelling is wrong: the points p and C should lie on the same half-line r through 0 as B.

Let 0A = 2a be the diameter of a circle  $S^1$  and 0Y and AV be the tangents to  $S^1$  at 0 and A, respectively. A half-line r is drawn from 0 which meets the circle  $S^1$  at C and the line AV at B. On 0B mark off the segment 0p = CB (means both segments are equally long). If we rotate r about 0, the point p will describe a curve called *cissoid of Diocles*. By taking 0A as x axis and 0Y as y axis, prove that

a. The trace of

$$\alpha(t) = \left(\frac{2at^2}{1+t^2}, \frac{2at^3}{1+t^2}\right), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}$$

is the cissoid of Diocles ( $t = \tan \theta$ , see Figure 1-8)



Proof.

Let  $t = \tan \theta$  for  $\theta \in (-\pi, \pi)$ , fix  $\theta$  and we show that  $p = \alpha(\tan \theta)$  satisfies the requirements when the half line r is of angle  $\theta$  from origin. Refer to Figure 1

First we check that p lies on the half-line, where

$$p = \left(\frac{2a\tan^2\theta}{1 + \tan^2\theta}, \frac{2a\tan^3\theta}{1 + \tan^2\theta}\right)$$

and we see that  $\tan \arg p = \tan \theta$ .

Finally we check that the segments 0p = CB, we know the point C can be given by  $(a, 0) + (a\cos 2\theta, a\sin 2\theta)$  and B is given by  $(2a, 2a\tan \theta)$ . So

$$||CB|| = ||(a - a\cos 2\theta, 2a\tan \theta - a\sin 2\theta)||$$

$$||CB||^2 = (a - a\cos 2\theta)^2 + (2a\tan \theta - a\sin 2\theta)^2$$

$$= 4a^2\sin^2\theta\tan^2\theta$$

$$||p||^2 = \frac{4a^2(t^4 + t^6)}{(1 + t^2)^2}$$

$$= \frac{4a^2\tan^4\theta}{1 + \tan^2\theta}$$

$$= 4a^2\sin^2\theta\tan^2\theta$$

b. The origin (0,0) is a singular point of the cissoid.

*Proof.* At point (0,0), t=0, we just need to check that  $\alpha'(0)=0$ . Now

$$\alpha'(t) = \left(\frac{4at}{(1+t^2)^2}, \frac{2at^2(t^2+3)}{(1+t^2)^2}\right)$$

which is 0 when t = 0.

c. As  $t \to \infty$ ,  $\alpha(t)$  approaches the line x = 2a, and  $\alpha'(t) \to (0, 2a)$  (book typo'd this I think). Thus as  $t \to \infty$ , the curve and its tangent approach the line x = 2a.

*Proof.* To show that the curve approaches the line x=2a we check that

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{2at^2}{1 + t^2} = 2a.$$

To verify the other claim we compute

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \alpha'(t) = (0, 2a).$$

## Question 4

Let  $\alpha:(0,\pi)\to\mathbb{R}^2$  be given by

$$\alpha(t) = \left(\sin t, \cos t + \log \tan \frac{t}{2}\right)$$

where t is the angle that the y axis makes with the vector  $\alpha(t)$ . The trace of  $\alpha$  is called the tractrix. Show that

(a)  $\alpha$  is a differentiable parameterized curve, regular except  $t = \frac{\pi}{2}$ . Consider the derivative,  $\alpha'(t) = (\cos t, -\sin t + (\sin t)^{-1})$  This is differentiable except when  $\cos t = 0$  and  $-\sin t + (\sin t)^{-1} = 0$ , which occurs when  $t = \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

(b) The length of the segment of the tangent of the tractrix between the point of tangency and the y axis is constantly equal to 1.

Consider  $\frac{\alpha'(t)_y}{\alpha'(t)_x} = \frac{-\sin t + (\sin t)^{-1}}{\cos t} = \frac{\cos t}{\sin t}$ . This is as  $(\sin x)^2 + (\cos x)^2 = 1$ . Thus, the line of the tanget at  $\alpha(t)$  is  $y - \cos t - \log \tan \frac{t}{2} = \frac{\cos t}{\sin t}(x - \sin t)$ . This has y-intersect  $(0, \log \tan \frac{t}{2})$ . Then, the distance is  $(\sin t)^2 + (\cos t + \log \tan \frac{t}{2} - \log \tan \frac{t}{2})^2 = 1$ .

# Question 5

Let  $\alpha:(-1,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}^2$  be given by

$$\alpha(t) = \left(\frac{3at}{1+t^3}, \frac{3at^2}{1+t^3}\right)$$

Solution:

(a) For t = 0,  $\alpha$  is tangent to the x-axis. Computing the derivative,  $\frac{\partial \alpha(t)}{\partial t} = \left(\frac{a(3-6t^3)}{(1+t^3)^2}, \frac{3at(2-t^3)}{(1+t^3)^2}\right)$ . Thus,  $\alpha(0) = (0,0)$  and  $\frac{\partial \alpha(0)}{\partial t} = (3a,0)$ . Thus, it is tangent to the x-axis.

(b) As  $t \to \infty$ ,  $\alpha(t) = \frac{\partial \alpha(t)}{\partial t} = (0,0)$ . We take limits,  $\lim_{t \to \infty} \alpha(t) = \left(\lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{3at}{1+t^3}, \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{3at^2}{1+t^3}\right) = \left(\frac{\partial \alpha(t)}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial \alpha(t)}{\partial t}\right) = \left(\frac{\partial \alpha(t)}{\partial t}\right) = \left(\frac{\partial \alpha(t)}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial \alpha(t)}{\partial t}\right) = \left(\frac{\partial \alpha(t)}{\partial t}\right) = \left(\frac{\partial \alpha(t)}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial \alpha(t)}{\partial t}\right) = \left(\frac{\partial \alpha$ 

(0,0). Similarly,  $\lim_{t\to\infty} \frac{\partial \alpha(t)}{\partial t} = \left(\lim_{t\to\infty} \frac{a(3-6t^3)}{(1+t^3)^2}, \lim_{t\to\infty} \frac{3at(2-t^3)}{(1+t^3)^2}\right) = (0,0).$ 

(c) Take the curve with the opposite orientation. Now, as  $t \to -1$ , the curve and its tangent approach the line x + y + a = 0.

Let us compute  $\lim_{t\to -1}\frac{\alpha(t)_y}{\alpha(t)_x}=\lim_{t\to -1}\frac{1}{t}=-1$ . Now, consider

$$\lim_{t \to -1} \alpha(t)_y - (-1)\alpha(t)_x = \lim_{t \to -1} \frac{3a(t+t^2)}{1+t^3} = -a.$$

Also  $\lim_{t\to -1} \frac{\alpha'(t)_y}{\alpha'(t)_x} = \lim_{t\to -1} \frac{3t(2-t^3)}{3-6t^3} = \frac{-9}{9} = -1$ , which is a slope of x+y+a=0.

Thus, the curve and its tangent approach the line y = (-1)x + (-a), or the line x + y + a = 0.

#### Question 10

Let  $\alpha: I \to \mathbb{R}^3$  be a parametrized curve. Let  $[a,b] \subseteq I$  and set  $\alpha(a) = p, \alpha(b) = q$ . (a) Show that, for any constant vector v, |v| = 1.

$$(q-p) \cdot v = \int_a^b \alpha'(t) \cdot v dt \le \int_a^b |\alpha'(t)| dt.$$

*Proof.* By Fundamental Theorem of Calculus in 1-Dimension,

$$\int_{a}^{b} \alpha'(t) \cdot v dt = (\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)) \cdot v = (q - p) \cdot v.$$

Then, by Hölder's inequality, we have  $|\alpha'(t) \cdot v| \leq |\alpha'(t)| |v| = |\alpha'(t)|$ . Thus,

$$\left| \int_a^b \alpha'(t) \cdot v dt \right| \le \int_a^b |\alpha'(t) \cdot v| dt \le \int_a^b |\alpha'(t)| dt.$$

(b) Set

$$v = \frac{q - p}{|q - p|}$$

and show that

$$|\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)| \le \int_a^b |\alpha'(t)| dt.$$

That is, the curve of shortest length from  $\alpha(a)$  to  $\alpha(b)$  is the straight line joining these points.

Corollary 1.1. Use  $(q-p) \cdot v = \frac{|q-p|^2}{|q-p|} = |q-p| = |\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)|$  with 10(a).

### 2 Section 1.4

### Question 10

The natural orientation of  $R^2$  makes it possible to associate a sign to the area A of a parallelogram generated by two linearly independent vectors  $u, v \in R^2$ . To do this, let  $\{e_i\}, i = 1, 2$ , be the natural ordered basis of  $R^2$ , and write  $u = u_1e_1 + u_2e_2, v = v_1e_1 + v_2e_2$ . Observe the matrix relation

$$\begin{pmatrix} u \cdot u & u \cdot v \\ v \cdot u & v \cdot v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \\ v_1 & v_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & v_1 \\ u_2 & v_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

and conclude that

$$A^2 = \begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \\ v_1 & v_2 \end{vmatrix}^2.$$

Since the last determinant has the same sign as the basis  $\{u, v\}$ , we can say that A is positive or negative according to whether the orientation of  $\{u, v\}$  is positive or negative. This is called the oriented area in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Solution:

We first observe that

$$\begin{pmatrix} u \cdot u & u \cdot v \\ v \cdot u & v \cdot v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1^2 + u_2^2 & u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 \\ v_1 u_1 + v_2 u_2 & v_1^2 + v_2^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \\ v_1 & v_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & v_1 \\ u_2 & v_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The identity then holds as,

$$A^{2} = (u \wedge v) \cdot (u \wedge v)$$

$$= u \cdot (v \wedge (u \wedge v))$$

$$= u \cdot [(v \cdot v)u - (v \cdot u)v]$$

$$= (u \cdot u)(v \cdot v) - (v \cdot u)(v \cdot u)$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} u \cdot u & u \cdot v \\ v \cdot u & v \cdot v \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} u_{1} & u_{2} \\ v_{1} & v_{2} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} u_{1} & v_{1} \\ u_{2} & v_{2} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} u_{1} & u_{2} \\ v_{1} & v_{2} \end{vmatrix}^{2}.$$

### Question 11

a. Show that the volume V of a parallelepiped generated by three linearly independent vectors  $u, v, w \in \mathbb{R}^3$  is given by  $V = |(u \wedge v) \cdot w|$ , and introduce an oriented volume in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

b. Prove that

$$V^{2} = \begin{vmatrix} u \cdot u & u \cdot v & u \cdot w \\ v \cdot u & v \cdot v & v \cdot w \\ w \cdot u & w \cdot v & w \cdot w \end{vmatrix}$$

Solution. (a) Let  $n = \frac{u \wedge v}{||u \wedge v||}$  be the normal vector of the plane generated by u and v. Then

$$V = (||u|| \times ||v|| \times |\sin(u, v)|) \times ||w|| \times |\cos(n, w)|$$

$$= ||u \wedge v|| \times ||w|| \times |\cos(n, w)|$$

$$= ||u \wedge v|| \times ||w|| \times |\cos(u \times v, w)|$$

$$= |(u \wedge v) \cdot w|$$

(b) We know that

$$|(u \wedge v) \cdot w| = |\begin{pmatrix} u_2v_3 - v_2u_3 \\ u_3v_1 - v_3u_1 \\ u_1v_2 - v_1u_2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot w|$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \\ w_1 & w_2 & w_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \det(u, v, w).$$

Hence,

$$V^{2} = \det(u, v, w)^{2}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u^{T} \\ v^{T} \\ w^{T} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u & v & w \end{pmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} \\ v^{T}u & u^{T}v & u^{T}w \\ v^{T}u & v^{T}v & v^{T}w \\ w^{T}u & w^{T}v & w^{T}w \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} u \cdot u & u \cdot v & u \cdot w \\ v \cdot u & v \cdot v & v \cdot w \\ w \cdot u & w \cdot v & w \cdot w \end{vmatrix}$$

### Question 12

Given the vectors  $v \neq 0$  and w, show that there exists a vector u such that  $u \wedge v = w$  if and only if v is perpendicular to w. Is this vector u uniquely determined? If not, what is the most general solution?

Solution: ( $\Rightarrow$ ) By the properties of cross product,  $u \wedge v = w$  implies that  $v \cdot w = 0$ . ( $\Leftarrow$ ) If  $v \cdot w = 0$ , we have

$$(v \wedge w) \wedge v = (v \cdot v)w - (v \cdot w)v = ||v||^2w.$$

Then  $v \neq 0$  implies that  $w = \frac{v \wedge w}{||v||^2} \wedge v$ . Let  $u = \frac{v \wedge w}{||v||^2}$  and we have  $u \wedge v = w$ . Suppose there exist u' other than u such that  $u' \times v = w$ . Then

$$u \wedge v = u' \wedge v$$
  

$$\Rightarrow (u' - u) \wedge v = 0$$
  

$$\Rightarrow u' - u = kv, \quad k \in R$$
  

$$\Rightarrow u' = u + kv, \quad k \in R.$$

Therefore, the most general solution of  $u \wedge v = w$  is

$$u = \frac{v \wedge w}{||v||^2} + kv, \quad k \in R.$$