

EDWARDS
& PENNEY

FIFTH EDITION

MULTIVARIABLE
CALCULUS

WITH ANALYTIC GEOMETRY

PATRICK MENARD
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403 MEMORIAL Dr
Cambridge, MA 02139

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C. HENRY EDWARDS

The University of Georgia, Athens

DAVID E. PENNEY

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Prentice Hall
Upper Saddle River, NJ 07458



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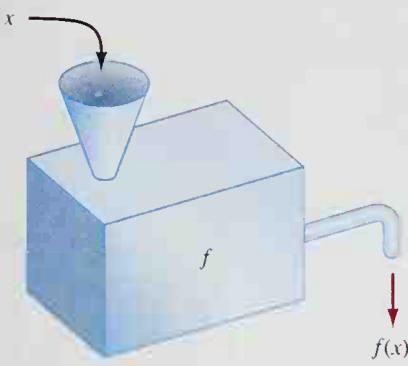
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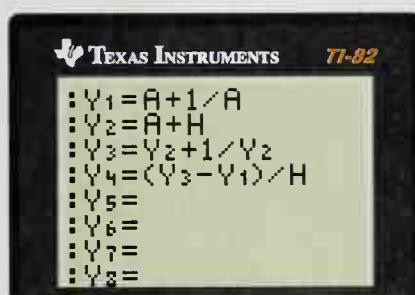
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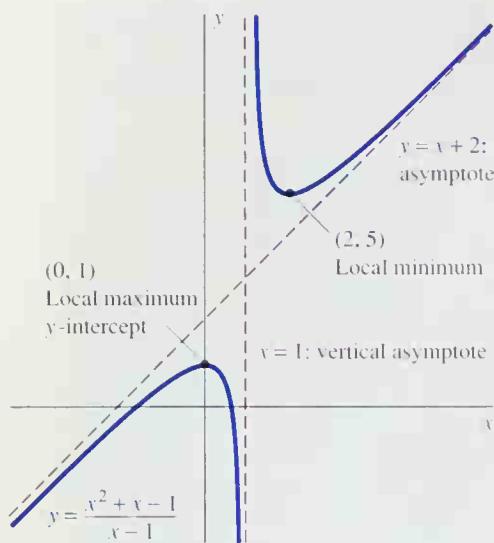
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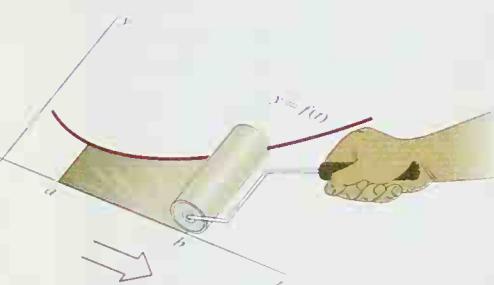
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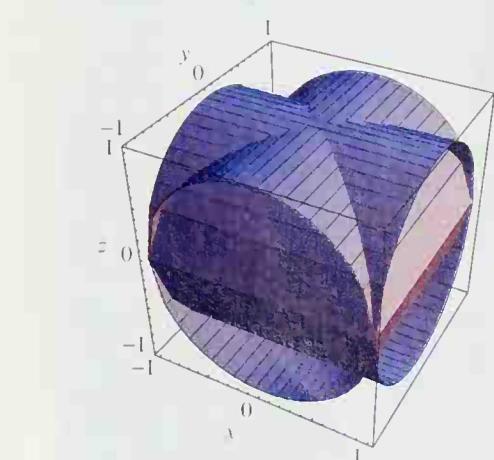
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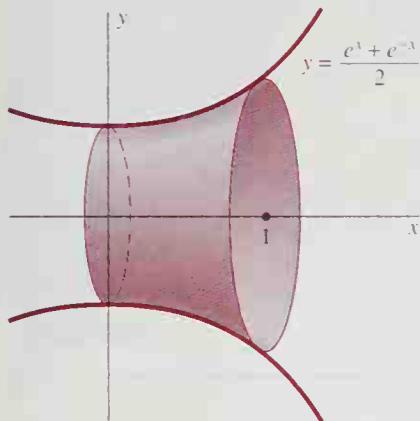


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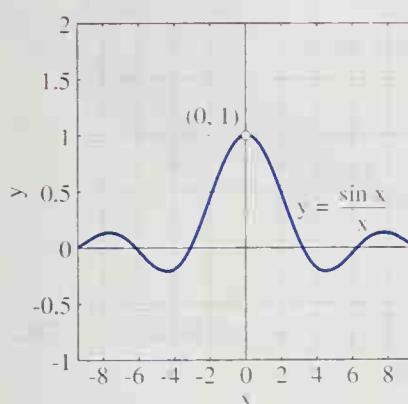
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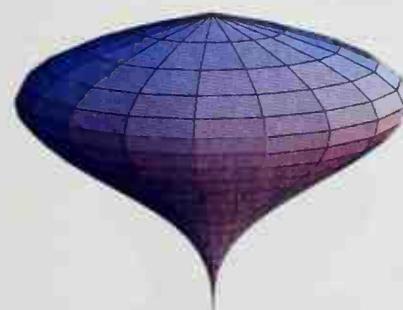
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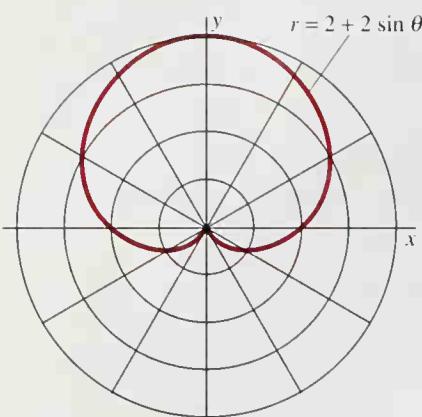
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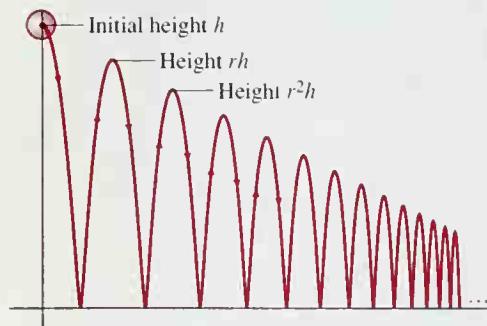
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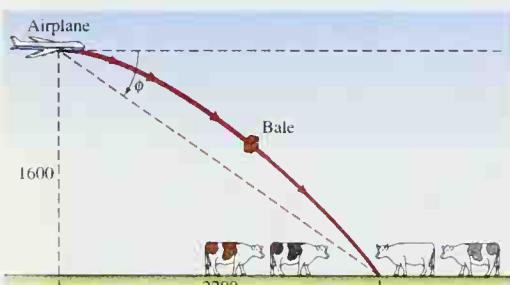
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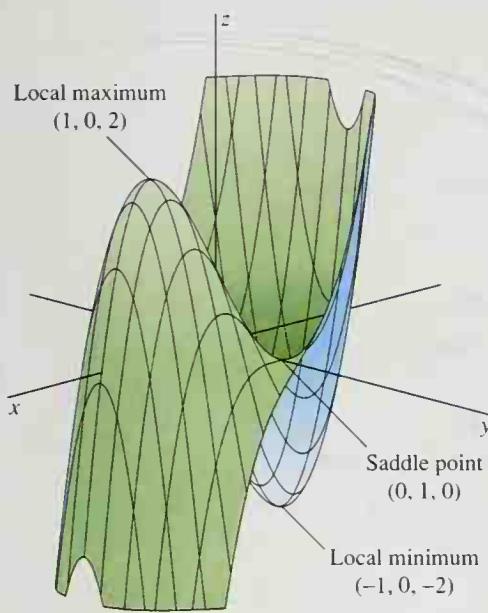
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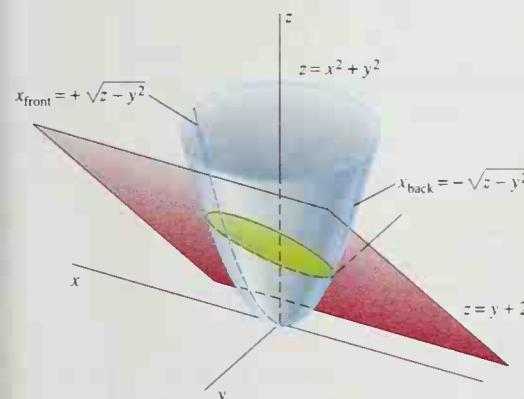
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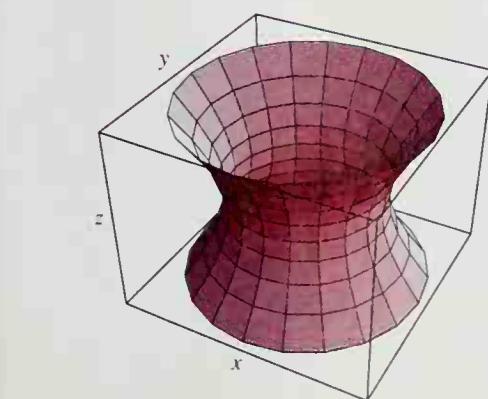
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ABOUT THE AUTHORS

C. Henry Edwards, University of Georgia, received his Ph.D. from the University of Tennessee in 1960. He then taught at the University of Wisconsin for three years and spent a year at the Institute for Advanced Study (Princeton) as an Alfred P. Sloan Research Fellow. Professor Edwards has just completed his thirty-third year of teaching at Georgia (including teaching calculus almost every year) and has received numerous University-wide teaching awards (including his recent selection as the single 1997 recipient of the state-wide Georgia Regents award for research university faculty teaching excellence). His scholarly career has ranged from research and dissertation direction in topology to the history of mathematics to computing and technology in mathematics (his focus in recent years). In addition to his calculus, advanced calculus, linear algebra, and differential equations textbooks, he is also well-known to calculus instructors as author of *The Historical Development of the Calculus* (Springer-Verlag, 1979). He has served as a principal investigator on three recent NSF-supported projects: (1) A project to introduce technology throughout the mathematics curricula in two northeast Georgia public school systems (including *Maple* for beginning algebra students), (2) A *Calculus-with-Mathematica* pilot program at the University of Georgia, (3) A *Matlab*-based computer lab project for upper division numerical analysis and applied mathematics students. Currently he is leading the development of a technology-intensive web-based freshman mathematics course for non-science majors.

David E. Penney, University of Georgia, completed his Ph.D. at Tulane University in 1965 while teaching at the University of New Orleans. Earlier he had worked in experimental biophysics at Tulane University and the Veteran's Administration Hospital in New Orleans. He began teaching calculus in 1957 and has taught the course almost every term since then. He joined the mathematics department at the University of Georgia in 1966 and has since received numerous university-wide teaching awards as well as directing several doctoral dissertations and undergraduate research projects. He is the author of research papers in number theory and topology and is author or co-author of books on calculus, differential equations, linear algebra, and liberal arts mathematics.

The role and practice of mathematics in the world at large is now undergoing a revolution that is driven largely by computational technology. Calculators and computer systems provide students and teachers with mathematical power that no previous generation could have imagined. We read even in daily newspapers of stunning mathematical events like the proof of Fermat's last theorem, finally completed since the fourth edition of this text appeared. Surely *today* is the most exciting time in all history to be mathematically alive! So in preparing this new edition of *Calculus with Analytic Geometry*, we wanted first of all to bring a sense of this excitement to the students who will use it.

We also realize that the calculus course is a principal gateway to technical and professional careers for a still increasing number of students in an ever widening range of curricula. Wherever we look—in business and government, in science and technology—almost every aspect of professional work in the world involves mathematics. We therefore have re-thought once again the goal of providing calculus students the solid foundation for their subsequent work that they deserve to get from their calculus textbook.

The text for this edition has been reworked from start to finish. Discussions and explanations have been rewritten throughout in language that (we hope) today's students will find lively and accessible. Seldom-covered topics have been trimmed to accommodate a leaner calculus course. Historical and biographical notes have been added to show students the human face of calculus. Graphics calculator and computer lab projects (with *Derive*, *Maple*, and *Mathematica* options) for key sections throughout the text have been added. Indeed, a new spirit and flavor reflecting the prevalent interest in graphics calculators and computer systems will be discernible throughout this edition. Consistent with the graphical emphasis of the current calculus reform movement, several hundred new computer-generated figures have been added. Many of these additional figures serve to illustrate a more deliberative and exploratory approach to problem-solving. Our own teaching experience suggests that the use of contemporary technology can make calculus more concrete and accessible to many students.

FIFTH EDITION FEATURES

In preparing this edition, we have benefitted from many valuable comments and suggestions from users of the first four editions. This revision was so pervasive that the individual changes are too numerous to be detailed in a preface, but the following paragraphs summarize those that may be of widest interest.

Additional Problems This revision incorporates the most substantial addition of new problems since the first edition was published in 1982. Over 1250 of the fifth edition's approximately 6700 problems are new for this edition. Almost all of these new problems lie in the intermediate range of difficulty, neither highly theoretical nor computationally routine. Many of them have a new technology flavor, suggesting (if not requiring) the use of technology ranging from a graphing calculator to a computer algebra system.

New Examples and Computational Details Throughout we have rewritten discussions and explanations in language that today's students will find more lively and accessible. The extent of this revision in text content is illustrated by the fact that approximately 20% of the fifth edition's over 700 in-text examples are new. Moreover, we have inserted an additional line or two of computational detail in many of the worked-out examples to make them easier for student readers to follow. The purpose of these computational changes is to make the computations themselves less of a barrier to conceptual understanding.

Project Material Each chapter now contains several supplementary projects—a total of more than 50, many of them new for this edition. Each project typically employs some aspect of modern computational technology to illustrate the principal ideas of the preceding section, and typically contains additional problems intended for solution with the use of a graphics calculator or computer. Figures and data illustrate the use of graphics calculators and computer systems such as *Derive*, *Maple*, and *Mathematica*. This project material is suitable for use in a computer or calculator lab conducted in association with a standard calculus course, perhaps meeting weekly. It can also be used as a basis for graphics calculator or computer assignments that students will complete outside of class, or for individual study.

Computer Graphics An increased emphasis on graphical visualization along with numeric and symbolic understanding is provided by the computer-generated artwork, about 25% of which is new for this edition. Over 550 MATLAB-generated figures (half of them new for this edition) illustrate the kind of figures that students using graphics calculators can produce for themselves. Many of these are included with new graphical problem material. *Mathematica*-generated color graphics are included to highlight all sections involving three-dimensional material.

Historical Material Historical and biographical chapter openings offer students a sense of the development of our subject by real, live human beings. Both authors are fond of the history of mathematics and believe that it can favorably influence both our teaching and students' learning of mathematics. For this reason numerous historical comments appear in the text itself.

Introductory Chapters Chapters 1 and 2 have been streamlined for a leaner and quicker start on calculus. Chapter 1 concentrates on functions and graphs. It includes two sections cataloging the elementary functions of calculus and provides a foundation for an early emphasis on transcendental functions. Chapter 1 concludes with a section addressing the question "What is calculus?" Chapter 2, on limits, begins with a section on tangent lines to motivate the official introduction of limits in Section 2.2. Trigonometric limits are treated throughout Chapter 2 in order to encourage a richer and more visual introduction to the limit concept.

Differentiation Chapters The sequence of topics in Chapters 3 and 4 varies a bit from the most traditional order. We attempt to build student confidence by introducing topics more nearly in order of increasing difficulty. The chain rule appears quite early (in Section 3.3) and we cover the basic techniques for differentiating algebraic functions before discussing maxima and minima in Sections 3.5 and 3.6. The appearance of inverse functions is delayed until Chapter 7. Section 3.7 treats the derivatives of all six trigonometric functions. Implicit differentiation and related rates are combined in a single section (Section 3.8). The mean value theorem and its applications are deferred to Chapter 4. Sections 4.4 on the first derivative test and 4.6 on higher derivatives and concavity have been simplified and streamlined. A

great deal of new graphic material has been added in the curve-sketching sections that conclude Chapter 4.

Integration Chapters New and simpler examples have been inserted throughout Chapters 5 and 6. Antiderivatives (formerly at the end of Chapter 4) now begin Chapter 5. Section 5.4 (Riemann sums) has been simplified greatly, with upper and lower sums eliminated and endpoint and midpoint sums emphasized instead. Many instructors now believe that the first applications of integration ought not be confined to the standard area and volume computations; Section 6.5 is an optional section that introduces separable differential equations. To eliminate redundancy, the material on centroids and the theorems of Pappus is delayed to Chapter 14 (Multiple Integrals), where it can be treated in a more natural context.

Early Transcendentals Functions Options An “early transcendental functions” version of this book is also available. In the present version, the flexible organization of Chapter 7 offers a variety of options to those instructors who favor an earlier treatment of transcendental functions. Section 7.1 begins with the “high school” approach to exponential functions, followed by the idea of a logarithm as “the power to which the base a must be raised to get the number x .” On this basis, Section 7.1 carries out a low-key review of the laws of exponents and of logarithms, and investigates informally the differentiation of exponential and logarithmic functions. This section on the elementary differential calculus of exponentials and logarithms can be covered any time after Section 3.3 (on the chain rule). If this is done, then Section 7.2—based on the definition of the logarithm as an integral—can be covered any time after the integral has been defined in Chapter 5 (along with as much of the remainder of Chapter 7 as the instructor desires). The remaining transcendental functions—inverse trigonometric and hyperbolic—are now treated in Chapter 8, which includes also indeterminate forms and l’Hôpital’s rule (much earlier than in the third edition).

Thus the text offers a variety of ways to accommodate a course syllabus that includes exponential functions early in differential calculus, and/or logarithmic functions early in integral calculus.

Streamlining Techniques of Integration Chapter 9 is organized to accommodate those instructors who feel that methods of formal integration now require less emphasis, in view of modern techniques for both numerical and symbolic integration. Integration by parts (Section 9.3) now precedes trigonometric integrals (Section 9.4). The method of partial fractions appears in Section 9.5, and trigonometric substitutions and integrals involving quadratic polynomials follow in Sections 9.6 and 9.7. Improper integrals appear in Section 9.8, and the more specialized rationalizing substitutions have been relegated to the Chapter 9 Miscellaneous Problems. This rearrangement of Chapter 9 makes it more convenient to stop wherever the instructor desires.

Vectors The major reorganization for the fifth edition is a response to numerous user suggestions to combine the treatments of two-dimensional vectors and three-dimensional vectors, which appeared in separate chapters of the fourth edition. In this reorganization we have also amalgamated the treatments of polar curves and parametric curves, which also appeared in separate chapters in the fourth edition. As a consequence, the contents of three chapters in the fourth edition have been efficiently combined in two chapters of this revision—Chapter 10 on Polar Coordinates and Plane Curves, and Chapter 12 on Vectors, Curves, and Surfaces in Space.

Infinite Series After the usual introduction to convergence of infinite sequences and series in Sections 11.2 and 11.3, a combined treatment of Taylor polynomials and Taylor series appears in Section 11.4. This makes it possible for the instructor to experiment with a much briefer treatment of infinite series, but still offer exposure to the Taylor series that are so important for applications.

Differential Equations Many calculus instructors now believe that differential equations should be seen as early and as often as possible. The very simplest differential equations (of the form $dy/dx = f(x)$) appear in a subsection at the end of Section 5.2 (Antiderivatives). Section 6.5 illustrates applications of integration to the solution of separable differential equations. Section 9.5 includes applications of the method of partial fractions to population problems and the logistic equation. In such ways we have distributed enough of the spirit and flavor of differential equations throughout the text that it seemed expeditious to eliminate the (former) final chapter devoted solely to differential equations. But those who so desire can arrange with the publisher to obtain for supplemental use appropriate sections of Edwards and Penney, *Differential Equations: Computing and Modeling* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1996).

Linear Algebra Notation and Terminology An innovation for the fifth edition is the inclusion (for optional coverage) of matrix terminology and notation in the multivariable portion of the text—for example, in the treatment of quadric surfaces in Chapter 12 and of directional derivatives and the multivariable chain rule in Chapter 13. These subsections will enhance the understanding of multivariable concepts for those students who are familiar with matrix notation at the level of the definition of the product of two matrices.

MAINTAINING TRADITIONAL STRENGTHS

While many new features have been added, five related objectives remained in constant view: **concreteness, readability, motivation, applicability, and accuracy**.

▼ **CONCRETENESS** The power of calculus is impressive in its precise answers to realistic questions and problems. In the necessary conceptual development of the subject, we keep in sight the central question: How does one actually *compute* it? We place special emphasis on concrete examples, applications, and problems that serve both to highlight the development of the theory and to demonstrate the remarkable versatility of calculus in the investigation of important scientific questions.

▼ **READABILITY** Difficulties in learning mathematics often are complicated by language difficulties. Our writing style stems from the belief that crisp exposition, both intuitive and precise, makes mathematics more accessible—and hence more readily learned—with no loss of rigor. We hope our language is clear and attractive to students and that they can and actually will read it, thereby enabling the instructor to concentrate class time on the less routine aspects of teaching calculus.

▼ **MOTIVATION** Our exposition is centered around examples of the use of calculus to solve real problems of interest to real people. In selecting such problems for examples and exercises, we took the view that stimulating interest and motivating effective study go hand in hand. We attempt to make it clear to students how the knowledge gained with each new concept or technique will be worth the

effort expended. In theoretical discussions, especially, we try to provide an intuitive picture of the goal before we set off in pursuit of it.

- ▼ **APPLICATIONS** Its diverse applications are what attract many students to calculus, and realistic applications provide valuable motivation and reinforcement for all students. This book is well-known for the broad range of applications that we include, but it is neither necessary nor desirable that the course cover all of the applications in the book. Each section or subsection that may be omitted without loss of continuity is marked with an asterisk. This provides flexibility for each instructor to determine his or her own flavor and emphasis.
- ▼ **ACCURACY** Our coverage of calculus is complete (although we hope it is somewhat less than encyclopedic). Still more than its predecessors, this edition was subjected to a comprehensive reviewing process to help ensure accuracy. For example, essentially every problem answer appearing in the Answers section at the back of the book in this edition has been verified using *Mathematica*. With regard to the selection and sequence of mathematical topics, our approach is traditional. But close examination of the treatment of standard topics may betray our own participation in the current movement to revitalize the teaching of calculus. We continue to favor an intuitive approach that emphasizes both conceptual understanding and care in the formulation of definitions and key concepts of calculus. Some proofs that may be omitted at the discretion of the instructor are placed at the ends of sections and others are deferred to the book's appendices. In this way we leave ample room for variation in seeking the proper balance between rigor and intuition.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

A variety of electronic and printed supplements are provided by the publisher, including a WWW site that constitutes an on-line calculator/computer guide for calculus. This web site at www.prenhall.com/edwards is designed to assist calculus students as they work on the book's projects using graphing calculators and computer algebra systems such as *Derive*, *Maple*, *Mathematica*, and *MATLAB*. The authors will maintain and expand this site to provide calculus students with new and evolving supplementary materials on a continuing basis, and to explore the use of emerging technology for new channels of communication and more active learning experiences.

Answers to most of the odd-numbered problems appear in the back of the book. Solutions to most problems (other than those odd-numbered ones for which an answer alone is sufficient) are available in the *Instructor's Solutions Manual*. A subset of that manual, containing solutions to problems numbered 1, 4, 7, 10, . . . is available as a *Student Solutions Manual*. A collection of some 1700 additional problems suitable for use as test questions, the *Calculus Test Item File*, is available (in both electronic and hard-copy form) for use by instructors. Finally, an *Instructor's Edition* including section-by-section teaching outlines and suggestions is available to those who are using this book to teach calculus.

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FIFTH EDITION

MULTIVARIABLE CALCULUS

WITH ANALYTIC GEOMETRY

POLAR COORDINATES AND PLANE CURVES



Pierre de Fermat (1601–1665)

Pierre de Fermat exemplifies the distinguished tradition of great amateurs in mathematics. Like his contemporary René Descartes, he was educated as a lawyer. But unlike Descartes, Fermat actually practiced law as his profession and served in the regional parliament, devoting only his leisure time to the study of mathematics and ancient manuscripts.

In a margin of one such manuscript (by the Greek mathematician Diophantus) was found a handwritten note that has remained an enigma ever since. Fermat asserts that for no integer $n > 2$ do positive integers x , y , and z exist such that $x^n + y^n = z^n$. For instance, although $15^2 + 8^2 = 17^2$, the sum of two (positive integer) cubes cannot be a cube. “I have found an admirable proof of this.” Fermat

wrote, “but this margin is too narrow to contain it.” Despite the publication of many incorrect proofs, “Fermat’s last theorem” remained unproved for three and one-half centuries. But in a June 1993 lecture, the British mathematician Andrew Wiles of Princeton University announced a long and complex proof of Fermat’s last theorem. With some gaps in this proof now repaired, experts in the field agree that Fermat’s last *conjecture* is, finally, a *theorem*.

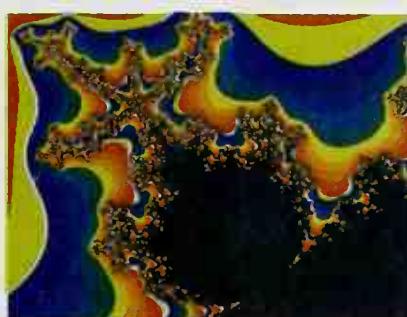
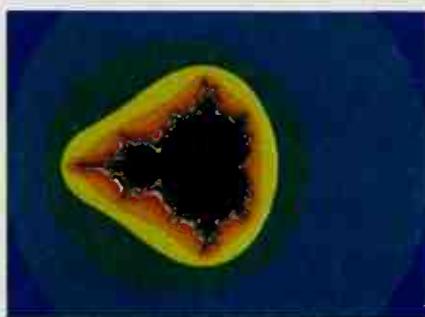
Descartes and Fermat shared in the discovery of analytic geometry. But whereas Descartes typically used geometrical methods to solve algebraic equations (see the Chapter 1 opening), Fermat concentrated on the investigation of geometric curves defined by algebraic equations. For instance, he showed that the graph of an equation of the form $Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0$ is gen-

erally one of the “conic sections” described in this chapter.

The brilliantly colored left-hand photograph is a twentieth-century example of a geometric object defined by means of algebraic operations. Starting with the point $P(a, b)$ in the xy -plane, we interpret P as the complex number $c = a + bi$ and define the sequence $\{z_n\}$ of points of the complex plane iteratively (as in Section 3.9) by the equations

$$z_0 = c, \quad z_{n+1} = z_n^2 + c.$$

If this sequence of points remains inside the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ for all n , then the original point $P(a, b)$ is colored black. Otherwise, the color assigned to P is determined by the speed with which this sequence “escapes” that circular disk. The set of all black points is the famous *Mandelbrot set*, discovered in 1980 by the French mathematician Benoit Mandelbrot.



The object in the right-hand figure is a subset of that in the left-hand figure.

10.1 ANALYTIC GEOMETRY AND THE CONIC SECTIONS

Plane analytic geometry, a central topic of this chapter, is the use of algebra and calculus to study the properties of curves in the xy -plane. The ancient Greeks used deductive reasoning and the methods of axiomatic Euclidean geometry to study lines, circles, and the **conic sections** (parabolas, ellipses, and hyperbolas). The properties of conic sections have played an important role in diverse scientific applications since the seventeenth century, when Kepler discovered—and Newton explained—the fact that the orbits of planets and other bodies in the solar system are conic sections.

The French mathematicians Descartes and Fermat, working almost independently of each other, initiated analytic geometry in 1637. The central idea of analytic geometry is the correspondence between an equation $F(x, y) = 0$ and its **locus** (typically, a curve), the set of all those points (x, y) in the plane with coordinates that satisfy this equation.

A central idea of analytic geometry is this: Given a geometric locus or curve, its properties can be derived algebraically or analytically from its defining equation $F(x, y) = 0$. For example, suppose that the equation of a given curve turns out to be the linear equation

$$Ax + By = C, \quad (1)$$

where A , B , and C are constants with $B \neq 0$. This equation may be written in the form

$$y = mx + b, \quad (2)$$

where $m = -A/B$ and $b = C/B$. But Eq. (2) is the slope-intercept equation of the straight line with slope m and y -intercept b . Hence the given curve is this straight line. We use this approach in Example 1 to show that a specific geometrically described locus is a particular straight line.

EXAMPLE 1 Prove that the set of all points equidistant from the points $(1, 1)$ and $(5, 3)$ is the perpendicular bisector of the line segment that joins these two points.

Solution The typical point $P(x, y)$ in Fig. 10.1.1 is equally distant from $(1, 1)$ and $(5, 3)$ if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} (x - 1)^2 + (y - 1)^2 &= (x - 5)^2 + (y - 3)^2; \\ x^2 - 2x + 1 + y^2 - 2y + 1 &= x^2 - 10x + 25 + y^2 - 6y + 9; \\ 2x + y &= 8; \\ y &= -2x + 8. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Thus the given locus is the straight line in Eq. (3) whose slope is -2 . The straight line through $(1, 1)$ and $(5, 3)$ has equation

$$y - 1 = \frac{1}{2}(x - 1) \quad (4)$$

and thus has slope $\frac{1}{2}$. Because the product of the slopes of these two lines is -1 , it follows (from Theorem 2 in Section 1.2) that these lines are perpendicular. If we solve Eqs. (3) and (4) simultaneously, we find that the intersection of these lines is, indeed, the midpoint $(3, 2)$ of the given line segment. Thus the locus described is the perpendicular bisector of this line segment. ■

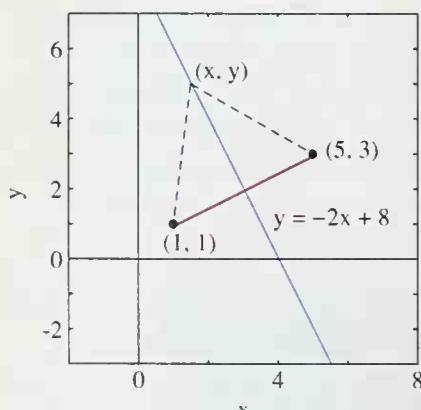


Fig. 10.1.1 The perpendicular bisector of Example 1

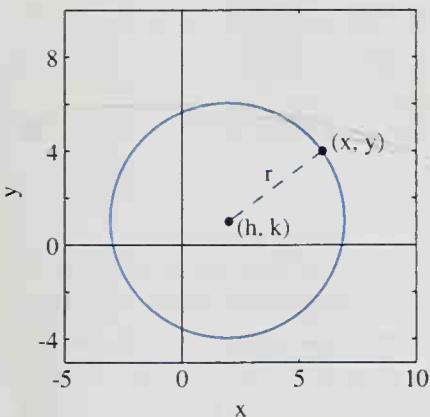


Fig. 10.1.2 The circle with center (h, k) and radius r

The circle shown in Fig. 10.1.2 has center (h, k) and radius r . It may be described geometrically as the set or locus of all points $P(x, y)$ whose distance from (h, k) is r . The distance formula then gives

$$(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 = r^2 \quad (5)$$

as the equation of this circle. In particular, if $h = k = 0$, then Eq. (5) takes the simple form

$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2. \quad (6)$$

We can see directly from this equation, without further reference to the definition of *circle*, that a circle centered at the origin has the following symmetry properties:

- ▼ *Symmetry around the x-axis*: The equation of the curve is unchanged when y is replaced with $-y$.
- ▼ *Symmetry around the y-axis*: The equation of the curve is unchanged when x is replaced with $-x$.
- ▼ *Symmetry with respect to the origin*: The equation of the curve is unchanged when x is replaced with $-x$ and y is replaced with $-y$.
- ▼ *Symmetry around the 45° line $y = x$* : The equation is unchanged when x and y are interchanged.

The relationship between Eqs. (5) and (6) is an illustration of the *translation principle* stated informally in Section 1.3. Imagine a translation (or “slide”) of the plane that moves the point (x, y) to the new position $(x + h, y + k)$. Under such a translation, a curve C is moved to a new curve. The equation of the new curve is easy to obtain from the old equation—we simply replace x with $x - h$ and y with $y - k$. Conversely, we can recognize a translated circle from its equation: Any equation of the form

$$x^2 + y^2 + Ax + By + C = 0 \quad (7)$$

can be rewritten in the form

$$(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 = p$$

by completing squares, as in Example 2 of Section 1.3. Thus the graph of Eq. (7) is either a circle (if $p > 0$), a single point (if $p = 0$), or no points at all (if $p < 0$). We use this approach in Example 2 to discover that the locus described is a particular circle.

EXAMPLE 2 Determine the locus of a point $P(x, y)$ if its distance $|AP|$ from $A(7, 1)$ is twice its distance $|BP|$ from $B(1, 4)$.

Solution The points A , B , and P appear in Fig. 10.1.3, along with a curve through P that represents the given locus. From

$$|AP|^2 = 4|BP|^2 \quad (\text{because } |AP| = 2|BP|),$$

we get the equation

$$(x - 7)^2 + (y - 1)^2 = 4[(x - 1)^2 + (y - 4)^2].$$

Hence

$$3x^2 + 3y^2 + 6x - 30y + 18 = 0;$$

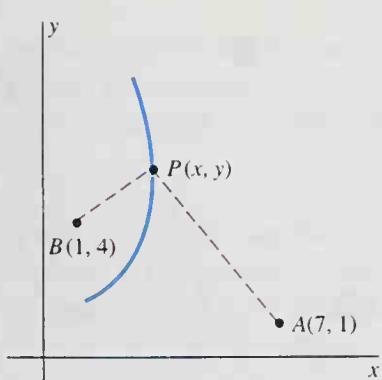


Fig. 10.1.3 The locus of Example 2

$$x^2 + y^2 + 2x - 10y = -6;$$

$$(x + 1)^2 + (y - 5)^2 = 20.$$

Thus the locus is a circle with center $(-1, 5)$ and radius $r = \sqrt{20} = 2\sqrt{5}$. ■

Conic Sections

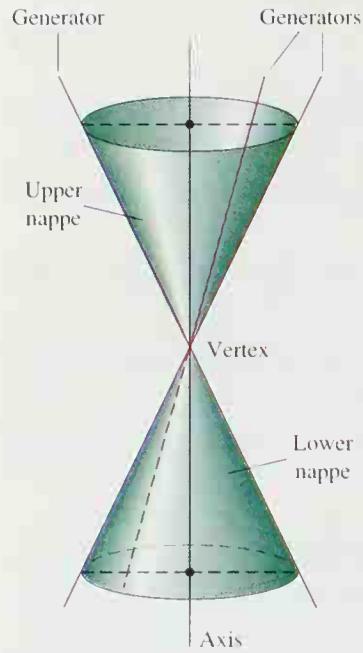


Fig. 10.1.4 A cone with two nappes

Conic sections are so named because they are the curves formed by a plane intersecting a cone. The cone used is a right circular cone with two *nappes* extending infinitely far in both directions (Fig. 10.1.4). There are three types of conic sections, as illustrated in Fig. 10.1.5. If the cutting plane is parallel to some generator of the cone (a line that, when revolving around an axis, forms the cone), then the curve of intersection is a *parabola*. If the plane is not parallel to a generator, then the curve of intersection is either a single closed curve—an *ellipse*—or a *hyperbola* with two branches.

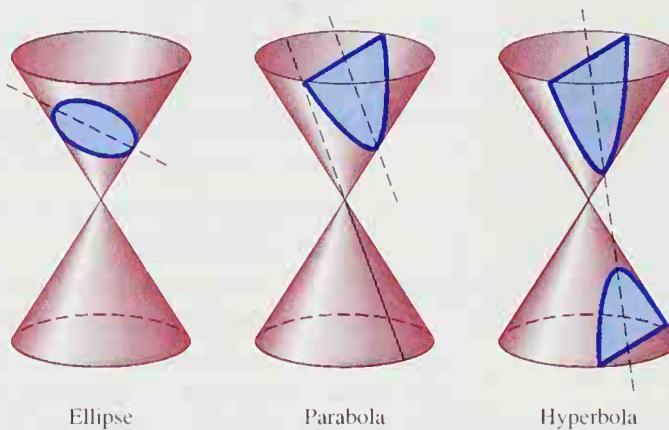


Fig. 10.1.5 The conic sections

In Appendix K we use methods of three-dimensional geometry to show that if an appropriate xy -coordinate system is set up in the intersecting plane, then the equations of the three conic sections take the following forms:

$$\text{Parabola: } y^2 = kx; \quad (8)$$

$$\text{Ellipse: } \frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1; \quad (9)$$

$$\text{Hyperbola: } \frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1. \quad (10)$$

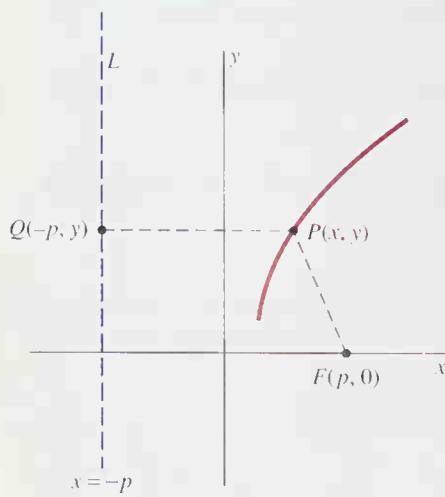


Fig. 10.1.6 The locus of Example 3

In Sections 10.6 through 10.8 we discuss these conic sections on the basis of definitions that are two-dimensional—they do not require the three-dimensional setting of a cone and an intersecting plane. Example 3 illustrates one such approach to the conic sections.

EXAMPLE 3 Let e be a given positive number (*not* to be confused with the natural logarithm base; in the context of conic sections, e stands for *eccentricity*). Determine the locus of a point $P(x, y)$ if its distance from the fixed point $F(p, 0)$ is e times its distance from the vertical line L whose equation is $x = -p$ (Fig. 10.1.6).

Solution Let PQ be the perpendicular from P to the line L . Then the condition

$$|PF| = e|PQ|$$

takes the analytic form

$$\sqrt{(x - p)^2 + y^2} = e|x - (-p)|.$$

That is,

$$(x^2 - 2px + p^2) + y^2 = e^2(x^2 + 2px + p^2),$$

so

$$x^2(1 - e^2) - 2p(1 + e^2)x + y^2 = -p^2(1 - e^2). \quad (11)$$

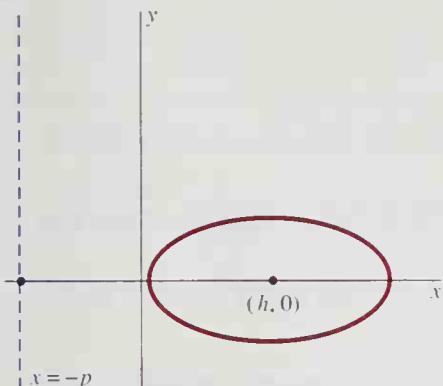


Fig. 10.1.7 An ellipse: $e < 1$
(Example 3)

▼ Case 1: $e = 1$. Then Eq. (11) reduces to

$$y^2 = 4px. \quad (12)$$

We see upon comparison with Eq. (8) that the locus of P is a *parabola* if $e = 1$.

▼ Case 2: $e < 1$. Dividing both sides of Eq. (11) by $1 - e^2$, we get

$$x^2 - 2p \cdot \frac{1 + e^2}{1 - e^2}x + \frac{y^2}{1 - e^2} = -p^2.$$

We now complete the square in x . The result is

$$\left(x - p \cdot \frac{1 + e^2}{1 - e^2}\right)^2 + \frac{y^2}{1 - e^2} = p^2 \left[\left(\frac{1 + e^2}{1 - e^2}\right)^2 - 1\right] = a^2.$$

This equation has the form

$$\frac{(x - h)^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1, \quad (13)$$

where

$$h = +p \cdot \frac{1 + e^2}{1 - e^2} \quad \text{and} \quad b^2 = a^2(1 - e^2). \quad (14)$$

When we compare Eqs. (9) and (13), we see that if $e < 1$, then the locus of P is an *ellipse* with $(0, 0)$ translated to $(h, 0)$, as illustrated in Fig. 10.1.7.

▼ Case 3: $e > 1$. In this case, Eq. (11) reduces to a translated version of Eq. (10), so the locus of P is a *hyperbola*. The details, which are similar to those in case 2, are left for Problem 35.

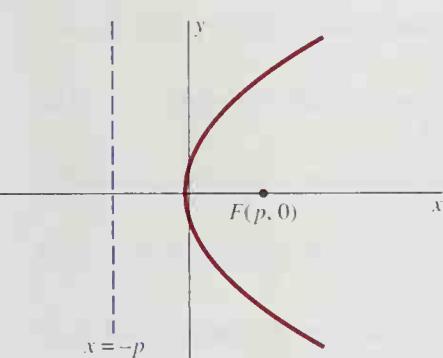


Fig. 10.1.8 A parabola: $e = 1$
(Example 3)

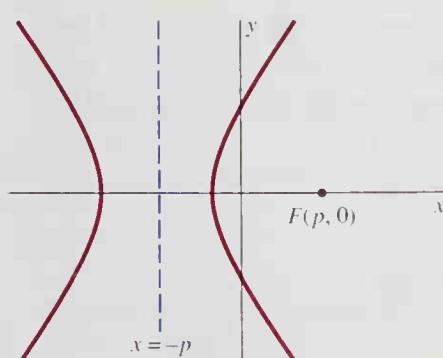


Fig. 10.1.9 A hyperbola: $e > 1$
(Example 3)

Thus the locus in Example 3 is a *parabola* if $e = 1$, an *ellipse* if $e < 1$, and a *hyperbola* if $e > 1$. The number e is called the **eccentricity** of the conic section. The point $F(p, 0)$ is commonly called its **focus** in the parabolic case. Figure 10.1.8 shows the parabola of case 1, and Fig. 10.1.9 illustrates the hyperbola of case 3. ■

If we begin with Eqs. (8) through (10), we can derive the general characteristics of the three conic sections shown in Figs. 10.1.7 through 10.1.9. For example, in the case of the parabola of Eq. (8) with $k > 0$, the curve passes through the origin, $x \geq 0$ at each of the curve's points, $y \rightarrow \pm\infty$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, and the graph is symmetric around the x -axis (because the curve is unchanged when y is replaced with $-y$).

In the case of the ellipse of Eq. (9), the graph must be symmetric around both coordinate axes. At each point (x, y) of the graph, we must have $|x| \leq a$ and $|y| \leq b$. The graph intersects the axes at the four points $(\pm a, 0)$ and $(0, \pm b)$.

Finally, the hyperbola of Eq. (10), or its alternative form

$$y = \pm \frac{b}{a} \sqrt{x^2 - a^2},$$

is symmetric around both coordinate axes. It meets the x -axis at the two points $(\pm a, 0)$ and has one branch consisting of points with $x \geq a$ and has another branch where $x \leq -a$. Also, $|y| \rightarrow \infty$ as $|x| \rightarrow \infty$.

10.1 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 6, write an equation of the specified straight line.

1. The line through the point $(1, -2)$ that is parallel to the line with equation $x + 2y = 5$
2. The line through the point $(-3, 2)$ that is perpendicular to the line with equation $3x - 4y = 7$
3. The line that is tangent to the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 25$ at the point $(3, -4)$
4. The line that is tangent to the curve $y^2 = x + 3$ at the point $(6, -3)$
5. The line that is perpendicular to the curve $x^2 + 2y^2 = 6$ at the point $(2, -1)$
6. The perpendicular bisector of the line segment with endpoints $(-3, 2)$ and $(5, -4)$

In Problems 7 through 16, find the center and radius of the circle described in the given equation.

7. $x^2 + 2x + y^2 = 4$
8. $x^2 + y^2 - 4y = 5$
9. $x^2 + y^2 - 4x + 6y = 3$
10. $x^2 + y^2 + 8x - 6y = 0$
11. $4x^2 + 4y^2 - 4x = 3$
12. $4x^2 + 4y^2 + 12y = 7$
13. $2x^2 + 2y^2 - 2x + 6y = 13$
14. $9x^2 + 9y^2 - 12x = 5$
15. $9x^2 + 9y^2 + 6x - 24y = 19$
16. $36x^2 + 36y^2 - 48x - 108y = 47$

In Problems 17 through 20, show that the graph of the given equation consists either of a single point or of no points.

17. $x^2 + y^2 - 6x - 4y + 13 = 0$
18. $2x^2 + 2y^2 + 6x + 2y + 5 = 0$
19. $x^2 + y^2 - 6x - 10y + 84 = 0$
20. $9x^2 + 9y^2 - 6x - 6y + 11 = 0$

In Problems 21 through 24, write the equation of the specified circle.

21. The circle with center $(-1, -2)$ that passes through the point $(2, 3)$

22. The circle with center $(2, -2)$ that is tangent to the line $y = x + 4$
23. The circle with center $(6, 6)$ that is tangent to the line $y = 2x - 4$
24. The circle that passes through the points $(4, 6)$, $(-2, -2)$, and $(5, -1)$

In Problems 25 through 30, derive the equation of the set of all points $P(x, y)$ that satisfy the given condition. Then sketch the graph of the equation.

25. The point $P(x, y)$ is equally distant from the two points $(3, 2)$ and $(7, 4)$.
26. The distance from P to the point $(-2, 1)$ is half the distance from P to the point $(4, -2)$.
27. The point P is three times as far from the point $(-3, 2)$ as it is from the point $(5, 10)$.
28. The distance from P to the line $x = -3$ is equal to its distance from the point $(3, 0)$.
29. The sum of the distances from P to the points $(4, 0)$ and $(-4, 0)$ is 10.
30. The sum of the distances from P to the points $(0, 3)$ and $(0, -3)$ is 10.
31. Find all the lines through the point $(2, 1)$ that are tangent to the parabola $y = x^2$.
32. Find all lines through the point $(-1, 2)$ that are normal to the parabola $y = x^2$.
33. Find all lines that are normal to the curve $xy = 4$ and simultaneously are parallel to the line $y = 4x$.
34. Find all lines that are tangent to the curve $y = x^3$ and are also parallel to the line $3x - y = 5$.
35. Suppose that $e > 1$. Show that Eq. (11) of this section can be written in the form

$$\frac{(x - h)^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1,$$

thus showing that its graph is a hyperbola. Find a , b , and h in terms of p and e .

10.2 POLAR COORDINATES

A familiar way to locate a point in the coordinate plane is by specifying its rectangular coordinates (x, y) —that is, by giving its abscissa x and ordinate y relative to given perpendicular axes. In some problems it is more convenient to locate a point by means of its *polar coordinates*. The polar coordinates give its position relative to a fixed reference point O (the **pole**) and to a given ray (the **polar axis**) beginning at O .

For convenience, we begin with a given xy -coordinate system and then take the origin as the pole and the nonnegative x -axis as the polar axis. Given the pole O and the polar axis, the point P with **polar coordinates** r and θ , written as the ordered pair (r, θ) , is located as follows. First find the terminal side of the angle θ , given in radians, where θ is measured counterclockwise (if $\theta > 0$) from the x -axis (the polar axis) as its initial side. If $r \geq 0$, then P is on the terminal side of this angle at the distance r from the origin. If $r < 0$, then P lies on the ray opposite the terminal side at the distance $|r| = -r > 0$ from the pole (Fig. 10.2.1). The **radial coordinate** r can be described as the *directed distance* of P from the pole along the terminal side of the angle θ . Thus, if r is positive, the point P lies in the same quadrant as θ , whereas if r is negative, then P lies in the opposite quadrant. If $r = 0$, the angle θ does not matter; the polar coordinates $(0, \theta)$ represent the origin whatever the **angular coordinate** θ might be. The origin, or pole, is the only point for which $r = 0$.

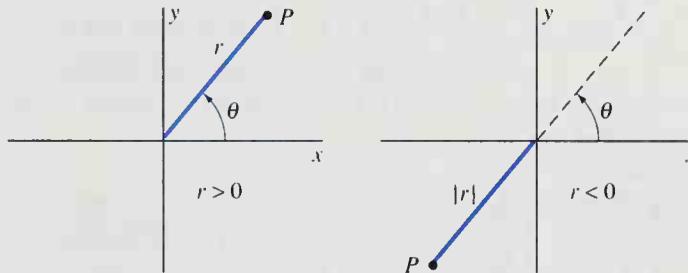


Fig. 10.2.1 The difference between the two cases $r > 0$ and $r < 0$

EXAMPLE 1 Polar coordinates differ from rectangular coordinates in that any point has more than one representation in polar coordinates. For example, the polar coordinates (r, θ) and $(-r, \theta + \pi)$ represent the same point P , as shown in Fig. 10.2.2. More generally, this point P has the polar coordinates $(r, \theta + n\pi)$ for any even integer n and the coordinates $(-r, \theta + n\pi)$ for any odd integer n . Thus the polar coordinate pairs

$$\left(2, \frac{\pi}{3}\right), \quad \left(-2, \frac{4\pi}{3}\right), \quad \left(2, \frac{7\pi}{3}\right), \quad \text{and} \quad \left(-2, -\frac{2\pi}{3}\right)$$

all represent the same point P in Fig. 10.2.3. [The rectangular coordinates of P are $(1, \sqrt{3})$.]

To convert polar coordinates into rectangular coordinates, we use the basic relations

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta \quad (1)$$

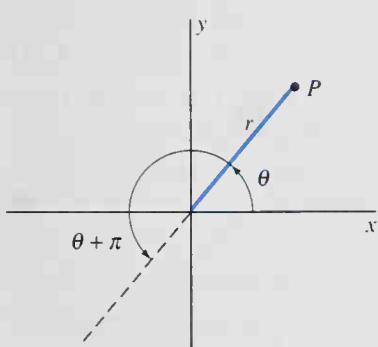


Fig. 10.2.2 The polar coordinates (r, θ) and $(-r, \theta + \pi)$ represent the same point P (Example 1).

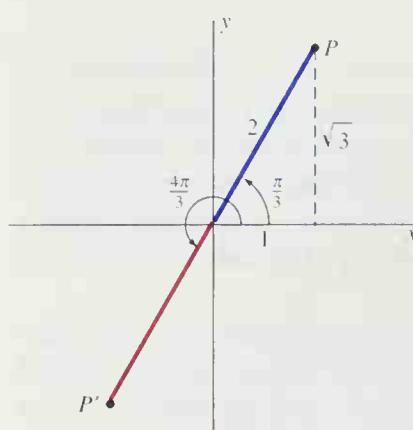


Fig. 10.2.3 The point P of Example 1 can be described in many different ways using polar coordinates.

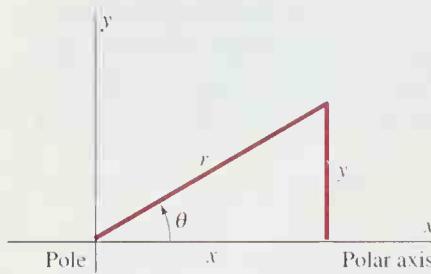


Fig. 10.2.4 Read Eqs. (1) and (2)—conversions between polar and rectangular coordinates—from this figure.

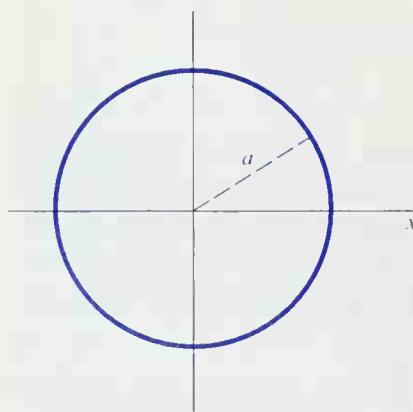


Fig. 10.2.5 The circle $r = a$ centered at the origin (Example 2).

that we read from the right triangle in Fig. 10.2.4. Converting in the opposite direction, we have

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2, \quad \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \quad \text{if } x \neq 0. \quad (2)$$

Some care is required in making the correct choice of θ in the formula $\tan \theta = y/x$. If $x > 0$, then (x, y) lies in either the first or the fourth quadrant, so $-\pi/2 < \theta < \pi/2$, which is the range of the inverse tangent function. Hence if $x > 0$, then $\theta = \arctan(y/x)$. But if $x < 0$, then (x, y) lies in the second or the third quadrant. In this case a proper choice for the angle is $\theta = \pi + \arctan(y/x)$. In any event, the signs of x and y in Eq. (1) with $r > 0$ indicate the quadrant in which θ lies.

Polar Coordinate Equations

Some curves have equations in polar coordinates that are simpler than their equations in rectangular coordinates, an important reason for the usefulness of polar coordinates. The **graph** of an equation in the polar coordinates variables r and θ is the set of all those points P such that P has some pair of polar coordinates (r, θ) that satisfy the given equation. The graph of a polar equation $r = f(\theta)$ can be constructed by computing a table of values of r against θ and then plotting the corresponding points (r, θ) on polar coordinates graph paper.

EXAMPLE 2 One reason for the importance of polar coordinates is that many real-world problems involve circles, and the polar coordinates equation (or *polar equation*) of the circle with center $(0, 0)$ and radius $a > 0$ (Fig. 10.2.5) is very simple:

$$r = a. \quad (3)$$

Note that if we begin with the rectangular coordinates equation $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ of this circle and transform it using the first relation in (2), we get the polar coordinates equation $r^2 = a^2$. Then Eq. (3) results upon taking positive square roots. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Construct the polar coordinates graph of the equation $r = 2 \sin \theta$.

Solution Figure 10.2.6 shows a table of values of r as a function of θ . The corresponding points (r, θ) are plotted in Fig. 10.2.7, using the rays at multiples of $\pi/6$ and the circles (centered at the pole) of radii 1 and 2 to locate these points. A visual inspection of the smooth curve connecting these points suggests that it is a circle of radius 1. Let us assume for the moment that this is so. Note then that the point $P(r, \theta)$ moves *once around this circle counterclockwise* as θ increases from 0 to π and then moves around this circle a *second time* as θ increases from π to 2π . The reason is the negative values of r for θ between π and 2π give—in this example—the same geometric points as do the positive values of r for θ between 0 and π . (Why?) ■

The verification that the graph of $r = 2 \sin \theta$ is the indicated circle illustrates the general procedure for transferring back and forth between polar and rectangular coordinates, using the relations in (1) and (2).

EXAMPLE 4 To transform the equation $r = 2 \sin \theta$ of Example 3 into rectangular coordinates, we first multiply both sides by r to get

$$r^2 = 2r \sin \theta.$$

θ	r
0	0.00
$\pi/6$	1.00
$\pi/3$	1.73
$\pi/2$	2.00
$2\pi/3$	1.73
$5\pi/6$	1.00
π	0.00
$7\pi/6$	-1.00
$4\pi/3$	-1.73
$3\pi/2$	-2.00
$5\pi/3$	-1.73
$11\pi/6$	-1.00
2π	0.00 (data rounded)

Fig. 10.2.6 Values of $r = 2 \sin \theta$ (Example 3)

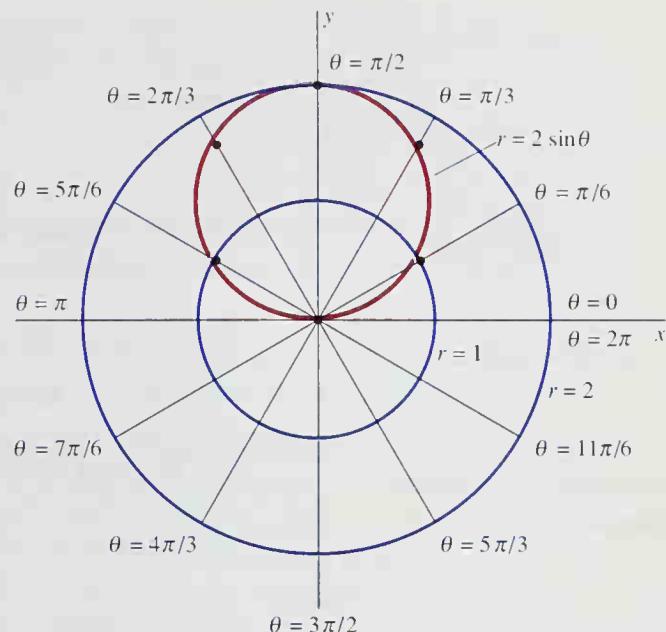


Fig. 10.2.7 The graph of the polar equation $r = 2 \sin \theta$ (Example 3)

Equations (1) and (2) now give

$$x^2 + y^2 = 2y.$$

Finally, after we complete the square in y , we have

$$x^2 + (y - 1)^2 = 1,$$

the rectangular coordinates equation (or *rectangular equation*) of a circle whose center is $(0, 1)$ and whose radius is 1. ■

More generally, the graphs of the equations

$$r = 2a \sin \theta \quad \text{and} \quad r = 2a \cos \theta \tag{4}$$

are circles of radius a centered, respectively, at the points $(0, a)$ and $(a, 0)$. This is illustrated (with $a = 1$) in Fig. 10.2.8.

By substituting the equations in (1), we can transform the rectangular equation $ax + by = c$ of a straight line into

$$ar \cos \theta + br \sin \theta = c.$$

Let us take $a = 1$ and $b = 0$. Then we see that the polar equation of the vertical line $x = c$ is $r = c \sec \theta$, as we can deduce directly from Fig. 10.2.9.

EXAMPLE 5 Sketch the graph of the polar equation $r = 2 + 2 \sin \theta$.

Solution If we scan the second column of the table in Fig. 10.2.6, mentally adding 2 to each entry for r , we see that

- ▼ r increases from 2 to 4 as θ increases from 0 to $\pi/2$;
- ▼ r decreases from 4 to 2 as θ increases from $\pi/2$ to π ;
- ▼ r decreases from 2 to 0 as θ increases from π to $3\pi/2$;
- ▼ r increases from 0 to 2 as θ increases from $3\pi/2$ to 2π .

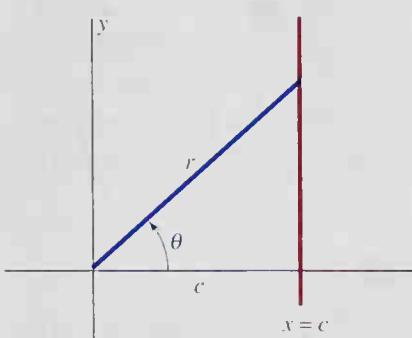


Fig. 10.2.9 Finding the polar equation of the vertical line $x = c$

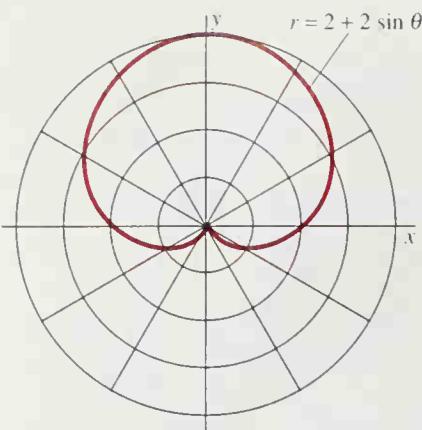


Fig. 10.2.10 A cardioid (Example 5)

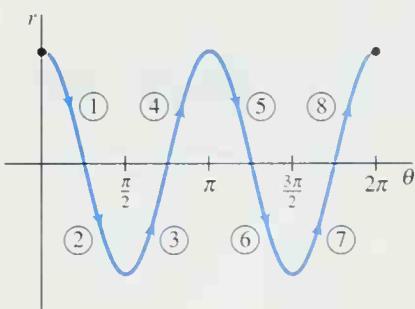


Fig. 10.2.11 The rectangular coordinates graph of $r = 2 \cos 2\theta$ as a function of θ . Numbered portions of the graph correspond to numbered portions of the polar-coordinates graph in Fig. 10.2.12.

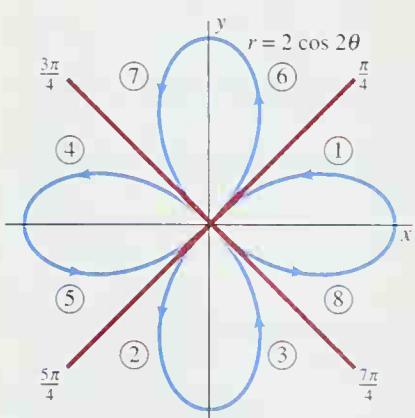


Fig. 10.2.12 A four-leaved rose (Example 6)

This information tells us that the graph resembles the curve shown in Fig. 10.2.10. This heart-shaped graph is called a **cardioid**. The graphs of the equations

$$r = a(1 \pm \sin \theta) \quad \text{and} \quad r = a(1 \pm \cos \theta)$$

are all cardioids, differing only in size (determined by a), axis of symmetry (horizontal or vertical), and the direction in which the cusp at the pole points.

EXAMPLE 5 Sketch the graph of the equation $r = 2 \cos 2\theta$.

Solution Rather than constructing a table of values of r as a function of θ and then plotting individual points, let us begin with a *rectangular coordinates graph* of r as a function of θ . In Fig. 10.2.11, we see that $r = 0$ if θ is an odd integral multiple of $\pi/4$ and that r is alternately positive and negative on successive intervals of length $\pi/2$ from one odd integral multiple of $\pi/4$ to the next.

Now let's think about how r changes as θ increases, beginning at $\theta = 0$. As θ increases from 0 to $\pi/4$, r decreases in value from 2 to 0, and so we draw the first portion (labeled "1") of the polar curve in Fig. 10.2.12. As θ increases from $\pi/4$ to $3\pi/4$, r first decreases from 0 to -2 and then increases from -2 to 0. Because r is now negative, we draw the second and third portions (labeled "2" and "3") of the polar curve in the third and fourth quadrants (rather than in the first and second quadrants) in Fig. 10.2.12. Continuing in this fashion, we draw the fourth through eighth portions of the polar curve, with those portions where r is negative in the quadrants opposite those in which θ lies. The arrows on the resulting polar curve in Fig. 10.2.12 indicate the direction of motion of the point $P(r, \theta)$ along the curve as θ increases. The whole graph consists of four loops, each of which begins and ends at the pole.

The curve in Example 6 is called a *four-leaved rose*. The equations $r = a \cos n\theta$ and $r = a \sin n\theta$ represent "roses" with $2n$ "leaves," or loops, if n is even and $n \geq 2$ but with n loops if n is odd and $n \geq 3$.

The four-leaved rose exhibits several types of symmetry. The following are some *sufficient* conditions for symmetry in polar coordinates:

- ▼ *For symmetry around the x-axis:* The equation is unchanged when θ is replaced with $-\theta$.
- ▼ *For symmetry around the y-axis:* The equation is unchanged when θ is replaced with $\pi - \theta$.
- ▼ *For symmetry with respect to the origin:* The equation is unchanged when r is replaced with $-r$.

Because $\cos 2\theta = \cos(-2\theta) = \cos 2(\pi - \theta)$, the equation $r = 2 \cos 2\theta$ of the four-leaved rose satisfies the first two symmetry conditions, and therefore its graph is symmetric around both the x -axis and the y -axis. Thus it is also symmetric around the origin. Nevertheless, this equation does *not* satisfy the third condition, the one for symmetry around the origin. This illustrates that although the symmetry conditions given are *sufficient* for the symmetries described, they are not *necessary* conditions.

EXAMPLE 6 Figure 10.2.13 shows the lemniscate with equation

$$r^2 = -4 \sin 2\theta.$$

To see why it has loops only in the second and fourth quadrants, we examine a table of values of $-4 \sin 2\theta$.

θ	2θ	$-4 \sin 2\theta$
$0 < \theta < \frac{1}{2}\pi$	$0 < 2\theta < \pi$	Negative
$\frac{1}{2}\pi < \theta < \pi$	$\pi < 2\theta < 2\pi$	Positive
$\pi < \theta < \frac{3}{2}\pi$	$2\pi < 2\theta < 3\pi$	Negative
$\frac{3}{2}\pi < \theta < 2\pi$	$3\pi < 2\theta < 4\pi$	Positive

When θ lies in the first or the third quadrant, the quantity $-4 \sin 2\theta$ is negative, so the equation $r^2 = -4 \sin 2\theta$ cannot be satisfied for any real values of r . ■

Example 6 illustrates a peculiarity of graphs of polar equations, caused by the fact that a single point has multiple representations in polar coordinates. The point with polar coordinates $(2, \pi/2)$ clearly lies on the four-leaved rose, but these coordinates do not satisfy the equation $r = 2 \cos 2\theta$. This means that a point may have one pair of polar coordinates that satisfy a given equation and others that do not. Hence we must be careful to understand this: The graph of a polar equation consists of all those points with *at least one* polar coordinates representation that satisfies the given equation.

Another result of the multiplicity of polar coordinates is that the simultaneous solution of two polar equations does not always give all the points of intersection of their graphs. For instance, consider the circles $r = 2 \sin \theta$ and $r = 2 \cos \theta$ shown in Fig. 10.2.8. The origin is clearly a point of intersection of these two circles. Its polar representation $(0, \pi)$ satisfies the equation $r = 2 \sin \theta$, and its representation $(0, \pi/2)$ satisfies the other equation, $r = 2 \cos \theta$. But the origin has no *single* polar representation that satisfies both equations simultaneously! If we think of θ as increasing uniformly with time, then the corresponding moving points on the two circles pass through the origin at different times. Hence the origin cannot be discovered as a point of intersection of the two circles by solving their equations simultaneously—try it.

As a consequence of the phenomenon illustrated by this example, the only way we can be certain of finding *all* points of intersection of two curves in polar coordinates is to graph both curves.

EXAMPLE 8 Find all points of intersection of the graphs of the equations $r = 1 + \sin \theta$ and $r^2 = 4 \sin \theta$.

Solution The graph of $r = 1 + \sin \theta$ is a scaled-down version of the cardioid of Example 5. In Problem 52 we ask you to show that the graph of $r^2 = 4 \sin \theta$ is the figure eight curve shown with the cardioid in Fig. 10.2.14. The figure shows four points of intersection: A , B , C , and O . Can we find all four with algebra?

Given the two equations, we begin by eliminating r . Because

$$(1 + \sin \theta)^2 = r^2 = 4 \sin \theta,$$

it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \sin^2 \theta - 2 \sin \theta + 1 &= 0; \\ (\sin \theta - 1)^2 &= 0; \end{aligned}$$

and thus that $\sin \theta = 1$. So θ must be an angle of the form $\frac{1}{2}\pi + 2n\pi$, where n is an integer. All points on the cardioid and all points on the figure eight curve are produced by letting θ range from 0 to 2π , so $\theta = \pi/2$ will produce all the solutions that we can possibly obtain by algebraic methods. The only such point is $A(2, \pi/2)$, and the other three points of intersection are detected only when the two equations are graphed. ■

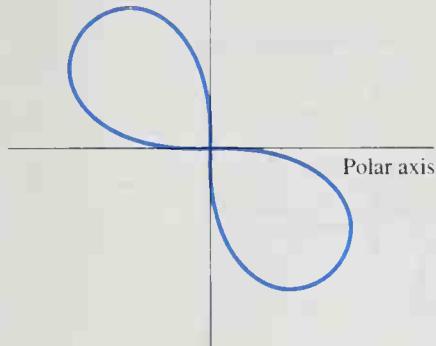


Fig. 10.2.13 The lemniscate $r^2 = -4 \sin 2\theta$ (Example 7)

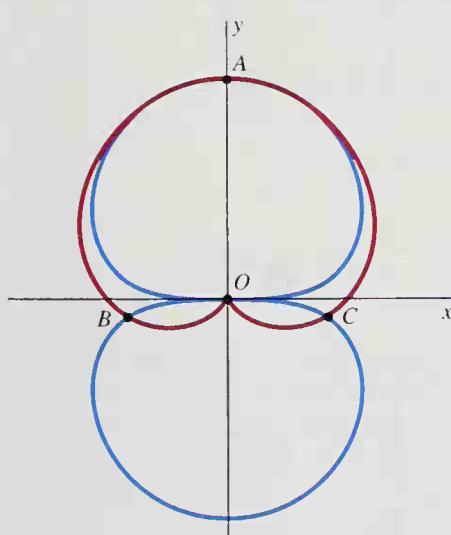


Fig. 10.2.14 The cardioid $r = 1 + \sin \theta$ and the figure eight $r^2 = 4 \sin \theta$ meet in four points (Example 8).

10.2 PROBLEMS

1. Plot the points with the given polar coordinates, then find the rectangular coordinates of each.

(a) $(1, \pi/4)$	(b) $(-2, 2\pi/3)$
(c) $(1, -\pi/3)$	(d) $(3, 3\pi/2)$
(e) $(2, -\pi/4)$	(f) $(-2, -7\pi/6)$
(g) $(2, 5\pi/6)$	

2. Find two polar coordinates representations, one with $r > 0$ and the other with $r < 0$, for the points with the given rectangular coordinates.

(a) $(-1, -1)$	(b) $(\sqrt{3}, -1)$
(c) $(2, 2)$	(d) $(-1, \sqrt{3})$
(e) $(\sqrt{2}, -\sqrt{2})$	(f) $(-3, \sqrt{3})$

In Problems 3 through 10, express the given rectangular equations in polar form.

3. $x = 4$	4. $y = 6$
5. $x = 3y$	6. $x^2 + y^2 = 25$
7. $xy = 1$	8. $x^2 - y^2 = 1$
9. $y = x^2$	10. $x + y = 4$

In Problems 11 through 18, express the given polar equation in rectangular coordinates.

11. $r = 3$	12. $\theta = 3\pi/4$
13. $r = -5 \cos \theta$	14. $r = \sin 2\theta$
15. $r = 1 - \cos 2\theta$	16. $r = 2 + \sin \theta$
17. $r = 3 \sec \theta$	18. $r^2 = \cos 2\theta$

For the curves described in Problems 19 through 28, write equations in both rectangular and polar coordinates.

19. The vertical line through $(2, 0)$
20. The horizontal line through $(1, 3)$
21. The line with slope -1 through $(2, -1)$
22. The line with slope 1 through $(4, 2)$
23. The line through the points $(1, 3)$ and $(3, 5)$
24. The circle with center $(3, 0)$ that passes through the origin
25. The circle with center $(0, -4)$ that passes through the origin
26. The circle with center $(3, 4)$ and radius 5
27. The circle with center $(1, 1)$ that passes through the origin
28. The circle with center $(5, -2)$ that passes through the point $(1, 1)$

In Problems 29 through 32, transform the given polar coordinates equation into a rectangular coordinates equation, then match the equation with its graph among those in Figs. 10.2.15 through 10.2.18.

29. $r = -4 \cos \theta$	30. $r = 5 \cos \theta + 5 \sin \theta$
31. $r = -4 \cos \theta + 3 \sin \theta$	32. $r = 8 \cos \theta - 15 \sin \theta$

The graph of a polar equation of the form $r = a + b \cos \theta$ (or $r = a + b \sin \theta$) is called a *limaçon* (from the French word for

snail). In Problems 33 through 36, match the given polar coordinates equation with its graph among the limaçons in Figs. 10.2.19 through 10.2.22.

33. $r = 8 + 6 \cos \theta$	34. $r = 7 + 7 \cos \theta$
35. $r = 5 + 9 \cos \theta$	36. $r = 3 + 11 \cos \theta$

37. Show that the graph of the polar equation $r = a \cos \theta + b \sin \theta$ is a circle if $ab \neq 0$. Express the center (h, k) and radius r of this circle in terms of a and b .

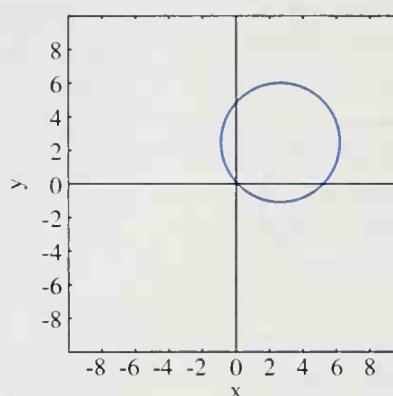


Fig. 10.2.15

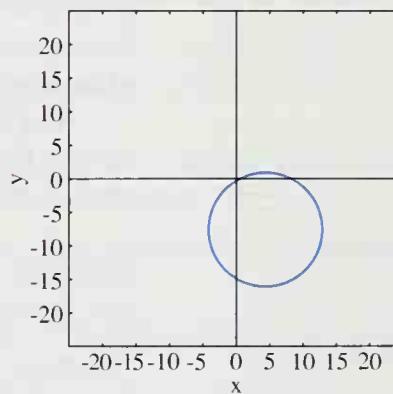


Fig. 10.2.16

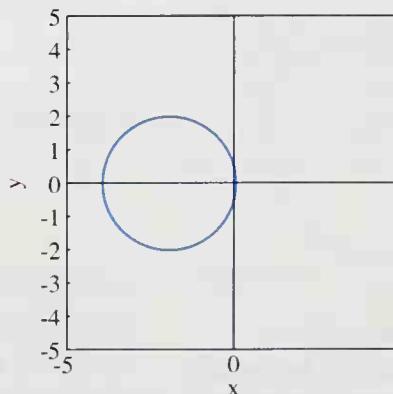


Fig. 10.2.17

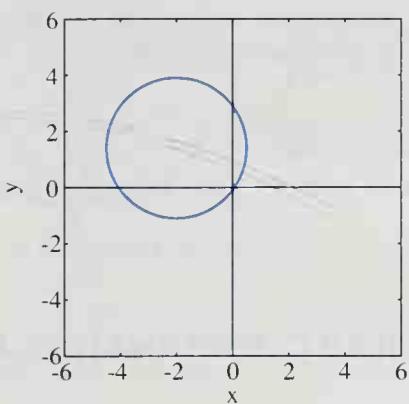


Fig. 10.2.18

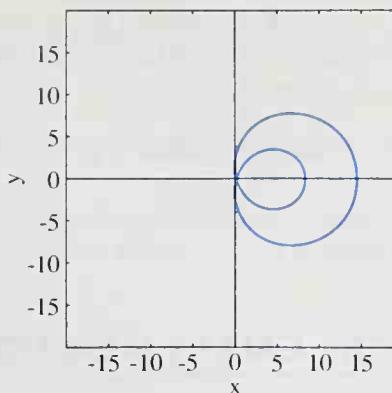


Fig. 10.2.21

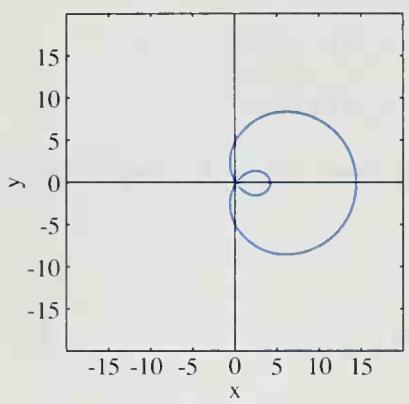


Fig. 10.2.19

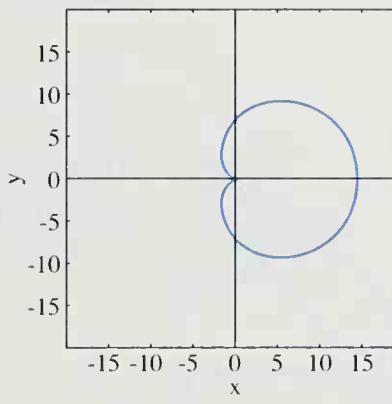


Fig. 10.2.22

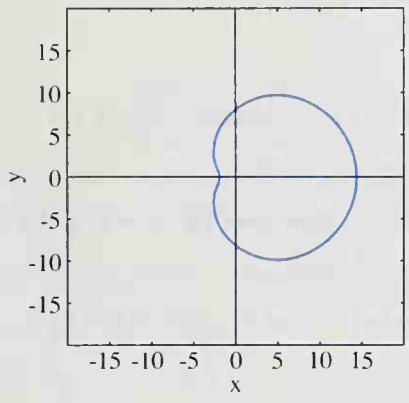


Fig. 10.2.20

41. $r = 1 + \cos \theta$ (cardioid)
42. $r = 1 - \sin \theta$ (cardioid)
43. $r = 2 + 4 \sin \theta$ (limaçon)
44. $r = 4 + 2 \cos \theta$ (limaçon)
45. $r^2 = 4 \sin 2\theta$ (lemniscate)
46. $r^2 = 4 \cos 2\theta$ (lemniscate)
47. $r = 2 \sin 2\theta$ (four-leaved rose)
48. $r = 3 \sin 3\theta$ (three-leaved rose)
49. $r = 3 \cos 3\theta$ (three-leaved rose)
50. $r = 3\theta$ (spiral of Archimedes)
51. $r = 2 \sin 5\theta$ (five-leaved rose)
52. $r^2 = 4 \sin \theta$ (figure eight)

In Problems 53 through 58, find all points of intersection of the curves with the given polar equations.

53. $r = 1, r = \cos \theta$
54. $r = \sin \theta, r^2 = 3 \cos^2 \theta$
55. $r = \sin \theta, r = \cos 2\theta$
56. $r = 1 + \cos \theta, r = 1 - \sin \theta$
57. $r = 1 - \cos \theta, r^2 = 4 \cos \theta$
58. $r^2 = 4 \sin \theta, r^2 = 4 \cos \theta$
59. (a) The straight line L passes through the point with polar coordinates (p, α) and is perpendicular to the line segment

38. Show that if $0 < a < b$, then the limaçon with polar equation $r = a + b \cos \theta$ has an inner loop (as in Figs. 10.2.19 and 10.2.21). In this case, find (in terms of a and b) the range of values of θ that correspond to points of the inner loop.

Sketch the graphs of the polar equations in Problems 39 through 52. Indicate any symmetries around either coordinate axis or the origin.

39. $r = 2 \cos \theta$ (circle)

40. $r = 2 \sin \theta + 2 \cos \theta$ (circle)

joining the pole and the point (p, α) . Write the polar coordinates equation of L . (b) Show that the rectangular coordinates equation of L is

$$x \cos \alpha + y \sin \alpha = p.$$

60. Find a rectangular coordinates equation of the cardioid with polar equation $r = 1 - \cos \theta$.

61. Use polar coordinates to identify the graph of the rectangular coordinates equation $a^2(x^2 + y^2) = (x^2 + y^2 - by)^2$.

62. Plot the polar equations

$$r = 1 + \cos \theta \quad \text{and} \quad r = -1 + \cos \theta$$

on the same coordinate plane. Comment on the results.

10.2 PROJECT: CALCULATOR/COMPUTER-GENERATED POLAR COORDINATES GRAPHS

Even if your graphing calculator or computer has no polar graphing facility, the graph of the polar coordinates equation $r = f(\theta)$ can be plotted in rectangular coordinates by using the equations

$$x = r \cos \theta = f(\theta) \cos \theta, \quad (1a)$$

$$y = r \sin \theta = f(\theta) \sin \theta. \quad (1b)$$

Then, as θ ranges from 0 to 2π (or, in some cases, through a larger domain), the point (x, y) traces the polar graph $r = f(\theta)$.

For instance, with

$$r = \cos\left(\frac{7\theta}{4}\right), \quad (2)$$

we get the curve in Fig. 10.2.23 having 14 overlapping loops. By contrast, with $r = \cos\left(\frac{7}{3}\theta\right)$, we get the curve in Fig. 10.2.24, having only seven loops.

If (as required by many graphing devices) we use t instead of θ and substitute Eq. (2) in (1), we get the equations

$$x = \cos\left(\frac{7t}{4}\right) \cos t, \quad y = \cos\left(\frac{7t}{4}\right) \sin t. \quad (3)$$

With a TI graphing calculator set in **Par** mode, we then graph the equations

$$X_{1T}=\cos(7T/4)*\cos(T), \quad Y_{1T}=\cos(7T/4)*\sin(T).$$

The corresponding *Mathematica* and *Maple* commands are (respectively)

```
ParametricPlot[ {Cos[7t/4] Cos[t], Cos[7t/4] Sin[t]}, {t, 0, 8 Pi}];
```

and

```
plot([cos(7*t/4)*cos(t), cos(7*t/4)*sin(t), t = 0..8*Pi]);
```

The t -range $[0, 8\pi]$ is selected because 8π is the smallest complete revolution $2n\pi$ such that $\cos\left(\frac{7}{4}[t + 2n\pi]\right) = \cos\left(\frac{7}{4}t\right)$, so that the curve repeats itself for larger values of t .

INVESTIGATION 1 Plot the polar coordinates curves $r = \cos(p\theta/q)$ and $r = \sin(p\theta/q)$ with various nonzero integers p and q . Select the t -interval so that the entire graph is plotted. What determines the number of loops in the resulting graph?

INVESTIGATION 2 Plot the polar coordinates curve $r = (a + b \cos m\theta)(c + d \sin n\theta)$ with various values of the coefficients a, b, c , and d and the positive integers m and n . You might begin with the special case $a = 1, b = 0$, or the special case $c = 1, d = 0$.

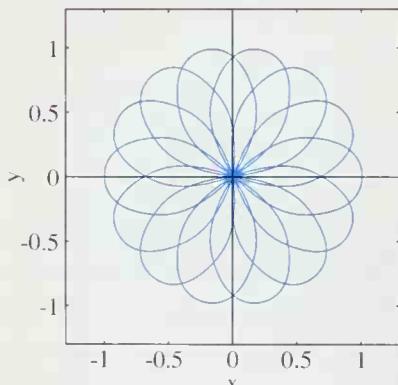


Fig. 10.2.23 $r = \cos\left(\frac{7\theta}{4}\right)$

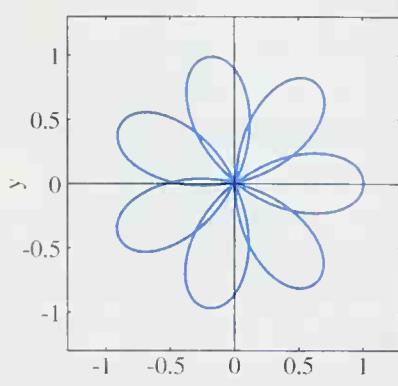


Fig. 10.2.24 $r = \cos\left(\frac{7\theta}{3}\right)$

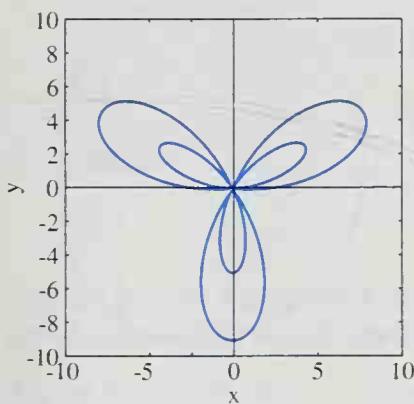


Fig. 10.2.25 $r = 2 + 7 \sin 3\theta$

or the special case $a = c = 0$. Figures 10.2.25 and 10.2.26 illustrate just two of the possibilities.

INVESTIGATION 3 The simple “butterfly” shown in Fig. 10.2.27 is the graph of the polar coordinates equation

$$r = e^{\cos \theta} - 2 \cos 4\theta.$$

Now plot the polar coordinates equation

$$r = e^{\cos \theta} - 2 \cos 4\theta + \sin^5(\frac{1}{12}\theta)$$

for $0 \leq \theta \leq 24\pi$. The incredibly beautiful curve that results was discovered by Temple H. Fay. His article “The Butterfly Curve” (*American Mathematical Monthly*, May 1989, p. 442) is well worth a trip to the library.

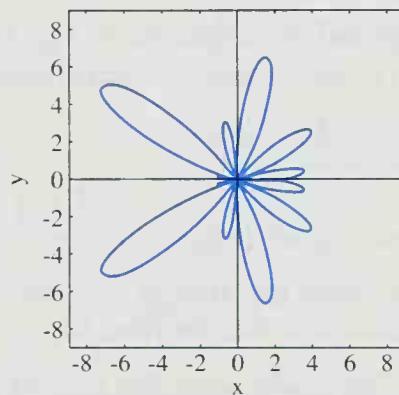


Fig. 10.2.26
 $r = (2 + 7 \sin 3\theta) \cos 5\theta$

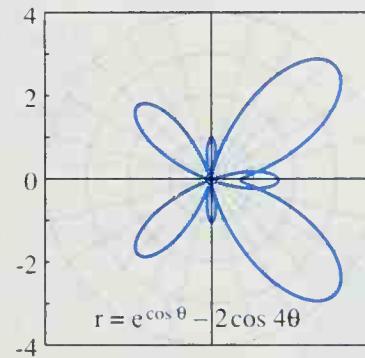


Fig. 10.2.27 The butterfly curve

10.3 AREA COMPUTATIONS IN POLAR COORDINATES

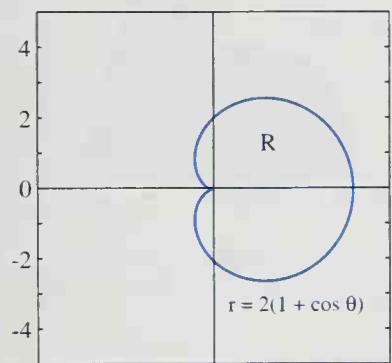


Fig. 10.3.1 What is the area of the region R bounded by the cardioid $r = 2(1 + \cos \theta)$?

The graph of the polar coordinates equation $r = f(\theta)$ may bound an area, as does the cardioid $r = 2(1 + \cos \theta)$ —see Fig. 10.3.1. To calculate the area of this region, we may find it convenient to work directly in polar coordinates rather than to change to rectangular coordinates.

To see how to set up an area integral in polar coordinates, we consider the region R of Fig. 10.3.2. This region is bounded by the two radial lines $\theta = \alpha$ and $\theta = \beta$ and by the curve $r = f(\theta)$, $\alpha \leq \theta \leq \beta$. To approximate the area A of R , we begin with a partition

$$\alpha = \theta_0 < \theta_1 < \theta_2 < \cdots < \theta_n = \beta$$

of the interval $[\alpha, \beta]$ into n subintervals, all with the same length $\Delta\theta = (\beta - \alpha)/n$. We select a point θ_i^* in the i th subinterval $[\theta_{i-1}, \theta_i]$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Let ΔA_i denote the area of the sector bounded by the lines $\theta = \theta_{i-1}$ and $\theta = \theta_i$ and by the curve $r = f(\theta)$. We see from Fig. 10.3.2 that for small values of $\Delta\theta$, ΔA_i is approximately equal to the area of the *circular* sector that has radius $r_i^* = f(\theta_i^*)$ and is bounded by the same lines. That is,

$$\Delta A_i \approx \frac{1}{2}(r_i^*)^2 \Delta\theta = \frac{1}{2}[f(\theta_i^*)]^2 \Delta\theta.$$

We add the areas of these sectors for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and thereby find that

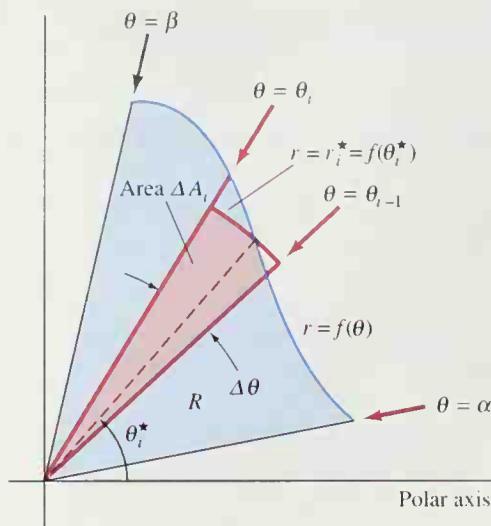


Fig. 10.3.2 We obtain the area formula from Riemann sums.

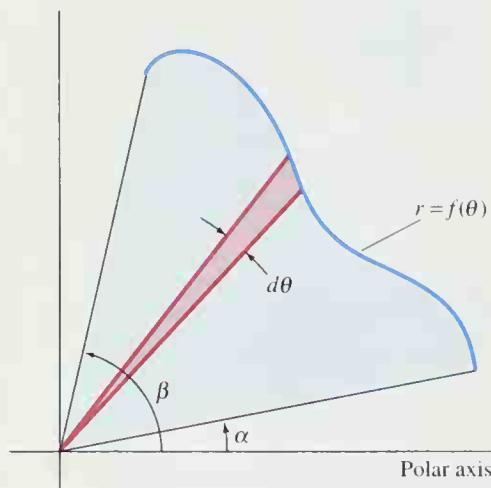


Fig. 10.3.3 Nonrigorous derivation of the area formula in polar coordinates

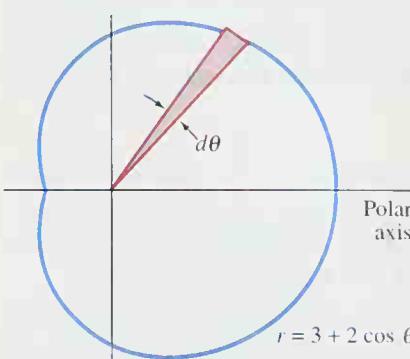


Fig. 10.3.4 The limacon of Example 1

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta A_i \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2}[f(\theta_i^*)]^2 \Delta\theta.$$

The right-hand sum is a Riemann sum for the integral

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{2}[f(\theta)]^2 d\theta.$$

Hence, if f is continuous, the value of this integral is the limit, as $\Delta\theta \rightarrow 0$, of the preceding sum. We therefore conclude that the *area A of the region R bounded by the lines $\theta = \alpha$ and $\theta = \beta$ and the curve $r = f(\theta)$* is

$$A = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{2}[f(\theta)]^2 d\theta. \quad (1)$$

The infinitesimal sector shown in Fig. 10.3.3, with radius r , central angle $d\theta$, and area $dA = \frac{1}{2}r^2 d\theta$, serves as a useful device for remembering Eq. (1) in the abbreviated form

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

EXAMPLE 1 Find the area of the region bounded by the limacon with equation $r = 3 + 2 \cos \theta, 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$ (Fig. 10.3.4).

Solution We could apply Eq. (2) with $\alpha = 0$ and $\beta = 2\pi$. Here, instead, we will make use of symmetry. We will calculate the area of the upper half of the region and then double the result. Note that the infinitesimal sector shown in Fig. 10.3.4 sweeps out the upper half of the limacon as θ increases from 0 to π (Fig. 10.3.5). Hence

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 2 \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{2}r^2 d\theta = \int_0^{\pi} (3 + 2 \cos \theta)^2 d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\pi} (9 + 12 \cos \theta + 4 \cos^2 \theta) d\theta. \end{aligned}$$

Because

$$4 \cos^2 \theta = 4 \cdot \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2} = 2 + 2 \cos 2\theta,$$

we now get

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_0^{\pi} (11 + 12 \cos \theta + 2 \cos 2\theta) d\theta \\ &= \left[11\theta + 12 \sin \theta + \sin 2\theta \right]_0^{\pi} = 11\pi. \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 2 Find the area bounded by each loop of the limacon with equation $r = 1 + 2 \cos \theta$ (Fig. 10.3.6).

Solution The equation $1 + 2 \cos \theta = 0$ has two solutions for θ in the interval $[0, 2\pi]$: $\theta = 2\pi/3$ and $\theta = 4\pi/3$. The upper half of the outer loop of the limacon

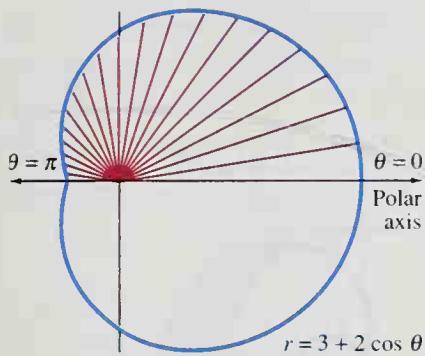


Fig. 10.3.5 Infinitesimal sectors from $\theta = 0$ to $\theta = \pi$ (Example 1)

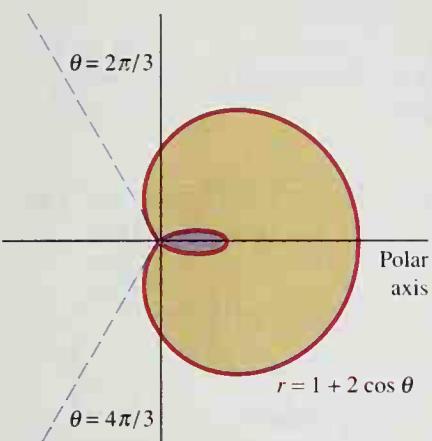


Fig. 10.3.6 The limaçon of Example 2

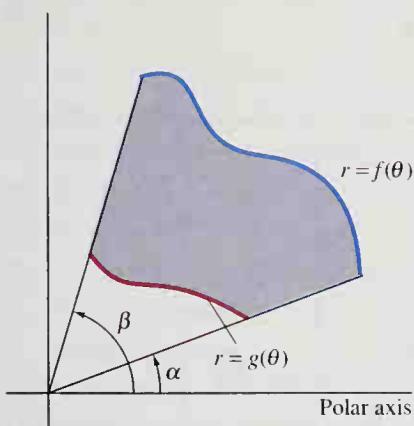


Fig. 10.3.7 The area between the graphs of f and g

corresponds to values of θ between 0 and $2\pi/3$, where r is positive. Because the curve is symmetric around the x -axis, we can find the total area A_1 bounded by the outer loop by integrating from 0 to $2\pi/3$ and then doubling. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &= 2 \int_0^{2\pi/3} \frac{1}{2}(1 + 2 \cos \theta)^2 d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi/3} (1 + 4 \cos \theta + 4 \cos^2 \theta) d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi/3} (3 + 4 \cos \theta + 2 \cos 2\theta) d\theta \\ &= \left[3\theta + 4 \sin \theta + \sin 2\theta \right]_0^{2\pi/3} = 2\pi + \frac{3}{2}\sqrt{3}. \end{aligned}$$

The inner loop of the limaçon corresponds to values of θ between $2\pi/3$ and $4\pi/3$, where r is negative. Hence the area bounded by the inner loop is

$$\begin{aligned} A_2 &= \int_{2\pi/3}^{4\pi/3} \frac{1}{2}(1 + 2 \cos \theta)^2 d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[3\theta + 4 \sin \theta + \sin 2\theta \right]_{2\pi/3}^{4\pi/3} = \pi - \frac{3}{2}\sqrt{3}. \end{aligned}$$

The area of the region lying *between* the two loops of the limaçon is then

$$A = A_1 - A_2 = 2\pi + \frac{3}{2}\sqrt{3} - (\pi - \frac{3}{2}\sqrt{3}) = \pi + 3\sqrt{3}.$$

The Area Between Two Polar Curves

Now consider two curves $r = f(\theta)$ and $r = g(\theta)$, with $f(\theta) \geq g(\theta) \geq 0$ for $\alpha \leq \theta \leq \beta$. Then we can find the area of the region bounded by these curves and the rays (radial lines) $\theta = \alpha$ and $\theta = \beta$ (Fig. 10.3.7) by subtracting the area bounded by the inner curve from that bounded by the outer curve. That is, the area A between the two curves is given by

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{2} [f(\theta)]^2 d\theta - \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{2} [g(\theta)]^2 d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \{[f(\theta)]^2 - [g(\theta)]^2\} d\theta. \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

With r_{outer} for the outer curve and r_{inner} for the inner curve, we get the abbreviated formula

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \left[(r_{\text{outer}})^2 - (r_{\text{inner}})^2 \right] d\theta \tag{4}$$

for the area of the region shown in Fig. 10.3.8.

EXAMPLE 3 Find the area A of the region that lies within the limaçon $r = 1 + 2 \cos \theta$ and outside the circle $r = 2$.

Solution The circle and limaçon are shown in Fig. 10.3.9, with the area A between them shaded. The points of intersection of the circle and limaçon are given by

$$1 + 2 \cos \theta = 2, \quad \text{so} \quad \cos \theta = \frac{1}{2},$$

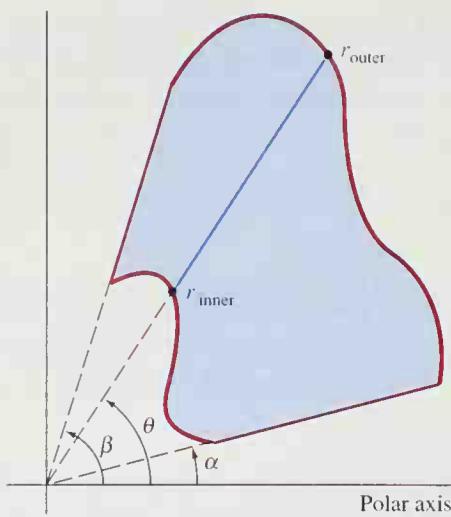


Fig. 10.3.8 The radial line segment illustrates the radii r_{inner} and r_{outer} of Eq. (4).

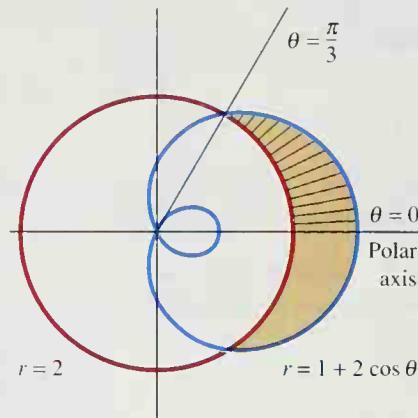


Fig. 10.3.9 The region of Example 3

and the figure shows that we should choose the solutions $\theta = \pm \pi/3$. These two values of θ are the needed limits of integration. When we use Eq. (3), we find that

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi/3}^{\pi/3} [(1 + 2 \cos \theta)^2 - 2^2] d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/3} (4 \cos \theta + 4 \cos^2 \theta - 3) d\theta \quad (\text{by symmetry}) \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/3} (4 \cos \theta + 2 \cos 2\theta - 1) d\theta \\ &= \left[4 \sin \theta + \sin 2\theta - \theta \right]_0^{\pi/3} = \frac{15\sqrt{3} - 2\pi}{6}. \end{aligned}$$

10.3 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 6, sketch the plane region bounded by the given polar curve $r = f(\theta)$, $\alpha \leq \theta \leq \beta$, and the rays $\theta = \alpha$, $\theta = \beta$.

1. $r = \theta$, $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$
2. $r = \theta$, $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$
3. $r = 1/\theta$, $\pi \leq \theta \leq 3\pi$
4. $r = 1/\theta$, $3\pi \leq \theta \leq 5\pi$
5. $r = e^{-\theta}$, $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$
6. $r = e^{-\theta}$, $\pi/2 \leq \theta \leq 3\pi/2$

In Problems 7 through 16, find the area bounded by the given curve.

7. $r = 2 \cos \theta$
8. $r = 4 \sin \theta$
9. $r = 1 + \cos \theta$
10. $r = 2 - 2 \sin \theta$ (Fig. 10.3.10)
11. $r = 2 - \cos \theta$
12. $r = 3 + 2 \sin \theta$ (Fig. 10.3.11)
13. $r = -4 \cos \theta$
14. $r = 5(1 + \sin \theta)$

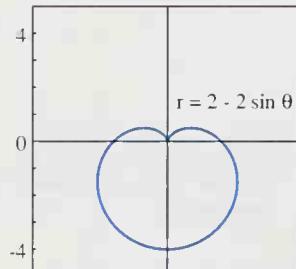


Fig. 10.3.10 The cardioid of Problem 10

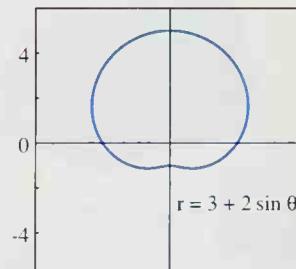


Fig. 10.3.11 The limacon of Problem 12

15. $r = 3 - \cos \theta$
16. $r = 2 + \sin \theta + \cos \theta$

In Problems 17 through 24, find the area bounded by one loop of the given curve.

17. $r = 2 \cos 2\theta$
18. $r = 3 \sin 3\theta$ (Fig. 10.3.12)

19. $r = 2 \cos 4\theta$ (Fig. 10.3.13)

20. $r = \sin 5\theta$ (Fig. 10.3.14)

21. $r^2 = 4 \sin 2\theta$

22. $r^2 = 4 \cos 2\theta$ (Fig. 10.3.15)

23. $r^2 = 4 \sin \theta$

24. $r = 6 \cos 6\theta$

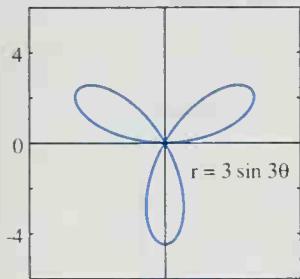


Fig. 10.3.12 The three-leaved rose of Problem 18

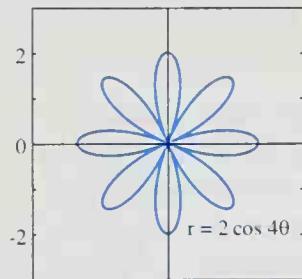


Fig. 10.3.13 The eight-leaved rose of Problem 19

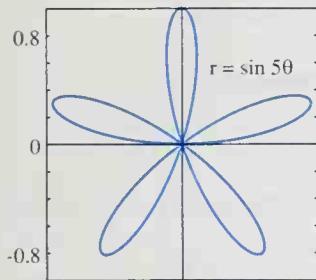


Fig. 10.3.14 The five-leaved rose of Problem 20

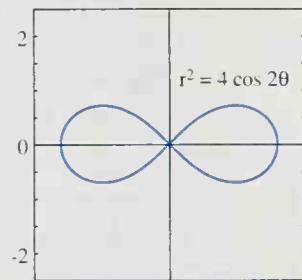


Fig. 10.3.15 The lemniscate of Problem 22

In Problems 25 through 36, find the area of the region described.

25. Inside $r = 2 \sin \theta$ and outside $r = 1$

26. Inside both $r = 4 \cos \theta$ and $r = 2$

27. Inside both $r = \cos \theta$ and $r = \sqrt{3} \sin \theta$

28. Inside $r = 2 + \cos \theta$ and outside $r = 2$

29. Inside $r = 3 + 2 \cos \theta$ and outside $r = 4$

30. Inside $r^2 = 2 \cos 2\theta$ and outside $r = 1$

31. Inside $r^2 = \cos 2\theta$ and $r^2 = \sin 2\theta$ (Fig. 10.3.16)

32. Inside the large loop and outside the small loop of $r = 1 - 2 \sin \theta$ (Fig. 10.3.17)

33. Inside $r = 2(1 + \cos \theta)$ and outside $r = 1$

34. Inside the figure eight curve $r^2 = 4 \cos \theta$ and outside $r = 1 - \cos \theta$

35. Inside both $r = 2 \cos \theta$ and $r = 2 \sin \theta$

36. Inside $r = 2 + 2 \sin \theta$ and outside $r = 2$

37. Find the area of the circle $r = \sin \theta + \cos \theta$ by integration in polar coordinates (Fig. 10.3.18). Check your answer by writing the equation of the circle in rectangular coordinates, finding its radius, and then using the familiar formula for the area of a circle.

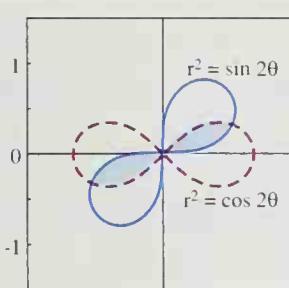


Fig. 10.3.16 Problem 31

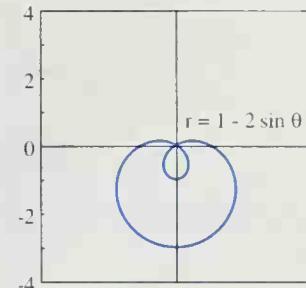


Fig. 10.3.17 Problem 32

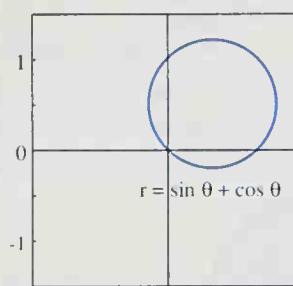


Fig. 10.3.18 The circle $r = \sin \theta + \cos \theta$ (Problem 37)

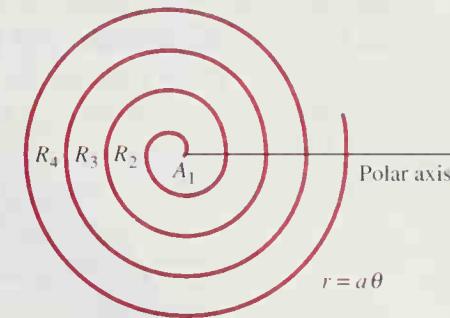


Fig. 10.3.19 The spiral of Archimedes (Problem 39)

38. Find the area of the region that lies interior to all three circles $r = 1$, $r = 2 \cos \theta$, and $r = 2 \sin \theta$.

39. The *spiral of Archimedes*, shown in Fig. 10.3.19, has the simple equation $r = a\theta$ (a is a constant). Let A_n denote the area bounded by the n th turn of the spiral, where $2(n-1)\pi \leq \theta \leq 2n\pi$, and by the portion of the polar axis joining its endpoints. For each $n \geq 2$, let $R_n = A_n - A_{n-1}$ denote the area between the $(n-1)$ th and the n th turns. Then derive the following results of Archimedes:

- (a) $A_1 = \frac{1}{3}\pi(2\pi a)^2$; (b) $A_2 = \frac{7}{12}\pi(4\pi a)^2$;
(c) $R_2 = 6A_1$; (d) $R_{n+1} = nR_n$ for $n \geq 2$.

40. Two circles each have radius a and each circle passes through the center of the other. Find the area of the region that lies within both circles.

41. A polar curve of the form $r = ae^{-k\theta}$ is called a *logarithmic spiral*, and the portion given by $2(n-1)\pi \leq \theta \leq 2n\pi$ is called the n th turn of this spiral. Figure 10.3.20 shows the first five turns of the logarithmic spiral $r = e^{-\theta/10}$, and the area of the region lying between the second and third turns is shaded. Find:

- (a) The area of the region that lies between the first and second turns.
(b) The area of the region between the $(n-1)$ th and n th turns for $n > 1$.

42. Figure 10.3.21 shows the first turn of the logarithmic spiral $r = 2e^{-\theta/10}$ together with the two circles, both cen-

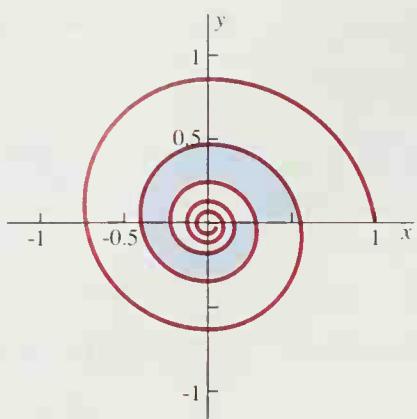


Fig. 10.3.20 The logarithmic spiral of Problem 41

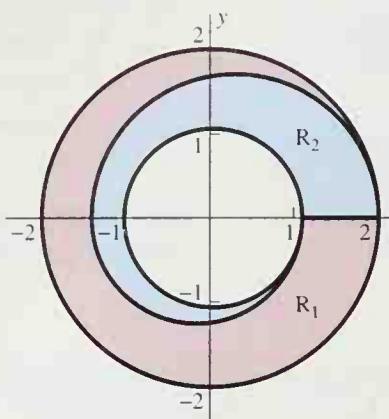


Fig. 10.3.21 The two regions of Problem 42

tered at $(0, 0)$, through the endpoints of the spiral. Find the areas of the two shaded regions and verify that their sum is the area of the annular region between the two circles.

43. The shaded region R in Fig. 10.3.22 is bounded by the cardioid $r = 1 + \cos \theta$, the spiral $r = e^{-\theta/5}$, $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$, and

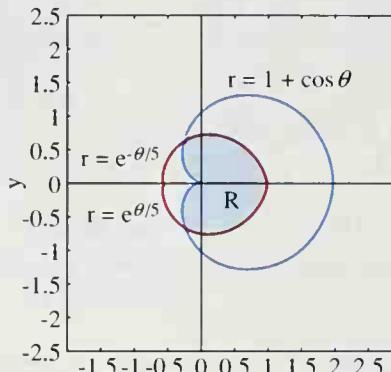


Fig. 10.3.22 The region of Problem 43

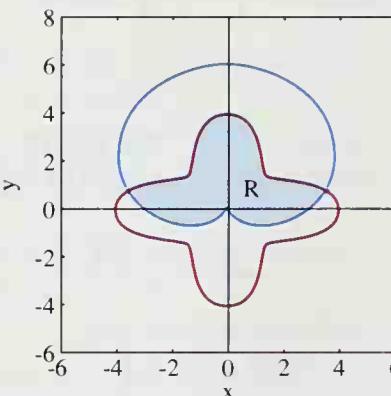


Fig. 10.3.23 The region of Problem 44

10.4 PARAMETRIC CURVES

Until now we have encountered *curves* mainly as graphs of equations. An equation of the form $y = f(x)$ or of the form $x = g(y)$ determines a curve by giving one of the coordinate variables explicitly as a function of the other. An equation of the form $F(x, y) = 0$ may also determine a curve, but then each variable is given implicitly as a function of the other.

Another important type of curve is the trajectory of a point moving in the coordinate plane. The motion of the point can be described by giving its position $(x(t), y(t))$ at time t . Such a description involves expressing both the rectangular coordinates variables x and y as functions of a third variable, or *parameter*, t rather than as functions of each other. In this context, a **parameter** is an independent variable (not a constant, as is sometimes meant in popular usage). This approach motivates the following definition.

the spiral $r = e^{\theta/5}$, $-\pi \leq \theta \leq 0$. Graphically estimate the points of intersection of the cardioid and the spirals, and then approximate the area of the region R .

44. The shaded region R in Fig. 10.3.23 lies inside both the cardioid $r = 3 + 3 \sin \theta$ and the polar curve $r = 3 + \cos 4\theta$. Graphically estimate the points of intersection of the two curves; then approximate the area of the region R .

Definition Parametric Curve

A **parametric curve** C in the plane is a pair of functions

$$x = f(t), \quad y = g(t), \quad (1)$$

that give x and y as continuous functions of the real number t (the parameter) in some interval I .

Each value of the parameter t determines a point $(f(t), g(t))$, and the set of all such points is the **graph** of the curve C . Often the distinction between the curve—the pair of **coordinate functions** f and g —and the graph is not made. Therefore we may refer interchangeably to the curve and to its graph. The two equations in (1) are called the **parametric equations** of the curve.

The graph of a parametric curve may be sketched by plotting enough points to indicate its likely shape. In some cases we can eliminate the parameter t and thus obtain an equation in x and y . This equation may give us more information about the shape of the curve.

EXAMPLE 1 Determine the graph of the curve

$$x = \cos t, \quad y = \sin t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi. \quad (2)$$

t	x	y
0	1	0
$\pi/4$	$1/\sqrt{2}$	$1/\sqrt{2}$
$\pi/2$	0	1
$3\pi/4$	$-1/\sqrt{2}$	$1/\sqrt{2}$
π	-1	0
$5\pi/4$	$-1/\sqrt{2}$	$-1/\sqrt{2}$
$3\pi/2$	0	-1
$7\pi/4$	$1/\sqrt{2}$	$-1/\sqrt{2}$
2π	1	0

Solution Figure 10.4.1 shows a table of values of x and y that correspond to multiples of $\pi/4$ for the parameter t . These values give the eight points highlighted in Fig. 10.4.2, all of which lie on the unit circle. This suggests that the graph is, in fact, the unit circle. To verify this, we note that the fundamental identity of trigonometry gives

$$x^2 + y^2 = \cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1,$$

so every point of the graph lies on the circle with equation $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Conversely, the point of the circle with angular (polar) coordinate t is the point $(\cos t, \sin t)$ of the graph. Thus the graph is precisely the unit circle. ■

What is lost in the process in Example 1 is the information about how the graph is produced as t goes from 0 to 2π . But this is easy to determine by inspection. As t travels from 0 to 2π , the point $(\cos t, \sin t)$ begins at $(1, 0)$ and travels counterclockwise around the circle, ending at $(1, 0)$ when $t = 2\pi$.

A given figure in the plane may be the graph of different curves. To speak more loosely, a given curve may have different **parametrizations**.

EXAMPLE 2 The graph of the parametric curve

$$x = \frac{1 - t^2}{1 + t^2}, \quad y = \frac{2t}{1 + t^2}, \quad -\infty < t < +\infty$$

also lies on the unit circle, because we find that $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ here as well. If t begins at 0 and increases, then the point $P(x(t), y(t))$ begins at $(1, 0)$ and travels along the upper half of the circle. If t begins at 0 and decreases, then the point $P(x(t), y(t))$ travels along the lower half of the circle. As t approaches either $+\infty$ or $-\infty$, the point P approaches the point $(-1, 0)$. Thus the graph consists of the unit circle with the single point $(-1, 0)$ deleted. A slight modification of the curve of Example 1,

Fig. 10.4.1 A table of values for Example 1

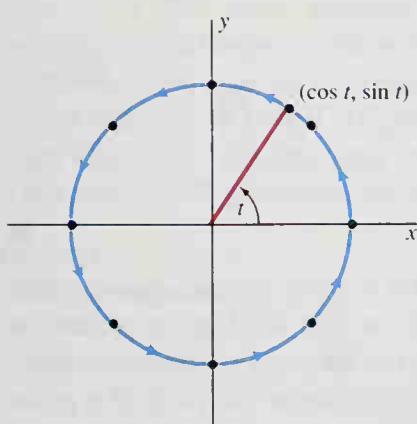


Fig. 10.4.2 The graph of the parametric functions of Example 1

$$x = \cos t, \quad y = \sin t, \quad -\pi < t < \pi,$$

is a different parametrization of this circle.

EXAMPLE 3 Eliminate the parameter to determine the graph of the parametric curve

$$x = t - 1, \quad y = 2t^2 - 4t + 1, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2.$$

Solution We substitute $t = x + 1$ (from the equation for x) into the equation for y . This yields

$$y = 2(x + 1)^2 - 4(x + 1) + 1 = 2x^2 - 1$$

for $-1 \leq x \leq 1$. Thus the graph of the given curve is a portion of the parabola $y = 2x^2 - 1$ (Fig. 10.4.3). As t increases from 0 to 2, the point $(t - 1, 2t^2 - 4t + 1)$ travels along the parabola from $(-1, 1)$ to $(1, 1)$.

REMARK The parabolic arc of Example 3 can be reparametrized with

$$x = \sin t, \quad y = 2 \sin^2 t - 1.$$

Now, as t increases, the point $(\sin t, 2 \sin^2 t - 1)$ travels back and forth along the parabola between the two points $(-1, 1)$ and $(1, 1)$, rather like the bob of a pendulum.

The parametric curve of Example 3 is one in which we can eliminate the parameter and thus obtain an explicit equation $y = f(x)$. Moreover, any explicitly presented curve $y = f(x)$ can be viewed as a parametric curve by writing

$$x = t, \quad y = f(t),$$

with the parameter t taking on values in the original domain of f . By contrast, the circle of Example 1 illustrates a parametric curve whose graph is not the graph of any single function. (Why not?) Example 4 exhibits another way in which parametric curves can differ from graphs of functions—they can have self-intersections.

EXAMPLE 4 The parametric equations

$$x = \cos at, \quad y = \sin bt$$

(with a and b constant) define the *Lissajous curves* that typically appear on oscilloscopes in physics and electronics laboratories. The Lissajous curve with $a = 3$ and $b = 5$ is shown in Fig. 10.4.4. You probably would not want to calculate and plot by hand enough points to produce a Lissajous curve. Figure 10.4.4 was plotted with a computer program that generated it almost immediately. But it is perhaps more instructive to watch a slower graphing calculator plot a parametric curve like this, because the curve is traced by a point that moves on the screen as the parameter t increases (from 0 to 2π in this case).

The use of parametric equations $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$ is most advantageous when elimination of the parameter is either impossible or would lead to an equation $y = f(x)$ that is considerably more complicated than the original parametric equations. This often happens when the curve is a geometric locus or the path of a point moving under specified conditions.

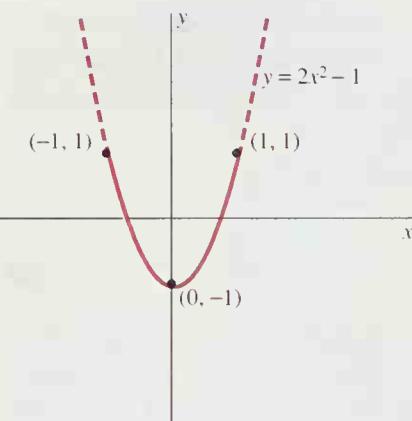


Fig. 10.4.3 The curve of Example 3 is part of a parabola.

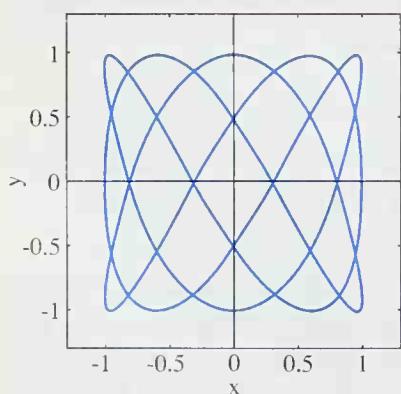


Fig. 10.4.4 The Lissajous curve with $a = 3, b = 5$

EXAMPLE 5 The curve traced by a point P on the edge of a rolling circle is called a **cycloid**. The circle rolls along a straight line without slipping or stopping. (You will

see a cycloid if you watch a patch of bright paint on the tire of a bicycle that crosses your path.) Find parametric equations for the cycloid if the line along which the circle rolls is the x -axis, the circle is above the x -axis but always tangent to it, and the point P begins at the origin.

Solution Evidently the cycloid consists of a series of arches. We take as parameter t the angle (in radians) through which the circle has turned since it began with P at the origin O . This is the angle TCP in Fig. 10.4.5.

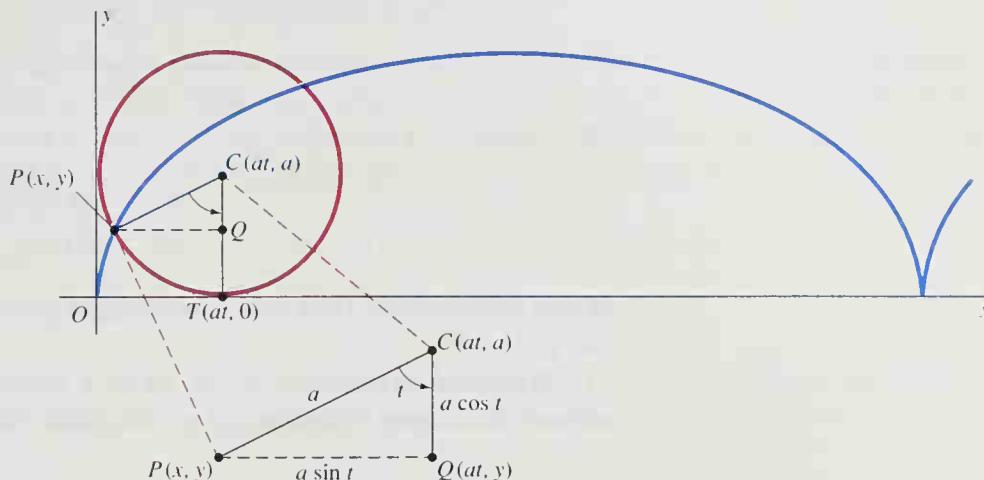


Fig. 10.4.5 The cycloid and the right triangle CPQ (Example 5)

The distance the circle has rolled is $|OT|$, so this is also the length of the circumference subtended by the angle TCP . Thus $|OT| = at$ if a is the radius of the circle, so the center C of the rolling circle has coordinates (at, a) when the angle TCP is t . The right triangle CPQ in Fig. 10.4.5 provides us with the relations

$$at - x = a \sin t \quad \text{and} \quad a - y = a \cos t.$$

Therefore the cycloid—the path of the moving point P —has parametric equations

$$x = a(t - \sin t), \quad y = a(1 - \cos t). \quad (3)$$

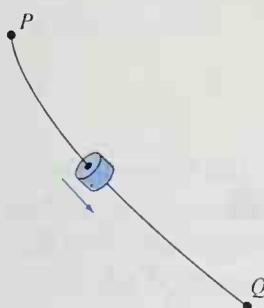


Fig. 10.4.6 A bead sliding down a wire—the brachistochrone problem

HISTORICAL NOTE Figure 10.4.6 shows a bead sliding down a frictionless wire from point P to point Q . The *brachistochrone problem* asks what shape the wire should be to minimize the bead's time of descent from P to Q . In June 1696, John Bernoulli proposed the brachistochrone problem as a public challenge, with a six-month deadline (later extended to Easter 1697, at Leibniz's request). Isaac Newton, then retired from academic life and serving as Warden of the Mint in London, received Bernoulli's challenge on January 29, 1697. The very next day he communicated his own solution—the curve of minimal descent time is an arc of an inverted cycloid—to the Royal Society of London.

Lines Tangent to Parametric Curves

The parametric curve $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$ is called **smooth** if the derivatives $f'(t)$ and $g'(t)$ are continuous and never simultaneously zero. In some neighborhood of each point of its graph, a smooth parametric curve can be described in one or possibly both of the forms $y = F(x)$ and $x = G(y)$. To see why this is so, suppose (for example) that $f'(t) > 0$ on the interval I . Then $f(t)$ is an increasing function on I and

therefore has an inverse function $t = \phi(x)$ there. If we substitute $t = \phi(x)$ into the equation $y = g(t)$, then we get

$$y = g(\phi(x)) = F(x).$$

We can use the chain rule to compute the slope dy/dx of the line tangent to a smooth parametric curve at a given point. Differentiation of $y = F(x)$ with respect to t yields

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{dy}{dx} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt},$$

so

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt} = \frac{g'(t)}{f'(t)} \quad (4)$$

at any point where $f'(t) \neq 0$. The tangent line is vertical at any point where $f'(t) = 0$ but $g'(t) \neq 0$.

Equation (4) gives $y' = dy/dx$ as a function of t . Another differentiation with respect to t , again with the aid of the chain rule, results in the formula

$$\frac{dy'}{dt} = \frac{dy'}{dx} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt},$$

so

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{dy'}{dx} = \frac{dy'/dt}{dx/dt}. \quad (5)$$

EXAMPLE 6 Calculate dy/dx and d^2y/dx^2 for the cycloid with the parametric equations in (3).

Solution We begin with

$$x = a(t - \sin t), \quad y = a(1 - \cos t). \quad (3)$$

Then Eq. (4) gives

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt} = \frac{a \sin t}{a(1 - \cos t)} = \frac{\sin t}{1 - \cos t}. \quad (6)$$

This derivative is zero when t is an odd integral multiple of π , so the tangent line is horizontal at the midpoint of each arch of the cycloid. The endpoints of the arches correspond to even integral multiples of π , where both the numerator and the denominator in Eq. (6) are zero. These are isolated points (called *cusps*) at which the cycloid fails to be a smooth curve. See Fig. 10.4.7.

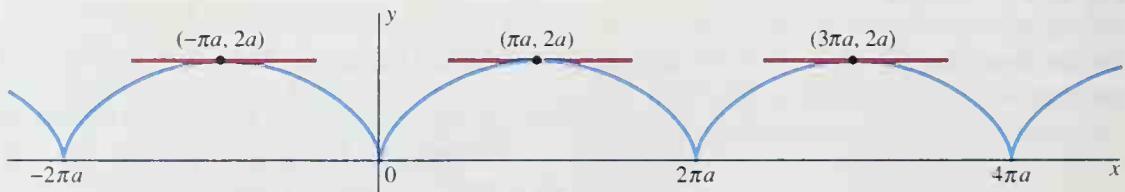


Fig. 10.4.7 Horizontal tangents and cusps of the cycloid

Next, Eq. (5) yields

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{(\cos t)(1 - \cos t) - (\sin t)(\sin t)}{(1 - \cos t)^2 \cdot a(1 - \cos t)} = -\frac{1}{a(1 - \cos t)^2}.$$

Because $d^2y/dx^2 < 0$ for all t (except for the isolated even integral multiples of π), this shows that each arch of the cycloid is concave downward (Fig. 10.4.7). ■

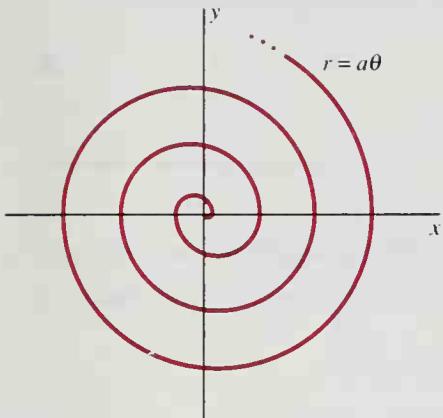


Fig. 10.4.8 The spiral of Archimedes (Example 7)

Polar Curves as Parametric Curves

A curve given in polar coordinates by the equation $r = f(\theta)$ can be regarded as a parametric curve with parameter θ . To see this, we recall that the equations $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$ allow us to change from polar to rectangular coordinates. We replace r with $f(\theta)$, and this gives the parametric equations

$$x = f(\theta) \cos \theta, \quad y = f(\theta) \sin \theta, \quad (7)$$

which express x and y in terms of the parameter θ .

EXAMPLE 7 The *spiral of Archimedes* has the polar coordinates equation $r = a\theta$ (Fig. 10.4.8). The equations in (7) give the spiral the parametrization

$$x = a\theta \cos \theta, \quad y = a\theta \sin \theta.$$

The slope dy/dx can be computed in terms of polar coordinates as well as rectangular coordinates. Given a polar coordinates curve $r = f(\theta)$, we use the parametrization

$$x = f(\theta) \cos \theta, \quad y = f(\theta) \sin \theta$$

shown in (7). Then Eq. (4), with θ in place of t , gives

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/d\theta}{dx/d\theta} = \frac{f'(\theta) \sin \theta + f(\theta) \cos \theta}{f'(\theta) \cos \theta - f(\theta) \sin \theta}, \quad (8)$$

or, alternatively, denoting $f'(\theta)$ by r' ,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{r' \sin \theta + r \cos \theta}{r' \cos \theta - r \sin \theta}. \quad (9)$$

Equation (9) has the following useful consequence. Let ψ denote the angle between the tangent line at P and the radius OP (extended) from the origin (Fig. 10.4.9). Then

$$\cot \psi = \frac{1}{r} \cdot \frac{dr}{d\theta} \quad (0 \leq \psi \leq \pi). \quad (10)$$

In Problem 32 we indicate how Eq. (10) can be derived from Eq. (9).

EXAMPLE 8 Consider the *logarithmic spiral* with polar equation $r = e^\theta$. Show that $\psi = \pi/4$ at every point of the spiral, and write an equation of its tangent line at the point $(e^{\pi/2}, \pi/2)$.

Solution Because $dr/d\theta = e^\theta$, Eq. (10) tells us that $\cot \psi = e^\theta/e^\theta = 1$. Thus $\psi = \pi/4$. When $\theta = \pi/2$, Eq. (9) gives

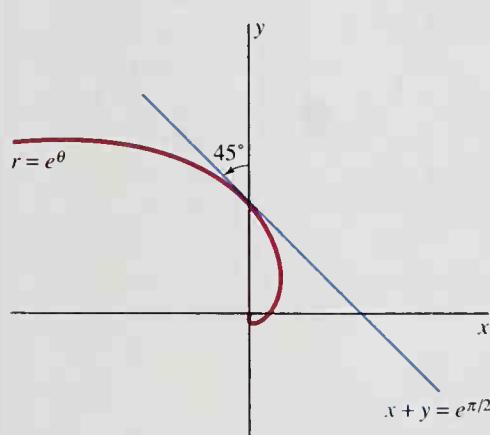


Fig. 10.4.10 The angle ψ is always 45° for the logarithmic spiral (Example 8)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{e^{\pi/2} \sin(\pi/2) + e^{\pi/2} \cos(\pi/2)}{e^{\pi/2} \cos(\pi/2) - e^{\pi/2} \sin(\pi/2)} = -1.$$

But when $\theta = \pi/2$, we have $x = 0$ and $y = e^{\pi/2}$. It follows that an equation of the desired tangent line is

$$y - e^{\pi/2} = -x; \text{ that is, } x + y = e^{\pi/2}.$$

The line and the spiral appear in Fig. 10.4.10. ■

10.4 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 12, eliminate the parameter and then sketch the curve.

1. $x = t + 1, y = 2t - 1$
2. $x = t^2 + 1, y = 2t^2 - 1$
3. $x = t^2, y = t^3$
4. $x = \sqrt{t}, y = 3t - 2$
5. $x = t + 1, y = 2t^2 - t - 1$
6. $x = t^2 + 3t, y = t - 2$
7. $x = e^t, y = 4e^{2t}$
8. $x = 2e^t, y = 2e^{-t}$
9. $x = 5 \cos t, y = 3 \sin t$
10. $x = \sinh t, y = \cosh t$
11. $x = 2 \cosh t, y = 3 \sinh t$
12. $x = \sec t, y = \tan t$

In Problems 13 through 16, first eliminate the parameter and sketch the curve. Then describe the motion of the point $(x(t), y(t))$ as t varies in the given interval.

13. $x = \sin 2\pi t, y = \cos 2\pi t; 0 \leq t \leq 1$
14. $x = 3 + 2 \cos t, y = 5 - 2 \sin t; 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$
15. $x = \sin^2 \pi t, y = \cos^2 \pi t; 0 \leq t \leq 2$
16. $x = \cos t, y = \sin^2 t; -\pi \leq t \leq \pi$

In Problems 17 through 20, (a) first write the equation of the line tangent to the given parametric curve at the point that corresponds to the given value of t , and (b) then calculate d^2y/dx^2 to determine whether the curve is concave upward or concave downward at this point.

17. $x = 2t^2 + 1, y = 3t^3 + 2; t = 1$
18. $x = \cos^3 t, y = \sin^3 t; t = \pi/4$
19. $x = t \sin t, y = t \cos t; t = \pi/2$
20. $x = e^t, y = e^{-t}; t = 0$

In Problems 21 through 24, find the angle ψ between the radius OP and the tangent line at the point P that corresponds to the given value of θ .

21. $r = \exp(\theta\sqrt{3}), \theta = \pi/2$
22. $r = 1/\theta, \theta = 1$
23. $r = \sin 3\theta, \theta = \pi/6$
24. $r = 1 - \cos \theta, \theta = \pi/3$

In Problems 25 through 28, find:

- (a) The points on the curve where the tangent line is horizontal.
- (b) The slope of each tangent line at any point where the curve intersects the x -axis.
25. $x = t^2, y = t^3 - 3t$ (Fig. 10.4.11)
26. $x = \sin t, y = \sin 2t$ (Fig. 10.4.12)

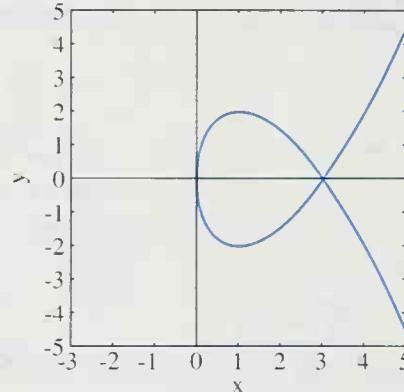


Fig. 10.4.11 The curve of Problem 25

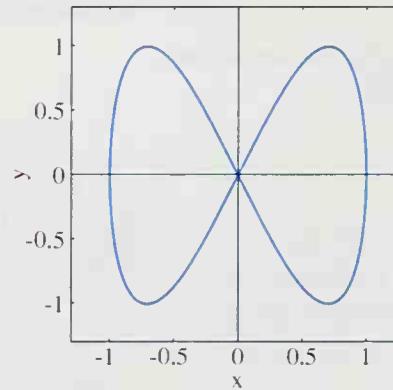


Fig. 10.4.12 The curve of Problem 26

27. $r = 1 + \cos \theta$
28. $r^2 = 4 \cos 2\theta$ (see Fig. 10.3.15)
29. The curve C is determined by the parametric equations $x = e^{-t}, y = e^{2t}$. Calculate dy/dx and d^2y/dx^2 directly

from these parametric equations. Conclude that C is concave upward at every point. Then sketch C .

30. The graph of the folium of Descartes with rectangular equation $x^3 + y^3 = 3xy$ appears in Fig. 10.4.13. Parametrize its loop as follows: Let P be the point of intersection of the line $y = tx$ with the loop; then solve for the coordinates x and y of P in terms of t .

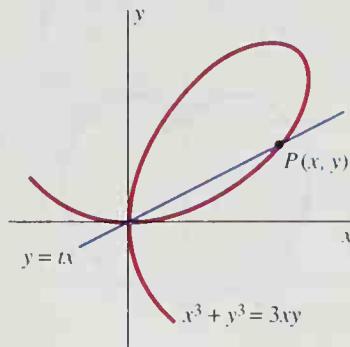


Fig. 10.4.13 The loop of the folium of Descartes (Problem 30)

31. Parametrize the parabola $y^2 = 4px$ by expressing x and y as functions of the slope m of the tangent line at the point $P(x, y)$ of the parabola.

32. Let P be a point of the curve with polar equation $r = f(\theta)$, and let ψ be the angle between the extended radius OP and the tangent line at P . Let α be the angle of inclination of this tangent line, measured counterclockwise from the horizontal. Then $\psi = \alpha - \theta$. Verify Eq. (10) by substituting $\tan \alpha = dy/dx$ from Eq. (9) and $\tan \theta = y/x = (\sin \theta)/(\cos \theta)$ into the identity

$$\cot \psi = \frac{1}{\tan(\alpha - \theta)} = \frac{1 + \tan \alpha \tan \theta}{\tan \alpha - \tan \theta}.$$

33. Let P_0 be the highest point of the circle of Fig. 10.4.5—the circle that generates the cycloid of Example 5. Show that the line through P_0 and the point P of the cycloid (the point P is shown in Fig. 10.4.5) is tangent to the cycloid at P . This fact gives a geometric construction of the line tangent to the cycloid.

34. A circle of radius b rolls without slipping inside a circle of radius $a > b$. The path of a point fixed on the circumference of the rolling circle is called a *hypocycloid* (Fig. 10.4.14). Let P begin its journey at $A(a, 0)$ and let t be the angle AOC , where O is the center of the large circle and C is the center of the rolling circle. Show that the coordinates of P are given by the parametric equations

$$x = (a - b) \cos t + b \cos \left(\frac{a - b}{b} t \right),$$

$$y = (a - b) \sin t - b \sin \left(\frac{a - b}{b} t \right).$$

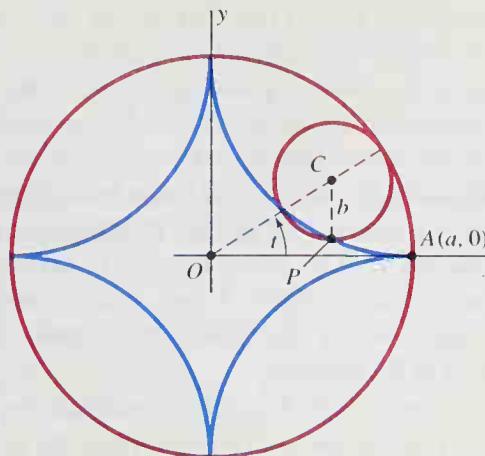


Fig. 10.4.14 The hypocycloid of Problem 34

35. If $b = a/4$ in Problem 34, show that the parametric equations of the hypocycloid reduce to

$$x = a \cos^3 t, \quad y = a \sin^3 t.$$

36. (a) Prove that the hypocycloid of Problem 35 is the graph of the equation

$$x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} = a^{2/3}.$$

- (b) Find all points of this hypocycloid where its tangent line is either horizontal or vertical, and find the intervals on which it is concave upward and those on which it is concave downward. (c) Sketch this hypocycloid.

37. Consider a point P on the spiral of Archimedes, the curve shown in Fig. 10.4.15 with polar equation $r = a\theta$. Archimedes viewed the path of P as compounded of two motions, one with speed a directly away from the origin O and another a circular motion with unit angular speed around O . This suggests Archimedes' result that the line PQ in the figure is tangent to the spiral at P . Prove that this is indeed true.

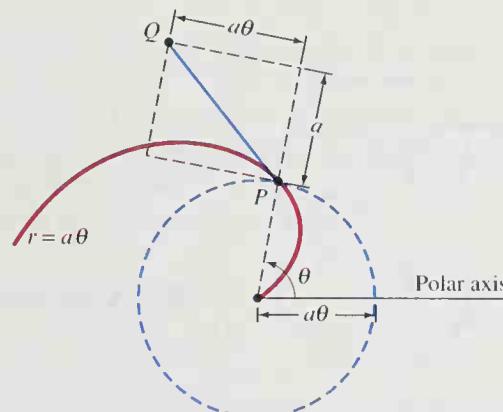


Fig. 10.4.15 The segment PQ is tangent to the spiral (a result of Archimedes; see Problem 37).

38. (a) Deduce from Eq. (7) that if t is not an integral multiple of 2π , then the slope of the tangent line at the corresponding point of the cycloid is $\cot(t/2)$. (b) Conclude that at the cusp of the cycloid where t is an integral multiple of 2π , the cycloid has a vertical tangent line.
39. A *loxodrome* is a curve $r = f(\theta)$ such that the tangent line at P and the radius OP in Fig. 10.4.9 make a constant angle. Use Eq. (10) to prove that every loxodrome is of the form $r = Ae^{k\theta}$, where A and k are constants. Thus every loxodrome is a logarithmic spiral similar to the one considered in Example 8.
40. Let a curve be described in polar coordinates by $r = f(\theta)$, where f is continuous. If $f(\alpha) = 0$, then the origin is the point of the curve corresponding to $\theta = \alpha$. Deduce from the parametrization $x = f(\theta) \cos \theta$, $y = f(\theta) \sin \theta$ that the line tangent to the curve at this point makes the angle α with the positive x -axis. For example, the cardioid $r = f(\theta) = 1 - \sin \theta$ shown in Fig. 10.4.16 is tangent to the y -axis at the origin. And, indeed, $f(\pi/2) = 0$: The y -axis is the line $\theta = \alpha = \pi/2$.
41. Use the technique of Problem 30 to parametrize the first-quadrant loop of the folium-like curve $x^5 + y^5 = 5x^2y^2$.
42. A line segment of length $2a$ has one endpoint constrained to lie on the x -axis and the other endpoint constrained to lie on the y -axis, but its endpoints are free to move along those axes. As they do so, its midpoint sweeps out a locus in the xy -plane. Obtain a rectangular coordinates equation of this locus and thereby identify this curve.

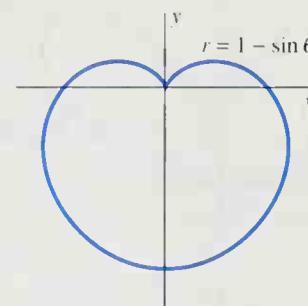


Fig. 10.4.16 The cardioid of Problem 40

10.4 PROJECT: CALCULATOR/COMPUTER GRAPHING OF PARAMETRIC CURVES

The most fun in plotting parametric curves comes from trying your own hand—especially if you have a graphics calculator or computer with graphing utility to do the real work. Try various values of the constants a , b , p , . . . in the investigations. When sines and cosines are involved, the interval $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ is a reasonable one to try first. You will need to experiment with different viewing windows to find one that shows the whole curve (or the most interesting part of it).

INVESTIGATION A Given: $x = at - b \sin t$, $y = a - b \cos t$. This *trochoid* is traced by a point P on a solid wheel of radius a as it rolls along the x -axis; the distance of P from the center of the wheel is $b > 0$. (The graph is a cycloid if $a = b$.) Try both cases $a > b$ and $a < b$.

INVESTIGATION B Given:

$$x = (a - b) \cos t + b \cos\left(\frac{a - b}{b}t\right),$$

$$y = (a - b) \sin t - b \sin\left(\frac{a - b}{b}t\right).$$

This is a *hypocycloid*—the path of a point P on a circle of radius b that rolls along the inside of a circle of radius $a > b$. Figure 10.4.14 shows the case $b = a/4$.

INVESTIGATION C Given:

$$x = (a + b) \cos t - b \cos\left(\frac{a + b}{b}t\right),$$

$$y = (a + b) \sin t - b \sin\left(\frac{a + b}{b}t\right).$$

This is an *epicycloid* traced by a point P on a circle of radius b that rolls along the outside of a circle of radius $a > b$.

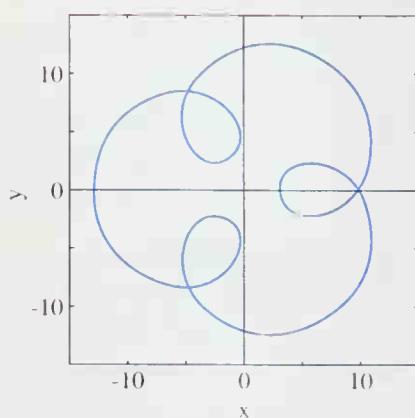


Fig. 10.4.17 The epitrochoid with $a = 8$, $b = 5$ (Investigation D)

INVESTIGATION D Given:

$$x = a \cos t - b \cos \frac{at}{2}, \quad y = a \sin t - b \sin \frac{at}{2}.$$

This is an *epitrochoid*—it is to the epicycloid what a trochoid is to a cycloid. With $a = 8$ and $b = 5$, you should get the curve shown in Fig. 10.4.17.

INVESTIGATION E Given:

$$x = a \cos t + b \cos \frac{at}{2}, \quad y = a \sin t - b \sin \frac{at}{2}.$$

With $a = 8$ and $b = 5$, this *hypotrochoid* looks like the curve shown in Fig. 10.4.18.

INVESTIGATION F Given: $x = \cos at$, $y = \sin bt$. These are Lissajous curves (Example 4). The Lissajous curve with $a = 3$ and $b = 5$ is shown in Fig. 10.4.4.

INVESTIGATION G Consider the parametric equations

$$x = a \cos t - b \cos pt, \quad y = c \sin t - d \sin qt.$$

The values $a = 16$, $b = 5$, $c = 12$, $d = 3$, $p = \frac{47}{3}$, and $q = \frac{44}{3}$ yield the “Slinky curve” shown in Fig. 10.4.19. Experiment with various combinations of constants to see whether you can produce a prettier picture.

INVESTIGATION H Given a polar coordinates equation $r = f(\theta)$, it's frequently easiest to plot by converting to parametric form:

$$x = f(\theta) \cos \theta, \quad y = f(\theta) \sin \theta,$$

so that the parameter is θ . Given

$$r(\theta) = 2 \cos 3\theta - \sin 11\theta + \sin 2\theta,$$

plot this polar equation for $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$. Then vary some of the coefficients or otherwise modify this function to see whether you can produce a more attractive curve.

Fig. 10.4.18 The hypotrochoid with $a = 8$, $b = 5$ (Investigation E)

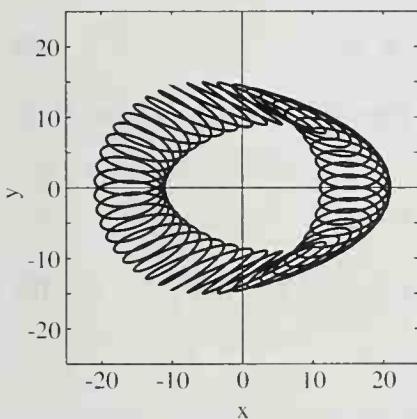


Fig. 10.4.19 The slinky curve of Investigation G

10.5 INTEGRAL COMPUTATIONS WITH PARAMETRIC CURVES

In Chapter 6 we discussed the computation of a variety of geometric quantities associated with the graph $y = f(x)$ of a nonnegative function on the interval $[a, b]$. They included the following.

▼ The area under the curve:

$$A = \int_a^b y \, dx. \tag{1}$$

▼ The volume of revolution around the x -axis:

$$V_x = \int_a^b \pi y^2 \, dx. \tag{2a}$$

▼ The volume of revolution around the y -axis:

$$V_y = \int_a^b 2\pi xy \, dx. \quad (2b)$$

▼ The arc length of the curve:

$$s = \int_0^y ds = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + (dy/dx)^2} \, dx. \quad (3)$$

▼ The area of the surface of revolution around the x -axis:

$$S_x = \int_{x=a}^b 2\pi y \, ds. \quad (4a)$$

▼ The area of the surface of revolution around the y -axis:

$$S_y = \int_{x=a}^b 2\pi x \, ds. \quad (4b)$$

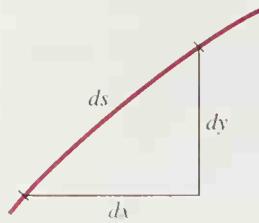


Fig. 10.5.1 Nearly a right triangle for dx and dy close to zero

We substitute $y = f(x)$ into each of these integrals before we integrate from $x = a$ to $x = b$.

We now want to compute these same quantities for a smooth parametric curve

$$x = f(t), \quad y = g(t), \quad \alpha \leq t \leq \beta. \quad (5)$$

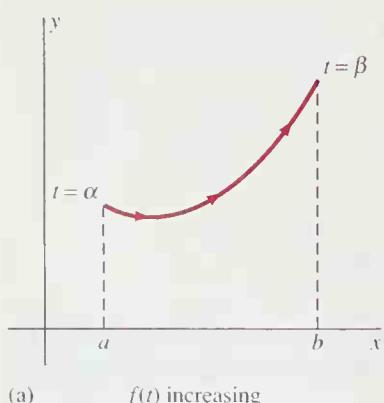
The area, volume, arc length, and surface integrals in Eqs. (1) through (4) can then be evaluated by making the formal substitutions

$$\begin{aligned} x &= f(t), & y &= g(t), \\ dx &= f'(t) \, dt, & dy &= g'(t) \, dt, \text{ and} \\ ds &= \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2} \, dt. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

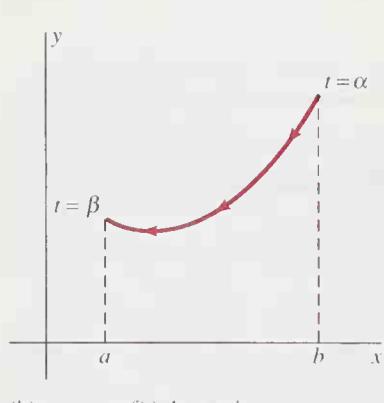
The infinitesimal “right triangle” in Fig. 10.5.1 serves as a convenient device for remembering the latter substitution for ds . The Pythagorean theorem then leads to the symbolic manipulation

$$ds = \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} \, dt = \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2} \, dt. \quad (7)$$

It simplifies the discussion to assume that the graph of the parametric curve in (5) resembles Fig. 10.5.2, in which $y = g(t) \geq 0$ and $x = f(t)$ is either increasing on the entire interval $\alpha \leq t \leq \beta$ or is decreasing there. The two parts of Fig. 10.5.2 illustrate the two possibilities—whether as t increases the curve is traced in the positive x -direction from left to right, or in the negative x -direction from right to left. How and whether to take this direction of motion into account depends on which integral we are computing.



(a) $f(t)$ increasing



(b) $f(t)$ decreasing

Fig. 10.5.2 Tracing a parametrized curve: (a) $f(t)$ increasing; (b) $f(t)$ decreasing

CASE 1: Area and Volume of Revolution To evaluate the integrals in Eqs. (1) and (2), which involve dx , we integrate either from $t = \alpha$ to $t = \beta$ or from $t = \beta$ to $t = \alpha$ —the proper choice of limits on t being the one that corresponds to traversing the curve in the positive x -direction from left to right. Specifically,

$$A = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} g(t)f'(t) dt \text{ if } f(\alpha) < f(\beta),$$

whereas

$$A = \int_{\beta}^{\alpha} g(t)f'(t) dt \text{ if } f(\beta) < f(\alpha).$$

The validity of this method of evaluating the integrals in Eqs. (1) and (2) follows from Theorem 1 of Section 5.7, on integration by substitution.

CASE 2: Arc Length and Surface Area To evaluate the integrals in Eqs. (3) and (4), which involve ds rather than dx , we integrate from $t = \alpha$ to $t = \beta$ irrespective of the direction of motion along the curve. To see why this is so, recall from Eq. (4) of Section 10.4 that $dy/dx = g'(t)/f'(t)$ if $f'(t) \neq 0$ on $[\alpha, \beta]$. Hence

$$s = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx = \int_{f^{-1}(a)}^{f^{-1}(b)} \sqrt{1 + \left[\frac{g'(t)}{f'(t)}\right]^2} f'(t) dt.$$

Assuming that $f'(t) > 0$ if $f(\alpha) = a$ and $f(\beta) = b$, whereas $f'(t) < 0$ if $f(\alpha) = b$ and $f(\beta) = a$, it follows in either event that

$$s = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \sqrt{1 + \left[\frac{g'(t)}{f'(t)}\right]^2} |f'(t)| dt,$$

and so

$$s = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2} dt = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt. \quad (8)$$

This formula, derived under the assumption that $f'(t) \neq 0$ on $[\alpha, \beta]$, may be taken to be the *definition* of arc length for an arbitrary smooth parametric curve. Similarly, the area of a surface of revolution is defined for smooth parametric curves as the result of first making the substitutions of Eq. (6) into Eq. (4a) or (4b) and then integrating from $t = \alpha$ to $t = \beta$.

EXAMPLE 1 Use the parametrization $x = a \cos t$, $y = a \sin t$ of the circle with center $(0, 0)$ and radius a to find the volume V and surface area S of the sphere obtained by revolving this circle around the x -axis.

Solution Half the sphere is obtained by revolving the first quadrant of the circle (Fig. 10.5.3). The left-to-right direction along the curve is from $t = \pi/2$ to $t = 0$, and $dx = -a \sin t dt$, so Eq. (2a) gives

$$\begin{aligned} V &= 2 \int_{t=\pi/2}^0 \pi y^2 dx \\ &= 2 \int_{\pi/2}^0 \pi(a \sin t)^2 (-a \sin t dt) = 2\pi a^3 \int_0^{\pi/2} (1 - \cos^2 t) \sin t dt \\ &= 2\pi a^3 \left[-\cos t + \frac{1}{3} \cos^3 t \right]_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{4}{3} \pi a^3. \end{aligned}$$

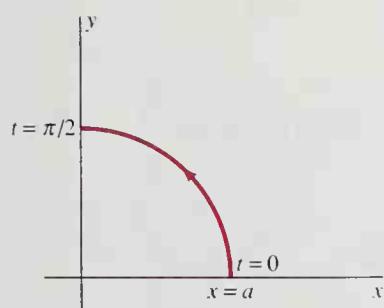


Fig. 10.5.3 The quarter-circle of Example 1

The arc-length differential for the parametrized curve is

$$ds = \sqrt{(-a \sin t)^2 + (a \cos t)^2} = a dt.$$

Hence Eq. (4a) gives

$$\begin{aligned} S &= 2 \int_{t=0}^{\pi/2} 2\pi y ds = 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} 2\pi(a \sin t)(a dt) \\ &= 4\pi a^2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin t dt = 4\pi a^2 \left[-\cos t \right]_0^{\pi/2} = 4\pi a^2. \end{aligned}$$

Of course, the results of Example 1 are familiar. In contrast, Example 2 requires the methods of this section.

EXAMPLE 2 Find the area under, and the arc length of, the cycloidal arch of Fig. 10.5.4. Its parametric equations are

$$x = a(t - \sin t), \quad y = a(1 - \cos t), \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi.$$

Solution Because $dx = a(1 - \cos t) dt$ and the left-to-right direction along the curve is from $t = 0$ to $t = 2\pi$, Eq. (1) gives

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_{t=0}^{2\pi} y dx \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} a(1 - \cos t) \cdot a(1 - \cos t) dt = a^2 \int_0^{2\pi} (1 - \cos t)^2 dt \end{aligned}$$

for the area. Now we use the half-angle identity

$$1 - \cos t = 2 \sin^2 \left(\frac{t}{2} \right)$$

and a consequence of Problem 58 in Section 9.3:

$$\int_0^\pi \sin^{2n} u du = \pi \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{5}{6} \cdots \frac{2n-1}{2n}.$$

We thereby get

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 4a^2 \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^4 \left(\frac{t}{2} \right) dt = 8a^2 \int_0^\pi \sin^4 u du \quad \left(u = \frac{t}{2} \right) \\ &= 8a^2 \cdot \pi \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} = 3\pi a^2 \end{aligned}$$

for the area under one arch of the cycloid. The arc-length differential is

$$\begin{aligned} ds &= \sqrt{a^2(1 - \cos t)^2 + (a \sin t)^2} dt \\ &= a\sqrt{2(1 - \cos t)} dt = 2a \sin \left(\frac{t}{2} \right) dt, \end{aligned}$$

so Eq. (3) gives

$$s = \int_0^{2\pi} 2a \sin \frac{t}{2} dt = \left[-4a \cos \frac{t}{2} \right]_0^{2\pi} = 8a$$

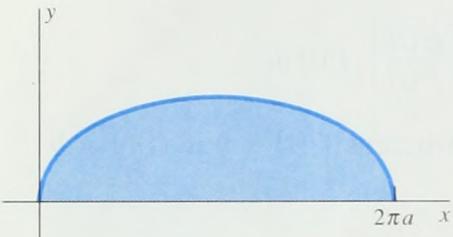


Fig. 10.5.4 The cycloidal arch of Example 2

for the length of one arch of the cycloid.

Parametric Polar Coordinates

Suppose that a parametric curve is determined by giving its polar coordinates

$$r = r(t), \quad \theta = \theta(t), \quad \alpha \leq t \leq \beta$$

as functions of the parameter t . Then this curve is described in rectangular coordinates by the parametric equations

$$x(t) = r(t) \cos \theta(t), \quad y(t) = r(t) \sin \theta(t), \quad \alpha \leq t \leq \beta,$$

giving x and y as functions of t . The latter parametric equations may then be used in the integral formulas in Eqs. (1) through (4).

To compute ds , we first calculate the derivatives

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = (\cos \theta) \frac{dr}{dt} - (r \sin \theta) \frac{d\theta}{dt}, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = (\sin \theta) \frac{dr}{dt} + (r \cos \theta) \frac{d\theta}{dt}.$$

Upon substituting these expressions for dx/dt and dy/dt into Eq. (8) and making algebraic simplifications, we find that the arc-length differential in parametric polar coordinates is

$$ds = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dr}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(r \frac{d\theta}{dt}\right)^2} dt. \quad (9)$$

In the case of a curve with the explicit polar coordinates equation $r = f(\theta)$, we may use θ itself as the parameter. Then Eq. (9) takes the simpler form

$$ds = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2 + r^2} d\theta. \quad (10)$$

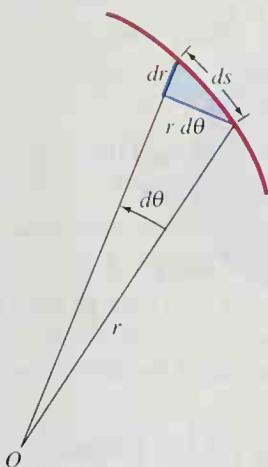


Fig. 10.5.5 The differential triangle in polar coordinates

This formula is easy to remember with the aid of the tiny “almost-triangle” shown in Fig. 10.5.5.

EXAMPLE 3 Find the perimeter (arc length) s of the cardioid with polar equation $r = 1 + \cos \theta$ (Fig. 10.5.6). Find also the surface area S generated by revolving the cardioid around the x -axis.

Solution Because $dr/d\theta = -\sin \theta$, Eq. (10) and the identity

$$1 + \cos \theta = 2 \cos^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) \quad (11)$$

give

$$\begin{aligned} ds &= \sqrt{(-\sin \theta)^2 + (1 + \cos \theta)^2} d\theta = \sqrt{2(1 + \cos \theta)} d\theta \\ &= \sqrt{4 \cos^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)} d\theta = \left|2 \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)\right| d\theta. \end{aligned}$$

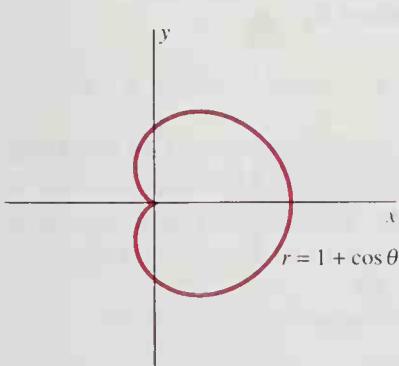


Fig. 10.5.6 The cardioid of Example 3

Hence $ds = 2 \cos(\theta/2) d\theta$ on the upper half of the cardioid, where $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$, and thus $\cos(\theta/2) \geq 0$. Therefore

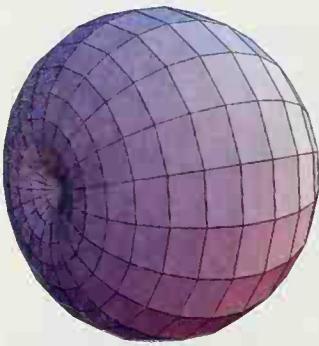


Fig. 10.5.7 The surface generated by rotating the cardioid around the x -axis

The surface area of revolution around the x -axis (Fig. 10.5.7) is given by

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} 2\pi y \, ds \\ &= \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} 2\pi(r \sin \theta) \, ds = \int_0^{\pi} 2\pi(1 + \cos \theta)(\sin \theta) \cdot 2 \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) d\theta \\ &= 16\pi \int_0^{\pi} \cos^4 \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \, d\theta = 16\pi \left[-\frac{2}{5} \cos^5 \frac{\theta}{2} \right]_0^{\pi} = \frac{32\pi}{5}, \end{aligned}$$

using the identity

$$\sin \theta = 2 \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

as well as the identity in Eq. (11). ■

10.5 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 6, find the area of the region that lies between the given parametric curve and the x -axis.

1. $x = t^3$, $y = 2t^2 + 1$; $-1 \leq t \leq 1$
2. $x = e^{3t}$, $y = e^{-t}$; $0 \leq t \leq \ln 2$
3. $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin^2 t$; $0 \leq t \leq \pi$
4. $x = 2 - 3t$, $y = e^{2t}$; $0 \leq t \leq 1$
5. $x = \cos t$, $y = e^t$; $0 \leq t \leq \pi$
6. $x = 1 - e^t$, $y = 2t + 1$; $0 \leq t \leq 1$

In Problems 7 through 10, find the volume obtained by revolving around the x -axis the region described in the given problem.

- | | |
|--------------|---------------|
| 7. Problem 1 | 8. Problem 2 |
| 9. Problem 3 | 10. Problem 5 |

In Problems 11 through 16, find the arc length of the given curve.

11. $x = 2t$, $y = \frac{2}{3}t^{3/2}$; $5 \leq t \leq 12$
12. $x = \frac{1}{2}t^2$, $y = \frac{1}{3}t^3$; $0 \leq t \leq 1$
13. $x = \sin t - \cos t$, $y = \sin t + \cos t$; $\frac{1}{4}\pi \leq t \leq \frac{1}{2}\pi$
14. $x = e^t \sin t$, $y = e^t \cos t$; $0 \leq t \leq \pi$
15. $r = e^{\theta/2}$; $0 \leq \theta \leq 4\pi$
16. $r = \theta$; $2\pi \leq \theta \leq 4\pi$

In Problems 17 through 22, find the area of the surface of revolution generated by revolving the given curve around the indicated axis.

17. $x = 1 - t$, $y = 2\sqrt{t}$, $1 \leq t \leq 4$; the x -axis
18. $x = 2t^2 + t^{-1}$, $y = 8\sqrt{t}$, $1 \leq t \leq 2$; the x -axis
19. $x = t^3$, $y = 2t + 3$, $-1 \leq t \leq 1$; the y -axis

20. $x = 2t + 1$, $y = t^2 + t$, $0 \leq t \leq 3$; the y -axis
21. $r = 4 \sin \theta$, $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$; the x -axis
22. $r = e^\theta$, $0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{1}{2}\pi$; the y -axis
23. Find the volume generated by revolving around the x -axis the region under the cycloidal arch of Example 2.
24. Find the area of the surface generated by revolving around the x -axis the cycloidal arch of Example 2.
25. Use the parametrization $x = a \cos t$, $y = b \sin t$ to find
 - (a) the area bounded by the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$;
 - (b) the volume of the ellipsoid generated by revolving this ellipse around the x -axis.
26. Find the area bounded by the loop of the parametric curve $x = t^2$, $y = t^3 - 3t$ of Problem 25 in Section 10.4.
27. Use the parametrization $x = t \cos t$, $y = t \sin t$ of the Archimedean spiral to find the arc length of the first full turn of this spiral (corresponding to $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$).
28. The circle $(x - b)^2 + y^2 = a^2$ with radius $a < b$ and center $(b, 0)$ can be parametrized by

$$x = b + a \cos t, \quad y = a \sin t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi.$$

Find the surface area of the torus obtained by revolving this circle around the y -axis (Fig. 10.5.8).

29. The *astroid* (four-cusped hypocycloid) has equation $x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} = a^{2/3}$ (Fig. 10.4.14) and the parametrization

$$x = a \cos^3 t, \quad y = a \sin^3 t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi.$$

Find the area of the region bounded by the astroid.

30. Find the total length of the astroid of Problem 29.

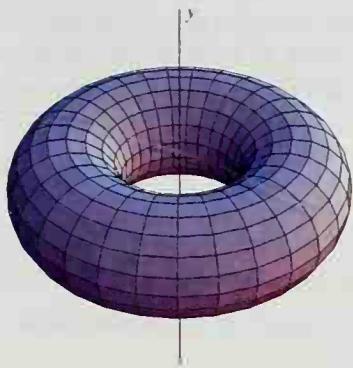


Fig. 10.5.8 The torus of Problem 28

31. Find the area of the surface obtained by revolving the astroid of Problem 29 around the x -axis.
 32. Find the area of the surface generated by revolving the lemniscate $r^2 = 2a^2 \cos 2\theta$ around the y -axis (Fig. 10.5.9). (*Suggestion:* Use Eq. (9); note that $r dr = -2a^2 \sin 2\theta d\theta$.)

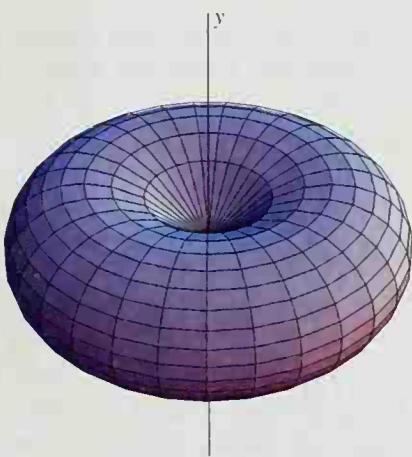


Fig. 10.5.9 The surface generated by rotating the lemniscate of Problem 32 around the y -axis

33. Figure 10.5.10 shows the graph of the parametric curve

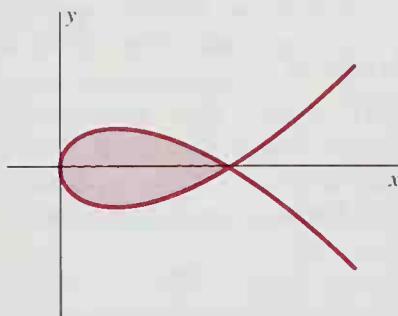


Fig. 10.5.10 The parametric curve of Problems 33 through 36

$$x = t^2 \sqrt{3}, \quad y = 3t - \frac{1}{3}t^3.$$

The shaded region is bounded by the part of the curve for which $-3 \leq t \leq 3$. Find its area.

34. Find the arc length of the loop of the curve of Problem 33.
 35. Find the volume of the solid obtained by revolving around the x -axis the shaded region in Fig. 10.5.10.
 36. Find the surface area of revolution generated by revolving around the x -axis the loop of Fig. 10.5.10.
 37. (a) With reference to Problem 30 and Fig. 10.4.13 in Section 10.4, show that the arc length of the first-quadrant loop of the folium of Descartes is

$$s = 6 \int_0^1 \frac{\sqrt{1 + 4t^2 - 4t^3 - 4t^5 + 4t^6 + t^8}}{(1 + t^3)^2} dt.$$

- (b) Use a programmable calculator or a computer to approximate this length.
 38. Find the surface area generated by rotating around the y -axis the cycloidal arch of Example 2. (*Suggestion:* $\sqrt{x^2} = x$ only if $x \geq 0$.)
 39. Find the volume generated by rotating around the y -axis the region under the cycloidal arch of Example 2.
 40. Suppose that after a string is wound clockwise around a circle of radius a , its free end is at the point $A(a, 0)$ (see Fig. 10.5.11). Now the string is unwound, always stretched tight so the unwound portion TP is tangent to the circle at T . The locus of the string's free endpoint P is called the **involute** of the circle.

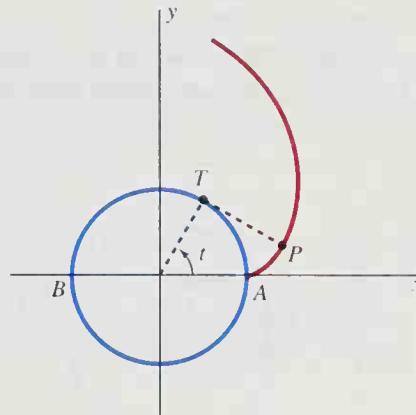


Fig. 10.5.11 The involute of a circle

- (a) Show that the parametric equations of the involute (in terms of the angle t of Fig. 10.5.11) are
- $$x = a(\cos t + t \sin t), \quad y = a(\sin t - t \cos t).$$
- (b) Find the length of the involute from $t = 0$ to $t = \pi$.
 41. Suppose that the circle of Problem 40 is a water tank and the "string" is a rope of length πa . It is anchored at the

point B opposite A . Figure 10.5.12 depicts the total area that can be grazed by a cow tied to the free end of the rope. Find this total area. (The three labeled arcs of the curve in the figure represent, respectively, an involute APQ generated as the cow unwinds the rope in the counterclockwise direction, a semicircle QR of radius πa centered at B , and an involute RSA generated as the cow winds the rope around the tank proceeding in the counterclockwise direction from B to A . These three arcs form a closed curve that resembles a cardioid, and the cow can reach every point that lies inside this curve and outside the original circle.)

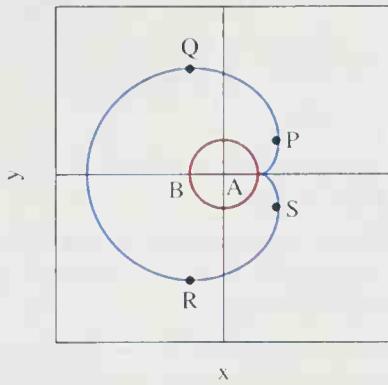


Fig. 10.5.12 The area that the cow of Problem 41 can graze

42. Now suppose that the rope of the previous problem has length $2\pi a$ and is anchored at the point A before being wound completely around the tank. Now find the total area that the cow can graze. Figure 10.5.13 shows an involute APQ , a semicircle QR of radius $2\pi a$ centered at A , and an involute RSA . The cow can reach every point that lies inside the outer curve and outside the original circle.

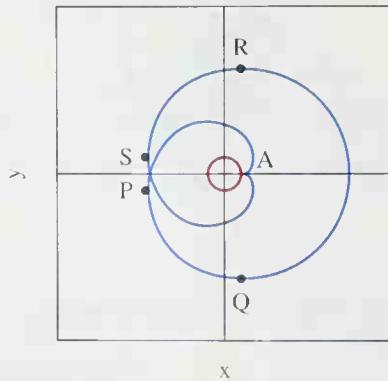


Fig. 10.5.13 The area that the cow of Problem 42 can graze

In Problems 43 through 54, use a graphing calculator or computer algebra system as appropriate. Approximate (by integrating numerically) the desired quantity if it cannot be calculated exactly.

43. Find the total arc length of the three-leaved rose $r = 3 \sin 3\theta$ of Fig. 10.3.12.
44. Find the total surface area generated by rotating around the y -axis the three-leaved rose of Problem 43.
45. Find the total length of the four-leaved rose $r = 2 \cos 2\theta$ of Fig. 10.2.12.
46. Find the total surface area generated by revolving around the x -axis the four-leaved rose of Problem 45.
47. Find the total arc length of the limaçon (both loops) $r = 5 + 9 \cos \theta$ of Fig. 10.2.19.
48. Find the total surface area generated by revolving around the x -axis the limaçon of Problem 47.
49. Find the total arc length (all seven loops) of the polar curve $r = \cos(\frac{7}{3}\theta)$ of Fig. 10.2.24.
50. Find the total arc length of the figure eight curve $x = \sin t$, $y = \sin 2t$ of Fig. 10.4.12.
51. Find the total surface area and volume generated by revolving around the x -axis the figure eight curve of Problem 50.
52. Find the total surface area and volume generated by revolving around the y -axis the figure eight curve of Problem 50.
53. Find the total arc length of the Lissajous curve $x = \cos 3t$, $y = \sin 5t$ of Fig. 10.4.4.
54. Find the total arc length of the epitrochoid $x = 8 \cos t - 5 \cos 4t$, $y = 8 \sin t - 5 \sin 4t$ of Fig. 10.4.17.
55. Frank A. Farris of Santa Clara University, while designing a computer laboratory exercise for his calculus students, discovered an extremely lovely curve with the parametrization

$$\begin{aligned}x(t) &= \cos t + \frac{1}{2} \cos 7t + \frac{1}{3} \sin 17t, \\y(t) &= \sin t + \frac{1}{2} \sin 7t + \frac{1}{3} \cos 17t.\end{aligned}$$

For information on what these equations represent, see his article "Wheels on Wheels on Wheels—Surprising Symmetry" in the June 1996 issue of *Mathematics Magazine*. Plot these equations so you can enjoy this extraordinary figure, then numerically integrate to approximate the length of its graph. What kind of symmetry does the graph have? Is this predictable from the coefficients of t in the parametric equations?

10.5 PROJECT: MOON ORBITS AND RACE TRACKS

This project calls for the use of numerical integration techniques (using a calculator or computer) to approximate the parametric arc-length integral

$$s = \int_a^b \sqrt{[x'(t)]^2 + [y'(t)]^2} dt. \quad (1)$$

Consider the ellipse with equation

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1 \quad (a > b) \quad (2)$$

and eccentricity $\epsilon = \sqrt{1 - (a/b)^2}$ (see Section 10.6). Substitute the parametrization

$$x = a \cos t, \quad y = b \sin t \quad (3)$$

into Eq. (1) to show that the perimeter of the ellipse is given by the *elliptic integral*

$$p = 4a \int_0^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1 - \epsilon^2 \cos^2 t} dt. \quad (4)$$

This integral is known to be nonelementary if $0 < \epsilon < 1$. A common simple approximation to it is

$$p \approx \pi(A + R), \quad (5)$$

where

$$A = \frac{1}{2}(a + b) \quad \text{and} \quad R = \sqrt{\frac{a^2 + b^2}{2}}$$

denote the arithmetic mean and root-square mean, respectively, of the semiaxes a and b of the ellipse.

INVESTIGATION A As a warm-up, consider the ellipse whose major and minor semiaxes a and b are, respectively, the largest and smallest nonzero digits of your student I.D. number. For this ellipse, compare the arc-length estimates given by (5) and by numerical evaluation of the integral in Eq. (4).

INVESTIGATION B If we ignore the perturbing effects of the sun and the planets other than the earth, the orbit of the moon is an almost perfect ellipse with the earth at one focus. Assume that this ellipse has major semiaxis $a = 384,403$ km (exactly) and eccentricity $\epsilon = 0.0549$ (exactly). Approximate the perimeter p of this ellipse [using Eq. (4)] to the nearest meter.

INVESTIGATION C Suppose that you are designing an elliptical auto racetrack. Choose semiaxes for your racetrack so that its perimeter will be somewhere between a half mile and two miles. Your task is to construct a table with *time* and *speed* columns that an observer can use to determine the average speed of a particular car as it circles the track. The times listed in the first column should correspond to speeds up to perhaps 150 mi/h. The observer clocks a car's circuit of the track and locates its time for the lap in the first column of the table. The corresponding figure in the second column then gives the car's average speed (in miles per hour) for that circuit of the track. Your report should include a convenient table to use in this way—so you can successfully sell it to racetrack patrons attending the auto races.

10.6 THE PARABOLA

The case $e = 1$ of Example 3 in Section 10.1 is motivation for this formal definition.

Definition *The Parabola*

A **parabola** is the set of all points P in the plane that are equidistant from a fixed point F (called the **focus** of the parabola) and a fixed line L (called the parabola's **directrix**) not containing F .

If the focus of the parabola is $F(p, 0)$ and its directrix is the vertical line $x = -p$, $p > 0$, then it follows from Eq. (12) of Section 10.1 that the equation of this parabola is

$$y^2 = 4px. \quad (1)$$

When we replace x with $-x$ in the equation and in the discussion that precedes it, we get the equation of the parabola whose focus is $(-p, 0)$ and whose directrix is the vertical line $x = p$. The new parabola has equation

$$y^2 = -4px. \quad (2)$$

The old and new parabolas appear in Fig. 10.6.1.

We could also interchange x and y in Eq. (1). This would give the equation of a parabola whose focus is $(0, p)$ and whose directrix is the horizontal line $y = -p$. This parabola opens upward, as in Fig. 10.6.2(a); its equation is

$$x^2 = 4py. \quad (3)$$

Finally, we replace y with $-y$ in Eq. (3). This gives the equation

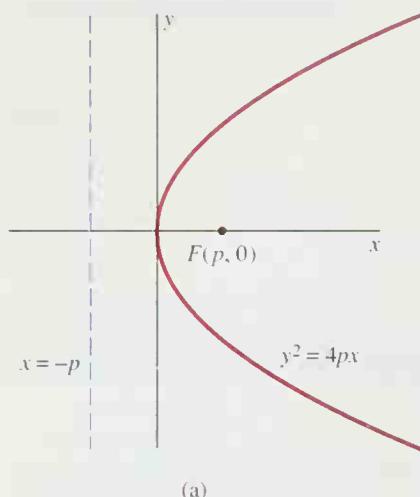
$$x^2 = -4py \quad (4)$$

of a parabola opening downward, with focus $(0, -p)$ and with directrix $y = p$, as in Fig. 10.6.2(b).

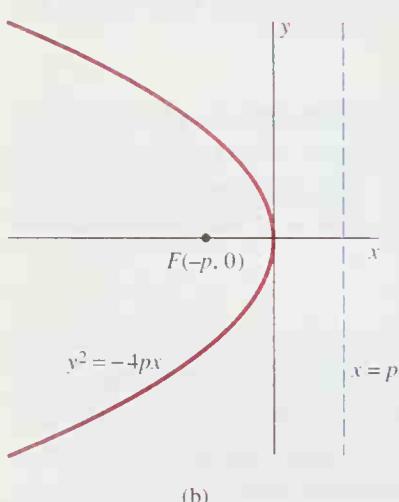
Each of the parabolas discussed so far is symmetric around one of the coordinate axes. The line around which a parabola is symmetric is called the **axis** of the parabola. The point of a parabola midway between its focus and its directrix is called the **vertex** of the parabola. The vertex of each parabola that we discussed in connection with Eqs. (1) through (4) is the origin $(0, 0)$.

EXAMPLE 1 Determine the focus, directrix, axis, and vertex of the parabola $x^2 = 12y$.

Solution We write the given equation as $x^2 = 4 \cdot (3y)$. In this form it matches Eq. (3) with $p = 3$. Hence the focus of the given parabola is $(0, 3)$ and its directrix is the horizontal line $y = -3$. The y -axis is its axis of symmetry, and the parabola opens upward from its vertex at the origin. ■



(a)



(b)

Fig. 10.6.1 Two parabolas with vertical directrices

Suppose that we begin with the parabola of Eq. (1) and translate it in such a way that its vertex moves to the point (h, k) . Then the translated parabola has equation

$$(y - k)^2 = 4p(x - h). \quad (1a)$$

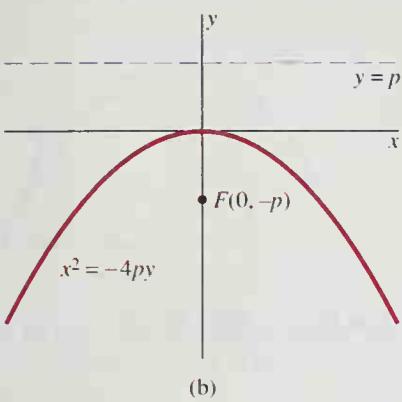
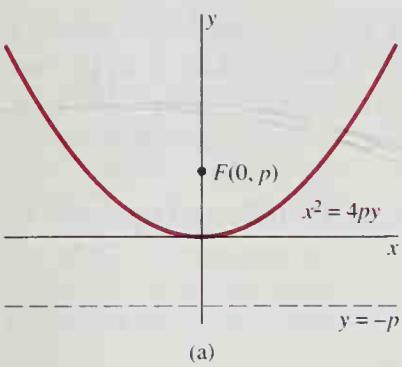


Fig. 10.6.2 Two parabolas with horizontal directrices: (a) opening upward; (b) opening downward

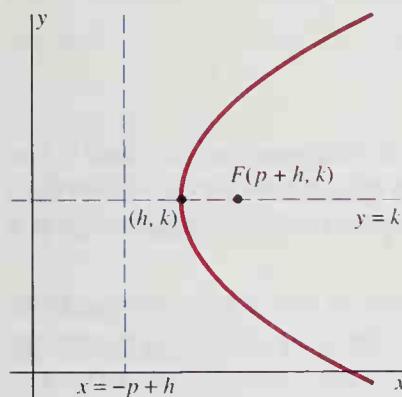


Fig. 10.6.3 A translation of the parabola $y^2 = 4px$

The new parabola has focus $F(p + h, k)$, and its directrix is the vertical line $x = -p + h$ (Fig. 10.6.3). Its axis is the horizontal line $y = k$.

We can obtain the translates of the other three parabolas in Eqs. (2) through (4) in the same way. If the vertex is moved from the origin to the point (h, k) , then the three equations take these forms:

$$(y - k)^2 = -4p(x - h), \quad (2a)$$

$$(x - h)^2 = 4p(y - k), \text{ and} \quad (3a)$$

$$(x - h)^2 = -4p(y - k). \quad (4a)$$

Equations (1a) and (2a) both take the general form

$$y^2 + Ax + By + C = 0 \quad (A \neq 0), \quad (5)$$

whereas Eqs. (3a) and (4a) both take the general form

$$x^2 + Ax + By + C = 0 \quad (B \neq 0). \quad (6)$$

What is significant about Eqs. (5) and (6) is what they have in common: Both are linear in one of the coordinate variables and quadratic in the other. In fact, we can reduce *any* such equation to one of the standard forms in Eqs. (1a) through (4a) by completing the square in the coordinate variable that appears quadratically. This means that the graph of any equation of the form of either Eqs. (5) or (6) is a parabola. The features of the parabola can be read from the standard form of its equation, as in Example 2.

EXAMPLE 2 Determine the graph of the equation

$$4y^2 - 8x - 12y + 1 = 0.$$

Solution This equation is linear in x and quadratic in y . We divide through by the coefficient of y^2 and then collect on one side of the equation all terms that include y :

$$y^2 - 3y = 2x - \frac{1}{4}.$$

Then we complete the square in the variable y and thus find that

$$y^2 - 3y + \frac{9}{4} = 2x - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{9}{4} = 2x + 2 = 2(x + 1).$$

The final step is to write in the form $4p(x - h)$ the terms on the right-hand side that include x :

$$(y - \frac{3}{2})^2 = 4 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot (x + 1).$$

This equation has the form of Eq. (1a) with $p = \frac{1}{2}$, $h = -1$, and $k = \frac{3}{2}$. Thus the graph is a parabola that opens to the right from its vertex at $(-1, \frac{3}{2})$. Its focus is at $(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2})$, its directrix is the vertical line $x = -\frac{3}{2}$, and its axis is the horizontal line $y = \frac{3}{2}$. It appears in Fig. 10.6.4. ■

Applications of Parabolas

The parabola $y^2 = 4px$, $(p > 0)$ is shown in Fig. 10.6.5 along with an incoming ray of light traveling to the left and parallel to the x -axis. This light ray strikes the parabola at the point $Q(a, b)$ and is reflected toward the x -axis, which it meets at the point

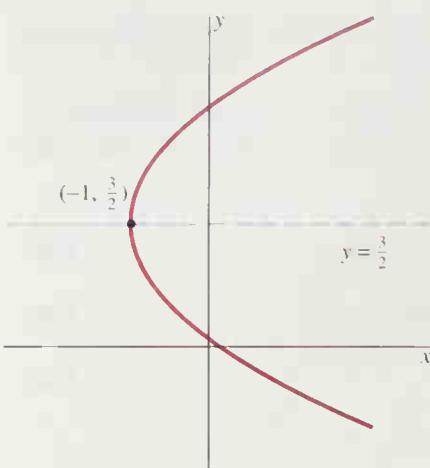


Fig. 10.6.4 The parabola of Example 2

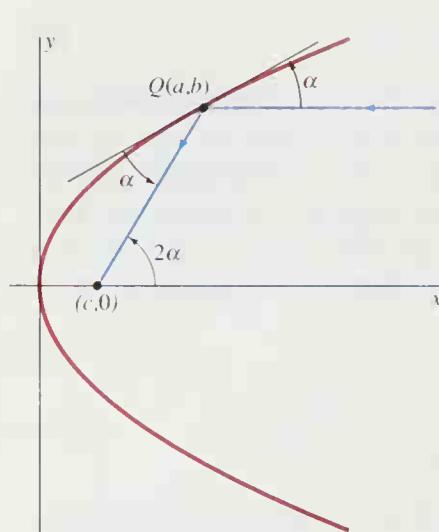


Fig. 10.6.5 The reflection property of the parabola: $\alpha = \beta$

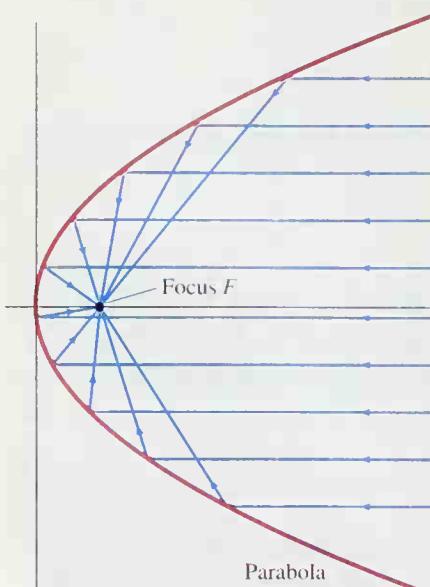


Fig. 10.6.6 Incident rays parallel to the axis reflect through the focus.

$(c, 0)$. The light ray's angle of reflection must equal its angle of incidence, which is why both of these angles—measured with respect to the tangent line L at Q —are labeled α in the figure. The angle vertical to the angle of incidence is also equal to α . Hence, because the incoming ray is parallel to the x -axis, the angle the reflected ray makes with the x -axis at $(c, 0)$ is 2α .

Using the points Q and $(c, 0)$ to compute the slope of the reflected light ray, we find that

$$\frac{b}{a - c} = \tan 2\alpha = \frac{2 \tan \alpha}{1 - \tan^2 \alpha}.$$

(The second equality follows from a trigonometric identity in Problem 64 of Section 8.2.) But the angle α is related to the slope of the tangent line L at Q . To find that slope, we begin with

$$y = 2\sqrt{px} = 2(px)^{1/2}$$

and compute

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \left(\frac{p}{x} \right)^{1/2}.$$

Hence the slope of L is both $\tan \alpha$ and dy/dx evaluated at (a, b) ; that is,

$$\tan \alpha = \left(\frac{p}{a} \right)^{1/2}.$$

Therefore

$$\frac{b}{a - c} = \frac{2 \tan \alpha}{1 - \tan^2 \alpha} = \frac{2 \sqrt{\frac{p}{a}}}{1 - \frac{p}{a}} = \frac{2\sqrt{pa}}{a - p} = \frac{b}{a - p},$$

because $b = 2\sqrt{pa}$. Hence $c = p$. The surprise is that c is independent of a and b and depends only on the equation $y^2 = 4px$ of the parabola. Therefore *all* incoming light rays parallel to the x -axis will be reflected to the single point $F(p, 0)$. This is why F is called the *focus* of the parabola.

This **reflection property** of the parabola is exploited in the design of parabolic mirrors. Such a mirror has the shape of the surface obtained by revolving a parabola around its axis of symmetry. Then a beam of incoming light rays parallel to the axis will be focused at F , as shown in Fig. 10.6.6. The reflection property can also be used in reverse—rays emitted at the focus are reflected in a beam parallel to the axis, thus keeping the light beam intense. Moreover, applications are not limited to light rays alone; parabolic mirrors are used in visual and radio telescopes, radar antennas, searchlights, automobile headlights, microphone systems, satellite ground stations, and solar heating devices.

Galileo discovered early in the seventeenth century that the trajectory of a projectile fired from a gun is a parabola (under the assumptions that air resistance can be ignored and that the gravitational acceleration remains constant). Suppose that a projectile is fired with initial velocity v_0 at time $t = 0$ from the origin and at an angle α of inclination from the horizontal x -axis. Then the initial velocity of the projectile splits into the components

$$v_{0x} = v_0 \cos \alpha \quad \text{and} \quad v_{0y} = v_0 \sin \alpha,$$

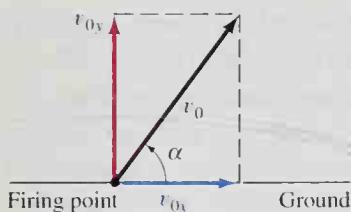


Fig. 10.6.7 Resolution of the initial velocity v_0 into its horizontal and vertical components

as indicated in Fig. 10.6.7. The fact that the projectile continues to move horizontally with *constant speed* v_{0x} , together with Eq. (34) of Section 5.2, implies that its x - and y -coordinates after t seconds are

$$x = (v_0 \cos \alpha)t, \quad (7)$$

$$y = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2 + (v_0 \sin \alpha)t. \quad (8)$$

By substituting $t = x/(v_0 \cos \alpha)$ from Eq. (7) into Eq. (8) and then completing the square, we can derive (as in Problem 24) an equation of the form

$$y - M = -4p(x - \frac{1}{2}R)^2. \quad (9)$$

Here,

$$M = \frac{v_0^2 \sin^2 \alpha}{2g} \quad (10)$$

is the maximum height attained by the projectile, and

$$R = \frac{v_0^2 \sin 2\alpha}{g} \quad (11)$$

is its **range**, the horizontal distance the projectile will travel before it returns to the ground. Thus its trajectory is the parabola shown in Fig. 10.6.8.

Fig. 10.6.8 The trajectory of the projectile, showing its maximum altitude M and its range R

10.6 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 5, find the equation and sketch the graph of the parabola with vertex V and focus F .

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. $V(0, 0)$, $F(3, 0)$ | 2. $V(0, 0)$, $F(0, -2)$ |
| 3. $V(2, 3)$, $F(2, 1)$ | 4. $V(-1, -1)$, $F(-3, -1)$ |
| 5. $V(2, 3)$, $F(0, 3)$ | |

In Problems 6 through 10, find the equation and sketch the graph of the parabola with the given focus and directrix.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 6. $F(1, 2)$, $x = -1$ | 7. $F(0, -3)$, $y = 0$ |
| 8. $F(1, -1)$, $x = 3$ | 9. $F(0, 0)$, $y = -2$ |
| 10. $F(-2, 1)$, $x = -4$ | |

In Problems 11 through 18, sketch the parabola with the given equation. Show and label its vertex, focus, axis, and directrix.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 11. $y^2 = 12x$ | 12. $x^2 = -8y$ |
| 13. $y^2 = -6x$ | 14. $x^2 = 7y$ |
| 15. $x^2 - 4x - 4y = 0$ | 16. $y^2 - 2x + 6y + 15 = 0$ |
| 17. $4x^2 + 4x + 4y + 13 = 0$ | |
| 18. $4y^2 - 12y + 9x = 0$ | |

19. Prove that the point of the parabola $y^2 = 4px$ closest to its focus is its vertex.
 20. Find an equation of the parabola that has a vertical axis and passes through the points $(2, 3)$, $(4, 3)$, and $(6, -5)$.
 21. Show that an equation of the line tangent to the parabola $y^2 = 4px$ at the point (x_0, y_0) is $2px - y_0y + 2px_0 = 0$.

Conclude that the tangent line intersects the x -axis at the point $(-x_0, 0)$. This fact provides a quick method for constructing a line tangent to a parabola at a given point.

22. A comet's orbit is a parabola with the sun at its focus. When the comet is $100\sqrt{2}$ million miles from the sun, the line from the sun to the comet makes an angle of 45° with the axis of the parabola (Fig. 10.6.9). What will be the minimum distance between the comet and the sun? (Suggestion: Write the equation of the parabola with the origin at the focus, then use the result of Problem 19.)

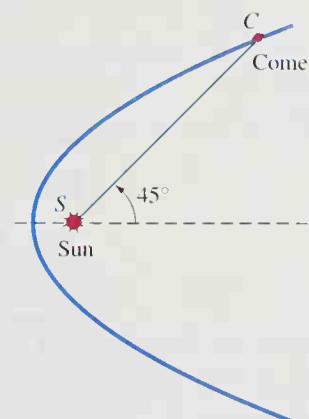


Fig. 10.6.9 The comet of Problem 22 in parabolic orbit around the sun

23. Suppose that the angle of Problem 22 increases from 45° to 90° in 3 days. How much longer will the comet take to reach its point of closest approach to the sun? Assume that the line segment from the sun to the comet sweeps out area at a constant rate (Kepler's second law).
24. Use Eqs. (7) and (8) to derive Eq. (9) with the values of M and R given in Eqs. (10) and (11).
25. Deduce from Eq. (11) that, given a fixed initial velocity v_0 , the maximum range of the projectile is $R_{\max} = v_0^2/g$ and is attained when $\alpha = 45^\circ$.

In Problems 26 through 28, assume that a projectile is fired with initial velocity $v_0 = 50$ m/s from the origin and at an angle of inclination α . Use $g = 9.8$ m/s².

26. If $\alpha = 45^\circ$, find the range of the projectile and the maximum height it attains.
27. For what value or values of α is the range $R = 125$ m?

28. Find the range of the projectile and the length of time it remains above the ground if (a) $\alpha = 30^\circ$; (b) $\alpha = 60^\circ$.
29. The book *Elements of Differential and Integral Calculus* by William Granville, Percy Smith, and William Longley (Ginn and Company: Boston, 1929) lists a number of "curves for reference": the curve with equation $\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y} = \sqrt{a}$ is called a parabola. Verify that the curve in question actually is a parabola, or show that it is not.
30. The 1992 edition of the study guide for the national actuarial examinations has a problem similar to this one: Every point on the plane curve K is equally distant from the point $(-1, -1)$ and the line $x + y = 1$, and K has equation

$$x^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0.$$

Which is the value of D : $-2, 2, 4, 6$, or 8 ?

10.7 THE ELLIPSE

An ellipse is a conic section with eccentricity e less than 1, as in Example 3 of Section 10.1.

Definition The Ellipse

Suppose that $e < 1$, and let F be a fixed point and L a fixed line not containing F . The **ellipse with eccentricity e , focus F , and directrix L** is the set of all points P such that the distance $|PF|$ is e times the (perpendicular) distance from P to the line L .

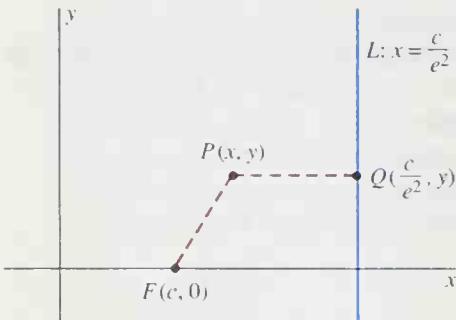


Fig. 10.7.1 Ellipse: focus F , directrix L , eccentricity e

The equation of the ellipse is especially simple if F is the point $(c, 0)$ on the x -axis and L is the vertical line $x = c/e^2$. The case $c > 0$ is shown in Fig. 10.7.1. If Q is the point $(c/e^2, y)$, then PQ is the perpendicular from $P(x, y)$ to L . The condition $|PF| = e|PQ|$ then gives

$$(x - c)^2 + y^2 = e^2 \left(x - \frac{c}{e^2} \right)^2;$$

$$x^2 - 2cx + c^2 + y^2 = e^2 x^2 - 2cx + \frac{c^2}{e^2};$$

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

Thus

$$x^2 (1 - e^2) + y^2 = a^2 (1 - e^2),$$

where

$$a = \frac{c}{e}. \tag{1}$$

We divide both sides of the next-to-last equation by $a^2(1 - e^2)$ and get

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{a^2(1-e^2)} = 1.$$

Finally, with the aid of the fact that $e < 1$, we may let

$$b^2 = a^2(1 - e^2) = a^2 - c^2. \quad (2)$$

Then the equation of the ellipse with focus $(c, 0)$ and directrix $x = c/e^2 = a/e$ takes the simple form

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1. \quad (3)$$

We see from Eq. (3) that this ellipse is symmetric around both coordinate axes. Its x -intercepts are $(\pm a, 0)$ and its y -intercepts are $(0, \pm b)$. The points $(\pm a, 0)$ are called the **vertices** of the ellipse, and the line segment joining them is called its **major axis**. The line segment joining $(0, b)$ and $(0, -b)$ is called the **minor axis** [note from Eq. (2) that $b < a$]. The alternative form

$$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 \quad (4)$$

of Eq. (2) is the Pythagorean relation for the right triangle of Fig. 10.7.2. Indeed, visualization of this triangle is an excellent way to remember Eq. (4). The numbers a and b are the lengths of the major and minor **semiaxes**, respectively.

Because $a = c/e$, the directrix of the ellipse in Eq. (3) is $x = a/e$. If we had begun instead with the focus $(-c, 0)$ and directrix $x = -a/e$, we would still have obtained Eq. (3), because only the squares of a and c are involved in its derivation. Thus the ellipse in Eq. (3) has *two foci*, $(c, 0)$ and $(-c, 0)$, and *two directrices*, $x = a/e$ and $x = -a/e$ (Fig. 10.7.3).

The larger the eccentricity $e < 1$, the more elongated the ellipse. (Remember that $e = 1$ is the eccentricity of every parabola.) But if $e = 0$, then Eq. (2) gives $b = a$, so Eq. (3) reduces to the equation of a circle of radius a . Thus a circle is an ellipse of eccentricity zero. Compare the three cases shown in Fig. 10.7.4.

EXAMPLE 1 Find an equation of the ellipse with foci $(\pm 3, 0)$ and vertices $(\pm 5, 0)$.

Solution We are given $c = 3$ and $a = 5$, so Eq. (2) gives $b = 4$. Thus Eq. (3) gives

$$\frac{x^2}{25} + \frac{y^2}{16} = 1$$

for the desired equation. This ellipse is shown in Fig. 10.7.5. ■

If the two foci of an ellipse are on the y -axis, such as $F_1(0, c)$ and $F_2(0, -c)$, then the equation of the ellipse is

$$\frac{x^2}{b^2} + \frac{y^2}{a^2} = 1, \quad (5)$$

and it is still true that $a^2 = b^2 + c^2$, as in Eq. (4). But now the major axis of length $2a$ is vertical and the minor axis of length $2b$ is horizontal. The derivation of Eq. (5) is similar to that of Eq. (3); see Problem 23. Figure 10.7.6 shows the case of an ellipse whose major axis is vertical. The vertices of such an ellipse are at $(0, \pm a)$; they are always the endpoints of the major axis.

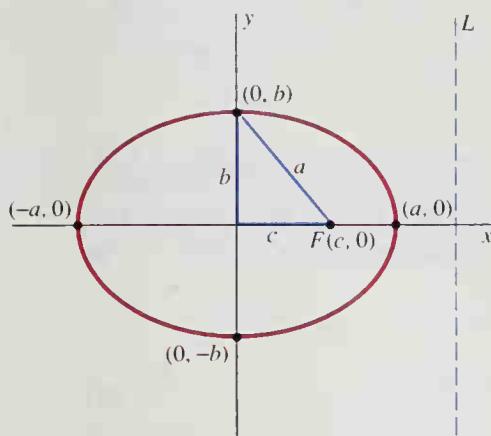


Fig. 10.7.2 The parts of an ellipse

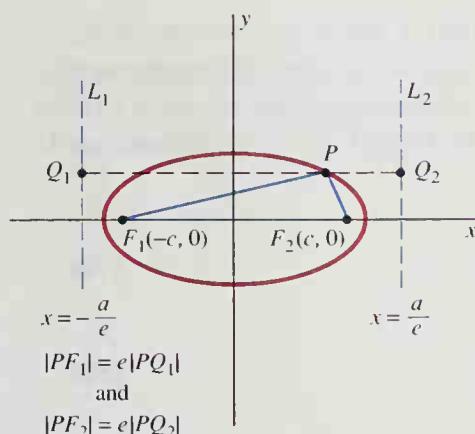


Fig. 10.7.3 The ellipse as a conic section: two foci, two directrices

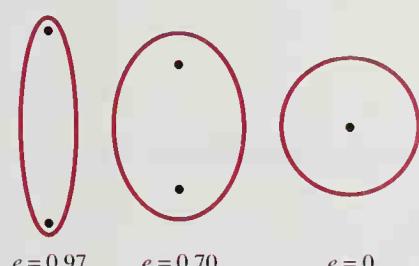


Fig. 10.7.4 The relation between the eccentricity of an ellipse and its shape

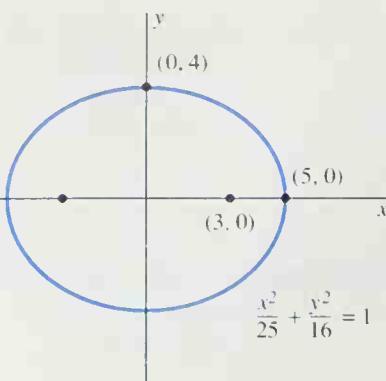


Fig. 10.7.5 The ellipse of Example 1

In practice there is little chance of confusing Eqs. (3) and (5). The equation or the given data will make clear whether the major axis of the ellipse is horizontal or vertical. Just use the equation to read the ellipse's intercepts. The two intercepts that are farthest from the origin are the endpoints of the major axis; the other two are the endpoints of the minor axis. The two foci lie on the major axis, each at distance c from the center of the ellipse—which will be the origin if the equation of the ellipse has the form of either Eq. (3) or Eq. (5).

EXAMPLE 2 Sketch the graph of the equation

$$\frac{x^2}{16} + \frac{y^2}{25} = 1.$$

Solution The x -intercepts are $(\pm 4, 0)$; the y -intercepts are $(0, \pm 5)$. So the major axis is vertical. We take $a = 5$ and $b = 4$ in Eq. (4) and find that $c = 3$. The foci are thus at $(0, \pm 3)$. Hence this ellipse has the appearance of the one shown in Fig. 10.7.7. ■

Any equation of the form

$$Ax^2 + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0. \quad (6)$$

in which the coefficients A and C of the squared variables are *both nonzero and have the same sign*, may be reduced to the form

$$A(x - h)^2 + C(y - k)^2 = G$$

by completing the square in x and y . We may assume that A and C are both positive. Then if $G < 0$, there are no points that satisfy Eq. (6), and the graph is the empty set. If $G = 0$, then there is exactly one point on the locus—the single point (h, k) . And if $G > 0$, we can divide both sides of the last equation by G and get an equation that resembles one of these two:

$$\frac{(x - h)^2}{a^2} + \frac{(y - k)^2}{b^2} = 1, \quad (7a)$$

$$\frac{(x - h)^2}{b^2} + \frac{(y - k)^2}{a^2} = 1. \quad (7b)$$

Which equation should you choose? Select the one that is consistent with the condition $a \geq b > 0$. Finally, note that either of the equations in (7) is the equation of a translated ellipse. Thus, apart from the exceptional cases already noted, the graph of Eq. (6) is an ellipse if $AC > 0$.

EXAMPLE 3 Determine the graph of the equation

$$3x^2 + 5y^2 - 12x + 30y + 42 = 0.$$

Solution We collect terms containing x and terms containing y and complete the square in each variable. This gives

$$3(x^2 - 4x) + 5(y^2 + 6y) = -42;$$

$$3(x^2 - 4x + 4) + 5(y^2 + 6y + 9) = 15;$$

$$\frac{(x - 2)^2}{5} + \frac{(y + 3)^2}{3} = 1.$$

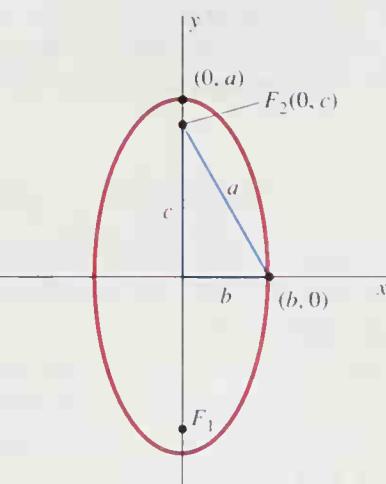


Fig. 10.7.6 An ellipse with vertical major axis

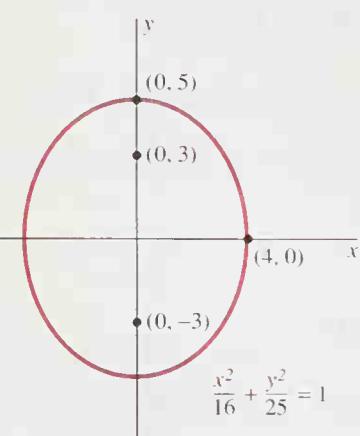


Fig. 10.7.7 The ellipse of Example 2

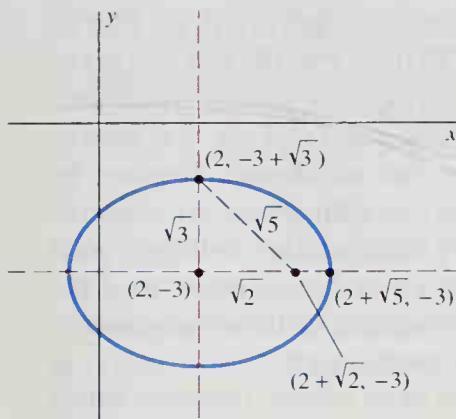


Fig. 10.7.8 The ellipse of Example 3

Thus the given equation is that of a translated ellipse with center at $(2, -3)$. Its horizontal major semiaxis has length $a = \sqrt{5}$ and its minor semiaxis has length $b = \sqrt{3}$ (Fig. 10.7.8). The distance from the center to each focus is $c = \sqrt{2}$ and the eccentricity is $e = c/a = \sqrt{2}/\sqrt{5}$.

Applications of Ellipses

EXAMPLE 4 The orbit of the earth is an ellipse with the sun at one focus. The planet's maximum distance from the center of the sun is 94.56 million miles and its minimum distance is 91.44 million miles. What are the major and minor semiaxes of the earth's orbit, and what is its eccentricity?

Solution As Fig. 10.7.9 shows, we have

$$a + c = 94.56 \quad \text{and} \quad a - c = 91.44,$$

with units in millions of miles. We conclude from these equations that $a = 93.00$, that $c = 1.56$, and then that

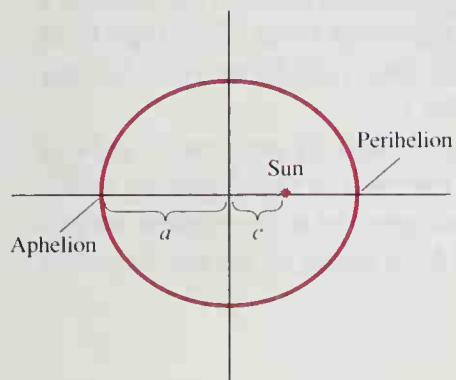
$$b = \sqrt{(93.00)^2 - (1.56)^2} \approx 92.99$$

million miles. Finally,

$$e = \frac{1.56}{93.00} \approx 0.017,$$

a number relatively close to zero. This means that the earth's orbit is nearly circular. Indeed, the major and minor semiaxes are so nearly equal that, on any usual scale, the earth's orbit would appear to be a perfect circle. But the difference between uniform circular motion and the earth's actual motion has some important aspects, including the facts that the sun is 1.56 million miles off center and that the orbital speed of the earth is not constant.

Fig. 10.7.9 The orbit of the earth with its eccentricity exaggerated (Example 4)



EXAMPLE 5 One of the most famous comets is Halley's comet, named for Edmund Halley (1656–1742), a disciple of Newton. By studying the records of the paths of earlier comets, Halley deduced that the comet of 1682 was the same one that had been sighted in 1607, in 1531, in 1456, and in 1066 (an omen at the Battle of Hastings). In 1682 Halley predicted that this comet would return in 1759, in 1835, and in 1910; he was correct each time. The period of Halley's comet is about 76 years—it can vary one or two years in either direction because of perturbations of its orbit by the planet Jupiter. The orbit of Halley's comet is an ellipse with the sun at one focus. In terms of astronomical units (1 AU is the mean distance from the earth to the sun), the major and minor semiaxes of this elliptical orbit are 18.09 AU and 4.56 AU, respectively. What are the maximum and minimum distances from the sun of Halley's comet?

Solution We are given that $a = 18.09$ (all distance measurements are in astronomical units) and that $b = 4.56$, so

$$c = \sqrt{(18.09)^2 - (4.56)^2} \approx 17.51.$$

Hence its maximum distance from the sun is $a + c \approx 35.60$ AU and its minimum distance is $a - c \approx 0.58$ AU. The eccentricity of its orbit is

$$e = \frac{17.51}{18.09} \approx 0.97,$$

a very eccentric orbit (but see Problem 21).

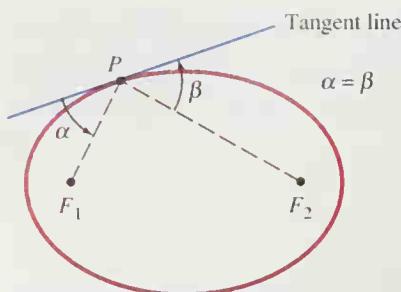


Fig. 10.7.10 The reflection property: $\alpha = \beta$

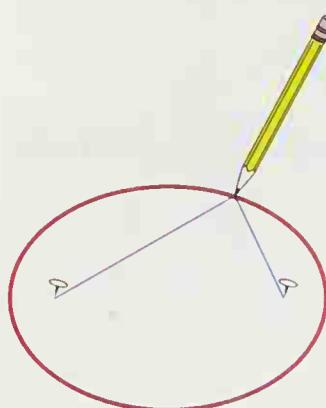


Fig. 10.7.11 One way to draw an ellipse

10.7 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 15, find an equation of the ellipse specified.

1. Vertices $(\pm 4, 0)$ and $(0, \pm 5)$
2. Foci $(\pm 5, 0)$, major semiaxis 13
3. Foci $(0, \pm 8)$, major semiaxis 17
4. Center $(0, 0)$, vertical major axis 12, minor axis 8
5. Foci $(\pm 3, 0)$, eccentricity $\frac{3}{4}$
6. Foci $(0, \pm 4)$, eccentricity $\frac{2}{3}$
7. Center $(0, 0)$, horizontal major axis 20, eccentricity $\frac{1}{2}$
8. Center $(0, 0)$, horizontal minor axis 10, eccentricity $\frac{1}{2}$
9. Foci $(\pm 2, 0)$, directrices $x = \pm 8$
10. Foci $(0, \pm 4)$, directrices $y = \pm 9$
11. Center $(2, 3)$, horizontal axis 8, vertical axis 4
12. Center $(1, -2)$, horizontal major axis 8, eccentricity $\frac{3}{4}$
13. Foci $(-2, 1)$ and $(4, 1)$, major axis 10
14. Foci $(-3, 0)$ and $(-3, 4)$, minor axis 6
15. Foci $(-2, 2)$ and $(4, 2)$, eccentricity $\frac{1}{3}$

Sketch the graphs of the equations in Problems 16 through 20. Indicate centers, foci, and lengths of axes.

16. $4x^2 + y^2 = 16$
17. $4x^2 + 9y^2 = 144$
18. $4x^2 + 9x^2 = 24x$
19. $9x^2 + 4y^2 - 32y + 28 = 0$
20. $2x^2 + 3y^2 + 12x - 24y + 60 = 0$

The *reflection property* of the ellipse states that the tangent line at a point P of an ellipse makes equal angles with the two lines PF_1 and PF_2 from P to the two foci of the ellipse (Fig. 10.7.10). This property is the basis of the “whispering gallery” phenomenon, which has been observed in the so-called whispering gallery of the U.S. Senate. Suppose that the ceiling of a large room is shaped like half an ellipsoid obtained by revolving an ellipse around its major axis. Sound waves, like light waves, are reflected with equal angles of incidence and reflection. Thus if two diplomats are holding a quiet conversation near one focus of the ellipsoidal surface, a reporter standing near the other focus—perhaps 50 feet away—would be able to eavesdrop on their conversation even if the conversation were inaudible to others in the same room.

Some billiard tables are manufactured in the shape of an ellipse. The foci of such tables are plainly marked for the convenience of enthusiasts of this unusual game.

A more serious application of the reflection property of ellipses is the nonsurgical kidney stone treatment called *shockwave lithotripsy*. An ellipsoidal reflector with a transducer (an energy transmitter) at one focus is positioned outside the patient’s body so that the offending kidney stone is located at the other focus. The stone then is pulverized by reflected shockwaves emanating from the transducer. (For further details, see the COMAP *Newsletter* 20, November 1986.)

An alternative definition of the ellipse with foci F_1 and F_2 and major axis of length $2a$ is this: It is the locus of a point P such that the sum of the distances $|PF_1|$ and $|PF_2|$ is the constant $2a$ (see Problem 26). This fact gives us a convenient way to draw the ellipse by using two tacks placed at F_1 and F_2 , a string of length $2a$, and a pencil (Fig. 10.7.11).

21. (a) The orbit of the comet Kahoutek is an ellipse of extreme eccentricity $e = 0.999925$; the sun is at one focus of this ellipse. The minimum distance between the sun and Kahoutek is 0.13 AU. What is the maximum distance between Kahoutek and the sun? (b) The orbit of the comet Hyakutake is an ellipse of extreme eccentricity $e = 0.999643856$; the sun is at one focus of this ellipse. The minimum distance between the sun and Hyakutake is 0.2300232 AU. What is the maximum distance between Hyakutake and the sun?
22. The orbit of the planet Mercury is an ellipse of eccentricity $e = 0.206$. Its maximum and minimum distances from the sun are 0.467 and 0.307 AU, respectively. What are the major and minor semiaxes of the orbit of Mercury? Does “nearly circular” accurately describe the orbit of Mercury?
23. Derive Eq. (5) for an ellipse whose foci lie on the y -axis.
24. Show that the line tangent to the ellipse

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

at the point $P(x_0, y_0)$ of that ellipse has equation

$$\frac{x_0x}{a^2} + \frac{y_0y}{b^2} = 1.$$

25. Use the result of Problem 24 to establish the reflection property of the ellipse. [Suggestion: Let m be the slope of the line normal to the ellipse at $P(x_0, y_0)$ and let m_1 and m_2 be the slopes of the lines PF_1 and PF_2 , respectively, from P to the two foci F_1 and F_2 of the ellipse. Show that

$$\frac{m - m_1}{1 + m_1 m} = \frac{m_2 - m}{1 + m_2 m};$$

then use the identity for $\tan(A - B)$.]

26. Given $F_1(-c, 0)$ and $F_2(c, 0)$ with $a > c > 0$, prove that the ellipse

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

(with $b^2 = a^2 - c^2$) is the locus of those points P such that $|PF_1| + |PF_2| = 2a$.

27. Find an equation of the ellipse with horizontal and vertical axes that passes through the points $(-1, 0)$, $(3, 0)$, $(0, 2)$, and $(0, -2)$.
28. Derive an equation for the ellipse with foci $(3, -3)$ and $(-3, 3)$ and major axis of length 10. Note that the foci of this ellipse lie on neither a vertical line nor a horizontal line.

10.8 THE HYPERBOLA

A hyperbola is a conic section defined in the same way as is an ellipse, except that the eccentricity e of a hyperbola is greater than 1.

Definition *The Hyperbola*

Suppose that $e > 1$, and let F be a fixed point and L a fixed line not containing F . Then the **hyperbola** with **eccentricity** e , **focus** F , and **directrix** L is the set of all points P such that the distance $|PF|$ is e times the (perpendicular) distance from P to the line L .

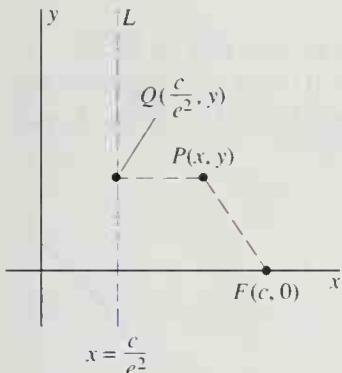


Fig. 10.8.1 The definition of the hyperbola

As with the ellipse, the equation of a hyperbola is simplest if F is the point $(c, 0)$ on the x -axis and L is the vertical line $x = c/e^2$. The case $c > 0$ is shown in Fig. 10.8.1. If Q is the point $(c/e^2, y)$, then PQ is the perpendicular from $P(x, y)$ to L . The condition $|PF| = e|PQ|$ gives

$$(x - c)^2 + y^2 = e^2 \left(x - \frac{c}{e^2} \right)^2;$$

$$x^2 - 2cx + c^2 + y^2 = e^2 x^2 - 2cx + \frac{c^2}{e^2};$$

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

Thus

$$(e^2 - 1)x^2 - y^2 = a^2(e^2 - 1),$$

where

$$a = \frac{c}{e}. \quad (1)$$

If we divide both sides of the next-to-last equation by $a^2(e^2 - 1)$, we get

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{a^2(e^2 - 1)} = 1.$$

To simplify this equation, we let

$$b^2 = a^2(e^2 - 1) = c^2 - a^2. \quad (2)$$

This is permissible because $e > 1$. So the equation of the hyperbola with focus $(c, 0)$ and directrix $x = c/e^2 = a/e$ takes the form

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1. \quad (3)$$

The minus sign on the left-hand side is the only difference between the equation of a hyperbola and that of an ellipse. Of course, Eq. (2) also differs from the relation

$$b^2 = a^2(1 - e^2) = a^2 - c^2$$

for the case of the ellipse.

The hyperbola of Eq. (3) is clearly symmetric around both coordinate axes and has x -intercepts $(\pm a, 0)$. But it has no y -intercept. If we rewrite Eq. (3) in the form

$$y = \pm \frac{b}{a} \sqrt{x^2 - a^2}, \quad (4)$$

then we see that there are points on the graph only if $|x| \geq a$. Hence the hyperbola has two **branches**, as shown in Fig. 10.8.2. We also see from Eq. (4) that $|y| \rightarrow \infty$ as $|x| \rightarrow \infty$.

The x -intercepts $V_1(-a, 0)$ and $V_2(a, 0)$ are the **vertices** of the hyperbola, and the line segment joining them is its **transverse axis** (Fig. 10.8.3). The line segment joining $W_1(0, -b)$ and $W_2(0, b)$ is its **conjugate axis**. The alternative form

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 \quad (5)$$

of Eq. (2) is the Pythagorean relation for the right triangle shown in Fig. 10.8.2.

The lines $y = \pm bx/a$ that pass through the **center** $(0, 0)$ and the opposite vertices of the rectangle in Fig. 10.8.3 are **asymptotes** of the two branches of the hyperbola in both directions. That is, if

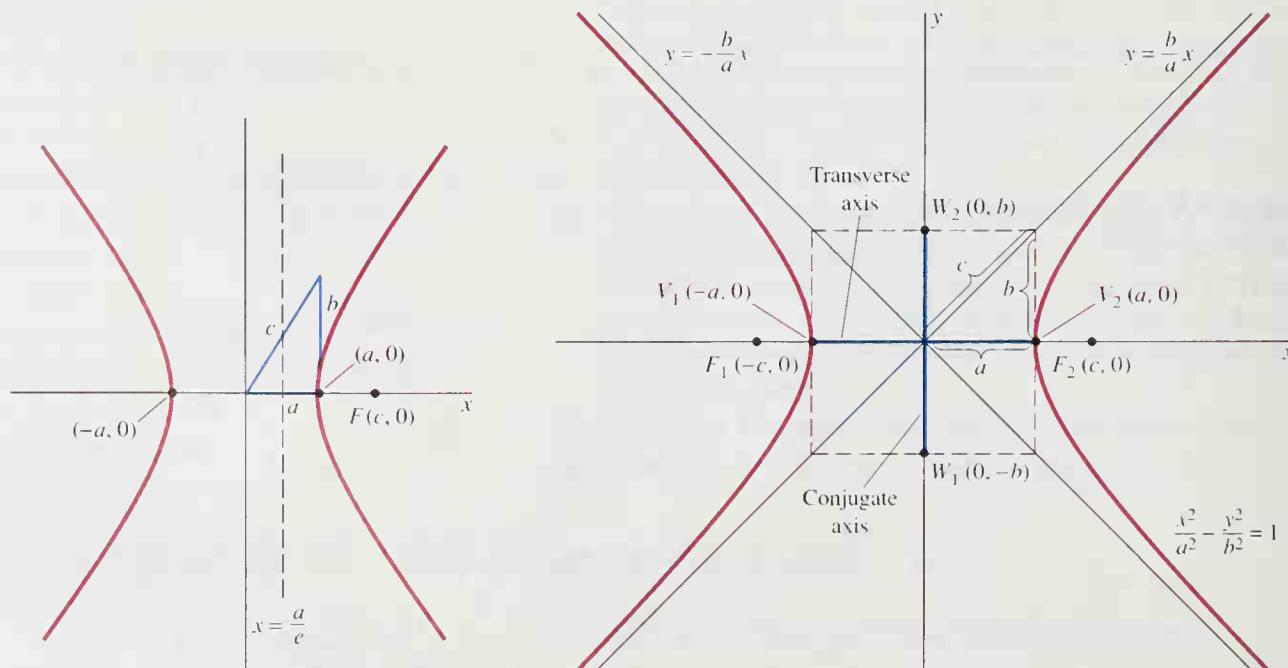


Fig. 10.8.2 A hyperbola has two branches.

Fig. 10.8.3 The parts of a hyperbola

$$y_1 = \frac{bx}{a} \quad \text{and} \quad y_2 = \frac{b}{a} \sqrt{x^2 - a^2},$$

then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (y_1 - y_2) = 0 = \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} (y_1 - (-y_2)). \quad (6)$$

To verify the first limit, note that

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b}{a} \left(x - \sqrt{x^2 - a^2} \right) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b}{a} \cdot \frac{(x - \sqrt{x^2 - a^2})(x + \sqrt{x^2 - a^2})}{x + \sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b}{a} \cdot \frac{a^2}{x + \sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Just as in the case of the ellipse, the hyperbola with focus $(c, 0)$ and directrix $x = a/e$ also has focus $(-c, 0)$ and directrix $x = -a/e$ (Fig. 10.8.3). Because $c = ae$ by Eq. (1), the foci $(\pm ae, 0)$ and the directrices $x = \pm a/e$ take the same forms in terms of a and e for both the hyperbola ($e > 1$) and the ellipse ($e < 1$).

If we interchange x and y in Eq. (3), we obtain

$$\frac{y^2}{a^2} - \frac{x^2}{b^2} = 1. \quad (7)$$

This hyperbola has foci at $(0, \pm c)$. The foci as well as this hyperbola's transverse axis lie on the y -axis. Its asymptotes are $y = \pm ax/b$, and its graph generally resembles the one in Fig. 10.8.4.

When we studied the ellipse, we saw that its orientation—whether the major axis is horizontal or vertical—is determined by the relative sizes of a and b . In the case of the hyperbola, the situation is quite different because the relative sizes of a and b make no such difference: They affect only the slopes of the asymptotes. The direction in which the hyperbola opens—horizontal as in Fig. 10.8.3 or vertical as in Fig. 10.8.4—is determined by the signs of the terms that contain x^2 and y^2 .

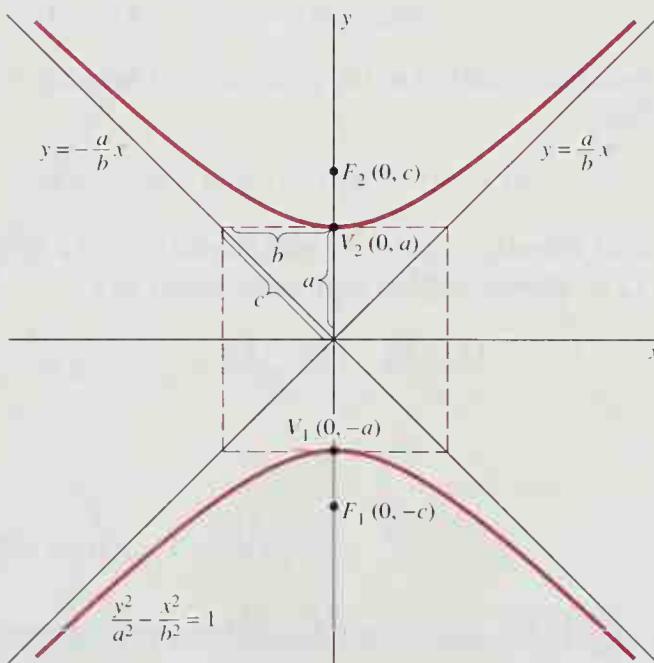


Fig. 10.8.4 The hyperbola of Eq. (7) has horizontal directrices.

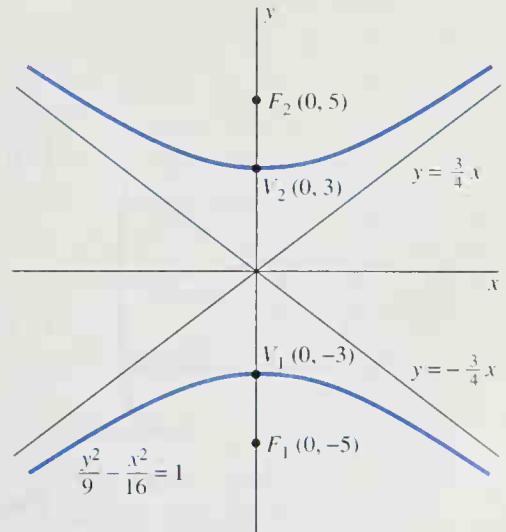


Fig. 10.8.5 The hyperbola of Example 1

EXAMPLE 1 Sketch the graph of the hyperbola with equation

$$\frac{y^2}{9} - \frac{x^2}{16} = 1.$$

Solution This is an equation of the form in Eq. (7), so the hyperbola opens vertically. Because $a = 3$ and $b = 4$, we find that $c = 5$ by using Eq. (5): $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$. Thus the vertices are $(0, \pm 3)$, the foci are the two points $(0, \pm 5)$, and the asymptotes are the two lines $y = \pm 3x/4$. This hyperbola appears in Fig. 10.8.5. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Find an equation of the hyperbola with foci $(\pm 10, 0)$ and asymptotes $y = \pm 4x/3$.

Solution Because $c = 10$, we have

$$a^2 + b^2 = 100 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{b}{a} = \frac{4}{3}.$$

Thus $b = 8$ and $a = 6$, and the standard equation of the hyperbola is

$$\frac{x^2}{36} - \frac{y^2}{64} = 1.$$

As we noted in Section 10.7, any equation of the form

$$Ax^2 + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0 \tag{8}$$

with both A and C nonzero can be reduced to the form

$$A(x - h)^2 + B(y - k)^2 = G$$

by completing the square in x and y . Now suppose that the coefficients A and C of the quadratic terms have *opposite signs*. For example, suppose that $A = p^2$ and $B = -q^2$. The last equation then becomes

$$p^2(x - h)^2 - q^2(y - k)^2 = G. \tag{9}$$

If $G = 0$, then factorization of the difference of squares on the left-hand side yields the equations

$$p(x - h) + q(y - k) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad p(x - h) - q(y - k) = 0$$

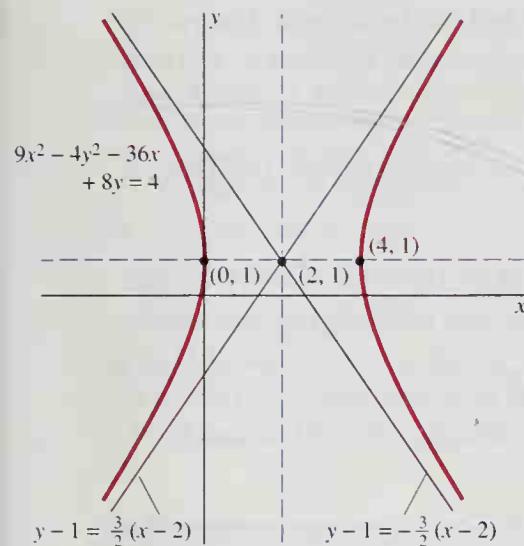
of two straight lines through (h, k) with slopes $m = \pm p/q$. If $G \neq 0$, then division of Eq. (9) by G gives an equation that looks either like

$$\frac{(x - h)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(y - k)^2}{b^2} = 1 \quad (\text{if } G > 0)$$

or like

$$\frac{(y - k)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(x - h)^2}{b^2} = 1 \quad (\text{if } G < 0).$$

Thus if $AC < 0$ in Eq. (8), the graph is either a pair of intersecting straight lines or a hyperbola.



EXAMPLE 3 Determine the graph of the equation

$$9x^2 - 4y^2 - 36x + 8y = 4.$$

Solution We collect the terms that contain x and those that contain y , and we then complete the square in each variable. We find that

$$9(x - 2)^2 - 4(y - 1)^2 = 36,$$

so

$$\frac{(x - 2)^2}{4} - \frac{(y - 1)^2}{9} = 1.$$

Hence the graph is a hyperbola with a horizontal transverse axis and center $(2, 1)$. Because $a = 2$ and $b = 3$, we find that $c = \sqrt{13}$. The vertices of the hyperbola are $(0, 1)$ and $(4, 1)$, and its foci are the two points $(2 \pm \sqrt{13}, 1)$. Its asymptotes are the two lines

$$y - 1 = \pm \frac{3}{2}(x - 2),$$

translates of the asymptotes $y = \pm 3x/2$ of the hyperbola $\frac{1}{4}x^2 - \frac{1}{9}y^2 = 1$. Figure 10.8.6 shows the graph of the translated hyperbola. ■

Applications of Hyperbolas

The *reflection property* of the hyperbola takes the same form as that for the ellipse. If P is a point on a hyperbola, then the two lines PF_1 and PF_2 from P to the two foci make equal angles with the tangent line at P . In Fig. 10.8.7 this means that $\alpha = \beta$.

For an important application of this reflection property, consider a mirror that is shaped like one branch of a hyperbola and is reflective on its outer (convex) surface. An incoming light ray aimed toward one focus will be reflected toward the other focus (Fig. 10.8.8). Figure 10.8.9 indicates the design of a reflecting telescope that

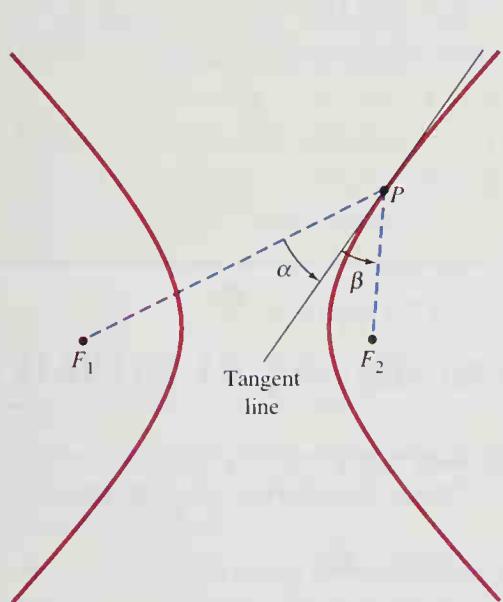


Fig. 10.8.7 The reflection property of the hyperbola

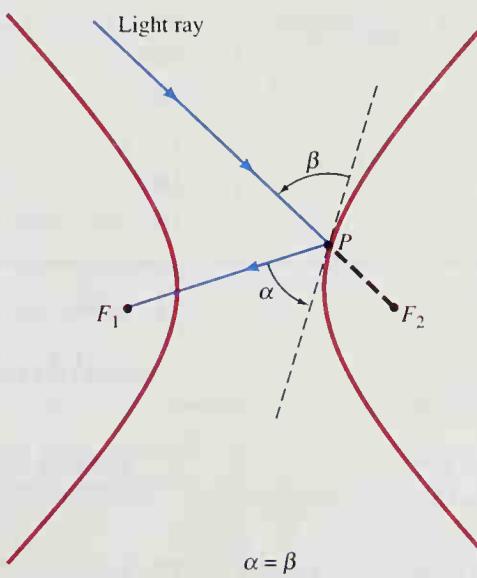


Fig. 10.8.8 How a hyperbolic mirror reflects a ray aimed at one focus: $\alpha = \beta$ again

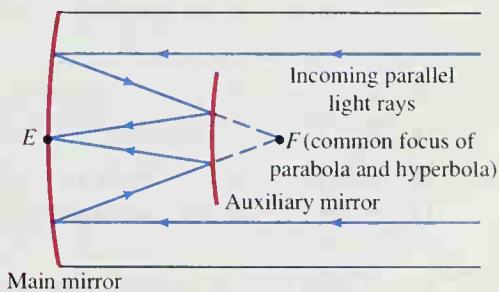


Fig. 10.8.9 One type of reflecting telescope: main mirror parabolic, auxiliary mirror hyperbolic

makes use of the reflection properties of the parabola and the hyperbola. The parallel incoming light rays first are reflected by the parabola toward its focus at F . Then they are intercepted by an auxiliary hyperbolic mirror with foci at E and F and reflected into the eyepiece located at E .

Example 4 illustrates how hyperbolas are used to determine the position of ships at sea.

EXAMPLE 4 A ship lies in the Labrador Sea due east of Wesleyville, point A , on the long north-south coastline of Newfoundland. Simultaneous radio signals are transmitted by radio stations at A and at St. John's, point B , which is on the coast 200 km due south of A . The ship receives the signal from A 500 microseconds (μs) before it receives the signal from B . Assume that the speed of radio signals is $300\text{m}/\mu\text{s}$. How far out at sea is the ship?

Solution The situation is diagrammed in Fig. 10.8.10. The difference between the distances of the ship at S from A and B is

$$|SB| - |SA| = 500 \cdot 300 = 150,000$$

meters; that is, 150 km. Thus (by Problem 24) the ship lies on a hyperbola with foci A and B . From Fig. 10.8.10 we see that $c = 100$, so $a = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 150 = 75$, and thus

$$b = \sqrt{c^2 - a^2} = \sqrt{100^2 - 75^2} = 25\sqrt{7}.$$

In the coordinate system of Fig. 10.8.10, the hyperbola has equation

$$\frac{y^2}{75^2} - \frac{x^2}{7 \cdot 25^2} = 1.$$

We substitute $y = 100$ because the ship is due east of A . Thus we find that the ship's distance from the coastline is $x = \frac{175}{3} \approx 58.3$ km. ■

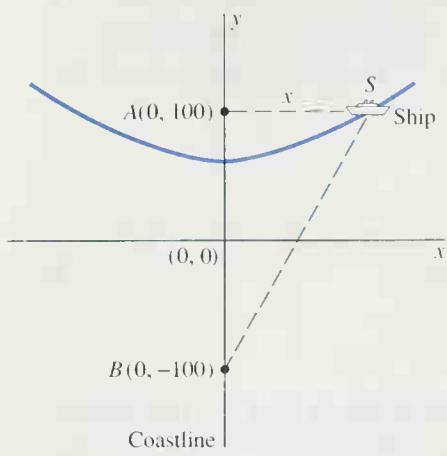


Fig. 10.8.10 A navigation problem (Example 4)

10.8 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 14, find an equation of the hyperbola described there.

1. Foci $(\pm 4, 0)$, vertices $(\pm 1, 0)$
2. Foci $(0, \pm 3)$, vertices $(0, \pm 2)$
3. Foci $(\pm 5, 0)$, asymptotes $y = \pm 3x/4$
4. Vertices $(\pm 3, 0)$, asymptotes $y = \pm 3x/4$
5. Vertices $(0, \pm 5)$, asymptotes $y = \pm x$
6. Vertices $(\pm 3, 0)$, eccentricity $e = \frac{5}{3}$
7. Foci $(0, \pm 6)$, eccentricity $e = 2$
8. Vertices $(\pm 4, 0)$ and passing through $(8, 3)$
9. Foci $(\pm 4, 0)$, directrices $x = \pm 1$
10. Foci $(0, \pm 9)$, directrices $y = \pm 4$
11. Center $(2, 2)$, horizontal transverse axis of length 6, eccentricity $e = 2$
12. Center $(-1, 3)$, vertices $(-4, 3)$ and $(2, 3)$, foci $(-6, 3)$ and $(4, 3)$
13. Center $(1, -2)$, vertices $(1, 1)$ and $(1, -5)$, asymptotes $3x - 2y = 7$ and $3x + 2y = -1$
14. Focus $(8, -1)$, asymptotes $3x - 4y = 13$ and $3x + 4y = 5$

Sketch the graphs of the equations given in Problems 15 through 20; indicate centers, foci, and asymptotes.

15. $x^2 - y^2 - 2x + 4y = 4$
16. $x^2 - 2y^2 + 4x = 0$
17. $y^2 - 3x^2 - 6y = 0$
18. $x^2 - y^2 - 2x + 6y = 9$
19. $9x^2 - 4y^2 + 18x + 8y = 31$
20. $4y^2 - 9x^2 - 18x - 8y = 41$
21. Show that the graph of the equation

$$\frac{x^2}{15 - c} - \frac{y^2}{c - 6} = 1$$

is (a) a hyperbola with foci $(\pm 3, 0)$ if $6 < c < 15$ and
(b) an ellipse if $c < 6$. (c) Identify the graph in the case $c > 15$.

22. Establish that the line tangent to the hyperbola

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

at the point $P(x_0, y_0)$ has equation

$$\frac{x_0x}{a^2} - \frac{y_0y}{b^2} = 1.$$

23. Use the result of Problem 22 to establish the reflection property of the hyperbola. (See the suggestion for Problem 25 of Section 10.7.)
24. Suppose that $0 < a < c$, and let $b = \sqrt{c^2 - a^2}$. Show that the hyperbola $x^2/a^2 - y^2/b^2 = 1$ is the locus of a point P such that the *difference* between the distances $|PF_1|$ and $|PF_2|$ is equal to $2a$ (F_1 and F_2 are the foci of the hyperbola).
25. Derive an equation for the hyperbola with vertices $(\pm 3/\sqrt{2}, \pm 3/\sqrt{2})$ and foci $(\pm 5, \pm 5)$. Use the difference definition of a hyperbola implied by Problem 24.

26. Two radio signaling stations at A and B lie on an east-west line, with A 100 mi west of B . A plane is flying west on a line 50 mi north of the line AB . Radio signals are sent (traveling at $980 \text{ ft}/\mu\text{s}$) simultaneously from A and B , and the one sent from B arrives at the plane $400 \mu\text{s}$ before the one sent from A . Where is the plane?
27. Two radio signaling stations are located as in Problem 26 and transmit radio signals that travel at the same speed. But now we know only that the plane is generally somewhere north of the line AB , that the signal from B arrives $400 \mu\text{s}$ before the one sent from A , and that the signal sent from A and reflected by the plane takes a total of $600 \mu\text{s}$ to reach B . Where is the plane?

CHAPTER 10 REVIEW Concepts and Definitions

Use the following list as a guide to additional concepts that you may need to review.

1. Conic sections
2. The relationship between rectangular and polar coordinates
3. The graph of an equation in polar coordinates
4. The area formula in polar coordinates
5. Definition of a parametric curve and a smooth parametric curve
6. The slope of the line tangent to a smooth parametric curve (both in rectangular and in polar coordinates)
7. Integral computations with parametric curves [Eqs. (1) through (4) of Section 10.5]
8. Arc length of a parametric curve

Review of Conic Sections

The parabola with focus $(p, 0)$ and directrix $x = -p$ has eccentricity $e = 1$ and equation $y^2 = 4px$. The accom-

panying table compares the properties of an ellipse and a hyperbola, each with foci $(\pm c, 0)$ and major axis of length $2a$.

	Ellipse	Hyperbola
Eccentricity	$e = \frac{c}{a} < 1$	$e = \frac{c}{a} > 1$
a, b, c relation	$a^2 = b^2 + c^2$	$c^2 = a^2 + b^2$
Equation	$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$	$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$
Vertices	$(\pm a, 0)$	$(\pm a, 0)$
y -intercepts	$(0, \pm b)$	None
Directrices	$x = \pm \frac{a}{e}$	$x = \pm \frac{a}{e}$
Asymptotes	None	$y = \pm \frac{bx}{a}$

CHAPTER 10 Miscellaneous Problems

Sketch the graphs of the equations in Problems 1 through 30. In Problems 1 through 18, if the graph is a conic section, label its center, foci, and vertices.

1. $x^2 + y^2 - 2x - 2y = 2$
2. $x^2 + y^2 = x + y$
3. $x^2 + y^2 - 6x + 2y + 9 = 0$
4. $y^2 = 4(x + y)$
5. $x^2 = 8x - 2y - 20$
6. $x^2 + 2y^2 - 2x + 8y + 8 = 0$
7. $9x^2 + 4y^2 = 36x$
8. $x^2 - y^2 = 2x - 2y - 1$

9. $y^2 - 2x^2 = 4x + 2y + 3$
10. $9y^2 - 4x^2 = 8x + 18y + 31$
11. $x^2 + 2y^2 = 4x + 4y - 12$
12. $y^2 - 6y + 4x + 5 = 0$
13. $9(x^2 - 2x + 1) = 4(y^2 + 9)$
14. $(x^2 - 4)(y^2 - 1) = 0$
15. $x^2 - 8x + y^2 - 2y + 16 = 0$
16. $(x - 1)^2 + 4(y - 2)^2 = 1$

17. $(x^2 - 4x + y^2 - 4y + 8)(x + y)^2 = 0$

18. $x = y^2 + 4y + 5$

19. $r = -2 \cos \theta$

21. $r = \frac{1}{\sin \theta - \cos \theta}$

23. $r = 3 \csc \theta$

25. $r^2 = 4 \cos \theta$

27. $r = 3 - 2 \sin \theta$

29. $r = \frac{4}{2 + \cos \theta}$

20. $\cos \theta + \sin \theta = 0$

22. $r \sin^2 \theta = \cos \theta$

24. $r = 2(\cos \theta - 1)$

26. $r\theta = 1$

28. $r = \frac{1}{1 + \cos \theta}$

30. $r = \frac{4}{1 - 2 \cos \theta}$

In Problems 31 through 38, find the area of the region described.

31. Inside both $r = 2 \sin \theta$ and $r = 2 \cos \theta$

32. Inside $r^2 = 4 \cos \theta$

33. Inside $r = 3 - 2 \sin \theta$ and outside $r = 4$

34. Inside $r^2 = 2 \sin 2\theta$ and outside $r = 2 \sin \theta$

35. Inside $r = 2 \sin 2\theta$ and outside $r = \sqrt{2}$

36. Inside $r = 3 \cos \theta$ and outside $r = 1 + \cos \theta$

37. Inside $r = 1 + \cos \theta$ and outside $r = \cos \theta$

38. Between the loops of $r = 1 - 2 \sin \theta$

In Problems 39 through 43, eliminate the parameter and sketch the curve.

39. $x = 2t^3 - 1, \quad y = 2t^3 + 1$

40. $x = \cosh t, \quad y = \sinh t$

41. $x = 2 + \cos t, \quad y = 1 - \sin t$

42. $x = \cos^4 t, \quad y = \sin^4 t$

43. $x = 1 + t^2, \quad y = t^3$

In Problems 44 through 48, write an equation of the line tangent to the given curve at the indicated point.

44. $x = t^2, \quad y = t^3; \quad t = 1$

45. $x = 3 \sin t, \quad y = 4 \cos t; \quad t = \pi/4$

46. $x = e^t, \quad y = e^{-t}; \quad t = 0$

47. $r = \theta; \quad \theta = \pi/2$

48. $r = 1 + \sin \theta; \quad \theta = \pi/3$

In Problems 49 through 52, find the area of the region between the given curve and the x -axis.

49. $x = 2t + 1, \quad y = t^2 + 3; \quad -1 \leq t \leq 2$

50. $x = e^t, \quad y = e^{-t}; \quad 0 \leq t \leq 10$

51. $x = 3 \sin t, \quad y = 4 \cos t; \quad 0 \leq t \leq \pi/2$

52. $x = \cosh t, \quad y = \sinh t; \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1$

In Problems 53 through 57, find the arc length of the given curve.

53. $x = t^2, \quad y = t^3; \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1$

54. $x = \ln(\cos t), \quad y = t; \quad 0 \leq t \leq \pi/4$

55. $x = 2t, \quad y = t^3 + \frac{1}{3t}; \quad 1 \leq t \leq 2$

56. $r = \sin \theta; \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$

57. $r = \sin^2(\theta/3); \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$

In Problems 58 through 62, find the area of the surface generated by revolving the given curve around the x -axis.

58. $x = t^2 + 1, \quad y = 3t; \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2$

59. $x = 4\sqrt{t}, \quad y = \frac{t^3}{3} + \frac{1}{2t^2}; \quad 1 \leq t \leq 4$

60. $r = \cos \theta$

61. $r = e^{\theta/2}; \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$

62. $x = e^t \cos t, \quad y = e^t \sin t; \quad 0 \leq t \leq \pi/2$

63. Consider the rolling circle of radius a that was used to generate the cycloid in Example 5 of Section 10.4. Suppose that this circle is the rim of a disk, and let Q be a point of this disk at distance $b < a$ from its center. Find parametric equations for the curve traced by Q as the circle rolls along the x -axis. Assume that Q begins at the point $(0, a - b)$. Sketch this curve, which is called a **trochoid**.

64. If the smaller circle of Problem 34 in Section 10.4 rolls around the *outside* of the larger circle, the path of the point P is called an **epicycloid**. Show that it has parametric equations

$$x = (a + b) \cos t - b \cos\left(\frac{a+b}{b}t\right),$$

$$y = (a + b) \sin t - b \sin\left(\frac{a+b}{b}t\right).$$

65. Suppose that $b = a$ in Problem 64. Show that the epicycloid is then the cardioid $r = 2a(1 - \cos \theta)$ translated a units to the right.

66. Find the area of the surface generated by revolving the lemniscate $r^2 = 2a^2 \cos 2\theta$ around the x -axis.

67. Find the volume generated by revolving around the y -axis the area under the cycloid

$$x = a(t - \sin t), \quad y = a(1 - \cos t), \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi.$$

68. Show that the length of one arch of the hypocycloid of Problem 34 in Section 10.4 is $s = 8b(a - b)/a$.

69. Find a polar coordinates equation of the circle that passes through the origin and is centered at the point with polar coordinates (p, α) .

70. Find a simple equation of the parabola whose focus is the origin and whose directrix is the line $y = x + 4$. Recall from Miscellaneous Problem 71 of Chapter 3 that the distance from the point (x_0, y_0) to the line with equation $Ax + By + C = 0$ is

$$\frac{|Ax_0 + By_0 + C|}{\sqrt{A^2 + B^2}}.$$

71. A **diameter** of an ellipse is a chord through its center. Find the maximum and minimum lengths of diameters of the ellipse with equation

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1.$$

72. Use calculus to prove that the ellipse of Problem 71 is normal to the coordinate axes at each of its four vertices.
73. The parabolic arch of a bridge has base width b and height h at its center. Write its equation, choosing the origin on the ground at the left end of the arch.
74. Use methods of calculus to find the points of the ellipse

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

that are nearest to and farthest from (a) the center $(0, 0)$; (b) the focus $(c, 0)$.

75. Consider a line segment QR that contains a point P such that $|QP| = a$ and $|PR| = b$. Suppose that Q is constrained to move on the y -axis, whereas R must remain on the x -axis. Prove that the locus of P is an ellipse.
76. Suppose that $a > 0$ and that F_1 and F_2 are two fixed points in the plane with $|F_1F_2| > 2a$. Imagine a point P that moves in such a way that $|PF_2| = 2a + |PF_1|$. Prove that the locus of P is one branch of a hyperbola with foci F_1 and F_2 . Then—as a consequence—explain how to construct points on a hyperbola by drawing appropriate circles centered at its foci.
77. Let Q_1 and Q_2 be two points on the parabola $y^2 = 4px$. Let P be the point of the parabola at which the tangent line is parallel to Q_1Q_2 . Prove that the horizontal line through P bisects the segment Q_1Q_2 .
78. Determine the locus of a point P such that the product of its distances from the two fixed points $F_1(-a, 0)$ and $F_2(a, 0)$ is a^2 .
79. Find the eccentricity of the conic section with equation $3x^2 - y^2 + 12x + 9 = 0$.

80. Find the area bounded by the loop of the *strophoid*

$$r = \sec \theta - 2 \cos \theta$$

shown in Fig. 10.MP.1.

81. Find the area bounded by the loop of the *folium of Descartes* with equation $x^3 + y^3 = 3xy$ shown in Fig. 10.MP.2. (Suggestion: Change to polar coordinates and then substitute $u = \tan \theta$ to evaluate the area integral.)
82. Use the method of Problem 81 to find the area bounded by the first-quadrant loop (similar to the folium of Problem 51) of the curve $x^5 + y^5 = 5x^2y^2$.
83. The graph of a conic section in the xy -plane has intercepts at $(5, 0)$, $(-5, 0)$, $(0, 4)$, and $(0, -4)$. Deduce all the information you can about this conic. Can you determine whether it is a parabola, a hyperbola, or an ellipse? What if you also know that the graph of this conic is normal to the y -axis at $(0, 4)$?

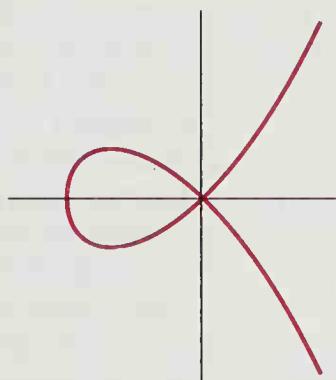


Fig. 10.MP.1 The strophoid of Problem 80

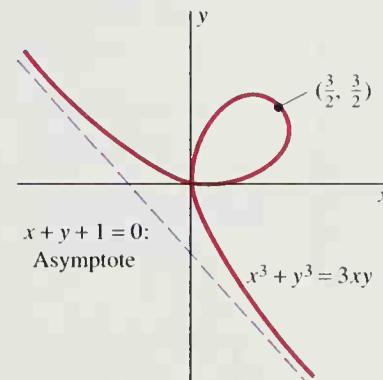
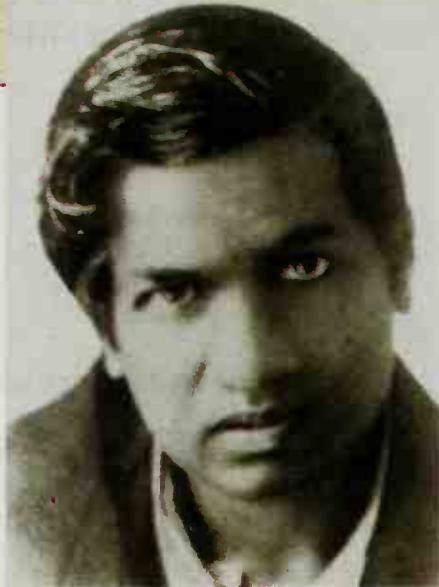


Fig. 10.MP.2 The folium of Descartes $x^3 + y^3 = 3xy$ (Problem 81)

INFINITE SERIES



Srinivasa Ramanujan (1887–1920)

On a cold January day in 1913, the eminent Cambridge mathematics professor G. H. Hardy received a letter from an unknown 25-year-old clerk in the accounting department of a government office in Madras, India. Its author, Srinivasa Ramanujan, had no university education, he admitted—he had flunked out—but “after leaving school I have employed the spare time at my disposal to work at Mathematics...I have not trodden through the conventional regular course...but am striking out a new path for myself.” The ten pages that followed listed in neat handwritten script approximately fifty formulas, most dealing with integrals and infinite series that Ramanujan had discovered, and asked Hardy’s advice whether they contained anything of value. The formulas were of such

exotic and unlikely appearance that Hardy at first suspected a hoax, but he and his colleague J. E. Littlewood soon realized that they were looking at the work of an extraordinary mathematical genius.

Thus began one of the most romantic episodes in the history of mathematics. In April 1914 Ramanujan arrived in England a poor, self-taught Indian mathematical amateur called to collaborate as an equal with the most sophisticated professional mathematicians of the day. For the next three years a steady stream of remarkable discoveries poured forth from his pen. But in 1917 he fell seriously ill, apparently with tuberculosis. The following year he returned to India in an attempt to regain his health but never recovered, and he died in 1920 at the age of 32. Up to the very end he worked feverishly to record his final discoveries. He left behind notebooks outlining work whose completion has occupied prominent mathematicians throughout the twentieth century.

With the possible exception of Euler, no one before or since has exhibited Ramanujan’s virtuosity with infinite series. An example of his discoveries is the infinite series

$$\frac{1}{\pi} =$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{8}}{9801} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(4n)!}{(n!)^4} \cdot \frac{(1103 + 26390n)}{396^{4n}},$$

whose first term yields the familiar approximation $\pi \approx 3.14159$, and with each additional term giving π to roughly eight more decimal places of accuracy. For instance, just four terms of Ramanujan’s series are needed to calculate the 30-place approximation

$$\pi \approx 3.14159\ 26535\ 89793 \\ 23846\ 26433\ 83279$$

that suffices for virtually any imaginable “practical” application.

*(11) Theorem on Continued Fractions
for example as —*

- (i) $\frac{a_0}{a_1} = \frac{a_0}{a_1 + \frac{a_2}{a_3 + \frac{a_4}{a_5 + \dots}}} = \left\{ \frac{\left(\frac{a_0}{a_1} \right)^2}{1 - \frac{a_2^2}{a_3^2}} \right\}^2$
- (ii) $\frac{a_0}{a_1} = \frac{a_0}{a_1 + \frac{a_2}{a_3 + \frac{a_4}{a_5 + \dots}}} = \frac{\left(\frac{a_0}{a_1} \right)^2}{1 - \frac{a_2^2}{a_3^2}} \times \frac{\left(\frac{a_0}{a_1} \right)^2}{1 - \frac{a_2^2}{a_3^2}} \times \frac{\left(\frac{a_0}{a_1} \right)^2}{1 - \frac{a_2^2}{a_3^2}} \times \dots$
- (iii) If $x = \frac{a_0}{a_1 + \frac{a_2}{a_3 + \dots}}$ and $y = \frac{a_0}{a_1 + \frac{a_2}{a_3 + \dots + a_n}}$ then $x < y$ and $x^2 < y^2$.
along any general
- (iv) If $a = \frac{a_0}{a_1 + \frac{a_2}{a_3 + \dots}}$ and $b = \frac{a_0}{a_1 + \frac{a_2}{a_3 + \dots + a_n}}$ then $a^2 = \frac{a_0^2}{a_1^2 + \frac{a_2^2}{a_3^2 + \dots}}$
- (v) $\frac{1}{1 + \frac{a_1}{1 + \frac{a_2}{1 + \frac{a_3}{1 + \dots}}}} = \left(\frac{\sqrt{a_1} - 1}{2} \right) \sqrt{a_1}$
- (vi) $\frac{1}{1 + \frac{a_1}{1 + \frac{a_2}{1 + \frac{a_3}{1 + \dots}}}} = \left(\frac{\sqrt{a_1} - 1}{2} \right) \sqrt{a_1}$
- (vii) $\frac{1}{1 + \frac{a_1}{1 + \frac{a_2}{1 + \frac{a_3}{1 + \dots}}}} =$ can be easily found if a be any positive rational quantity

A typical page of Ramanujan’s letter to Hardy, listing formulas Ramanujan had discovered, but with no hint of proof or derivation.

11.1 INTRODUCTION

In the fifth century B.C., the Greek philosopher Zeno proposed the following paradox: For a runner to travel a given distance, the runner must first travel halfway, then half the remaining distance, then half the distance that yet remains, and so on ad infinitum. But, Zeno argued, it is clearly impossible for a runner to accomplish infinitely many such tasks in a finite period of time, so motion from one point to another is impossible.

Zeno's paradox suggests the infinite subdivision of $[0, 1]$ indicated in Fig. 11.1.1. There is one subinterval of length $1/2^n$ for each integer $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. If the length of the interval is the sum of the lengths of the subintervals into which it is divided, then it would appear that

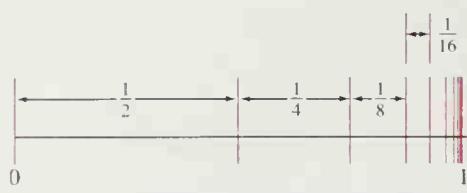


Fig. 11.1.1 Subdivision of an interval to illustrate Zeno's paradox

with infinitely many terms somehow adding up to 1. But the formal infinite sum

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n + \dots$$

of all the positive integers seems meaningless—it does not appear to add up to *any* (finite) value.

The question is this: What, if anything, do we mean by the sum of an *infinite* collection of numbers? This chapter explores conditions under which an *infinite* sum

$$a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n + \dots,$$

known as an *infinite series*, is meaningful. We discuss methods for computing the sum of an infinite series and applications of the algebra and calculus of infinite series. Infinite series are important in science and mathematics because many functions either arise most naturally in the form of infinite series or have infinite series representations (such as the Taylor series of Section 11.4) that are useful for numerical computations.

11.2 INFINITE SEQUENCES

An **infinite sequence** of real numbers is an ordered, unending list

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}, \dots \quad (1)$$

of numbers. That this list is *ordered* implies that it has a first term a_1 , a second term a_2 , a third term a_3 , and so forth. That the sequence is unending, or *infinite*, implies that (for every n) the *n th term* a_n has a successor a_{n+1} . Thus, as indicated by the final ellipsis in Eq. (1), an infinite sequence never ends and—despite the fact that we write explicitly only a finite number of terms—it actually has an infinite number of terms. Concise notation for the infinite sequence in (1) is

$$\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}, \quad \{a_n\}_1^{\infty}, \quad \text{or simply} \quad \{a_n\}. \quad (2)$$

Frequently an infinite sequence $\{a_n\}$ of numbers can be described “all at once” by a single function f that gives the successive terms of the sequence as successive values of the function:

$$a_n = f(n) \quad \text{for } n = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (3)$$

Here $a_n = f(n)$ is simply a *formula for the n th term* of the sequence. Conversely, if the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is given in advance, we can regard Eq. (3) as the definition of the function f having the set of positive integers as its domain of definition. Ordinarily we will use the subscript notation a_n in preference to the function notation $f(n)$.

EXAMPLE 1 The following table exhibits several particular infinite sequences. Each is described in three ways: in the concise sequential notation $\{a_n\}$ of (2), by writing the formula as in Eq. (3) for its n th term, and in extended list notation as in (1). Note that n need not begin with initial value 1.

$\left\{\frac{1}{n}\right\}_1^\infty$	$a_n = \frac{1}{n}$	$1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots$
$\left\{\frac{1}{10^n}\right\}_0^\infty$	$a_n = \frac{1}{10^n}$	$1, \frac{1}{10}, \frac{1}{100}, \frac{1}{1000}, \dots, \frac{1}{10^n}, \dots$
$\left\{\sqrt{3n - 7}\right\}_3^\infty$	$a_n = \sqrt{3n - 7}$	$\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{5}, \sqrt{8}, \sqrt{11}, \dots, \sqrt{3n - 7}, \dots$
$\left\{\sin \frac{n\pi}{2}\right\}_1^\infty$	$a_n = \sin \frac{n\pi}{2}$	$1, 0, -1, 0, \dots, \sin \frac{n\pi}{2}, \dots$
$\{3 + (-1)^n\}_1^\infty$	$a_n = 3 + (-1)^n$	$2, 4, 2, 4, \dots, 3 + (-1)^n, \dots$

Sometimes it is inconvenient or impossible to give an explicit formula for the n th term of a particular sequence. The following example illustrates how sequences can be defined in other ways.

EXAMPLE 2 Here we give the first ten terms of each sequence.

- (a) The sequence of prime integers (those positive integers n having precisely two divisors, 1 and n with $n > 1$):

$$2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, \dots$$

- (b) The sequence whose n th term is the n th decimal digit of the number

$$\pi = 3.14159265358979323846 \dots :$$

$$1, 4, 1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 5, 3, 5, \dots$$

- (c) The **Fibonacci sequence** $\{F_n\}$, which may be defined by

$$F_1 = 1, \quad F_2 = 1, \quad \text{and} \quad F_{n+1} = F_n + F_{n-1} \quad \text{for } n \geq 2.$$

Thus each term after the second is the sum of the preceding two terms:

$$1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, \dots$$

This is an example of a *recursively defined sequence* in which each term (after the first few) is given by a formula involving its predecessors. The thirteenth-century Italian mathematician Fibonacci asked the following question: If we start with a single pair of rabbits that gives birth to a new pair after two months, and each such new pair does the same, how many pairs of rabbits will we have after n months? See Problems 55 and 56.

- (d) If the amount $A_0 = 100$ dollars is invested in a savings account that draws 10% interest compounded annually, then the amount A_n in the account at the end of n years is defined (for $n \geq 1$) by the *iterative formula* $A_n = (1.10)A_{n-1}$ (rounded to the nearest number of cents) in terms of the preceding amount:

$$110.00, 121.00, 133.10, 146.41, 161.05, 177.16, 194.87, 214.36, 235.79, 259.37, \dots \blacksquare$$

Limits of Sequences

The limit of a sequence is defined in much the same way as the limit of an ordinary function (Section 2.2).

Definition Limit of a Sequence

We say that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ **converges** to the real number L , or has the **limit L** , and we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L, \quad (4)$$

provided that a_n can be made as close to L as we please merely by choosing n to be sufficiently large. That is, given any number $\epsilon > 0$, there exists an integer N such that

$$|a_n - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{for all } n \geq N. \quad (5)$$

If the sequence $\{a_n\}$ does *not* converge, then we say that $\{a_n\}$ **diverges**.

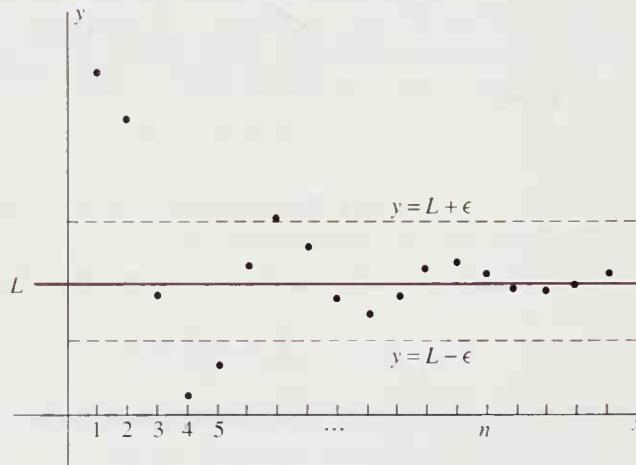


Fig. 11.2.1 The point (n, a_n) approaches the line $y = L$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.

Figure 11.2.1 illustrates geometrically the definition of the limit of a sequence. Because

$$|a_n - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{means that} \quad L - \epsilon < a_n < L + \epsilon,$$

the condition in (5) means that if $n \geq N$, then the point (n, a_n) lies between the horizontal lines $y = L - \epsilon$ and $y = L + \epsilon$. Alternatively, if $n \geq N$, then the number a_n lies between the points $L - \epsilon$ and $L + \epsilon$ on the real line (Fig. 11.2.2).



Fig. 11.2.2 The inequality $|a_n - L| < \epsilon$ means that a_n lies somewhere between $L - \epsilon$ and $L + \epsilon$.

EXAMPLE 3 Suppose that we want to establish rigorously the intuitively evident fact that the sequence $\{1/n\}_1^\infty$ converges to zero.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0. \quad (6)$$

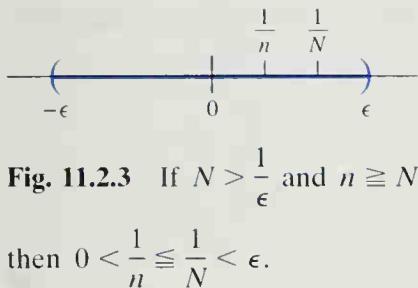
Because $L = 0$ here, we need only convince ourselves that to each positive number ϵ there corresponds an integer N such that

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} \right| = \frac{1}{n} < \epsilon \quad \text{if } n \geq N.$$

But evidently it suffices to choose any fixed integer $N > 1/\epsilon$. Then $n \geq N$ implies immediately that

$$\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{N} < \epsilon,$$

as desired (Fig. 11.2.3). ■



EXAMPLE 4 (a) The sequence $\{(-1)^n\}$ diverges because its successive terms “oscillate” between the two values +1 and -1. Hence $(-1)^n$ cannot approach any single value as $n \rightarrow \infty$. (b) The terms of the sequence $\{n^2\}$ increase without bound as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Thus the sequence $\{n^2\}$ diverges. In this case, we might also say that $\{n^2\}$ diverges to infinity. ■

Using Limit Laws

The limit laws in Section 2.2 for limits of functions have natural analogues for limits of sequences. Their proofs are based on techniques similar to those used in Appendix D.

Theorem 1 Limit Laws for Sequences

If the limits

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = A \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = B$$

exist (so A and B are real numbers), then

1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} ca_n = cA$ (c any real number);
2. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + b_n) = A + B$;
3. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n b_n = AB$;
4. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{A}{B}$.

In part (4) we must assume that $B \neq 0$ and that $b_n \neq 0$ for all sufficiently large values of n .

Theorem 2 Substitution Law for Sequences

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = A$ and the function f is continuous at $x = A$, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n) = f(A).$$

Theorem 3 Squeeze Law for Sequences

If $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for all n and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n,$$

then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$ as well.

These theorems can be used to compute limits of many sequences formally, without recourse to the definition. For example, Eq. (6) and the product law of limits yield

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^k} = 0 \quad (7)$$

for every positive integer k .

EXAMPLE 5 Equation (7) and the limit laws give (after dividing numerator and denominator by the highest power of n that is present)

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{7n^2}{5n^2 - 3} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{7}{5 - \frac{3}{n^2}} \\ &= \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 7}{\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 5\right) - 3 \cdot \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2}\right)} = \frac{7}{5 - 3 \cdot 0} = \frac{7}{5}. \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 6 Show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cos n}{n} = 0$.

Solution This follows from the squeeze law and the fact that $1/n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, because

$$-\frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{\cos n}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n}$$

for every positive integer n .

REMARK With a typical graphing calculator (in “dot plot” mode) or computer algebra system (using its “list plot” facility), one can plot the points (n, a_n) in the xy -plane corresponding to a given sequence $\{a_n\}$. Figure 11.2.4 shows such a plot for the sequence of Example 6 and provides visual evidence of its convergence to zero.

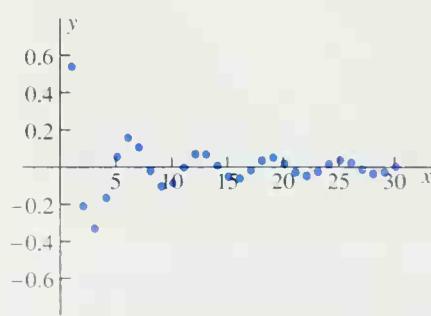


Fig. 11.2.4 The points $(n, (\cos n)/n)$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots, 30$

EXAMPLE 7 Show that if $a > 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a} = 1$.

Solution We apply the substitution law with $f(x) = a^x$ and $A = 0$. Because $1/n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and f is continuous at $x = 0$, this gives

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a^{1/n} = a^0 = 1.$$

EXAMPLE 8 The limit laws and the continuity of $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ at $x = 4$ yield

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\frac{4n-1}{n+1}} = \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4 - \frac{1}{n}}{1 + \frac{1}{n}} \right)^{1/2} = \sqrt{4} = 2.$$

EXAMPLE 9 Show that if $|r| < 1$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = 0$.

Solution Because $|r^n| = |(-r)^n|$, we may assume that $0 < r < 1$. Then $1/r = 1 + a$ for some number $a > 0$, so the binomial formula yields

$$\frac{1}{r^n} = (1+a)^n = 1 + na + \{\text{positive terms}\} > 1 + na;$$

$$0 < r^n < \frac{1}{1+na}.$$

Now $1/(1+na) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore the squeeze law implies that $r^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. ■

Figure 11.2.5 shows the graph of a function f such that $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$. If the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is defined by the formula $a_n = f(n)$ for each positive integer n , then all the points $(n, f(n))$ lie on the graph of $y = f(x)$. It therefore follows from the definition of the limit of a function that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ as well.

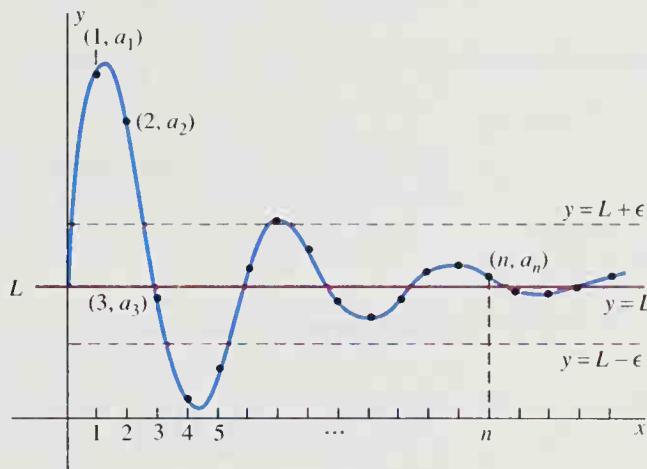


Fig. 11.2.5 If $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$ and $a_n = f(n)$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$.

Theorem 4 *Limits of Functions and Sequences*

If $a_n = f(n)$ for each positive integer n , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L \quad \text{implies that} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L. \quad (8)$$

The converse of the statement in (8) is generally false. For example, take $f(x) = \sin \pi x$ and, for each positive integer n , let $a_n = f(n) = \sin n\pi$. Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sin n\pi = 0, \quad \text{but}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin \pi x \text{ does not exist.}$$

Because of (8) we can use l'Hôpital's rule for sequences: If $a_n = f(n)$, $b_n = g(n)$, and $f(x)/g(x)$ has the indeterminate form ∞/∞ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}, \quad (9)$$

provided that f and g satisfy the other hypotheses of l'Hôpital's rule, including the important assumption that the right-hand limit exists.

EXAMPLE 10 Show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n} = 0$.

Solution The function $(\ln x)/x$ is defined for all $x \geq 1$ and agrees with the given sequence $\{(\ln n)/n\}$ when $x = n$, a positive integer. Because $(\ln x)/x$ has the indeterminate form ∞/∞ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, l'Hôpital's rule gives

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{1} = 0.$$

EXAMPLE 11 Show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n} = 1$.

Solution First we note that

$$\ln \sqrt[n]{n} = \ln n^{1/n} = \frac{\ln n}{n} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty,$$

by Example 10. By the substitution law with $f(x) = e^x$, this gives

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{1/n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \exp(\ln n^{1/n}) = e^0 = 1.$$

EXAMPLE 12 Find $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^3}{e^{2n}}$.

Solution We apply l'Hôpital's rule repeatedly, although we must be careful at each intermediate step to verify that we still have an indeterminate form. Thus we find that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^3}{e^{2n}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3x^3}{e^{2x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{9x^2}{2e^{2x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{18x}{4e^{2x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{18}{8e^{2x}} = 0.$$

Bounded Monotonic Sequences

The set of all *rational* numbers has by itself all of the most familiar elementary algebraic properties of the entire real number system. To guarantee the existence of irrational numbers, we must assume in addition a “completeness property” of the real numbers. Otherwise, the real line might have “holes” where the irrational numbers ought to be. One way of stating this completeness property is in terms of the convergence of an important type of sequence, a bounded monotonic sequence.

The sequence $\{a_n\}_1^\infty$ is said to be **increasing** if

$$a_1 \leq a_2 \leq a_3 \leq \cdots \leq a_n \leq \cdots$$

and **decreasing** if

$$a_1 \geq a_2 \geq a_3 \geq \cdots \geq a_n \geq \cdots.$$

The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **monotonic** if it is either increasing or decreasing. The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded** if there is a number M such that $|a_n| \leq M$ for all n . The following assertion may be taken to be an axiom for the real number system.

Bounded Monotonic Sequence Property

Every bounded monotonic infinite sequence converges—that is, has a finite limit.

Suppose, for example, that the increasing sequence $\{a_n\}_1^\infty$ is bounded above by a number M , meaning that $a_n \leq M$ for all $n \geq 1$. Because the sequence is also bounded below (by a_1 , for instance), the bounded monotonic sequence property implies that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = A \quad \text{for some real number } A \leq M,$$

as in Fig. 11.2.6(a). If the increasing sequence $\{a_n\}$ is not bounded above, then it follows that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = +\infty$$

as in Fig. 11.2.6(b) (see Problem 52). Figure 11.2.7 illustrates the graph of a typical bounded increasing sequence, with the heights of the points (n, a_n) steadily rising toward A .

EXAMPLE 13 Investigate the sequence $\{a_n\}$ that is defined recursively by

$$a_1 = \sqrt{6}, \quad a_{n+1} = \sqrt{6 + a_n} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1. \quad (10)$$

Solution The first four terms of this sequence are

$$\sqrt{6}, \quad \sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6}}, \quad \sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6}}}, \quad \sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6}}}}. \quad (11)$$

If the sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges, then its limit A would seem to be the natural interpretation of the infinite expression

$$\sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6 + \cdots}}}.$$

A calculator gives 2.449, 2.907, 2.984, and 2.997 for the approximate values of the terms in (11). This suggests that the sequence may be bounded above by $M = 3$. Indeed, if we assume that a particular term a_n satisfies the inequality $a_n < 3$, then it follows that

$$a_{n+1} = \sqrt{6 + a_n} < \sqrt{6 + 3} = 3;$$

that is, $a_{n+1} < 3$ as well. Can you see that this implies that *all* terms of the sequence are less than 3? (If there were a first term not less than 3, then its predecessor would be less than 3, and we would have a contradiction. This is a “proof by mathematical induction.”)

To apply the bounded monotonic sequence property in order to conclude that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges, it remains to show that it is an increasing sequence. But

$$(a_{n+1})^2 - (a_n)^2 = (6 + a_n) - (a_n)^2 = (2 + a_n)(3 - a_n) > 0$$

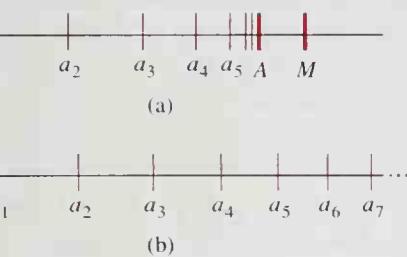


Fig. 11.2.6 (a) If the increasing sequence $\{a_n\}$ is bounded above by M , then its terms “pile up” at some point $A \leq M$. (b) If the sequence is unbounded, then its terms “keep going” and diverge to infinity.

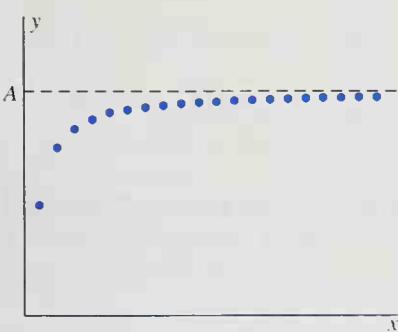


Fig. 11.2.7 Graph of a bounded increasing sequence with limit A

because $a_n < 3$. Because all terms of the sequence are positive (why?), it therefore follows that $a_{n+1} > a_n$ for all $n \geq 1$, as desired.

Now that we know that the limit A of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ exists, we can write

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{6 + a_n} = \sqrt{6 + A},$$

and thus $A^2 = 6 + A$. The roots of this quadratic equation are -2 and 3 . Because $A > 0$ (why?), we conclude that $A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 3$, and so

$$\sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6 + \sqrt{6 + \cdots}}} = 3. \quad (12)}$$

The graph in Fig. 11.2.8 of the first ten terms of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ shows that the convergence to its limit 3 is quite rapid. ■

To indicate what the bounded monotonic sequence property has to do with the “completeness property” of the real numbers, in Problem 63 we outline a proof, using this property, of the existence of the number $\sqrt{2}$. In Problems 61 and 62, we outline a proof of the equivalence of the bounded monotonic sequence property and another common statement of the completeness of the real number system—the *least upper bound property*.

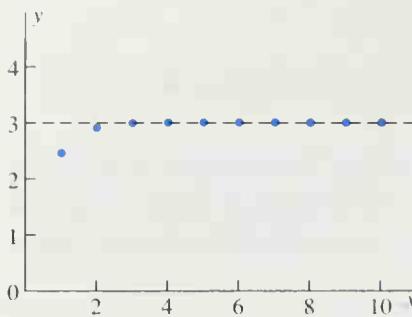


Fig. 11.2.8 Graph of the sequence of Example 13

11.2 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 8, find a pattern in the sequence with given terms a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4 , and (assuming that it continues as indicated) write a formula for the general term a_n of the sequence.

1. $1, 4, 9, 16, \dots$

3. $\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{27}, \frac{1}{81}, \dots$

5. $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{11}, \dots$

7. $0, 2, 0, 2, \dots$

2. $2, 7, 12, 17, \dots$

4. $1, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, -\frac{1}{8}, \dots$

6. $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{10}, \frac{1}{17}, \dots$

8. $10, 5, 10, 5, \dots$

In Problems 9 through 42, determine whether the sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges, and find its limit if it does converge.

9. $a_n = \frac{2n}{5n-3}$

10. $a_n = \frac{1-n^2}{2+3n^2}$

11. $a_n = \frac{n^2-n+7}{2n^3+n^2}$

12. $a_n = \frac{n^3}{10n^2+1}$

13. $a_n = 1 + \left(\frac{9}{10}\right)^n$

14. $a_n = 2 - \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$

15. $a_n = 1 + (-1)^n$

16. $a_n = \frac{1+(-1)^n}{\sqrt{n}}$

17. $a_n = \frac{1+(-1)^n\sqrt{n}}{\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^n}$

18. $a_n = \frac{\sin n}{3^n}$

19. $a_n = \frac{\sin^2 n}{\sqrt{n}}$

20. $a_n = \sqrt{\frac{2+\cos n}{n}}$

21. $a_n = n \sin \pi n$

22. $a_n = n \cos \pi n$

23. $a_n = \pi^{-(\sin n)/n}$

24. $a_n = 2^{\cos \pi n}$

25. $a_n = \frac{\ln n}{\sqrt{n}}$

26. $a_n = \frac{\ln 2n}{\ln 3n}$

27. $a_n = \frac{(\ln n)^2}{n}$

28. $a_n = n \sin\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$

29. $a_n = \frac{\tan^{-1} n}{n}$

30. $a_n = \frac{n^3}{e^{n/10}}$

31. $a_n = \frac{2^n + 1}{e^n}$

32. $a_n = \frac{\sinh n}{\cosh n}$

33. $a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$

34. $a_n = (2n+5)^{1/n}$

35. $a_n = \left(\frac{n-1}{n+1}\right)^n$

36. $a_n = (0.001)^{-1/n}$

37. $a_n = \sqrt[n]{2^{n+1}}$

38. $a_n = \left(1 - \frac{2}{n^2}\right)^n$

39. $a_n = \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^{3/n}$

40. $a_n = (-1)^n(n^2+1)^{1/n}$

41. $a_n = \left(\frac{2-n^2}{3+n^2}\right)^n$

42. $a_n = \frac{\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n}{1-\sqrt[n]{n}}$

In Problems 43 through 50, investigate the given sequence $\{a_n\}$ numerically or graphically. Formulate a reasonable guess for the value of its limit. Then apply limit laws to verify that your guess is correct.

43. $a_n = \frac{n-2}{n+13}$

44. $a_n = \frac{2n+3}{5n-17}$

45. $a_n = \sqrt{\frac{4n^2+7}{n^2+3n}}$

46. $a_n = \left(\frac{n^3-5}{8n^3+7n}\right)^{1/3}$

47. $a_n = e^{-1/\sqrt{n}}$

48. $a_n = n \sin \frac{2}{n}$

49. $a_n = 4 \tan^{-1} \frac{n-1}{n+1}$

50. $a_n = 3 \sin^{-1} \sqrt{\frac{3n-1}{4n+1}}$

51. Prove that if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = A \neq 0$, then the sequence $\{(-1)^n a_n\}$ diverges.

52. Prove that if the increasing sequence $\{a_n\}$ is not bounded, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = +\infty$. (It's largely a matter of saying precisely what this means.)

53. Suppose that $A > 0$. Given $x_1 \neq 0$ but otherwise arbitrary, define the sequence $\{x_n\}$ recursively by

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(x_n + \frac{A}{x_n} \right) \quad \text{if } n \geq 1.$$

Prove that if $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$ exists, then $L = \pm \sqrt{A}$.

54. Suppose that A is a fixed real number. Given $x_1 \neq 0$ but otherwise arbitrary, define the sequence $\{x_n\}$ recursively by

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \left(2x_n + \frac{A}{(x_n)^2} \right) \quad \text{if } n \geq 1.$$

Prove that if $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$ exists, then $L = \sqrt[3]{A}$.

55. (a) Suppose that every newborn pair of rabbits becomes productive after two months and thereafter gives birth to a new pair of rabbits every month. If we begin with a single newborn pair of rabbits, denote by F_n the total number of pairs of rabbits we have after n months. Explain carefully why $\{F_n\}$ is the Fibonacci sequence of Example 2. (b) If, instead, every newborn pair of rabbits becomes productive after three months, denote by $\{G_n\}$ the number of pairs of rabbits we have after n months. Give a recursive definition of the sequence $\{G_n\}$ and calculate its first ten terms.

56. Let $\{F_n\}$ be the Fibonacci sequence of Example 2, and assume that

$$\tau = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F_{n+1}}{F_n}$$

exists. (It does.) Show that $\tau = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$. (Suggestion: Write $a_n = F_n/F_{n-1}$ and show that $a_{n+1} = 1 + (1/a_n)$.)

57. Let the sequence $\{a_n\}$ be defined recursively as follows:

$$a_1 = 2; \quad a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2}(a_n + 4) \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.$$

(a) Prove by induction on n that $a_n < 4$ for each n and that $\{a_n\}$ is an increasing sequence. (b) Find the limit of this sequence.

58. Investigate as in Example 13 the sequence $\{a_n\}$ that is defined recursively by

$$a_1 = \sqrt{2}, \quad a_{n+1} = \sqrt{2 + a_n} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.$$

In particular, show that

$$\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{\cdots}}}}} = 2.$$

Verify the results stated in Problems 59 and 60.

$$59. \sqrt{20 + \sqrt{20 + \sqrt{20 + \sqrt{20 + \sqrt{\cdots}}}}} = 5.$$

$$60. \sqrt{90 + \sqrt{90 + \sqrt{90 + \sqrt{90 + \sqrt{\cdots}}}}} = 10.$$

Problems 61 and 62 deal with the *least upper bound* property of the real numbers: If the nonempty set S of real numbers has an upper bound, then S has a least upper bound. The number M is an **upper bound** for the set S if $x \leq M$ for all x in S . The upper bound L of S is a **least upper bound** for S if no number smaller than L is an upper bound for S . You can easily show that if the set S has least upper bounds L_1 and L_2 , then $L_1 = L_2$; in other words, if a least upper bound for a set exists, then it is unique.

61. Prove that the least upper bound property implies the bounded monotonic sequence property. (Suggestion: If $\{a_n\}$ is a bounded increasing sequence and A is the least upper bound of the set $\{a_n : n \geq 1\}$ of terms of the sequence, you can prove that $A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$.)

62. Prove that the bounded monotonic sequence property implies the least upper bound property. (Suggestion: For each positive integer n , let a_n be the least integral multiple of $1/10^n$ that is an upper bound of the set S . Prove that $\{a_n\}$ is a bounded decreasing sequence and then that $A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ is a least upper bound for S .)

63. For each positive integer n , let a_n be the largest integral multiple of $1/10^n$ such that $a_n^2 \leq 2$. (a) Prove that $\{a_n\}$ is a bounded increasing sequence, so $A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ exists. (b) Prove that if $A^2 > 2$, then $a_n^2 > 2$ for n sufficiently large. (c) Prove that if $A^2 < 2$, then $a_n^2 < B$ for some number $B < 2$ and all sufficiently large n . (d) Conclude that $A^2 = 2$.

64. Investigate the sequence $\{a_n\}$, where

$$a_n = \lfloor n + \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{n} \rfloor.$$

You may need a computer or programmable calculator to discover what is remarkable about this sequence.

11.2 PROJECT: NESTED RADICALS AND CONTINUED FRACTIONS

This project is an investigation of the relation

$$\sqrt{q + p\sqrt{q + p\sqrt{q + p\sqrt{q + \cdots}}}} = p + \cfrac{q}{p + \cfrac{q}{p + \cfrac{q}{p + \cdots}}}, \quad (1)$$

where p and q are the last two nonzero digits in your student I.D. number. We ask not only whether Eq. (1) could possibly be true, but also what it means.

1. Define the sequence $\{a_n\}$ recursively by

$$a_1 = \sqrt{q} \quad \text{and} \quad a_{n+1} = \sqrt{q + pa_n} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.$$

To investigate the convergence of this sequence, approximate successive terms numerically by entering the TI graphing calculator commands

$\sqrt{q} \rightarrow A$
 $\sqrt{(q + p \cdot A)} \rightarrow A$ (re-enter repeatedly)

or equivalent computer algebra system commands. Does the sequence appear to converge? Assuming that it does, write the first several terms of the sequence symbolically, and conclude that $A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ is a natural interpretation of the *nested radical* on the left-hand side in Eq. (1). Finally, show that A is the positive solution of the quadratic equation $x^2 - px - q = 0$. Does the quadratic formula then yield a result consistent with your numerical evidence?

2. Define the sequence $\{b_n\}$ recursively by

$$b_1 = p \quad \text{and} \quad b_{n+1} = p + \frac{q}{b_n} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.$$

To investigate its convergence, approximate successive terms numerically by entering the TI graphing calculator commands

$p \rightarrow B$
 $p + q/B \rightarrow B$ (re-enter repeatedly)

or equivalent computer algebra system commands. Does the sequence appear to converge? Assuming that it does, write the first several terms of the sequence symbolically, and conclude that $B = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$ is a natural interpretation of the *continued fraction* on the right-hand side in Eq. (1). Finally, show that B is also the positive solution of the quadratic equation $x^2 - px - q = 0$, and thereby conclude that Eq. (1) is indeed true.

11.3 INFINITE SERIES AND CONVERGENCE

An **infinite series** is an expression of the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_n + \cdots, \tag{1}$$

where $\{a_n\}$ is an infinite sequence of real numbers. The number a_n is called the ***n*th term** of the series. The symbol $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is simply an abbreviation for the right-hand side of Eq. (1). In this section we discover what is meant by the **sum** of an infinite series.

EXAMPLE 1 Consider the infinite series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \cdots, \tag{2}$$

which was mentioned in Section 11.1; its *n*th term is $a_n = 1/2^n$. Although we cannot literally add an infinite number of terms, we can add any finite number of the terms in Eq. (2). For instance, the sum of the first five terms is

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{32} = \frac{31}{32} = 0.96875.$$

<i>n</i>	Sum of first <i>n</i> terms
5	0.96875000
10	0.99902344
15	0.99996948
20	0.99999905
25	0.99999997

Fig. 11.3.1 Sums of terms in the infinite series of Example 1

We could add five more terms, then five more, and so forth. The table in Fig. 11.3.1 shows what happens. It appears that the sums get closer and closer to 1 as we add more and more terms. If indeed this is so, then it is natural to say that the sum of the (whole) infinite series in Eq. (2) is 1 and hence to write

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \cdots = 1.$$

Motivated by Example 1, we introduce the *partial sums* of the general infinite series in Eq. (1). The *n*th **partial sum** S_n of the series is the sum of its first *n* terms:

$$S_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k. \quad (3)$$

Thus each infinite series has not only an infinite sequence of terms, but also an **infinite sequence of partial sums** $S_1, S_2, S_3, \dots, S_n, \dots$, where

$$S_1 = a_1,$$

$$S_2 = a_1 + a_2,$$

$$S_3 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3,$$

⋮

$$S_{10} = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6 + a_7 + a_8 + a_9 + a_{10},$$

and so forth. We define the sum of the infinite series to be the limit of its sequence of partial sums, provided that this limit exists.

Definition *The Sum of an Infinite Series*

We say that the infinite series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \quad \text{converges (or is convergent)}$$

with **sum** S provided that the limit of its sequence of partial sums,

$$S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n, \quad (4)$$

exists (and is finite). Otherwise we say that the series **diverges** (or is **divergent**). If a series diverges, then it has no sum.

Thus an infinite series is a limit of finite sums,

$$S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^N a_n,$$

provided that this limit exists.

EXAMPLE 1 (continued) Show that the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots$$

converges, and find its sum.

Solution The first four partial sums are

$$S_1 = \frac{1}{2}, \quad S_2 = \frac{3}{4}, \quad S_3 = \frac{7}{8}, \quad \text{and} \quad S_4 = \frac{15}{16}.$$

It seems likely that $S_n = (2^n - 1)/2^n$, and indeed this follows easily by induction because

$$S_{n+1} = S_n + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} = \frac{2^n - 1}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} = \frac{2^{n+1} - 2 + 1}{2^{n+1}} = \frac{2^{n+1} - 1}{2^{n+1}}.$$

Hence the sum of the given series is

$$S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^n - 1}{2^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^n}\right) = 1.$$

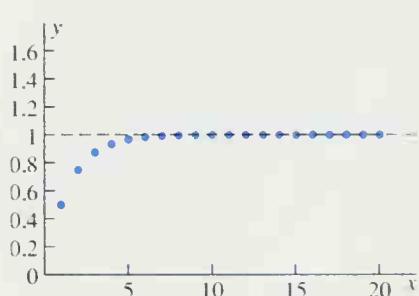


Fig. 11.3.2 Graph of the first 20 partial sums of the infinite series in Example 1

The graph in Fig. 11.3.2 illustrates the convergence of the partial sums to the number 1. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Show that the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} = 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \dots$$

diverges.

Solution The sequence of partial sums of this series is

$$1, 0, 1, 0, 1, \dots,$$

which has no limit. Therefore the series diverges. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Show that the infinite series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$$

converges, and find its sum.

Solution We need a formula for the n th partial sum S_n so that we can evaluate its limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$. To find such a formula, we begin with the observation that the n th term of the series is

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1}.$$

(In more complicated cases, such as those in Problems 50 through 55, such a decomposition can be obtained by the method of partial fractions.) It follows that the sum of the first n terms of the given series is

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{5}\right) + \cdots + \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1}\right) \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} = \frac{n}{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1.$$

The sum for S_n in Example 3, called a *telescoping sum*, provides a way to find the sums of certain series. The series in Examples 1 and 2 are examples of a more common and more important type of series, the *geometric series*.

Definition Geometric Series

The series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ is said to be a **geometric series** if each term after the first is a fixed multiple of the term immediately before it. That is, there is a number r , called the **ratio** of the series, such that

$$a_{n+1} = ra_n \quad \text{for all } n \geq 0.$$

If we write $a = a_0$ for the initial constant term, then $a_1 = ar$, $a_2 = ar^2$, $a_3 = ar^3$, and so forth. Thus every geometric series takes the form

$$a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n. \quad (5)$$

Note that the summation begins at $n = 0$ (rather than at $n = 1$). It is therefore convenient to regard the sum

$$S_n = a(1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \cdots + r^n)$$

of the first $n + 1$ terms as the n th partial sum of the series.

EXAMPLE 4 The infinite series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2}{3^n} = 2 + \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{9} + \cdots + \frac{2}{3^n} + \cdots$$

is a geometric series whose first term is $a = 2$ and whose ratio is $r = \frac{1}{3}$.

Theorem 1 The Sum of a Geometric Series

If $|r| < 1$, then the geometric series in Eq. (5) converges, and its sum is

$$S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = \frac{a}{1-r}. \quad (6)$$

If $|r| \geq 1$ and $a \neq 0$, then the geometric series diverges.

PROOF If $r = 1$, then $S_n = (n+1)a$, so the series certainly diverges if $a \neq 0$. If $r = -1$ and $a \neq 0$, then the series diverges by an argument like that in Example 2. So we may suppose that $|r| \neq 1$. Then the elementary identity

$$1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \cdots + r^n = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$$

follows if we multiply each side by $1 - r$. Hence the n th partial sum of the geometric series is

$$S_n = a(1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \cdots + r^n) = a\left(\frac{1}{1-r} - \frac{r^{n+1}}{1-r}\right).$$

If $|r| < 1$, then $r^{n+1} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, by Example 9 in Section 11.2. So in this case the geometric series converges to

$$S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a \cdot \left(\frac{1}{1-r} - \frac{r^{n+1}}{1-r}\right) = \frac{a}{1-r}.$$

But if $|r| > 1$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^{n+1}$ does not exist, so $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$ does not exist. This establishes the theorem. ■

EXAMPLE 5 With $a = 1$ and $r = -\frac{2}{3}$, we find that

$$1 - \frac{2}{3} + \frac{4}{9} - \frac{8}{27} + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)^n = \frac{1}{1 - \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)} = \frac{3}{5}.$$

The graph in Fig. 11.3.3 shows the partial sums of this series approaching its sum $\frac{3}{5}$ alternately from above and below. ■

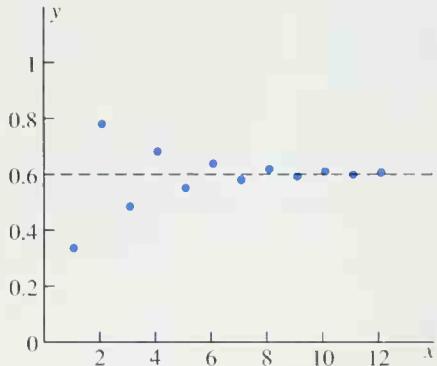


Fig. 11.3.3 Graph of the first dozen partial sums of the infinite series in Example 5

EXAMPLE 6 Determine whether the infinite series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{2n-1}}{3^n}$ converges.

Solution If we write this series in the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{2n-1}}{3^n} = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{8}{9} + \frac{32}{27} + \frac{128}{81} + \cdots = \frac{2}{3} \left(1 + \frac{4}{3} + \frac{16}{9} + \frac{64}{27} + \cdots\right),$$

then we recognize it as a geometric series with $a = \frac{2}{3}$ and $r = \frac{4}{3}$. Because $r > 1$, the second part of Theorem 1 implies that this series diverges. ■

Theorem 2 implies that the operations of addition and of multiplication by a constant can be carried out term by term in the case of *convergent series*. Because the sum of an infinite series is the limit of its sequence of partial sums, this theorem follows immediately from the limit laws for sequences (Theorem 1 of Section 11.2).

Theorem 2 Termwise Addition and Multiplication

If the series $A = \sum a_n$ and $B = \sum b_n$ converge to the indicated sums and c is a constant, then the series $\sum(a_n + b_n)$ and $\sum ca_n$ also converge, with sums

1. $\sum(a_n + b_n) = A + B$;
2. $\sum ca_n = cA$.

The geometric series in Eq. (6) may be used to find the rational number represented by a given infinite repeating decimal.

EXAMPLE 7

$$0.\overline{555555} = \frac{5}{10} + \frac{5}{100} + \frac{5}{1000} + \cdots = \frac{5}{10} \left(1 + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{100} + \cdots\right)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{5}{10} \left(\frac{1}{10} \right)^n = \frac{\frac{5}{10}}{1 - \frac{1}{10}} = \frac{5}{10} \cdot \frac{10}{9} = \frac{5}{9}.$$

In a more complicated situation, we may need to use the termwise algebra of Theorem 2:

$$\begin{aligned} 0.72828282\cdots &= \frac{7}{10} + \frac{28}{10^3} + \frac{28}{10^5} + \frac{28}{10^7} + \cdots \\ &= \frac{7}{10} + \frac{28}{10^3} \left(1 + \frac{1}{10^2} + \frac{1}{10^4} + \cdots \right) \\ &= \frac{7}{10} + \frac{28}{1000} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{100} \right)^n = \frac{7}{10} + \frac{28}{1000} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{100}} \right) \\ &= \frac{7}{10} + \frac{28}{1000} \cdot \frac{100}{99} = \frac{7}{10} + \frac{28}{990} = \frac{721}{990}. \end{aligned}$$

This technique can be used to show that every repeated infinite decimal represents a rational number. Consequently, the decimal expansions of irrational numbers such as π , e , and $\sqrt{2}$ must be nonrepeating as well as infinite. Conversely, if p and q are integers with $q \neq 0$, then long division of q into p yields a repeating decimal expansion for the rational number p/q because such a division can yield at each stage only q possible different remainders. ■

EXAMPLE 8 Suppose that Paul and Mary toss a fair six-sided die in turn until one of them wins by getting the first six. If Paul tosses first, calculate the probability that he will win the game.

Solution Because the die is fair, the probability that Paul gets a six on the first round is $\frac{1}{6}$. The probability that he gets the game's first six on the second round is $(\frac{5}{6})^2(\frac{1}{6})$ —the product of the probability $(\frac{5}{6})^2$ that neither Paul nor Mary rolls a six in the first round and the probability $\frac{1}{6}$ that Paul rolls a six in the second round. Paul's probability p of getting the first six in the game is the *sum* of his probabilities of getting it in the first round, in the second round, in the third round, and so on. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \frac{1}{6} + \left(\frac{5}{6} \right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{6} \right) + \left(\frac{5}{6} \right)^2 \left(\frac{5}{6} \right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{6} \right) + \cdots \\ &= \frac{1}{6} \left[1 + \left(\frac{5}{6} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{5}{6} \right)^4 + \cdots \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - (\frac{5}{6})^2} = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{36}{11} = \frac{6}{11}. \end{aligned}$$

Because he has the advantage of tossing first, Paul has more than the fair probability $\frac{1}{2}$ of getting the first six and thus winning the game. ■

Theorem 3 is often useful in showing that a given series does *not* converge.

Theorem 3 *The nth-Term Test for Divergence*

If either

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$$

or this limit does not exist, then the infinite series $\sum a_n$ diverges.

PROOF We want to show under the stated hypothesis that the series $\sum a_n$ diverges. It suffices to show that if the series $\sum a_n$ does converge, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$. So suppose that $\sum a_n$ converges with sum $S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$, where

$$S_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_n$$

is the n th partial sum of the series. Because $a_n = S_n - S_{n-1}$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S_n - S_{n-1}) = (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n) - (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n-1}) = S - S = 0.$$

Consequently, if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$, then the series $\sum a_n$ diverges. ■

REMARK It is important to remember also the *contrapositive* of the n th-term divergence test: *If the infinite series $\sum a_n$ converges with sum S , then its sequence $\{a_n\}$ of terms converges to 0.* Thus we have two sequences associated with the single infinite series $\sum a_n$: its sequence $\{a_n\}$ of terms and its sequence $\{S_n\}$ of partial sums. And (assuming that the series converges to S) these two sequences have generally different limits:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S.$$

EXAMPLE 9 The series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} n^2 = 1 - 4 + 9 - 16 + 25 - \cdots$$

diverges because $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ does not exist, whereas the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{3n+1} = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{2}{7} + \frac{3}{10} + \frac{4}{13} + \cdots$$

diverges because

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{3n+1} = \frac{1}{3} \neq 0.$$

WARNING The converse of Theorem 3 is *false!* The condition

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$$

is necessary but not sufficient to guarantee convergence of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n.$$

That is, a series may satisfy the condition $a_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and yet diverge. An important example of a divergent series with terms that approach zero is the **harmonic series**

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \cdots. \tag{7}$$

Theorem 4

The harmonic series diverges.

PROOF The n th term of the harmonic series in Eq. (7) is $a_n = 1/n$, and Fig. 11.3.4 shows the graph of the related function $f(x) = 1/x$ on the interval $1 \leq x \leq n+1$. For each integer k , $1 \leq k \leq n$, we have erected on the subinterval $[k, k+1]$ a rectangle with height $f(k) = 1/k$. All of these n rectangles have base length 1, and their respective heights are the successive terms $1, 1/2, 1/3, \dots, 1/n$ of the harmonic series. Hence the sum of their areas is the n th partial sum

$$S_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n}$$

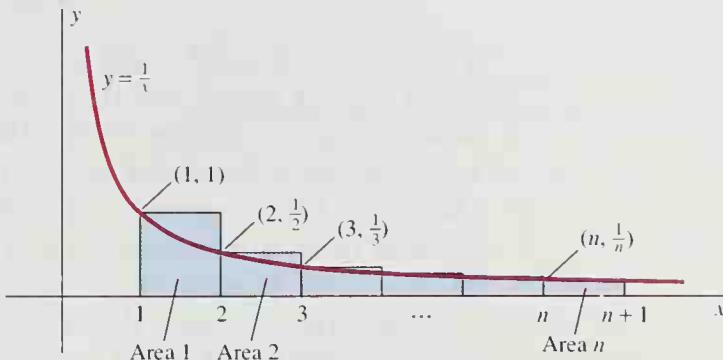


Fig. 11.3.4 Idea of the proof of Theorem 4

of the series. Because these rectangles circumscribe the area under the curve $y = 1/x$ from $x = 1$ to $x = n+1$, we therefore see that S_n must exceed this area. That is,

$$S_n > \int_1^{n+1} \frac{1}{x} dx = \left[\ln x \right]_1^{n+1} = \ln(n+1).$$

But $\ln(n+1)$ takes on arbitrarily large positive values with increasing n . Because $S_n > \ln(n+1)$, it follows that the partial sums of the harmonic series also take on arbitrarily large positive values. Now the terms of the harmonic series are positive, so its sequence of partial sums is increasing. We may therefore conclude that $S_n \rightarrow +\infty$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$, and hence that the harmonic series diverges. ■

If the sequence of partial sums of the series $\sum a_n$ diverges to infinity, then we say that the series **diverges to infinity**, and we write

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \infty.$$

The series $\sum (-1)^{n+1}$ of Example 2 is a series that diverges but does not diverge to infinity. In the nineteenth century it was common to say that such a series was divergent by *oscillation*; today we say merely that it diverges.

Our proof of Theorem 4 shows that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = \infty.$$

But the partial sums of the harmonic series diverge to infinity very slowly. If N_A denotes the smallest integer such that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N_A} \frac{1}{n} \geq A,$$

then with the aid of a programmable calculator you can verify that $N_5 = 83$. With the aid of a computer and refinements of estimates like those in the proof of Theorem 4, one can show that

$$N_{10} = 12367,$$

$$N_{20} = 272,400,600,$$

$$N_{100} \approx 1.5 \times 10^{43}, \text{ and}$$

$$N_{1000} \approx 1.1 \times 10^{434}.$$

Thus you would need to add more than a quarter of a billion terms of the harmonic series to get a partial sum that exceeds 20. At this point each of the next few terms would be approximately $0.00000004 = 4 \times 10^{-9}$. The number of terms you'd have to add to reach 1000 is far greater than the estimated number of elementary particles in the entire universe (10^{80}). If you enjoy such large numbers, see the article "Partial sums of infinite series, and how they grow," by R. P. Boas, Jr., in *American Mathematical Monthly* 84 (1977): 237–248.

Theorem 5 says that if two infinite series have the same terms from some point on, then either both series converge or both series diverge. The proof is left for Problem 63.

Theorem 5 *Series That Are Eventually the Same*

If there exists a positive integer k such that $a_n = b_n$ for all $n > k$, then the series $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ either both converge or both diverge.

It follows that a *finite* number of terms can be changed, deleted from, or adjoined to an infinite series without altering its convergence or divergence (although the *sum* of a convergent series will generally be changed by such alternations). In particular, taking $b_n = 0$ for $n \leq k$ and $b_n = a_n$ for $n > k$, we see that the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_k + a_{k+1} + \cdots$$

and the series

$$\sum_{n=k+1}^{\infty} a_n = a_{k+1} + a_{k+2} + a_{k+3} + a_{k+4} + \cdots$$

that is obtained by deleting its first k terms either both converge or both diverge.

11.3 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 37, determine whether the given infinite series converges or diverges. If it converges, find its sum.

1. $1 + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{9} + \cdots + \frac{1}{3^n} + \cdots$

2. $1 + e^{-1} + e^{-2} + e^{-3} + \cdots + e^{-n} + \cdots$

3. $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \cdots + (2n - 1) + \cdots$

4. $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2}} + \cdots + \frac{1}{\sqrt[n]{2}} + \cdots$

5. $1 - 2 + 4 - 8 + 16 - \cdots + (-2)^n + \cdots$

6. $1 - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{16} - \cdots + \left(-\frac{1}{4}\right)^n + \cdots$

7. $4 + \frac{4}{3} + \frac{4}{9} + \frac{4}{27} + \cdots + \frac{4}{3^n} + \cdots$

8. $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{9} + \frac{4}{27} + \frac{8}{81} + \cdots + \frac{2^{n-1}}{3^n} + \cdots$

9. $1 + (1.01) + (1.01)^2 + (1.01)^3 + \cdots + (1.01)^n + \cdots$

10. $1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{3}} + \cdots + \frac{1}{\sqrt[n]{n}} + \cdots$

11. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{n+1}$

13. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left(\frac{3}{e}\right)^n$

15. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\sqrt{2})^{1-n}$

17. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{10n+17}$

19. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (5^{-n} - 7^{-n})$

21. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{e}{\pi}\right)^n$

23. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{100}{99}\right)^n$

25. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1+2^n+3^n}{5^n}$

27. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{7 \cdot 5^n + 3 \cdot 11^n}{13^n}$

29. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[\left(\frac{7}{11}\right)^n - \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^n\right]$

31. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2-1}{3n^2+1}$

33. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \tan^n 1$

35. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\arctan 1)^n$

37. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \ln n}$ (Suggestion: Mimic the proof of Theorem 4 to show divergence.)

38. Use the method of Example 6 to verify that

- (a) $0.\overline{666666} = \frac{2}{3}$; (b) $0.\overline{11111111} = \frac{1}{9}$;
 (c) $0.\overline{24999999} = \frac{1}{4}$; (d) $0.\overline{99999999} = 1$.

In Problems 39 through 43, find the rational number represented by the given repeating decimal.

39. $0.\overline{47474747} \dots$

40. $0.\overline{25252525} \dots$

41. $0.\overline{123123123} \dots$

42. $0.\overline{337733773377} \dots$

43. $3.\overline{141591415914159} \dots$

In Problems 44 through 49, find the set of all those values of x for which the given series is a convergent geometric series, then express the sum of the series as a function of x .

44. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (2x)^n$

45. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x}{3}\right)^n$

46. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (x-1)^n$

47. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x-2}{3}\right)^n$

48. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x^2}{x^2+1}\right)^n$

49. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{5x^2}{x^2+16}\right)^n$

In Problems 50 through 55, express the n th partial sum of the infinite series as a telescoping sum (as in Example 3) and thereby find the sum of the series if it converges.

50. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4n^2-1}$

51. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{9n^2+3n-2}$

52. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln \frac{n+1}{n}$

53. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{16n^2-8n-3}$

54. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+2)}$

55. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2-1}$

In Problems 56 through 60, use a computer algebra system to find the partial fraction decomposition of the general term, then apply the methods of Problems 50 through 55 to sum the series.

56. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2n+1}{n^2(n+1)^2}$

57. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{6n^2+2n-1}{n(n+1)(4n^2-1)}$

58. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{n(n+1)(n+2)}$

59. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{6}{n(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)}$

60. $\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{6n}{n^4-5n^2+4}$

61. Prove: If $\sum a_n$ diverges and c is a nonzero constant, then $\sum ca_n$ diverges.

62. Suppose that $\sum a_n$ converges and that $\sum b_n$ diverges. Prove that $\sum (a_n + b_n)$ diverges.

63. Let S_n and T_n denote the n th partial sums of $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$, respectively. Suppose that k is a fixed positive integer and that $a_n = b_n$ for all $n \geq k$. Show that $S_n - T_n = S_k - T_k$ for all $n > k$. Hence prove Theorem 5.

64. A ball has *bounce coefficient* $r < 1$ if, when it is dropped from a height h , it bounces back to a height of rh (Fig. 11.3.5). Suppose that such a ball is dropped from the initial height a and subsequently bounces infinitely many times. Use a geometric series to show that the total up-and-down distance it travels in all its bouncing is

$$D = a \cdot \frac{1+r}{1-r}.$$

Note that D is finite.

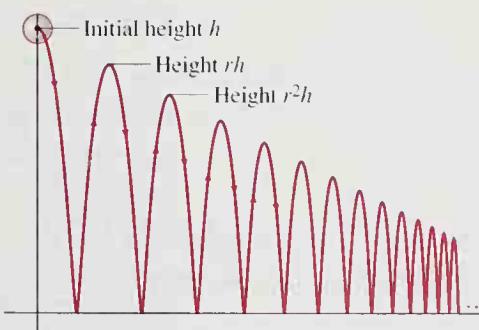


Fig. 11.3.5 Successive bounces of the ball of Problems 64 and 65

65. A ball with bounce coefficient $r = 0.64$ (see Problem 64) is dropped from an initial height of $a = 4$ ft. Use a geometric series to compute the total time required for it to complete its infinitely many bounces. The time required for a ball to drop h feet (from rest) is $\sqrt{2h/g}$ seconds, where $g = 32 \text{ ft/s}^2$.
66. Suppose that the government spends \$1 billion and that each recipient of a fraction of this wealth spends 90% of the dollars that he or she receives. In turn, the secondary recipients spend 90% of the dollars they receive, and so on. How much total spending thereby results from the original injection of \$1 billion into the economy?
67. A tank initially contains a mass M_0 of air. Each stroke of a vacuum pump removes 5% of the air in the container. Compute (a) the mass M_n of air remaining in the tank after n strokes of the pump; (b) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n$.
68. Paul and Mary toss a fair coin in turn until one of them wins the game by getting the first head. Calculate for each the probability that he or she wins the game.
69. Peter, Paul, and Mary toss a fair coin in turn until one of them wins by getting the first head. Calculate for each the probability that he or she wins the game. Check your answer by verifying that the sum of the three probabilities is 1.
70. Peter, Paul, and Mary roll a fair die in turn until one of them wins by getting the first six. Calculate for each the probability that he or she wins the game. Check your answer by verifying that the sum of the three probabilities is 1.

71. A pane of a certain type of glass reflects half the incident light, absorbs one-fourth, and transmits one-fourth. A window is made of two panes of this glass separated by a small space (Fig. 11.3.6). What fraction of the incident light I is transmitted by the double window?

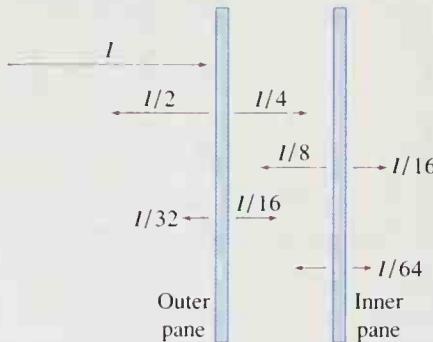


Fig. 11.3.6 The double-pane window of Problem 71

72. Criticize the following evaluation of the sum of an infinite series:

$$\text{Let } x = 1 - 2 + 4 - 8 + 16 - 32 + 64 - \dots$$

$$\text{Then } 2x = 2 - 4 + 8 - 16 + 32 - 64 + \dots$$

Add the equations to obtain $3x = 1$. Thus $x = \frac{1}{3}$, and "therefore"

$$1 - 2 + 4 - 8 + 16 - 32 + 64 - \dots = \frac{1}{3}.$$

11.3 PROJECT: NUMERICAL SUMMATION AND GEOMETRIC SERIES

With a modern calculator, the calculation of a new term of an infinite series and its addition to the preceding partial sum to get the new partial sum is a one-liner. Suppose, for instance, that we want to check numerically the fact that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{5}\right)^n = \frac{5}{4}.$$

First we enter the ratio $R = \frac{1}{5}$, the initial index $N = 0$, and the initial partial sum $S = 0$ of this geometric series:

1/5→R : 0→N : 1→S

If we next type

N+1→N : R^N→T : S+T→S

then each press of the **ENTER** key executes these instructions in order, and thus calculates the next index N , the next term T , and the next partial sum S . Thus just six key presses yield the successive partial sums 1.2000, 1.2400, 1.2480, 1.2496, 1.2499, and 1.2500.

Any computer algebra system includes a sum function that can be used to calculate partial sums directly. If $a(n)$ denotes the n th term of $\sum a_n$, then the typical commands

sum(a(k), k=1..n)
Sum[a[k], {k,1,n}]
sum (seq(a(k), n, 1, k))

Maple
Mathematica
TI-92

calculate the n th partial sum of the infinite series.

INVESTIGATION A Calculate partial sums of the geometric series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n$$

with $r = 0.2, 0.5, 0.75, 0.9$, and 0.99 . For each value of r , calculate the partial sums S_n with $n = 10, 20, 30, \dots$, continuing until two successive results agree to four or five decimal places. (For $r = 0.9$ and 0.99 , you may decide to use $n = 100, 200, 300, \dots$) How does the apparent rate of convergence—as measured by the number of terms required for the desired accuracy—depend on the value of r ?

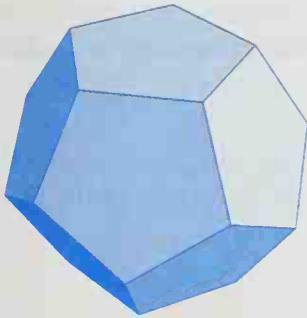


Fig. 11.3.7 The 12-sided dodecahedron

INVESTIGATION B It's said that the ancient (pre-Roman) Etruscans played dice using a dodecahedral die having 12 pentagonal faces numbered 1 through 12 (Fig. 11.3.7). One could simulate such a die by drawing a random card from a deck of 12 cards numbered 1 through 12. Here let's think of a deck having k cards numbered 1 through k . For your own personal value of k , begin with the largest digit in the sum of the digits in your student I.D. number. This is your value of k unless this digit is less than 5, in which case subtract it from 10 to get your value of k .

- (a) John and Mary draw alternately from a shuffled deck of k cards. The first one to draw an ace—the card numbered 1—wins. Assume that John draws first. Use the geometric series sum formula to calculate (both as a rational number and as a four-place decimal) the probability J that John wins, and similarly the probability M that Mary wins. Check that $J + M = 1$.
- (b) Now John, Mary, and Paul draw alternately from the deck of k cards. Calculate separately their respective probabilities of winning, given that John draws first and Mary draws second. Check that $J + M + P = 1$.

11.4 TAYLOR SERIES AND TAYLOR POLYNOMIALS

The infinite series we studied in Section 11.3 have *constant* terms, and the sum of such a series (assuming it converges) is a *number*. In contrast, much of the practical importance of infinite series derives from the fact that many functions have useful representations as infinite series with *variable* terms.

EXAMPLE 1 If we write $r = x$ for the ratio in a geometric series, then Theorem 1 in Section 11.3 gives the infinite series representation

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots \quad (1)$$

of the function $f(x) = 1/(1-x)$. That is, for each fixed number x with $|x| < 1$, the infinite series in Eq. (1) converges to the number $1/(1-x)$. The n th partial sum

$$S_n(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots + x^n \quad (2)$$

of the geometric series in Eq. (1) is now an n th-degree *polynomial* that approximates the function $f(x) = 1/(1-x)$. The convergence of the infinite series for $|x| < 1$ suggests that the approximation

$$\frac{1}{1-x} \approx 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots + x^n \quad (3)$$

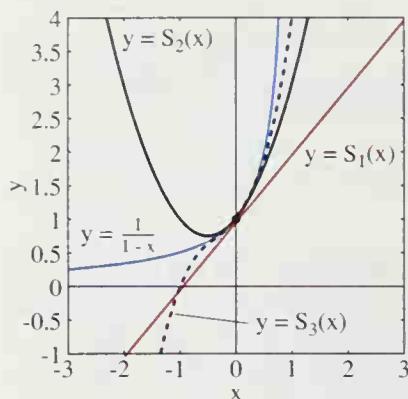


Fig. 11.4.1 The first three polynomials approximating $f(x) = 1/(1-x)$ near $x = 0$.

should then be accurate if n is sufficiently large. Figure 11.4.1 shows the graphs of $1/(1-x)$ and the three approximations $S_1(x)$, $S_2(x)$, and $S_3(x)$. It appears that the approximations are more accurate when n is larger and when x is closer to zero. ■

REMARK The approximation in (3) could be used to calculate numerical quotients with a calculator that has only $+$, $-$, \times keys (but no \div key). For instance,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{329}{73} &= \frac{3.29}{0.73} = 3.29 \times \frac{1}{1-0.27} \\ &\approx (3.29)[1 + (0.27) + (0.27)^2 + \cdots + (0.27)^{10}] \\ &\approx (3.29)(1.36986); \text{ thus} \\ \frac{329}{73} &\approx 4.5068,\end{aligned}$$

accurate to four decimal places. This is a simple illustration of the use of polynomial approximation for numerical computation.

The definitions of the various elementary transcendental functions leave it unclear how to compute their values precisely, except at a few isolated points. For example,

$$\ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt \quad (x > 0)$$

by definition, so obviously $\ln 1 = 0$, but no other value of $\ln x$ is obvious. The natural exponential function is the inverse of $\ln x$, so it is clear that $e^0 = 1$, but it is not at all clear how to compute e^x for $x \neq 0$. Indeed, even such an innocent-looking expression as \sqrt{x} is not computable (precisely and in a finite number of steps) unless x happens to be the square of a rational number.

But *any* value of a polynomial

$$P(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \cdots + c_n x^n$$

with known coefficients $c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$ is easy to calculate—as in the preceding remark, only addition and multiplication are required. One goal of this section is to use the fact that polynomial values are so readily computable to help us calculate approximate values of functions such as $\ln x$ and e^x .

Polynomial Approximations

Suppose that we want to calculate (or, at least, closely approximate) a specific value $f(x_0)$ of a given function f . It would suffice to find a polynomial $P(x)$ with a graph that is very close to that of f on some interval containing x_0 . For then we could use the value $P(x_0)$ as an approximation to the actual value of $f(x_0)$. Once we know how to find such an approximating polynomial $P(x)$, our next question would be how accurately $P(x_0)$ approximates the desired value $f(x_0)$.

The simplest example of polynomial approximation is the linear approximation

$$f(x) \approx f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$$

obtained by writing $\Delta x = x - a$ in the linear approximation formula, Eq. (3) of Section 4.2. The graph of the first-degree polynomial

$$P_1(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) \tag{4}$$

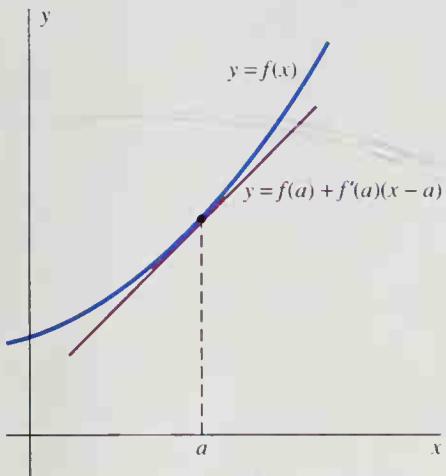


Fig. 11.4.2 The tangent line at $(a, f(a))$ is the best linear approximation to $y = f(x)$ near a .

is the line tangent to the curve $y = f(x)$ at the point $(a, f(a))$; see Fig. 11.4.2. This first-degree polynomial agrees with f and with its first derivative at $x = a$. That is,

$$P_1(a) = f(a) \quad \text{and} \quad P'_1(a) = f'(a).$$

EXAMPLE 2 Suppose that $f(x) = \ln x$ and that $a = 1$. Then $f(1) = 0$ and $f'(1) = 1$, so $P_1(x) = x - 1$. Hence we expect that $\ln x \approx x - 1$ for x near 1. With $x = 1.1$, we find that

$$P_1(1.1) = 0.1000, \quad \text{whereas} \quad \ln(1.1) \approx 0.0953.$$

The error in this approximation is about 5%.

To better approximate $\ln x$ near $x = 1$, let us look for a second-degree polynomial $P_2(x) = c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2$ that has not only the same value and the same first derivative as does f at $x = 1$, but also has the same second derivative there: $P''_2(1) = f''(1) = -1$. To satisfy these conditions, we must have

$$P_2(1) = c_2 + c_1 + c_0 = 0,$$

$$P'_2(1) = 2c_2 + c_1 = 1, \quad \text{and}$$

$$P''_2(1) = 2c_2 = -1.$$

When we solve these equations, we find that $c_0 = -\frac{3}{2}$, $c_1 = 2$, and $c_2 = -\frac{1}{2}$, so

$$P_2(x) = -\frac{1}{2}x^2 + 2x - \frac{3}{2}.$$

With $x = 1.1$, we find that $P_2(1.1) = 0.0950$, which is accurate to three decimal places because $\ln(1.1) \approx 0.0953$. The graph of $y = P_2(x) = -\frac{1}{2}x^2 + 2x - \frac{3}{2}$ is a parabola through $(1, 0)$ with the same value, slope, and curvature there as $y = \ln x$ (Fig. 11.4.3). ■

The tangent line and the parabola used in the computations of Example 2 illustrate one general approach to polynomial approximation. To approximate the function $f(x)$ near $x = a$, we look for an n th-degree polynomial

$$P_n(x) = c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + \cdots + c_nx^n$$

such that its value at a and the value of its first n derivatives at a agree with the corresponding values of f . That is, we require that

$$P_n(a) = f(a),$$

$$P'_n(a) = f'(a),$$

$$P''_n(a) = f''(a),$$

$$\vdots$$

$$P_n^{(n)}(a) = f^{(n)}(a).$$

We can use these $n + 1$ conditions to evaluate the values of the $n + 1$ coefficients $c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$.

The algebra involved is much simpler, however, if we begin with $P_n(x)$ expressed as an n th-degree polynomial in powers of $x - a$ rather than in powers of x :

$$P_n(x) = c_0 + c_1(x - a) + c_2(x - a)^2 + \cdots + c_n(x - a)^n. \quad (6)$$

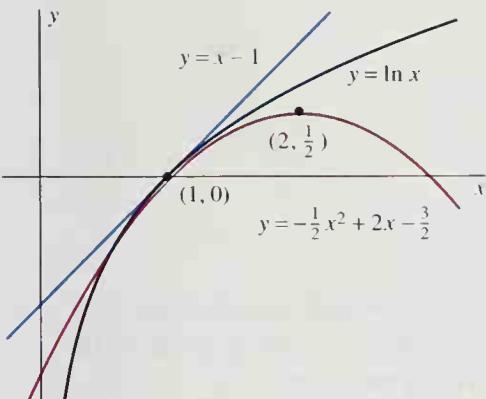


Fig. 11.4.3 The linear and parabolic approximations to $y = \ln x$ near the point $(1, 0)$ (Example 2)

Then substitution of $x = a$ into Eq. (3) yields

$$c_0 = P_n(a) = f(a)$$

by the first condition in Eq. (5). Substitution of $x = a$ into

$$P'_n(x) = c_1 + 2c_2(x - a) + 3c_3(x - a)^2 + \cdots + nc_n(x - a)^{n-1}$$

yields

$$c_1 = P'_n(a) = f'(a)$$

by the second condition in Eq. (5). Next, substitution of $x = a$ into

$$P''_n(x) = 2c_2 + 3 \cdot 2c_3(x - a) + \cdots + n(n - 1)c_n(x - a)^{n-2}$$

yields $2c_2 = P''_n(a) = f''(a)$, so

$$c_2 = \frac{1}{2} f''(a).$$

We continue this process to find c_3, c_4, \dots, c_n . In general, the constant term in the k th derivative $P_n^{(k)}(x)$ is $k!c_k$, because it is the k th derivative of the k th-degree term $c_k(x - a)^k$ in $P_n(x)$:

$$P_n^{(k)}(x) = k!c_k + \{\text{powers of } x - a\}.$$

[Recall that $k! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots (k - 1) \cdot k$ denotes the *factorial* of the positive integer k , read “ k factorial.”] So when we substitute $x = a$ into $P_n^{(k)}(x)$, we find that

$$k!c_k = P_n^{(k)}(a) = f^{(k)}(a)$$

and thus that

$$c_k = \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} \quad (7)$$

for $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$.

Indeed, Eq. (7) holds also for $k = 0$ if we use the universal convention that $0! = 1$ and agree that the zeroth derivative $g^{(0)}$ of the function g is just g itself. With such conventions, our computations establish the following theorem.

Theorem 1 *The nth-Degree Taylor Polynomial*

Suppose that the first n derivatives of the function $f(x)$ exist at $x = a$. Let $P_n(x)$ be the n th-degree polynomial

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x - a)^k \\ &= f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x - a)^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Then the values of $P_n(x)$ and its first n derivatives agree, at $x = a$, with the values of f and its first n derivatives there. That is, the equations in (5) all hold.

The polynomial in Eq. (8) is called the ***n*th-degree Taylor polynomial of the function f at the point $x = a$** . Note that $P_n(x)$ is a polynomial in powers of $x - a$ rather than in powers of x . To use $P_n(x)$ effectively for the approximation of $f(x)$ near a , we must be able to compute the value $f(a)$ and the values of its derivatives $f'(a), f''(a)$, and so on, all the way to $f^{(n)}(a)$.

The line $y = P_1(x)$ is simply the line tangent to the curve $y = f(x)$ at the point $(a, f(a))$. Thus $y = f(x)$ and $y = P_1(x)$ have the same slope at this point. Now recall from Section 4.6 that the second derivative measures the way the curve $y = f(x)$ is bending as it passes through $(a, f(a))$. Therefore let us call $f''(a)$ the “concavity” of $y = f(x)$ at $(a, f(a))$. Then, because $P_2''(a) = f''(a)$, it follows that $y = P_2(x)$ has the same value, the same slope, and the same concavity at $(a, f(a))$ as does $y = f(x)$. Moreover, $P_3(x)$ and $f(x)$ will also have the same rate of change of concavity at $(a, f(a))$. Such observations suggest that the larger n is, the more closely the n th-degree Taylor polynomial will approximate $f(x)$ for x near a .

EXAMPLE 3 Find the n th-degree Taylor polynomial of $f(x) = \ln x$ at $a = 1$.

Solution The first few derivatives of $f(x) = \ln x$ are

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}, \quad f''(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2}, \quad f^{(3)}(x) = \frac{2}{x^3}, \quad f^{(4)}(x) = -\frac{3!}{x^4}, \quad f^{(5)}(x) = \frac{4!}{x^5}.$$

The pattern is clear:

$$f^{(k)}(x) = (-1)^{k-1} \frac{(k-1)!}{x^k} \quad \text{for } k \geq 1.$$

Hence $f^{(k)}(1) = (-1)^{k-1}(k-1)!$, so Eq. (8) gives

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) &= (x-1) - \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{3}(x-1)^3 \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{4}(x-1)^4 + \cdots + \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n}(x-1)^n. \end{aligned}$$

With $n = 2$, we obtain the quadratic polynomial

$$P_2(x) = (x-1) - \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^2 = -\frac{1}{2}x^2 + 2x - \frac{3}{2},$$

the same as in Example 2. With the third-degree Taylor polynomial

$$P_3(x) = (x-1) - \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{3}(x-1)^3,$$

we can go one step further in approximating $\ln(1.1) = 0.095310\dots \approx 0.0953$. The value

$$P_3(1.1) = (0.1) - \frac{1}{2}(0.1)^2 + \frac{1}{3}(0.1)^3 \approx 0.095333 \approx 0.0953$$

is accurate to four decimal places (rounded). In Fig. 11.4.4 we see that, the higher the degree and the closer x is to 1, the more accurate the approximation $\ln x \approx P_n(x)$ appears to be. ■

In the common case $a = 0$, the n th-degree Taylor polynomial in Eq. (8) reduces to

$$P_n(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n. \quad (9)$$

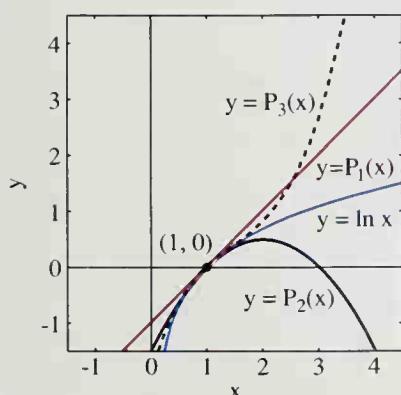


Fig. 11.4.4 The first three Taylor polynomials approximating $f(x) = \ln x$ near $x = 1$

EXAMPLE 4 Find the n th-degree Taylor polynomial for $f(x) = e^x$ at $a = 0$.

Solution This is the easiest of all Taylor polynomials to compute, because $f^{(k)}(x) = e^x$ for all $k \geq 0$. Hence $f^{(k)}(0) = 1$ for all $k \geq 0$, so Eq. (9) yields

$$P_n(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{n!}.$$

The first few Taylor polynomials of the natural exponential function at $a = 0$ are therefore

$$P_0(x) = 1,$$

$$P_1(x) = 1 + x,$$

$$P_2(x) = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2,$$

$$P_3(x) = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3,$$

$$P_4(x) = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{24}x^4,$$

$$P_5(x) = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{24}x^4 + \frac{1}{120}x^5.$$

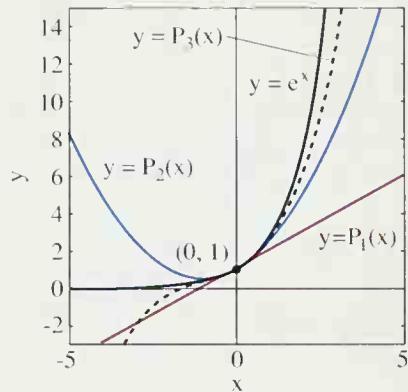


Fig. 11.4.5 The first three Taylor polynomials approximating $f(x) = e^x$ near $x = 0$

Figure 11.4.5 shows the graphs of $P_1(x)$, $P_2(x)$, and $P_3(x)$. The table in Fig. 11.4.6 shows how these polynomials approximate $f(x) = e^x$ for $x = 0.1$ and for $x = 0.5$. At least for these two values of x , the closer x is to $a = 0$, the more rapidly $P_n(x)$ appears to approach $f(x)$ as n increases.

$x = 0.1$			
n	$P_n(x)$	e^x	$e^x - P_n(x)$
0	1.00000	1.10517	0.10517
1	1.10000	1.10517	0.00517
2	1.10500	1.10517	0.00017
3	1.10517	1.10517	0.00000
4	1.10517	1.10517	0.00000

$x = 0.5$			
n	$P_n(x)$	e^x	$e^x - P_n(x)$
0	1.00000	1.64872	0.64872
1	1.50000	1.64872	0.14872
2	1.62500	1.64872	0.02372
3	1.64583	1.64872	0.00289
4	1.64844	1.64872	0.00028
5	1.64879	1.64872	0.00002

Fig. 11.4.6 Approximating $y = e^x$ with Taylor polynomials at $a = 0$

Taylor's Formula

The closeness with which the polynomial $P_n(x)$ approximates the function $f(x)$ is measured by the difference

$$R_n(x) = f(x) - P_n(x),$$

for which

$$f(x) = P_n(x) + R_n(x). \quad (10)$$

This difference $R_n(x)$ is called the **n th-degree remainder for $f(x)$ at $x = a$** . It is the *error* made if the value $f(x)$ is replaced with the approximation $P_n(x)$.

The theorem that lets us estimate the error, or remainder, $R_n(x)$ is called **Taylor's formula**, after Brook Taylor (1685–1731), a follower of Newton who introduced Taylor polynomials in an article published in 1715. The particular expression for $R_n(x)$ that we give next is called the *Lagrange form* for the remainder because it first appeared in 1797 in a book written by the French mathematician Joseph Louis Lagrange (1736–1813).

Theorem 2 *Taylor's Formula*

Suppose that the $(n + 1)$ th derivative of the function f exists on an interval containing the points a and b . Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(b) &= f(a) + f'(a)(b - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(b - a)^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(b - a)^3 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(b - a)^n \\ &\quad + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!}(b - a)^{n+1} \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

for some number z between a and b .

REMARK With $n = 0$, Eq. (11) reduces to the equation

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(z)(b - a),$$

the conclusion of the mean value theorem (Section 4.3). Thus Taylor's formula is a far-reaching generalization of the mean value theorem of differential calculus.

A proof of Taylor's formula is given in Appendix J. If we replace b with x in Eq. (11), we get the **n th-degree Taylor formula with remainder at $x = a$** ,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(x - a)^3 \\ &\quad + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x - a)^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!}(x - a)^{n+1}, \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

where z is some number between a and x . Thus the n th-degree remainder term is

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!}(x - a)^{n+1}, \quad (13)$$

which is easy to remember—it's the same as the *last* term of $P_{n+1}(x)$, except that $f^{(n+1)}(a)$ is replaced with $f^{(n+1)}(z)$.

EXAMPLE 3 (continued) To estimate the accuracy of the approximation

$$\ln 1.1 \approx 0.095333,$$

we substitute $x = 1$ into the formula

$$f^{(k)}(x) = (-1)^{k-1} \frac{(k-1)!}{x^k}$$

for the k th derivative of $f(x) = \ln x$ and get

$$f^{(k)}(1) = (-1)^{k-1}(k-1)!.$$

Hence the third-degree Taylor formula *with remainder* at $x = 1$ is

$$\ln x = (x-1) - \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{3}(x-1)^3 - \frac{3!}{4!z^4}(x-1)^4$$

with z between $a = 1$ and x . With $x = 1.1$, this gives

$$\ln(1.1) \approx 0.095333 - \frac{(0.1)^4}{4z^4},$$

where $1 < z < 1.1$. The value $z = 1$ gives the largest possible magnitude $(0.1)^4/4 = 0.000025$ of the remainder term. It follows that

$$0.0953083 < \ln(1.1) < 0.0953334,$$

so we can conclude that $\ln(1.1) = 0.0953$ to four-place accuracy. ■

Taylor Series

If the function f has derivatives of all orders, then we can write Taylor's formula [Eq. (11)] with any degree n that we please. Ordinarily, the exact value of z in the Taylor remainder term in Eq. (13) is unknown. Nevertheless, we can sometimes use Eq. (13) to show that the remainder approaches zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = 0 \tag{14}$$

for some particular *fixed* value of x . Then Eq. (10) gives

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [P_n(x) + R_n(x)] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k;$$

that is,

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k. \tag{15}$$

The infinite series

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n &= f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 \\ &\quad + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n + \cdots \end{aligned} \tag{16}$$

is called the **Taylor series** of the function f at $x = a$. Its partial sums are the successive Taylor polynomials of f at $x = a$.

We can write the Taylor series of a function f without knowing that it converges. But if the limit in Eq. (14) can be established, then it follows as in Eq. (15) that the Taylor series in Eq. (16) actually converges to $f(x)$. If so, then we can approximate the value of $f(x)$ accurately by calculating the value of a Taylor polynomial of f of sufficiently high degree.

EXAMPLE 5 In Example 4 we noted that if $f(x) = e^x$, then $f^{(k)}(x) = e^x$ for all integers $k \geq 0$. Hence the Taylor formula

$$f(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!}x^{n+1}$$

at $a = 0$ gives

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \frac{e^z x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \quad (17)$$

for some z between 0 and x . Thus the remainder term $R_n(x)$ satisfies the inequalities

$$0 < |R_n(x)| < \frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \quad \text{if } x < 0,$$

$$0 < |R_n(x)| < \frac{e^x x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \quad \text{if } x > 0.$$

Therefore, the fact that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0 \quad (18)$$

for all x (see Problem 55) implies that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = 0$ for all x . This means that the Taylor series for e^x converges to e^x for all x , and we may write

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \cdots \quad (19)$$

The series in Eq. (19) is the most famous and most important of all Taylor series.

With $x = 1$, Eq. (19) yields a numerical series

$$e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \cdots \quad (20)$$

for the number e itself. The 10th and 20th partial sums of this series give the approximations

$$e \approx 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \cdots + \frac{1}{10!} \approx 2.7182818$$

and

$$e \approx 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \cdots + \frac{1}{20!} \approx 2.718281828459045235,$$

both of which are accurate to the number of decimal places shown.

EXAMPLE 6 To find the Taylor series at $a = 0$ for $f(x) = \cos x$, we first calculate the derivatives

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \cos x, & f'(x) &= -\sin x, \\ f''(x) &= -\cos x, & f^{(3)}(x) &= \sin x, \\ f^{(4)}(x) &= \cos x, & f^{(5)}(x) &= -\sin x, \\ &\vdots & &\vdots \\ f^{(2n)}(x) &= (-1)^n \cos x, & f^{(2n+1)}(x) &= (-1)^{n+1} \sin x. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$f^{(2n)}(0) = (-1)^n \quad \text{but} \quad f^{(2n+1)}(0) = 0,$$

so the Taylor polynomials and Taylor series of $f(x) = \cos x$ include only terms of even degree. The Taylor formula of degree $2n$ for $\cos x$ at $a = 0$ is

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} + (-1)^{n+1} \frac{\cos z}{(2n+2)!} x^{2n+2},$$

where z is between 0 and x . Because $|\cos z| \leq 1$ for all z , it follows from Eq. (18) that the remainder term approaches zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for all x . Hence the desired Taylor series of $f(x) = \cos x$ at $a = 0$ converges to $\cos x$ for all x , so we may write

$$\cos x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots. \quad (21)$$

In Problem 41 we ask you to show similarly that the Taylor series at $a = 0$ of $f(x) = \sin x$ is

$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots. \quad (22)$$

Figures 11.4.7 and 11.4.8 illustrate the increasingly better approximations to $\cos x$ and $\sin x$ that we get by using more and more terms of the series in Eqs. (21) and (22).

The case $a = 0$ of Taylor's series is called the **Maclaurin series** of the function $f(x)$.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = f(0) + f'(0) \cdot x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!} x^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(0)}{3!} x^3 + \cdots. \quad (23)$$

Colin Maclaurin (1698–1746) was a Scottish mathematician who used this series as a basic tool in a calculus book he published in 1742. The three Maclaurin series

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \cdots. \quad (19)$$

$$\cos x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots, \quad \text{and} \quad (21)$$

$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots \quad (22)$$

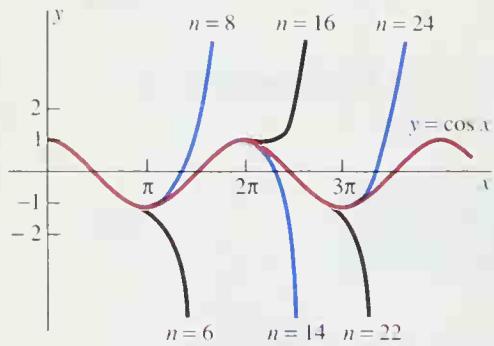


Fig. 11.4.7 Approximating $\cos x$ with n th-degree Taylor polynomials

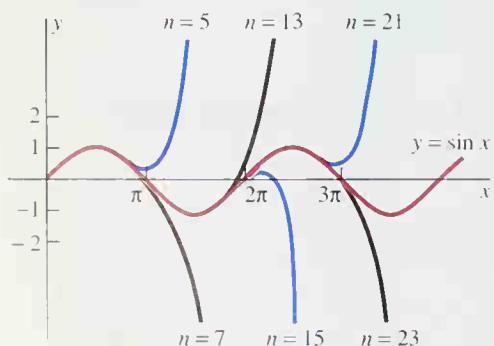


Fig. 11.4.8 Approximating $\sin x$ with n th-degree Taylor polynomials

(which actually were discovered by Newton) bear careful examination and comparison. Observe that

- ▼ The terms in the *even* cosine series are the *even-degree* terms in the exponential series but with alternating signs.
- ▼ The terms in the *odd* sine series are the *odd-degree* terms in the exponential series but with alternating signs.

These series are *identities* that hold for all values of x . Consequently, new series can be derived by substitution, as in Examples 7 and 8.

EXAMPLE 7 The substitution of $x = -t^2$ into Eq. (19) yields

$$e^{-t^2} = 1 - t^2 + \frac{t^4}{2!} - \frac{t^6}{3!} + \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{t^{2n}}{n!} + \cdots. \quad \blacksquare$$

EXAMPLE 8 The substitution of $x = 2t$ into Eq. (22) gives

$$\sin 2t = 2t - \frac{4}{3}t^3 + \frac{4}{15}t^5 - \frac{8}{315}t^7 + \cdots. \quad \blacksquare$$

*The Number π

In Section 5.3 we described how Archimedes used polygons inscribed in and circumscribed about the unit circle to show that $3\frac{10}{71} < \pi < 3\frac{1}{7}$. With the aid of electronic computers, π has been calculated to well over a *billion* decimal places. We describe now some of the methods that have been used for such computations. [For a chronicle of humanity's perennial fascination with the number π , see Peter Beckmann, *A History of π* (New York: St. Martin's Press), 1971.]

We begin with the elementary algebraic identity

$$\frac{1}{1+x} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \cdots + (-1)^{k-1}x^{k-1} + \frac{(-1)^k x^k}{1+x}, \quad (24)$$

which can be verified by multiplying both sides by $1+x$. We substitute t^2 for x and $n+1$ for k and thus find that

$$\frac{1}{1+t^2} = 1 - t^2 + t^4 - t^6 + \cdots + (-1)^n t^{2n} + \frac{(-1)^{n+1} t^{2n+2}}{1+t^2}.$$

Because $D_t \tan^{-1} t = 1/(1+t^2)$, integration of both sides of this last equation from $t=0$ to $t=x$ gives

$$\tan^{-1} x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} + R_{2n+1}, \quad (25)$$

where

$$|R_{2n+1}| = \left| \int_0^x \frac{t^{2n+2}}{1+t^2} dt \right| \leq \left| \int_0^x t^{2n+2} dt \right| = \frac{|x|^{2n+3}}{2n+3}. \quad (26)$$

This estimate of the error makes it clear that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0$$

if $|x| \leq 1$. Hence we obtain the Taylor series for the inverse tangent function:

$$\tan^{-1}x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \dots, \quad (27)$$

valid for $-1 \leq x \leq 1$.

If we substitute $x = 1$ into Eq. (27), we obtain *Leibniz's series*

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \dots.$$

Although this is a beautiful series, it is not an effective way to compute π . But the error estimate in Eq. (26) shows that we can use Eq. (25) to calculate $\tan^{-1}x$ if $|x|$ is small. For example, if $x = \frac{1}{3}$, then the fact that

$$\frac{1}{9 \cdot 5^9} \approx 0.000000057 < 0.0000001$$

implies that the approximation

$$\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \approx \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^3 + \frac{1}{5}\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^5 - \frac{1}{7}\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^7 \approx 0.197396$$

is accurate to six decimal places.

Accurate inverse tangent calculations lead to accurate computations of the number π . For example, we can use the addition formula for the tangent function to show (Problem 52) that

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 4 \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{5}\right) - \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{239}\right). \quad (28)$$

Historical Note In 1706, John Machin (?–1751) used Eq. (28) to calculate the first 100 decimal places of π . (In Problem 54 we ask you to use it to show that $\pi = 3.14159$ to five decimal places.) In 1844 the lightning-fast mental calculator Zacharias Dase (1824–1861) of Germany computed the first 200 decimal places of π , using the related formula

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{5}\right) + \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{8}\right). \quad (29)$$

You might enjoy verifying this formula (see Problem 53). A recent computation of 1 million decimal places of π used the formula

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 12 \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{18}\right) + 8 \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{57}\right) - 5 \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{239}\right).$$

For derivations of this formula and others like it, with further discussion of the computations of the number π , see the article “An algorithm for the calculation of π ” by George Miel in the *American Mathematical Monthly* **86** (1979), pp. 694–697. Although no practical application is ever likely to require more than ten or twelve decimal places of π , these computations provide dramatic evidence of the power of Taylor’s formula. Moreover, the number π continues to serve as a challenge both to human ingenuity and to the accuracy and efficiency of modern electronic computers. For an account of how investigations of the Indian mathematical genius Srinivasa Ramanujan (1887–1920) have led recently to the computation of over a billion decimal places of π , see the article “Ramanujan and pi,” Jonathan M. Borwein and Peter B. Borwein, *Scientific American* (Feb. 1988), pp. 112–117.

11.4 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 10, find Taylor's formula for the given function f at $a = 0$. Find both the Taylor polynomial $P_n(x)$ of the indicated degree n and the remainder term $R_n(x)$.

1. $f(x) = e^{-x}, n = 5$

2. $f(x) = \sin x, n = 4$

3. $f(x) = \cos x, n = 4$

4. $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}, n = 4$

5. $f(x) = \sqrt{1+x}, n = 3$

6. $f(x) = \ln(1+x), n = 4$

7. $f(x) = \tan x, n = 3$

8. $f(x) = \arctan x, n = 2$

9. $f(x) = \sin^{-1} x, n = 2$

10. $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 5x - 7, n = 4$

In Problems 11 through 20, find the Taylor polynomial with remainder by using the given values of a and n .

11. $f(x) = e^x; a = 1, n = 4$

12. $f(x) = \cos x; a = \pi/4, n = 3$

13. $f(x) = \sin x; a = \pi/6, n = 3$

14. $f(x) = \sqrt{x}; a = 100, n = 3$

15. $f(x) = \frac{1}{(x-4)^2}; a = 5, n = 5$

16. $f(x) = \tan x; a = \pi, n = 4$

17. $f(x) = \cos x; a = \pi, n = 4$

18. $f(x) = \sin x; a = \pi/2, n = 4$

19. $f(x) = x^{3/2}; a = 1, n = 4$

20. $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x}}; a = 0, n = 4$

In Problems 21 through 28, find the Maclaurin series of the given function f by substitution in one of the known series in Eqs. (19), (21), and (22).

21. $f(x) = e^{-x}$

22. $f(x) = e^{2x}$

23. $f(x) = e^{-3x}$

24. $f(x) = \exp(x^3)$

25. $f(x) = \sin 2x$

26. $f(x) = \sin \frac{x}{2}$

27. $f(x) = \sin x^2$

28. $f(x) = \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x)$

In Problems 29 through 40, find the Taylor series [Eq. (16)] of the given function at the indicated point a .

29. $f(x) = \ln(1+x), a = 0$

30. $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}, a = 0$

31. $f(x) = e^{-x}, a = 0$

32. $f(x) = \sin x, a = \pi/2$

33. $f(x) = \ln x, a = 1$

34. $f(x) = e^{2x}, a = 0$

35. $f(x) = \cos x, a = \pi/4$

36. $f(x) = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2}, a = 0$

37. $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}, a = 1$

38. $f(x) = \cos x, a = \pi/2$

39. $f(x) = \sin x, a = \pi/4$

40. $f(x) = \sqrt{1+x}, a = 0$

41. Derive, as in Example 5, the Taylor series in Eq. (22) of $f(x) = \sin x$ at $a = 0$.

42. Granted that it is valid to differentiate the sine and cosine Taylor series in a term-by-term manner, use these series to verify that $D_x \cos x = -\sin x$ and $D_x \sin x = \cos x$.

43. Use the differentiation formulas $D_x \sinh x = \cosh x$ and $D_x \cosh x = \sinh x$ to derive the Maclaurin series

$$\cosh x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} \quad \text{and} \quad \sinh x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

for the hyperbolic sine and cosine functions. What is their relationship to the Maclaurin series of the ordinary sine and cosine functions?

44. Derive the Maclaurin series stated in Problem 43 by substituting the known Maclaurin series for the exponential function in the definitions

$$\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$$

of the hyperbolic functions.

The sum commands listed for several computer algebra systems in the Section 11.3 Project can be used to calculate Taylor polynomials efficiently. For instance, when the TI graphing calculator definitions

```
Y1 = sin(X)
Y2 = sum(seq((-1)^(N-1)*X^(2N-1)/(2N-1)!, N, 1, 7))
```

are graphed, the result is Fig. 11.4.9, showing that the 13th-degree Taylor polynomial $P_{13}(x)$ approximates $\sin x$ rather closely if $-3\pi/2 < x < 3\pi/2$ but not outside this range. By plotting several successive Taylor polynomials of a function $f(x)$ simultaneously, we can get a visual sense of the way in

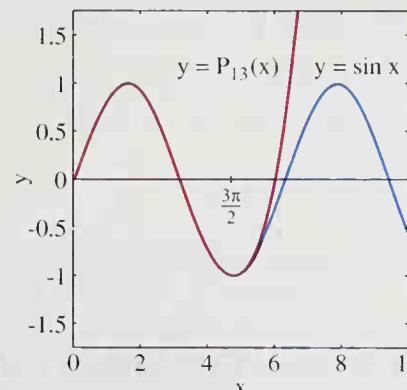


Fig. 11.4.9 Graphs of $\sin x$ and its 13th-degree Taylor polynomial $P_{13}(x)$

which they approximate the function. Do this for each function given in Problems 45 through 50.

45. $f(x) = e^{-x}$

46. $f(x) = \sin x$

47. $f(x) = \cos x$

48. $f(x) = \ln(1 + x)$

49. $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}$

50. $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$

51. Let the function

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n)!} x^{2n} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$$

be defined by replacing x with \sqrt{x} in the Maclaurin series for $\cos x$. Plot partial sums of this series to verify graphically that $f(x)$ agrees with the function $g(x)$ defined by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \cos \sqrt{x} & \text{if } x \geq 0, \\ \cosh \sqrt{|x|} & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

52. Beginning with $\alpha = \tan^{-1}(\frac{1}{2})$, use the addition formula

$$\tan(A + B) = \frac{\tan A + \tan B}{1 - \tan A \tan B}$$

to show in turn that (a) $\tan 2\alpha = \frac{5}{12}$; (b) $\tan 4\alpha = \frac{120}{119}$; (c) $\tan(\pi/4 - 4\alpha) = \frac{1}{239}$. Finally, show that part (c) implies Eq. (28).

53. Apply the addition formula for the tangent function to verify Eq. (29).

54. Every young person deserves the thrill, just once, of calculating personally the first several decimal places of the number π . The seemingly random nature of this decimal expansion demands an explanation; how, indeed, are the digits 3.141592653589793 ... determined? For a partial answer, set your calculator to display nine decimal places. Then add enough terms of the arctangent series in Eq. (27) with $x = \frac{1}{3}$ to calculate $\arctan(\frac{1}{3})$ accurate to nine places. Next, calculate the value of $\arctan(\frac{1}{239})$ similarly. Finally, substitute these numerical results in Eq. (28) and solve for π . How many accurate decimal places do you get?

55. Prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0$$

if x is a real number. (Suggestion: Choose an integer k such that $k > |2x|$, and let $L = |x|^k/k!$. Then show that

$$\frac{|x|^n}{n!} < \frac{L}{2^{n-k}}$$

if $n > k$.)

56. Suppose that $0 < x \leq 1$. Integrate both sides of the identity

$$\frac{1}{1+t} = 1 - t + t^2 - t^3 + \dots + (-1)^n t^n + \frac{(-1)^{n+1} t^{n+1}}{1+t}$$

from $t = 0$ to $t = x$ to show that

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + R_n,$$

where $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0$. Hence conclude that

$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^n}{n}$$

if $0 \leq x \leq 1$.

57. Criticize the following “proof” that $2 = 1$. Substitution of $x = 1$ into the result in Problem 56 yields the fact that

$$\ln 2 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots$$

If

$$S = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots,$$

then

$$\ln 2 = S - 2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots \right) = S - S = 0.$$

$$\text{Hence } 2 = e^{\ln 2} = e^0 = 1.$$

58. Deduce from the result of Problem 56 first that

$$\ln(1-x) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n} = -x - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots$$

and then that

$$\ln \frac{1+x}{1-x} = \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{2x^n}{n} = 2 \left(x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} + \dots \right)$$

if $0 \leq x \leq 1$.

59. Approximate the number $\ln 2 \approx 0.69315$ first by substituting $x = 1$ in the Maclaurin series of Problem 56, and then by substituting $x = \frac{1}{3}$ (Why?) in the second series of Problem 58. Which approach appears to require the fewest terms to yield the value of $\ln 2$ accurate to a given number of decimal places?

11.4 PROJECT: CALCULATING LOGARITHMS ON A DESERTED ISLAND

You are stranded for life on a desert island with only a very basic calculator that does not calculate natural logarithms. So to get modern science going on this miserable

island, you need to use the Problem 58 infinite series for $\ln[(1+x)/(1-x)]$ to produce a simple table of logarithms (with five-place accuracy, say), giving $\ln x$ at least for the integers $x = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 9$, and 10.

The most direct way might be to use the series for $\ln[(1+x)/(1-x)]$ to calculate first $\ln 2$, $\ln 3$, $\ln 5$, and $\ln 7$. Then use the law of logarithms $\ln xy = \ln x + \ln y$ to fill in the other entries in the table by simple addition of logarithms already computed. Unfortunately, larger values of x result in series that are more slowly convergent. So you could save yourself time and work by exercising some ingenuity: Calculate from scratch some four *other* logarithms from which you can build up the rest. For example, if you know $\ln 2$ and $\ln 1.25$, then $\ln 10 = \ln 1.25 + 3 \ln 2$. (Why?) Be as ingenious as you wish. Can you complete your table of ten logarithms by initially calculating directly (using the series) fewer than four logarithms?

For a finale, calculate somehow (from scratch, and accurate to five rounded decimal places) the natural logarithm $\ln(pq.rs)$, where p, q, r , and s denote the last four *nonzero* digits in your student I.D. number.

11.5 THE INTEGRAL TEST

A Taylor series (as in Section 11.4) is a special type of infinite series with *variable* terms. We saw that Taylor's formula can sometimes be used—as in the case of the exponential, sine, and cosine series—to establish the convergence of such a series.

But given an infinite series $\sum a_n$ with *constant* terms, it is the exception rather than the rule when a simple formula for the n th partial sum of that series can be found and used directly to determine whether the series converges or diverges. There are, however, several *convergence tests* that use the *terms* of an infinite series rather than its partial sums. Such a test, when successful, will tell us whether the series converges. Once we know that the series $\sum a_n$ does converge, it is then a separate matter to find its sum S . It may be necessary to approximate S by adding sufficiently many terms; in this case we shall need to know how many terms are required for the desired accuracy.

Here and in Section 11.6, we concentrate our attention on **positive-term series**—that is, series with terms that are all positive. If $a_n > 0$ for all n , then

$$S_1 < S_2 < S_3 < \cdots < S_n < \cdots,$$

so the sequence $\{S_n\}$ of partial sums of the series is increasing. Hence there are just two possibilities. If the sequence $\{S_n\}$ is *bounded*—there exists a number M such that $S_n < M$ for all n —then the bounded monotonic sequence property (Section 11.2) implies that $S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$ exists, so the series $\sum a_n$ *converges*. Otherwise, it diverges to infinity (by Problem 52 in Section 11.2).

A similar alternative holds for improper integrals. Suppose that the function f is continuous and positive-valued for $x \geq 1$. Then it follows (from Problem 51) that the improper integral

$$\int_1^\infty f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b f(x) dx \quad (1)$$

either converges (the limit is a real number) or diverges to infinity (the limit is $+\infty$). This analogy between positive-term series and improper integrals of positive functions is the key to the **integral test**. We compare the behavior of the series $\sum a_n$ with that of the improper integral in Eq. (1), where f is an appropriately chosen function. [Among other things, we require that $f(n) = a_n$ for all n .]

Theorem 1 The Integral Test

Suppose that $\sum a_n$ is a positive-term series and that f is a positive-valued, decreasing, continuous function for $x \geq 1$. If $f(n) = a_n$ for all integers $n \geq 1$, then the series and the improper integral

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \quad \text{and} \quad \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

either both converge or both diverge.

PROOF Because f is a decreasing function, the rectangular polygon with area

$$S_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_n$$

shown in Fig. 11.5.1 contains the region under $y = f(x)$ from $x = 1$ to $x = n + 1$. Hence

$$\int_1^{n+1} f(x) dx \leq S_n. \quad (2)$$

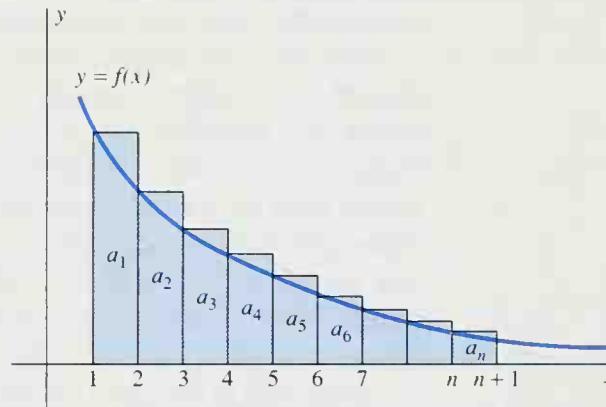


Fig. 11.5.1 Underestimating the partial sums with an integral

Similarly, the rectangular polygon with area

$$S_n - a_1 = a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + \cdots + a_n$$

shown in Fig. 11.5.2 is contained in the region under $y = f(x)$ from $x = 1$ to $x = n$. Hence

$$S_n - a_1 \leq \int_1^n f(x) dx. \quad (3)$$

Suppose first that the improper integral $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ diverges (necessarily to $+\infty$). Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^{n+1} f(x) dx = +\infty,$$

so it follows from (2) that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = +\infty$ as well, and hence the infinite series $\sum a_n$ likewise diverges.

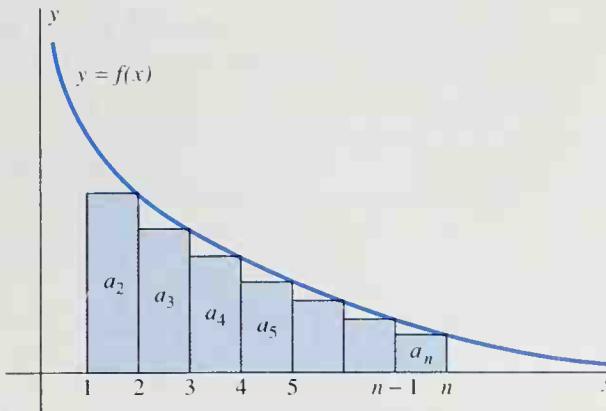


Fig. 11.5.2 Overestimating the partial sums with an integral

Now suppose instead that the improper integral $\int_1^\infty f(x) dx$ converges and has the (finite) value I . Then (3) implies that

$$S_n \leq a_1 + \int_1^n f(x) dx \leq a_1 + I,$$

so the increasing sequence $\{S_n\}$ is bounded. Thus the infinite series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$$

converges as well. Hence we have shown that the infinite series and the improper integral either both converge or both diverge. ■

EXAMPLE 1 We used a version of the integral test to prove in Section 11.3 that the harmonic series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots$$

diverges. Using the test as stated in Theorem 1 is a little simpler: We note that $f(x) = 1/x$ is positive, continuous, and decreasing for $x \geq 1$ and that $f(n) = 1/n$ for each positive integer n . Now

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[\ln x \right]_1^b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (\ln b - \ln 1) = +\infty.$$

Thus the improper integral diverges and therefore so does the harmonic series. ■

The harmonic series is the case $p = 1$ of the **p -series**

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p} = 1 + \frac{2}{2^p} + \frac{1}{3^p} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^p} + \dots \quad (4)$$

Whether the p -series converges or diverges depends on the value of p .

EXAMPLE 2 Show that the p -series converges if $p > 1$ but diverges if $0 < p \leq 1$.

Solution The case $p = 1$ has already been settled in Example 1. If $p > 0$ but $p \neq 1$, then the function $f(x) = 1/x^p$ satisfies the conditions of the integral test, and

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{(p-1)x^{p-1}} \right]_1^b \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{p-1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{b^{p-1}} \right).\end{aligned}$$

If $p > 1$, then

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \frac{1}{p-1} < \infty,$$

so the integral and the series both converge. But if $0 < p < 1$, then

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1-p} (b^{1-p} - 1) = \infty,$$

and in this case the integral and the series both diverge. ■

As specific examples, the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n^2} + \cdots$$

converges ($p = 2 > 1$), whereas the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = 1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \cdots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} + \cdots$$

diverges ($p = \frac{1}{2} \leq 1$).

Now suppose that the positive-term series $\sum a_n$ converges by the integral test and that we wish to approximate its sum by adding sufficiently many of its initial terms. The difference between the sum S of the series and its n th partial sum S_n is the **remainder**

$$R_n = S - S_n = a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + a_{n+3} + \cdots. \quad (5)$$

This remainder is the error made when the sum is estimated by using in its place the partial sum S_n .

Theorem 2 *The Integral Test Remainder Estimate*

Suppose that the infinite series and improper integral

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \quad \text{and} \quad \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

satisfy the hypotheses of the integral test, and suppose in addition that both converge. Then

$$\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) dx \leq R_n \leq \int_n^{\infty} f(x) dx, \quad (6)$$

where R_n is the remainder given in Eq. (5).

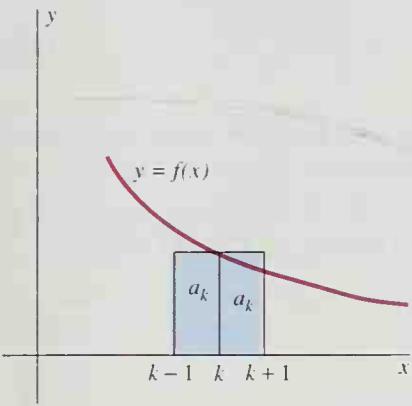


Fig. 11.5.3 Establishing the integral test remainder estimate

PROOF We see from Fig. 11.5.3 that

$$\int_k^{k+1} f(x) dx \leq a_k \leq \int_{k-1}^k f(x) dx$$

for $k = n + 1, n + 2, \dots$. We add these inequalities for all such values of k , and the result is the inequality in (6) because

$$\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_k^{k+1} f(x) dx = \int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

and

$$\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \int_{k-1}^k f(x) dx = \int_n^{\infty} f(x) dx.$$

If we substitute $R_n = S - S_n$, then it follows from (6) that the sum S of the series satisfies the inequality

$$S_n + \int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) dx \leq S \leq S_n + \int_n^{\infty} f(x) dx. \quad (7)$$

If the n th partial sum S_n is known and the difference

$$\int_n^{n+1} f(x) dx$$

between the two integrals is small, then (7) provides an accurate estimate of the sum S of the infinite series.

EXAMPLE 3 We will see in Section 11.8 that the exact sum of the p -series with $p = 2$ is $\pi^2/6$, thus giving the beautiful formula

$$\frac{\pi^2}{6} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \dots \quad (8)$$

Use this series to approximate the number π by applying the integral test remainder estimate, first with $n = 50$, then with $n = 200$.

Solution Obviously we take $f(x) = 1/x^2$ in the remainder estimate. Because

$$\int_n^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{x} \right]_n^b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{b} \right) = \frac{1}{n}.$$

Eq. (7) gives

$$S_n + \frac{1}{n+1} \leq \frac{\pi^2}{6} \leq S_n + \frac{1}{n}, \quad (9)$$

where

$$S_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^2}$$

is the n th partial sum of the series in Eq. (8). Upon multiplying by 6 and taking square roots, Eq. (9) gives the inequality

$$\sqrt{6\left(S_n + \frac{1}{n+1}\right)} \leq \pi \leq \sqrt{6\left(S_n + \frac{1}{n}\right)}. \quad (10)$$

You could add the first 50 terms in Eq. (8) one by one in a few minutes using a simple four-function calculator, but this kind of arithmetic is precisely the task for which a modern calculator or computer algebra system is designed. A one-line instruction like the calculator command `sum(series(1/n^2,n,1,50))` yields

$$S_{50} = \sum_{n=1}^{50} \frac{1}{n^2} \approx 1.62513273.$$

Then, using (9) for illustration rather than (10), we calculate

$$1.62513273 + \frac{1}{51} \leq \frac{\pi^2}{6} \leq 1.62513273 + \frac{1}{50};$$

$$1.64474057 \leq \frac{\pi^2}{6} \leq 1.64513273;$$

$$3.14140788 \leq \pi \leq 3.14178236.$$

Finally, rounding down on the left and up on the right (why?), we conclude that $3.1414 < \pi < 3.1418$. The average of these two bounds is the traditional four-place approximation $\pi \approx 3.1416$.

The 200th partial sum of the series in Eq. (8) is

$$S_{200} = \sum_{n=1}^{200} \frac{1}{n^2} \approx 1.63994655.$$

Substituting this sum and $n = 200$ in (10), we get

$$3.14158082 \leq \pi \leq 3.14160457.$$

This proves that $\pi \approx 3.1416$ rounded accurate to four decimal places. ■

EXAMPLE 4 Show that the series

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^2} \quad (11)$$

converges, and determine how many terms you would need to add to find its sum accurate to within 0.01. That is, how large must n be for the remainder to satisfy the inequality $R_n < 0.01$?

Solution We begin the sum at $n = 2$ because $\ln 1 = 0$. Let $f(x) = 1/[x(\ln x)^2]$. Then

$$\int_n^{\infty} \frac{1}{x(\ln x)^2} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{\ln x} \right]_n^b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{\ln n} - \frac{1}{\ln b} \right) = \frac{1}{\ln n}.$$

Substitution of $n = 2$ shows that the series in (11) converges (by the integral test). Our calculations and the right-hand inequality in (6) now give $R_n < 1/(\ln n)$, so we need

$$\frac{1}{\ln n} \leq 0.01, \quad \ln n \geq 100, \quad n \geq e^{100} \approx 2.7 \times 10^{43}.$$

A computer that could calculate a billion (10^9) terms per second would require about 8.5×10^{26} years—far longer than the expected lifetime of the universe—to sum this many terms. But you can check that accuracy to only one decimal place—that is, $R_n < 0.05$ —would require only about $n = 4.85 \times 10^8$ (fewer than a half billion) terms, well within the range of a powerful desktop computer.

11.5 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 30, use the integral test to test the given series for convergence.

1. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^2 + 1}$

3. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}}$

5. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 1}$

7. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \ln n}$

9. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$

11. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{e^n}$

13. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^2}$

15. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^4 + 1}$

17. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2n+5}{n^2 + 5n + 17}$

19. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)$

21. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{4n^2 + 5}$

23. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n\sqrt{\ln n}}$

25. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4n^2 + 9}$

27. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^4 + 2n^2 + 1}$

29. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\arctan n}{n^2 + 1}$

2. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{e^{n^2}}$

4. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+1)^{4/3}}$

6. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$

8. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n}$

10. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{e^n}$

12. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{17n-13}$

14. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n+1}{n^2}$

16. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3+n}$

18. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln\left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)$

20. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{1/n}}{n^2}$

22. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{(4n^2+5)^{3/2}}$

24. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^3}$

26. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n+1}{n+100}$

28. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+1)^3}$

30. $\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)[\ln(\ln n)]}$

In Problems 31 through 34, tell why the integral test does not apply to the given series.

31. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$

33. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2 + \sin n}{n^2}$

32. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-n} \sin n$

34. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\sin n}{n}\right)^4$

In Problems 35 through 38, determine the values of p for which the given series converges.

35. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p^n}$

36. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{(n^2+1)^p}$

37. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^p}$

38. $\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)[\ln(\ln n)]^p}$

In Problems 39 through 42, find the least positive integer n such that the remainder R_n in Theorem 2 is less than E .

39. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}; E = 0.0001$

40. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}; E = 0.00005$

41. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}; E = 0.00005$

42. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^6}; E = 2 \times 10^{-11}$

In Problems 43 through 46, find the sum of the given series accurate to the indicated number k of decimal places. Begin by finding the smallest value of n such that the remainder satisfies the inequality $R_n < 5 \times 10^{-(k+1)}$. Then use a calculator to compute the partial sum S_n and round off appropriately.

43. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{3/2}}; k = 2$

44. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}; k = 3$

45. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5}; k = 5$

46. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^7}; k = 7$

In Problems 47 and 48, use a computer algebra system (if necessary) to determine the values of p for which the given infinite series converges.

47. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^p}$

48. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p^{\ln n}}$

49. Deduce from the inequalities in (2) and (3) with the function $f(x) = 1/x$ that

$$\ln n \leq 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} \leq 1 + \ln n$$

for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. If a computer adds 1 million terms of the harmonic series per second, how long will it take for the partial sum to reach 50?

50. (a) Let

$$c_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} - \ln n$$

for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Deduce from Problem 49 that $0 \leq c_n \leq 1$ for all n . (b) Note that

$$\int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{x} dx \geq \frac{1}{n+1}.$$

Conclude that the sequence $\{c_n\}$ is decreasing. Therefore, the sequence $\{c_n\}$ converges. The number

$$\gamma = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} - \ln n \right) \approx 0.57722$$

is known as **Euler's constant**.

51. Suppose that the function f is continuous and positive-valued for $x \geq 1$. Let

$$b_n = \int_1^n f(x) dx$$

for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. (a) Suppose that the increasing sequence $\{b_n\}$ is bounded, so that $B = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$ exists. Prove that

$$\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx = B.$$

(b) Prove that if the sequence $\{b_n\}$ is not bounded, then

$$\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx = +\infty.$$

11.5 PROJECT: THE NUMBER π , ONCE AND FOR ALL

When we replace the parameter p in the p -series $\sum 1/n^p$ with the variable x , we get one of the most important transcendental functions in higher mathematics, the **Riemann zeta function**

$$\zeta(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^x} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^x} + \frac{1}{3^x} + \frac{1}{4^x} + \cdots.$$

REMARK One can substitute a complex number $x = a + bi$ in the zeta function. Now that Fermat's last theorem has been proved, the most famous unsolved conjecture in mathematics is the **Riemann hypothesis**—that $\zeta(a + bi) = 0$ implies that $a = \frac{1}{2}$; that is, that the only complex zeros of the Riemann zeta function have real part $\frac{1}{2}$. (The smallest such example is approximately $\frac{1}{2} + 14.13475i$.) The truth of the Riemann hypothesis would have profound implications in number theory, including information about the distribution of the prime numbers.

It has been known since the time of Euler that if k is an *even* positive integer, then the value of $\zeta(k)$ is a rational multiple of π^k . But despite great efforts by many of the best mathematicians of the past two centuries, little is known about the value of $\zeta(k)$ if k is an *odd* positive integer. Indeed, it was only in the last decade that $\zeta(3)$ was shown to be irrational.

In Problems 1 through 4, use the given value of the zeta function and the integral test remainder estimate (as in Example 3 of this section) with the given value of n to determine how accurately the value of the number π is thereby determined. Knowing that

$$\pi \approx 3.14159265358979323846,$$

write each final answer in the form $\pi \approx 3.abcde\dots$, giving precisely those digits that are correct or correctly rounded.

1. $\zeta(2) = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$ with $n = 25$.

2. $\zeta(4) = \frac{\pi^4}{90}$ with $n = 20$.

3. $\zeta(6) = \frac{\pi^6}{945}$ with $n = 15$.

4. $\zeta(8) = \frac{\pi^8}{9450}$ with $n = 10$.

5. Finally, use one of the preceding four problems and your own careful choice of n to show that $\pi \approx 3.141592654$ with all digits correct or correctly rounded.

11.6 COMPARISON TESTS FOR POSITIVE-TERM SERIES

With the integral test we attempt to determine whether an infinite series converges by comparing it with an improper integral. The methods of this section involve comparing the terms of the *positive-term* series $\sum a_n$ with those of another positive-term series $\sum b_n$ whose convergence or divergence is known. We have already developed two families of *reference series* for the role of the known series $\sum b_n$; they are the geometric series of Section 11.3 and the p -series of Section 11.5. They are well adapted for our new purposes because their convergence or divergence is quite easy to determine. Recall that the geometric series $\sum r^n$ converges if $|r| < 1$ and diverges if $|r| \geq 1$, and that the p -series $\sum 1/n^p$ converges if $p > 1$ and diverges if $0 < p \leq 1$.

Let $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ be positive-term series. Then we say that the series $\sum b_n$ **dominates** the series $\sum a_n$ provided that $a_n \leq b_n$ for all n . Theorem 1 says that the positive-term series $\sum a_n$ converges if it is dominated by a convergent series and diverges if it dominates a positive-term divergent series.

Theorem 1 Comparison Test

Suppose that $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are positive-term series. Then

1. $\sum a_n$ converges if $\sum b_n$ converges and $a_n \leq b_n$ for all n ;
2. $\sum a_n$ diverges if $\sum b_n$ diverges and $a_n \geq b_n$ for all n .

PROOF Denote the n th partial sums of the series $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ by S_n and T_n , respectively. Then $\{S_n\}$ and $\{T_n\}$ are increasing sequences. To prove part (1), suppose that $\sum b_n$ converges, so $T = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n$ exists (so that T is a real number). Then the fact that $a_n \leq b_n$ for all n implies that $S_n \leq T_n \leq T$ for all n . Thus the sequence $\{S_n\}$ of partial sums of $\sum a_n$ is bounded and increasing and therefore converges. Thus $\sum a_n$ converges.

Part (2) is merely a restatement of part (1). If the series $\sum a_n$ converged, then the fact that $\sum a_n$ dominates $\sum b_n$ would imply—by part (1), with a_n and b_n interchanged—that $\sum b_n$ converged. But $\sum b_n$ diverges, so it follows that $\sum a_n$ must also diverge. ■

We know by Theorem 5 of Section 11.3 that the convergence or divergence of an infinite series is not affected by the addition or deletion of a finite number of terms. Consequently, the conditions $a_n \leq b_n$ and $a_n \geq b_n$ in the two parts of the comparison test really need to hold only for all $n \geq k$, where k is some fixed positive integer. Thus we can say that the positive-term series $\sum a_n$ converges if it is “eventually dominated” by the convergent positive-term series $\sum b_n$.

EXAMPLE 1 Because

$$\frac{1}{n(n+1)(n+2)} < \frac{1}{n^3}$$

for all $n \geq 1$, the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)(n+2)} = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} + \dots$$

is dominated by the series $\sum 1/n^3$, which is a convergent p -series with $p = 3$. Both are positive-term series, and hence the series $\sum 1/[n(n+1)(n+2)]$ converges by part (1) of the comparison test. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Because

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2n-1}} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}}$$

for all $n \geq 1$, the positive-term series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n-1}} = 1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{7}} + \dots$$

dominates the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{1/2}}.$$

But $\sum 1/n^{1/2}$ is a divergent p -series with $p = \frac{1}{2}$, and a constant nonzero multiple of a divergent series diverges. So part (2) of the comparison test implies that the series $\sum 1/\sqrt{2n-1}$ also diverges. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Test the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \dots$$

for convergence.

Solution We note first that if $n \geq 1$, then

$$\begin{aligned} n! &= n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \\ &\geq 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdots 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \quad (\text{the same number of factors}); \end{aligned}$$

that is, $n! \geq 2^{n-1}$ for $n \geq 1$. Thus

$$\frac{1}{n!} \leq \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1,$$

so the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \text{ is dominated by the series } 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} = 1 + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n},$$

which is a convergent geometric series (after the first term). Both are positive-term series, so by the comparison test the given series converges. We saw in Section 11.4 that the sum of the series is the number e , so

$$e = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} + \dots$$

Indeed, this series provides perhaps the simplest way of showing that

$$e \approx 2.71828 \ 18284 \ 59045 \ 23536. \blacksquare$$

Limit Comparison of Terms

Suppose that $\sum a_n$ is a positive-term series such that $a_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then, in connection with the n th-term divergence test of Section 11.3, the series $\sum a_n$ has at least a chance of converging. How do we choose an appropriate positive-term series $\sum b_n$

with which to compare it? A good idea is to express b_n as a *simple* function of n , simpler than a_n but such that a_n and b_n approach zero at the same rate as $n \rightarrow \infty$. If the formula for a_n is a fraction, we can try discarding all but the terms of largest magnitude in its numerator and denominator to form b_n . For example, if

$$a_n = \frac{3n^2 + n}{n^4 + \sqrt{n}},$$

then we reason that n is small in comparison with $3n^2$, and that \sqrt{n} is small in comparison with n^4 , when n is quite large. This suggests that we choose $b_n = 3n^2/n^4 = 3/n^2$. The series $\sum 3/n^2$ converges ($p = 2$), but when we attempt to compare $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$, we find that $a_n \geq b_n$ (rather than $a_n \leq b_n$). Consequently, the comparison test does not apply immediately—the fact that $\sum a_n$ dominates a convergent series does *not* imply that $\sum a_n$ itself converges. Theorem 2 provides a convenient way of handling such a situation.

Theorem 2 Limit Comparison Test

Suppose that $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are positive-term series. If the limit

$$L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n}$$

exists and $0 < L < +\infty$, then either both series converge or both series diverge.

PROOF Choose two fixed positive numbers P and Q such that $P < L < Q$. Then $P < a_n/b_n < Q$ for n sufficiently large, and so

$$Pb_n < a_n < Qb_n$$

for all sufficiently large values of n . If $\sum b_n$ converges, then $\sum a_n$ is eventually dominated by the convergent series $\sum Qb_n = Q\sum b_n$, so part (1) of the comparison test implies that $\sum a_n$ also converges. If $\sum b_n$ diverges, then $\sum a_n$ eventually dominates the divergent series $\sum Pb_n = P\sum b_n$, so part (2) of the comparison test implies that $\sum a_n$ also diverges. Thus the convergence of either series implies the convergence of the other. ■

EXAMPLE 4 With

$$a_n = \frac{3n^2 + n}{n^4 + \sqrt{n}} \quad \text{and} \quad b_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$$

(motivated by the discussion preceding Theorem 2), we find that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^4 + n^3}{n^4 + \sqrt{n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3 + \frac{1}{n}}{1 + \frac{1}{n^{7/2}}} = 3.$$

Because $\sum 1/n^2$ is a convergent p -series ($p = 2$), the limit comparison test tells us that the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3n^2 + n}{n^4 + \sqrt{n}}$$

also converges.

EXAMPLE 5 Test for convergence: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n + \ln n}$.

Solution Because $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\ln n)/n = 0$ (by l'Hôpital's rule), $\ln n$ is very small in comparison with $2n$ when n is large. We therefore take $a_n = 1/(2n + \ln n)$ and, ignoring the constant coefficient 2, we take $b_n = 1/n$. Then we find that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{2n + \ln n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2 + \frac{\ln n}{n}} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Because the harmonic series $\sum 1/n = \sum b_n$ diverges, it follows that the given series $\sum a_n$ also diverges. ■

It is important to remember that if $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n/b_n)$ is either zero or infinite, then the limit comparison test does not apply. (See Problem 52 for a discussion of what conclusions may sometimes be drawn in these cases.) Note, for example, that if $a_n = 1/n^2$ and $b_n = 1/n$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n/b_n) = 0$. But in this case $\sum a_n$ converges, whereas $\sum b_n$ diverges.

Estimating Remainders

Suppose that $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$ for all n and we know that $\sum b_n$ converges, so the comparison test implies that $\sum a_n$ converges as well. Let us write $s = \sum a_n$ and $S = \sum b_n$. If a numerical estimate is available for the remainder

$$R_n = S - s_n = b_{n+1} + b_{n+2} + \dots$$

in the dominating series $\sum b_n$, then we can use it to estimate the remainder

$$r_n = s - s_n = a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + \dots$$

in the series $\sum a_n$. The reason is that $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$ (for all n) implies that $0 \leq r_n \leq R_n$. We can apply this fact if, for instance, we have used the integral test remainder estimate to calculate an upper bound for R_n —which is, then, an upper bound for r_n as well.

EXAMPLE 6 The series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3 + \sqrt{n}}$$

converges because it is dominated by the convergent p -series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}.$$

It therefore follows by the integral test remainder estimate (Section 11.5) that

$$0 < r_n \leq R_n \leq \int_n^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{2x^2} \right]_n^b = \frac{1}{2n^2}.$$

Now a calculator gives

$$s_{100} = \sum_{n=1}^{100} \frac{1}{n^3 + \sqrt{n}} \approx 0.680284 \quad \text{and} \quad R_{100} \leq \frac{1}{2 \cdot 100^2} = 0.00005.$$

It follows that $0.680284 \leq s \leq 0.680334$. In particular,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3 + \sqrt{n}} = 0.6803$$

rounded accurate to four decimal places.

Rearrangement and Grouping

We close our discussion of positive-term series with the observation that the sum of a convergent *positive*-term series is not altered by grouping or rearranging its terms. For example, let $\sum a_n$ be a convergent positive-term series and consider

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = (a_1 + a_2 + a_3) + a_4 + (a_5 + a_6) + \dots$$

That is, the new series has terms

$$b_1 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3,$$

$$b_2 = a_4,$$

$$b_3 = a_5 + a_6,$$

and so on. Then every partial sum T_n of $\sum b_n$ is equal to some partial sum S_n of $\sum a_n$. Because $\{S_n\}$ is an increasing sequence with limit $S = \sum a_n$, it follows easily that $\{T_n\}$ is an increasing sequence with the same limit. Thus $\sum b_n = S$ as well. The argument is more subtle if terms of $\sum a_n$ are moved “out of place,” as in

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_4 + a_3 + a_6 + a_8 + a_5 + a_{10} + a_{12} + \dots$$

but the same conclusion holds: Any rearrangement of a convergent *positive*-term series also converges, and it converges to the same sum.

Similarly, it is easy to prove that any grouping or rearrangement of a divergent positive-term series also diverges. But these observations all fail in the case of an infinite series with both positive and negative terms. For example, the series $\sum (-1)^n$ diverges, but it has the convergent grouping

$$(-1 + 1) + (-1 + 1) + (-1 + 1) + \dots = 0 + 0 + 0 + \dots = 0.$$

It follows from Problem 56 of Section 11.4 that

$$\ln 2 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \dots,$$

but the rearrangement

$$1 + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{7} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{11} - \frac{1}{6} + \dots$$

converges instead to $\frac{3}{2} \ln 2$. This series for $\ln 2$ even has rearrangements that converge to zero and others that diverge to $+\infty$ (see Problem 64 of Section 11.7).

11.6 PROBLEMS

Use comparison tests to determine whether the infinite series in Problems 1 through 36 converge or diverge.

1. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + n + 1}$

2. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^3 + 1}{n^4 + 2}$

3. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n + \sqrt{n}}$

4. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n + n^{3/2}}$

5. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 + 3^n}$

6. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{10n^2}{n^4 + 1}$

7. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{10n^2}{n^3 - 1}$

8. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 - n}{n^4 + 2}$

9. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{37n^3 + 3}}$

10. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}}$

11. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{n^2 + n}$

12. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3 + 5^n}$

13. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\ln n}$

14. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n - \ln n}$

15. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 n}{n^2 + 1}$

16. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos^2 n}{3^n}$

17. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n + 2^n}{n + 3^n}$

18. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n + 3^n}$

19. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 \ln n}$

20. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{1+\sqrt{n}}}$

21. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^2}$

22. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\arctan n}{n}$

23. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2(1/n)}{n^2}$

24. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{1/n}}{n}$

25. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{e^n}$

26. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 + 2}{n^3 + 3n}$

27. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^{3/2}}{n^2 + 4}$

28. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \cdot 2^n}$

29. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{4 + \sqrt{n}}$

30. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 + 1}{e^n(n+1)^2}$

31. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2n^2 - 1}{n^2 \cdot 3^n}$

32. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2n^4 + 1}}$

33. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2 + \sin n}{n^2}$

34. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^3}$

35. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n+1)^n}{n^{n+1}} \quad \left(\text{Suggestion: } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = e \right).$

36. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\sin n}{n} \right)^4$

In Problems 37 through 40, calculate the sum of the first ten terms of the series, then estimate the error made in using this partial sum to approximate the sum of the series.

37. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 1}$

38. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^n + 1}$

39. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos^2 n}{n^2}$

40. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+1)(\ln n)^2}$

In Problems 41 through 44, first determine the smallest positive integer n such that the remainder satisfies the inequality $R_n < 0.005$. Then use a calculator or computer to approximate the sum of the series accurate to two decimal places.

41. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3 + 1}$

42. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{(n+1)2^n}$

43. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos^4 n}{n^4}$

44. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2+(1/n)}}$

45. Show that if $\sum a_n$ is a convergent positive-term series, then the series $\sum \sin(a_n)$ also converges.

46. (a) Prove that $\ln n < n^{1/8}$ for all sufficiently large values of n . (b) Explain why part (a) shows that the series $\sum 1/(\ln n)^8$ diverges.

47. Prove that if $\sum a_n$ is a convergent positive-term series, then $\sum (a_n/n)$ converges.

48. Suppose that $\sum a_n$ is a convergent positive-term series and that $\{c_n\}$ is a sequence of positive numbers with limit zero. Prove that $\sum a_n c_n$ converges.

49. Use the result of Problem 48 to prove that if $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are convergent positive-term series, then $\sum a_n b_n$ converges.

50. Prove that the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+2+3+\cdots+n}$$

converges.

51. Use the result of Problem 50 in Section 11.5 to prove that the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\cdots+\frac{1}{n}}$$

diverges.

52. Adapt the proof of the limit comparison test to prove the following two results. (a) Suppose that $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are positive-term series and that $\sum b_n$ converges. If

$$L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 0,$$

then $\sum a_n$ converges. (b) Suppose that $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are positive-term series and that $\sum b_n$ diverges. If

$$L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = +\infty,$$

then $\sum a_n$ diverges.

11.7 ALTERNATING SERIES AND ABSOLUTE CONVERGENCE

In Sections 11.5 and 11.6 we considered only positive-term series. Now we discuss infinite series that have both positive terms and negative terms. An important example is a series with terms that are alternately positive and negative. An **alternating series** is an infinite series of the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} a_n = a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - a_4 + a_5 - \dots \quad (1)$$

or of the form $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n a_n$, where $a_n > 0$ for all n . For example, both the *alternating harmonic series*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \dots$$

and the geometric series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} - \dots$$

are alternating series. Theorem 1 shows that both of these series converge because the sequence of absolute values of their terms is decreasing and has limit zero.

Theorem 1 Alternating Series Test

If the alternating series in Eq. (1) satisfies the two conditions

1. $a_n \geq a_{n+1} > 0$ for all n and
2. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$,

then the infinite series converges.

PROOF We first consider the even-numbered partial sums $S_2, S_4, S_6, \dots, S_{2n}, \dots$. We may write

$$S_{2n} = (a_1 - a_2) + (a_3 - a_4) + \dots + (a_{2n-1} - a_{2n}).$$

Because $a_k - a_{k+1} \geq 0$ for all k , the sequence $\{S_{2n}\}$ is increasing. Also, because

$$S_{2n} = a_1 - (a_2 - a_3) - \dots - (a_{2n-2} - a_{2n-1}) - a_{2n},$$

$S_{2n} \leq a_1$ for all n . So the increasing sequence $\{S_{2n}\}$ is bounded above. Hence the limit

$$S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{2n}$$

exists by the bounded monotonic sequence property of Section 11.2. It remains only for us to verify that the odd-numbered partial sums S_1, S_3, S_5, \dots also converge to S . But $S_{2n+1} = S_{2n} + a_{2n+1}$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n+1} = 0$, so

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{2n+1} = (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{2n}) + (\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n+1}) = S.$$

Thus $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S$, and therefore the series in Eq. (1) converges. ■

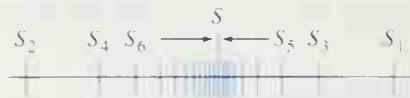


Fig. 11.7.1 The even partial sums $\{S_{2n}\}$ increase and the odd partial sums $\{S_{2n+1}\}$ decrease.

Figure 11.7.1 illustrates the way in which the partial sums of a convergent alternating series (with positive first term) approximate its sum S , with the even partial sums $\{S_{2n}\}$ approaching S from below and the odd partial sums $\{S_{2n+1}\}$ approaching S from above.

EXAMPLE 1

The series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{2n-1} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \dots$$

satisfies the conditions of Theorem 1 and therefore converges. The alternating series test does not tell us the sum of this series, but we saw in Section 11.4 that its sum is $\pi/4$. The graph in Fig. 11.7.2 of the partial sums of this series illustrates the typical convergence of an alternating series, with its partial sums approaching its sum alternately from above and below. ■

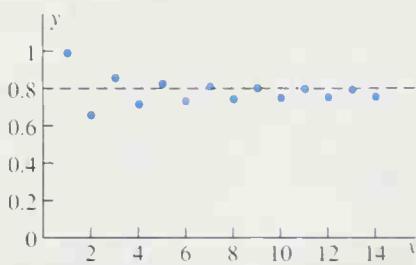


Fig. 11.7.2 Graph of the first 14 partial sums of the alternating series in Example 1

EXAMPLE 2

The series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}n}{2n-1} = 1 - \frac{2}{3} + \frac{3}{5} - \frac{4}{7} + \frac{5}{9} - \dots$$

is an alternating series, and it is easy to verify that

$$a_n = \frac{n}{2n-1} > \frac{n+1}{2n+1} = a_{n+1}$$

for all $n \geq 1$. But

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \frac{1}{2} \neq 0,$$

so the alternating series test *does not apply*. (This fact alone does not imply that the series in question diverges—many series in Section 11.5 and 11.6 converge even though the alternating series test does not apply. But the series of this example diverges by the n th-term divergence test.) ■

If a series converges by the alternating series test, then Theorem 2 shows how to approximate its sum with any desired degree of accuracy—if you have a computer fast enough to add a large number of its terms.

Theorem 2 Alternating Series Remainder Estimate

Suppose that the series $\sum (-1)^{n+1}a_n$ satisfies the conditions of the alternating series test and therefore converges. Let S denote the sum of the series. Denote by $R_n = S - S_n$ the error made in replacing S with the n th partial sum S_n of the series. Then this **remainder** R_n has the same sign as the next term $(-1)^{n+2}a_{n+1}$ of the series, and

$$0 \leq |R_n| < a_{n+1}. \quad (2)$$

In particular, the sum S of a convergent alternating series lies between any two consecutive partial sums. This follows from the proof of Theorem 1, where we saw that $\{S_{2n}\}$ is an increasing sequence and that $\{S_{2n+1}\}$ is a decreasing sequence, both converging to S . The resulting inequalities

$$S_{2n-1} > S > S_{2n} = S_{2n-1} - a_{2n}$$

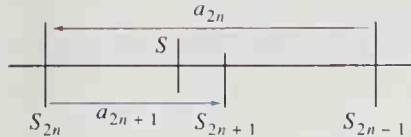
and

$$S_{2n} < S < S_{2n+1} = S_{2n} + a_{2n+1}$$

(see Fig. 11.7.3) imply the inequality in (2).

REMARK The inequality in (2) means the following. Suppose that you are given an alternating series that satisfies the conditions of Theorem 2 and has sum S . Then, if S is replaced with a partial sum S_n , the error made is numerically less than the first term a_{n+1} not retained and has the same sign as this first neglected term. **Important:** This error estimate *does not* apply to other types of series.

Fig. 11.7.3 Illustrating the proof of the alternating series remainder estimate



EXAMPLE 3 We saw in Section 11.4 that

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

for all x and thus that

$$\frac{1}{e} = e^{-1} = 1 - 1 + \frac{1}{2!} - \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} - \dots$$

Use this alternating series to compute e^{-1} accurate to four decimal places.

Solution To attain four-place accuracy, we want the error to be less than a half unit in the fourth place. Thus we want

$$|R_n| < \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \leq 0.00005.$$

If we use a calculator to compute the reciprocals of the factorials of the first several integers, we find that the least value of n for which this inequality holds is $n = 7$. Then

$$e^{-1} = 1 - \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} - \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} - \frac{1}{5!} + \frac{1}{6!} - \frac{1}{7!} + R_7 \approx 0.367857 + R_7.$$

(Relying on a common “+2 rule of thumb,” we are carrying six decimal places because we want four-place accuracy in the final answer.) Now the first neglected term $1/8!$ is positive, so the inequality in (2) gives

$$0 < R_7 < \frac{1}{8!} < 0.000025.$$

Therefore

$$S_7 \approx 0.367857 < e^{-1} < S_7 + 0.000025 \approx 0.367882.$$

The two bounds here both round to $e^{-1} \approx 0.3679$. Although this approximation is accurate to four decimal places, its reciprocal

$$e = 1/e^{-1} \approx 1/(0.3679) \approx 2.7181 \approx 2.718$$

gives the number e accurate to only three decimal places.

Absolute Convergence

The series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \dots$$

converges, but if we simply replace each term with its absolute value, we get the *divergent* series

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \dots$$

In contrast, the *convergent* series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{8} + \dots = \frac{2}{3}$$

has the property that the associated positive-term series

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots = 2$$

also converges. Theorem 3 tells us that if a series of *positive* terms converges, then we may insert minus signs in front of any of the terms—every other one, for instance—and the resulting series will also converge.

Theorem 3 Absolute Convergence Implies Convergence

If the series $\sum |a_n|$ converges, then so does the series $\sum a_n$.

PROOF Suppose that the series $\sum |a_n|$ converges. Note that

$$0 \leq a_n + |a_n| \leq 2|a_n|$$

for all n . Let $b_n = a_n + |a_n|$. It then follows from the comparison test that the positive-term series $\sum b_n$ converges, because it is dominated by the convergent series $\sum 2|a_n|$. It is easy to verify, too, that the termwise difference of two convergent series also converges. Hence we now see that the series

$$\sum a_n = \sum (b_n - |a_n|) = \sum b_n - \sum |a_n|$$

converges.

Thus we have another convergence test, one not limited to positive-term series or to alternating series: Given the series $\sum a_n$, test the series $\sum |a_n|$ for convergence. If the latter converges, then so does the former. (But the converse is *not* true!) This phenomenon motivates us to make the following definition.

Definition *Absolute Convergence*

The series $\sum a_n$ is said to **converge absolutely** (and is called **absolutely convergent**) provided that the series

$$\sum |a_n| = |a_1| + |a_2| + |a_3| + \cdots + |a_n| + \cdots$$

converges.

Thus we have explained the title of Theorem 3, and we can rephrase the theorem as follows: *If a series converges absolutely, then it converges.* The two examples preceding Theorem 3 show that a convergent series may either converge absolutely or fail to do so:

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} - \cdots$$

is an absolutely convergent series because

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots$$

converges, whereas

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \cdots$$

is a series that, though convergent, is *not* absolutely convergent. A series that converges but does not converge absolutely is said to be **conditionally convergent**. Consequently, the terms *absolutely convergent*, *conditionally convergent*, and *divergent* are simultaneously all-inclusive and mutually exclusive: Any given numerical series belongs to exactly one of those three classes.

There is some advantage in the application of Theorem 3, because to apply it we test the *positive-term* series $\sum |a_n|$ for convergence—and we have a variety of tests, such as comparison tests or the integral test, designed for use on positive-term series.

Note also that absolute convergence of the series $\sum a_n$ means that a *different* series $\sum |a_n|$ converges, and the two sums will generally differ. For example, with $a_n = (-\frac{1}{3})^n$, the formula for the sum of a geometric series gives

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)^n = \frac{1}{1 - (-\frac{1}{3})} = \frac{3}{4},$$

whereas

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_n| = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{3}} = \frac{3}{2}.$$

EXAMPLE 4 Discuss the convergence of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos n}{n^2} = \cos 1 + \frac{\cos 2}{4} + \frac{\cos 3}{9} + \cdots$$

Solution Let $a_n = (\cos n)/n^2$. Then

$$|a_n| = \frac{|\cos n|}{n^2} \leq \frac{1}{n^2}$$

for all $n \geq 1$. Hence the positive-term series $\sum |a_n|$ converges by the comparison test, because it is dominated by the convergent p -series $\sum (1/n^2)$. Thus the given series is absolutely convergent, and it therefore converges by Theorem 3. ■

One reason for the importance of absolute convergence is the fact (proved in advanced calculus) that the terms of an absolutely convergent series may be regrouped or rearranged without changing the sum of the series. As we suggested at the end of Section 11.6, this is *not* true of conditionally convergent series.

The Ratio Test and the Root Test

Our next two convergence tests involve a way of measuring the rate of growth or decrease of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ of terms of a series to determine whether $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely or diverges.

Theorem 4 The Ratio Test

Suppose that the limit

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \quad (3)$$

either exists or is infinite. Then the infinite series $\sum a_n$ of nonzero terms

1. Converges absolutely if $\rho < 1$;
2. Diverges if $\rho > 1$.

If $\rho = 1$, the ratio test is inconclusive.

PROOF If $\rho < 1$, choose a (fixed) number r with $\rho < r < 1$. Then Eq. (3) implies that there exists an integer N such that $|a_{n+1}| \leq r|a_n|$ for all $n \geq N$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} |a_{N+1}| &\leq r|a_N|, \\ |a_{N+2}| &\leq r|a_{N+1}| \leq r^2|a_N|, \\ |a_{N+3}| &\leq r|a_{N+2}| \leq r^3|a_N|, \end{aligned}$$

and in general that

$$|a_{N+k}| \leq r^k|a_N| \quad \text{for } k \geq 0.$$

Hence the series

$$|a_N| + |a_{N+1}| + |a_{N+2}| + \cdots$$

is dominated by the geometric series

$$|a_N|(1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \cdots),$$

and the latter converges because $|r| < 1$. Thus the series $\sum |a_n|$ converges, so the series $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely.

If $\rho > 1$, then Eq. (3) implies that there exists a positive integer N such that $|a_{n+1}| > |a_n|$ for all $n \geq N$. It follows that $|a_n| > |a_N| > 0$ for all $n > N$. Thus the sequence $\{a_n\}$ cannot approach zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and consequently, by the n th-term divergence test, the series $\sum a_n$ diverges. ■

To see that $\sum a_n$ may either converge or diverge if $\rho = 1$, consider the divergent series $\sum (1/n)$ and the convergent series $\sum (1/n^2)$. You should verify that, for both series, the value of the ratio ρ is 1.

EXAMPLE 5 Consider the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 2^n}{n!} = -2 + \frac{4}{2!} - \frac{8}{3!} + \frac{16}{4!} - \dots$$

Then

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{(-1)^{n+1} 2^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}}{\frac{(-1)^n 2^n}{n!}} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n+1} = 0.$$

Because $\rho < 1$, the series converges absolutely. ■

EXAMPLE 6 Test for convergence: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n}$.

Solution We have

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{n+1}{2^{n+1}}}{\frac{n}{2^n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+1}{2n} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Because $\rho < 1$, this series converges (absolutely). ■

EXAMPLE 7 Test for convergence: $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{n^2}$.

Solution Here we have

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{3^{n+1}}{(n+1)^2}}{\frac{3^n}{n^2}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2}{(n+1)^2} = 3.$$

In this case $\rho > 1$, so the given series diverges. ■

Theorem 5 *The Root Test*

Suppose that the limit

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} \tag{4}$$

exists or is infinite. Then the infinite series $\sum a_n$

1. Converges absolutely if $\rho < 1$;
2. Diverges if $\rho > 1$.

If $\rho = 1$, the root test is inconclusive.

PROOF If $\rho < 1$, choose a (fixed) number r such that $\rho < r < 1$. Then $|a_n|^{1/n} < r$, and hence $|a_n| < r^n$, for n sufficiently large. Thus the series $\sum |a_n|$ is eventually dominated by the convergent geometric series $\sum r^n$. Therefore $\sum |a_n|$ converges, and so the series $\sum a_n$ converges absolutely.

If $\rho > 1$, then $|a_n|^{1/n} > 1$, and hence $|a_n| > 1$, for n sufficiently large. Therefore the n th-term test for divergence implies that the series $\sum a_n$ diverges. ■

The ratio test is generally simpler to apply than the root test, and therefore it is ordinarily the one to try first. But there are certain series for which the root test succeeds and the ratio test fails, as in Example 8.

EXAMPLE 8 Consider the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+(-1)^n}} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{32} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots.$$

Then $a_{n+1}/a_n = 2$ if n is even, whereas $a_{n+1}/a_n = \frac{1}{8}$ if n is odd. So the limit required for the ratio test does not exist. But

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|^{1/n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{1}{2^{n+(-1)^n}} \right|^{1/n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{1}{2^{(-1)^n/n}} \right| = \frac{1}{2},$$

so the given series converges by the root test. (Its convergence also follows from the fact that it is a rearrangement of the positive-term convergent geometric series $\sum 1/2^n$.) ■

11.7 PROBLEMS

Determine whether the alternating series in Problems 1 through 20 converge or diverge.

1. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$

3. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{3n+2}$

5. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} n}{\sqrt{n^2+2}}$

7. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} n}{\ln n}$

9. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{2^n}$

11. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{\sqrt{2^n+1}}$

13. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2/3}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$

2. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n^2+1}}$

4. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{3n^2+2}$

6. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} n^2}{\sqrt{n^5+5}}$

8. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \ln n}{\sqrt{n}}$

10. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \cdot \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)^{n+1}$

12. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{n\pi}{10}\right)^{n+1}$

14. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos n\pi}{n^{3/2}}$

15. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \sin\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$

17. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{\sqrt[3]{2}}$

19. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{\sqrt[n]{n}}$

16. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n n \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{n}\right)$

18. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1.01)^{n+1}}{n^4}$

20. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} n!}{(2n)!}$

Determine whether the series in Problems 21 through 42 converge absolutely, converge conditionally, or diverge.

21. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{2^n}$

23. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \ln n}{n}$

25. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{10}{n}\right)^n$

27. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-10)^n}{n!}$

22. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+1}$

24. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^n}$

26. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{n!n}$

28. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} n!}{n^n}$

29. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \left(\frac{n}{n+1} \right)^n$ 30. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!n^2}{(2n)!}$
 31. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\ln n}{n} \right)^n$ 32. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 2^{3n}}{7^n}$
 33. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n (\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n})$
 34. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4} \right)^n$ 35. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[\ln \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) \right]^n$
 36. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^2}{(2n)!}$ 37. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} 3^n}{n(2^n + 1)}$
 38. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} \arctan n}{n}$ 39. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} n!}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}$
 40. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{1 \cdot 4 \cdot 7 \cdots (3n-2)}$
 41. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n+2)!}{3^n (n!)^2}$ 42. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} n^n}{3^{n^2}}$

In Problems 43 through 48, sum the indicated number of terms of the given alternating series. Then apply the alternating series remainder estimate to estimate the error in approximating the sum of the series with this partial sum. Finally, approximate the sum of the series, writing precisely the number of decimal places that thereby are guaranteed to be correct (after rounding).

43. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^3}$, 5 terms 44. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{3^n}$, 8 terms
 45. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n!}$, 6 terms 46. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^n}$, 7 terms
 47. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$, 12 terms
 48. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$, 15 terms

In Problems 49 through 54, sum enough terms (tell how many) to approximate the sum of series, writing the sum rounded to the indicated number of correct decimal places.

49. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^4}$, 3 decimal places
 50. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^5}$, 4 decimal places
 51. $\frac{1}{\sqrt{e}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n! 2^n}$, 4 decimal places
 52. $\cos 1 = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n)!}$, 5 decimal places
 53. $\sin 60^\circ = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!} \left(\frac{\pi}{3} \right)^{2n+1}$, 5 decimal places
 54. $\ln(1.1) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n \cdot 10^n}$, 7 decimal places

In Problems 55 and 56, show that the indicated alternating series $\sum (-1)^{n+1} a_n$ satisfies the condition that $a_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, but nevertheless diverges. Tell why the alternating

series test does not apply. It may be informative to graph the first 10 or 20 partial sums.

$$55. a_n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \\ \frac{1}{n^2} & \text{if } n \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

$$56. a_n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \\ \frac{1}{n^3} & \text{if } n \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

57. Give an example of a pair of convergent series $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ such that $\sum a_n b_n$ diverges.
 58. Prove that $\sum |a_n|$ diverges if the series $\sum a_n$ diverges.
 59. Prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a^n}{n!} = 0$$

(for any real number a) by applying the ratio test to show that the infinite series $\sum a^n/n!$ converges.

60. (a) Suppose that r is a (fixed) number such that $|r| < 1$. Use the ratio test to prove that the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nr^n$ converges. Let S denote its sum. (b) Show that

$$(1-r)S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} r^n.$$

Show how to conclude that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nr^n = \frac{r}{(1-r)^2}.$$

61. Let

$$H_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} \quad \text{and} \quad S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k}$$

denote the n th partial sums of the harmonic and alternating harmonic series, respectively. (a) Show that $S_{2n} = H_{2n} - H_n$ for all $n \geq 1$. (b) Problem 50 in Section 11.5 says that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (H_n - \ln n) = \gamma$$

(where $\gamma \approx 0.57722$ denotes Euler's constant). Explain why it follows that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (H_{2n} - \ln 2n) = \gamma.$$

- (c) Conclude from parts (a) and (b) that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{2n} = \ln 2$. Thus

$$\ln 2 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{6} + \dots$$

62. Suppose that $\sum a_n$ is a conditionally convergent infinite series. For each n , let

$$a_n^+ = \frac{a_n + |a_n|}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad a_n^- = \frac{a_n - |a_n|}{2}.$$

(a) Explain why $\sum a_n^+$ consists of the positive terms of $\sum a_n$ and why $\sum a_n^-$ consists of the negative terms of $\sum a_n$.
 (b) Given a real number r , show that some rearrangement of the conditionally convergent series $\sum a_n$ converges to r . (*Suggestion:* If r is positive, for instance, begin with the first partial sum of the positive series $\sum a_n^+$ that exceeds r . Then add just enough terms of the negative series $\sum a_n^-$ so that the cumulative sum is less than r . Next add just enough terms of the positive series that the cumulative sum is greater than r , and continue in this way to define the desired rearrangement.) Why does it follow that this rearranged infinite series converges to r ?

63. Use the method of Problem 62 to write the first dozen terms of a rearrangement of the alternating harmonic series (Problem 61) that converges to 1 rather than to $\ln 2$.

64. Describe a way to rearrange the terms of the alternating harmonic series to obtain (a) a rearranged series that converges to -2 ; (b) a rearranged series that diverges to $+\infty$.

65. Here is another rearrangement of the alternating harmonic series of Problem 61:

$$\begin{aligned} & 1 - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{8} \\ & + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{10} - \frac{1}{12} - \frac{1}{14} - \frac{1}{16} \\ & + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{18} - \frac{1}{20} - \frac{1}{22} - \frac{1}{24} \\ & + \frac{1}{7} - \frac{1}{26} - \frac{1}{28} - \frac{1}{30} - \frac{1}{32} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Use a computer to collect evidence about the value of its sum.

11.8 POWER SERIES

The most important infinite series representations of functions are those whose terms are constant multiples of (successive) integral powers of the independent variable x —that is, series that resemble “infinite polynomials.” For example, we discussed in Section 11.4 the geometric series

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots \quad (|x| < 1) \quad (1)$$

and the Taylor series

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots, \quad (2)$$

$$\cos x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots, \quad \text{and} \quad (3)$$

$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots. \quad (4)$$

There we used Taylor’s formula to show that the series in Eqs. (2) through (4) converge, for all x , to the functions e^x , $\cos x$, and $\sin x$, respectively. Here we investigate the convergence of a “power series” without knowing in advance the function (if any) to which it converges.

All the infinite series in Eqs. (1) through (4) have the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_n x^n + \dots \quad (5)$$

with the constant coefficients a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots . An infinite series of this form is called a **power series** in (powers of) x . To have the initial terms of the two sides of Eq. (5) agree, we adopt here the convention that $x^0 = 1$ even if $x = 0$.

Convergence of Power Series

The partial sums of the power series in Eq. (5) are the *polynomials*

$$s_1(x) = a_0 + a_1x, \quad s_2(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2, \quad s_3(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3,$$

and so forth. The n th partial sum is an n th-degree polynomial. When we ask where the power series converges, we seek those values of x for which the limit

$$s(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n(x)$$

exists. The sum $s(x)$ of a power series is then a function of x that is defined wherever the series converges.

The power series in Eq. (5) obviously converges when $x = 0$. In general, it will converge for some nonzero values of x and diverge for others. Because of the way in which powers of x are involved, the ratio test of Section 11.7 is particularly effective in determining the values of x for which a given power series converges.

Assume that the limit

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \quad (6)$$

exists. This is the limit that we need if we want to apply the ratio test to the series $\sum a_n$ of constants. To apply the ratio test to the power series in Eq. (5), we write $u_n = a_n x^n$ and compute the limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1} x^{n+1}}{a_n x^n} \right| = \rho |x|. \quad (7)$$

If $\rho = 0$, then $\sum a_n x^n$ converges absolutely for all x . If $\rho = +\infty$, then $\sum a_n x^n$ diverges for all $x \neq 0$. If ρ is a positive real number, we see from Eq. (7) that $\sum a_n x^n$ converges absolutely for all x such that $\rho \cdot |x| < 1$ —that is, when

$$|x| < R = \frac{1}{\rho} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right|. \quad (8)$$

In this case the ratio test also implies that $\sum a_n x^n$ diverges if $|x| > R$ but is inconclusive when $x = \pm R$. We have therefore proved Theorem 1, under the additional hypothesis that the limit in Eq. (6) exists. In Problems 69 and 70 we outline a proof that does not require this additional hypothesis.

Theorem 1 Convergence of Power Series

If $\sum a_n x^n$ is a power series, then either

1. The series converges absolutely for all x , or
2. The series converges only when $x = 0$, or
3. There exists a number $R > 0$ such that $\sum a_n x^n$ converges absolutely if $|x| < R$ and diverges if $|x| > R$.

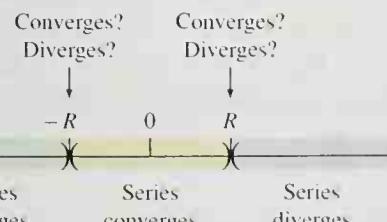


Fig. 11.8.1 The interval of convergence

$$\text{if } 0 < R = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right| < \infty$$

The number R of case 3 is called the **radius of convergence** of the power series $\sum a_n x^n$. We write $R = \infty$ in case 1 and $R = 0$ in case 2. The set of all real numbers x for which the series converges is called its **interval of convergence** (Fig. 11.8.1); note that this set is an interval. If $0 < R < \infty$, then the interval of convergence is one of the intervals

$$(-R, R), \quad (-R, R], \quad [-R, R], \quad \text{or} \quad [-R, R].$$

When we substitute either of the endpoints $x = \pm R$ into the series $\sum a_n x^n$, we obtain an infinite series with constant terms whose convergence must be determined separately. Because these will be numerical series, the earlier tests of this chapter are appropriate.

EXAMPLE 1 Find the interval of convergence of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n \cdot 3^n}.$$

Solution With $u_n = x^n / (n \cdot 3^n)$, we find that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1) \cdot 3^{n+1}}}{\frac{x^n}{n \cdot 3^n}} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n|x|}{3(n+1)} = \frac{|x|}{3}.$$

Now $|x|/3 < 1$ provided that $|x| < 3$, so the ratio test implies that the given series converges absolutely if $|x| < 3$ and diverges if $|x| > 3$. When $x = 3$, we have the divergent harmonic series $\sum (1/n)$, and when $x = -3$ we have the convergent alternating series $\sum (-1)^n/n$. Thus the interval of convergence of the given power series is $[-3, 3]$. We see in Fig. 11.8.2 the dramatic difference between convergence at $x = -3$ and divergence at $x = +3$. ■

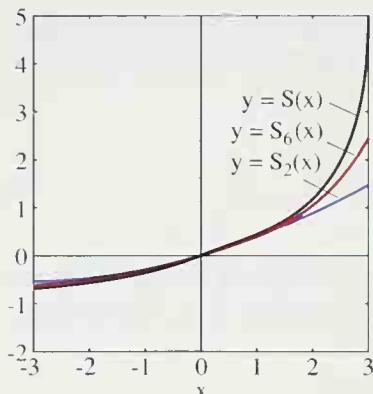


Fig. 11.8.2 Graphs of the partial sums $S_2(x)$ and $S_6(x)$ of the power series in Example 1

EXAMPLE 2 Find the interval of convergence of the power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-2)^n x^n}{(2n)!} = 1 - \frac{2x}{2!} + \frac{4x^2}{4!} - \frac{8x^3}{6!} + \frac{16x^4}{8!} - \dots$$

Solution With $u_n = (-2)^n x^n / (2n)!$ we find that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{(-2)^{n+1} x^{n+1}}{(2n+1)!}}{\frac{(-2)^n x^n}{(2n)!}} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2|x|}{(2n+1)(2n+2)} = 0$$

for all x [using the fact that $(2n+2)! = (2n)!(2n+1)(2n+2)$]. Hence the ratio test implies that the given power series converges for all x , and its interval of convergence is therefore $(-\infty, +\infty)$, the entire real line. ■

REMARK The power series of Example 2 results upon substitution of $\sqrt{2x}$ for x in the Taylor series for $\cos x$ [Eq. (3)]. But only for $x > 0$ does the sum $s(x)$ of the series exhibit the oscillatory character of the function $\cos \sqrt{2x}$ (Fig. 11.8.3). For $x < 0$, the power series converges to the quite different (and nonoscillatory) function $\cosh \sqrt{|2x|}$.

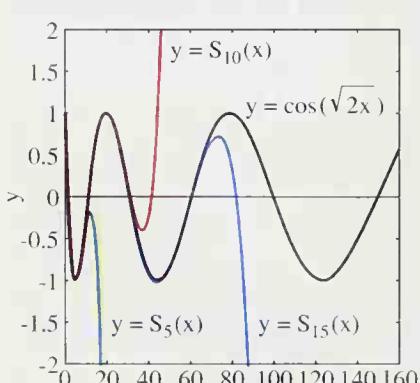


Fig. 11.8.3 Graphs of the partial sums $S_5(x)$, $S_{10}(x)$, and $S_{15}(x)$ and the sum $s(x) = \cos \sqrt{2x}$ (for $x > 0$) of the power series in Example 2

EXAMPLE 3 Find the interval of convergence of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^n x^n$.

Solution With $u_n = n^n x^n$, we find that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)^{n+1} x^{n+1}}{n^n x^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n+1) \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n |x| = +\infty$$

for all $x \neq 0$, because

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n = e.$$

Thus the given series diverges for all $x \neq 0$, and its interval of convergence consists of the single point $x = 0$. ■

EXAMPLE 4 Use the ratio test to verify that the Taylor series for $\cos x$ in Eq. (3) converges for all x .

Solution With $u_n = (-1)^n x^{2n}/(2n)!$ we find that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{(-1)^{n+1} x^{2n+2}}{(2n+2)!}}{\frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!}} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{(2n+1)(2n+2)} = 0$$

for all x , so the series converges for all x . ■

IMPORTANT In Example 4, the ratio test tells us only that the series for $\cos x$ converges to *some* number, *not* necessarily the particular number $\cos x$. The argument of Section 11.4, using Taylor's formula with remainder, is required to establish that the sum of the series is actually $\cos x$.

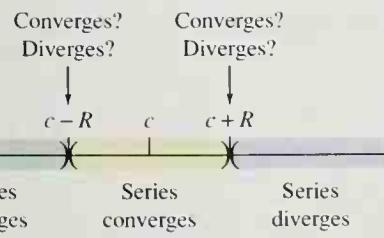
Power Series in Powers of $x - c$

An infinite series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - c)^n = a_0 + a_1(x - c) + a_2(x - c)^2 + \cdots, \quad (9)$$

where c is a constant, is called a **power series in** (powers of) $x - c$. By the same reasoning that led us to Theorem 1, with x^n replaced with $(x - c)^n$ throughout, we conclude that either

1. The series in Eq. (9) converges absolutely for all x , or
2. The series converges only when $x - c = 0$ —that is, when $x = c$ —or
3. There exists a number $R > 0$ such that the series in Eq. (9) converges absolutely if $|x - c| < R$ and diverges if $|x - c| > R$.



As in the case of a power series with $c = 0$, the number R is called the **radius of convergence** of the series, and the **interval of convergence** of the series $\sum a_n (x - c)^n$ is the set of all numbers x for which it converges (Fig. 11.8.4). As before, when $0 < R < \infty$, the convergence of the series at the endpoints $x = c - R$ and $x = c + R$ of its interval of convergence must be checked separately.

EXAMPLE 5 Determine the interval of convergence of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n (x - 2)^n}{n \cdot 4^n}.$$

Fig. 11.8.4 The interval of convergence of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - c)^n$

Solution We let $u_n = (-1)^n(x - 2)^n/(n \cdot 4^n)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} \right| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{(-1)^{n+1}(x-2)^{n+1}}{(n+1) \cdot 4^{n+1}}}{\frac{(-1)^n(x-2)^n}{n \cdot 4^n}} \right| \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x-4|}{4} \cdot \frac{n}{n+1} = \frac{|x-2|}{4}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence the given series converges when $|x - 2| < 4$, so the radius of convergence is $R = 4$. Because $c = 2$, the series converges when $-2 < x < 6$ and diverges if either $x < -2$ or $x > 6$. When $x = -2$, the series reduces to the divergent harmonic series, and when $x = 6$ it reduces to the convergent alternating series $\sum (-1)^n/n$. Thus the interval of convergence of the given power series is $(-2, 6]$. ■

Power Series Representations of Functions

Power series are important tools for computing (or approximating) values of functions. Suppose that the series $\sum a_n x^n$ converges to the value $f(x)$; that is,

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots + a_n x^n + \cdots$$

for each x in the interval of convergence of the power series. Then we call $\sum a_n x^n$ a **power series representation** of $f(x)$. For example, the geometric series $\sum x^n$ in Eq. (1) is a power series representation of the function $f(x) = 1/(1-x)$ on the interval $(-1, 1)$.

We saw in Section 11.4 how Taylor's formula with remainder can often be used to find a power series representation of a given function. Recall that the n th-degree Taylor's formula for $f(x)$ at $x = a$ is

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 \\ &\quad + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + R_n(x).\end{aligned}\tag{10}$$

The remainder $R_n(x)$ is given by

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!}(x-a)^{n+1},$$

where z is some number between a and x . If we let $n \rightarrow \infty$ in Eq. (10), we obtain Theorem 2.

Theorem 2 Taylor Series Representations

Suppose that the function f has derivatives of all orders on some interval containing a and also that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = 0\tag{11}$$

for each x in that interval. Then

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n\tag{12}$$

for each x in the interval.

The power series in Eq. (12) is the **Taylor series** of the function f at $x = a$ (or *in powers of $x - a$* , or *with center a*). If $a = 0$, we obtain the power series

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!} x^2 + \dots, \quad (13)$$

commonly called the **Maclaurin series** of f . Thus the power series in Eqs. (2) through (4) are the Maclaurin series of the functions e^x , $\cos x$, and $\sin x$, respectively.

EXAMPLE 6 New power series can be constructed from old ones. For instance, upon replacing x with $-x$ in the Maclaurin series for e^x , we obtain

$$e^{-x} = 1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots + (-1)^n \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots$$

Let us now add the series for e^x and e^{-x} and divide by 2. This gives

$$\begin{aligned} \cosh x &= \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots \right), \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\cosh x = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$$

Similarly,

$$\sinh x = x + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$$

Note the strong resemblance to Eqs. (3) and (4), the series for $\cos x$ and $\sin x$, respectively.

Upon replacing x with $-x^2$ in the series for e^x , we obtain

$$e^{-x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{n!} = 1 - x^2 + \frac{x^4}{2!} - \frac{x^6}{3!} + \dots$$

Because this power series converges to $\exp(-x^2)$ for all x , it must be the Maclaurin series for $\exp(-x^2)$ (see Problem 66). Think how tedious it would be to compute the derivatives of $\exp(-x^2)$ needed to write its Maclaurin series directly from Eq. (13). ■

EXAMPLE 7 Sometimes a function is originally defined by means of a power series. One of the most important “higher transcendental functions” of applied mathematics is the Bessel function $J_0(x)$ of order zero defined by

$$J_0(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{x^4}{64} - \frac{x^6}{2304} + \dots$$

Only terms of even degree appear, so let us write $u_n = (-1)^n x^{2n}/[2^{2n}(n!)^2]$. Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{(-1)^{n+1} x^{2n+2}}{2^{2n+2}[(n+1)!]^2}}{\frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2}} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{4(n+1)^2} = 0$$

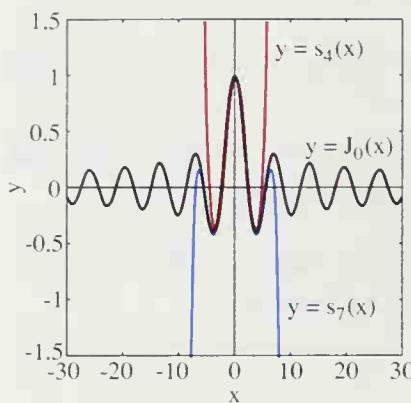


Fig. 11.8.5 Graphs of the Bessel function $J_0(x)$ and its partial sums $s_4(x)$ and $s_7(x)$ (polynomials of degrees 8 and 14)

for all x , so the ratio test implies that $J_0(x)$ is defined on the whole real line. The series for $J_0(x)$ resembles somewhat the cosine series, but the graph of $J_0(x)$ exhibits *damped* oscillations (Fig. 11.8.5). Bessel functions are important in such applications as the distribution of temperature in a cylindrical steam pipe and distribution of thermal neutrons in a cylindrical reactor.

The Binomial Series

One of the most famous and useful of all series, the *binomial series*, was discovered by Newton in the 1660s and is given in Example 8. It is the infinite series generalization of the (finite) binomial formula of elementary algebra.

EXAMPLE 8 Suppose that α is a nonzero real number. Show that the Maclaurin series of $f(x) = (1 + x)^\alpha$ is

$$\begin{aligned}(1 + x)^\alpha &= 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2) \cdots (\alpha - n + 1)}{n!} x^n \\ &= 1 + \alpha x + \frac{\alpha(\alpha - 1)}{2!} x^2 + \frac{\alpha(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2)}{3!} x^3 + \cdots.\end{aligned}\quad (14)$$

Also determine the interval of convergence of this **binomial series**.

Solution To derive the series itself, we simply list all the derivatives of $f(x) = (1 + x)^\alpha$, including its “zeroth” derivative:

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= (1 + x)^\alpha \\ f'(x) &= \alpha(1 + x)^{\alpha - 1} \\ f''(x) &= \alpha(\alpha - 1)(1 + x)^{\alpha - 2} \\ f^{(3)}(x) &= \alpha(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2)(1 + x)^{\alpha - 3}, \\ &\vdots \\ f^{(n)}(x) &= \alpha(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2) \cdots (\alpha - n + 1)(1 + x)^{\alpha - n}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$f^{(n)}(0) = \alpha(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2) \cdots (\alpha - n + 1).$$

If we substitute this value of $f^{(n)}(0)$ into the Maclaurin series formula in Eq. (13), we get the binomial series in Eq. (14).

To determine the interval of convergence of the binomial series, we let

$$u_n = \frac{\alpha(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2) \cdots (\alpha - n + 1)}{n!} x^n.$$

We find that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{u_{n+1}}{u_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{\alpha(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2) \cdots (\alpha - n)x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}}{\frac{\alpha(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2) \cdots (\alpha - n+1)x^n}{n!}} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(\alpha - n)x}{n + 1} \right| = |x|.$$

Hence the ratio test shows that the binomial series converges absolutely if $|x| < 1$ and diverges if $|x| > 1$. Its convergence at the endpoints $x = \pm 1$ depends on the value of α ; we shall not pursue this problem. Problem 67 outlines a proof that the sum of the binomial series actually is $(1 + x)^\alpha$ if $|x| < 1$. ■

If $\alpha = k$, a positive integer, then the coefficient of x^n is zero for $n > k$, and the binomial series reduces to the binomial formula

$$(1 + x)^k = \sum_{n=0}^k \frac{k!}{n!(k-n)!} x^n.$$

Otherwise Eq. (14) is an infinite series. For example, with $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{1+x} &= 1 + \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1!} x + \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)}{2!} x^2 + \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)}{3!} x^3 \\ &\quad + \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{5}{2}\right)}{4!} x^4 + \dots \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{8}x^2 + \frac{1}{16}x^3 - \frac{5}{128}x^4 + \dots. \end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

If we replace x with $-x$ and take $\alpha = -\frac{1}{2}$, we get the series

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x}} &= 1 + \frac{-\frac{1}{2}}{1!} (-x) + \frac{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)}{2!} (-x)^2 \\ &\quad + \dots + \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{n! \cdot 2^n} x^n + \dots, \end{aligned}$$

which in summation notation takes the form

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x}} = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots (2n)} x^n. \tag{16}$$

We will find this series quite useful in Example 12 and in Problem 68.

Differentiation and Integration of Power Series

Sometimes it is inconvenient to compute the repeated derivatives of a function in order to find its Taylor series. An alternative method of finding new power series is by the differentiation and integration of known power series.

Suppose that a power series representation of the function $f(x)$ is known. Then Theorem 3 (we leave its proof to advanced calculus) implies that the function $f(x)$ may be differentiated by separately differentiating the individual terms in its power series. That is, the power series obtained by termwise differentiation converges to the derivative $f'(x)$. Similarly, a function can be integrated by termwise integration of its power series.

Theorem 3 Termwise Differentiation and Integration

Suppose that the function f has a power series representation

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \dots$$

with nonzero radius of convergence R . Then f is differentiable on $(-R, R)$ and

$$f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1} = a_1 + 2a_2 x + 3a_3 x^2 + 4a_4 x^3 + \dots \quad (17)$$

Also,

$$\int_0^x f(t) dt = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_n x^{n+1}}{n+1} = a_0 x + \frac{1}{2} a_1 x^2 + \frac{1}{3} a_2 x^3 + \dots \quad (18)$$

for each x in $(-R, R)$. Moreover, the power series in Eqs. (17) and (18) have the same radius of convergence R .

REMARK 1 Although we omit the proof of Theorem 3, we observe that the radius of convergence of the series in Eq. (17) is

$$R = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n a_n}{(n+1) a_{n+1}} \right| = \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} \right) \cdot \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right| \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right|.$$

Thus, by Eq. (8), the power series for $f(x)$ and the power series for $f'(x)$ have the same radius of convergence (under the assumption that the preceding limit exists).

REMARK 2 Theorem 3 has this important consequence: If both the power series $\sum a_n x^n$ and $\sum b_n x^n$ converge and, for all x with $|x| < R$ ($R > 0$), $\sum a_n x^n = \sum b_n x^n$, then $a_n = b_n$ for all n . In particular, the Taylor series of a function is its unique power series representation (if any). See Problem 66.

EXAMPLE 9 Termwise differentiation of the geometric series for

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

yields

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} &= D_x \left(\frac{1}{1-x} \right) = D_x (1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots) \\ &= 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + 4x^3 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1) x^n.$$

The series converges to $1/(1-x)^2$ if $-1 < x < 1$. ■

EXAMPLE 10 Replacement of x with $-t$ in the geometric series of Example 9 gives

$$\frac{1}{1+t} = 1 - t + t^2 - t^3 + \dots + (-1)^n t^n + \dots$$

Because $D_t \ln(1+t) = 1/(1+t)$, termwise integration from $t = 0$ to $t = x$ now gives

$$\ln(1+x) = \int_0^x \frac{1}{1+t} dt$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \int_0^x (1 - t + t^2 - \cdots + (-1)^n t^n + \cdots) dt; \\
 \ln(1+x) &= x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \cdots + \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n}x^n + \cdots \quad (19)
 \end{aligned}$$

if $|x| < 1$.

EXAMPLE 11 Find a power series representation for the arctangent function.

Solution Because $D_t \tan^{-1}t = 1/(1+t^2)$, termwise integration of the series

$$\frac{1}{1+t^2} = 1 - t^2 + t^4 - t^6 + t^8 - \cdots$$

gives

$$\tan^{-1}x = \int_0^x \frac{1}{1+t^2} dt = \int_0^x (1 - t^2 + t^4 - t^6 + t^8 - \cdots) dt.$$

Therefore

$$\tan^{-1}x = x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{1}{5}x^5 - \frac{1}{7}x^7 + \frac{1}{9}x^9 - \cdots \quad (20)$$

if $-1 < x < 1$.

EXAMPLE 12 Find a power series representation for the arcsine function.

Solution First we substitute t^2 for x in Eq. (16). This yields

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots (2n)} t^{2n}$$

if $|t| < 1$. Because $D_t \sin^{-1}t = 1/\sqrt{1-t^2}$, termwise integration of this series from $t = 0$ to $t = x$ gives

$$\sin^{-1}x = \int_0^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} dt = x + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots (2n)} \cdot \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} \quad (21)$$

if $|x| < 1$. Problem 68 shows how to use this series to derive the series

$$\frac{\pi^2}{6} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n^2} + \cdots,$$

which we used in Example 3 of Section 11.5 to approximate the number π .

11.8 PROBLEMS

Find the interval of convergence of each power series in Problems 1 through 30.

1. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^n$

2. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{\sqrt{n}}$

7. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n x^n}{n^3}$

8. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-4)^n x^n}{\sqrt{2n+1}}$

3. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{nx^n}{2^n}$

4. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{n^{1/2} 5^n}$

9. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n n^{1/2} (2x)^n$

10. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 x^n}{3n-1}$

5. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n! x^n$

6. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{n^n}$

11. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n nx^n}{2^n(n+1)^3}$

12. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^{10} x^n}{10^n}$

13. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(\ln n)x^n}{3^n}$

14. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 4^n x^n}{n \ln n}$

15. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (5x - 3)^n$

16. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2x - 1)^n}{n^4 + 16}$

17. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n(x - 3)^n}{n^2}$

18. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n} x^n$ (Do not test the endpoints; the series diverges at each.)

19. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2n)!}{n!} x^n$

20. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n+1)}{n!} x^n$ (Do not test the endpoints; the series diverges at each.)

21. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^3(x+1)^n}{3^n}$

22. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}(x-2)^n}{n^2}$

23. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(3-x)^n}{n^3}$

24. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} 10^n}{n!} (x-10)^n$

25. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{2^n} (x-5)^n$

26. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n \cdot 10^n} (x-2)^n$

27. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{(2^n)}$

28. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x^2+1}{5}\right)^n$

29. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}$

30. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{2 \cdot 5 \cdot 8 \cdots (3n-1)} x^n$

In Problems 31 through 42, use power series established in this section to find a power series representation of the given function. Then determine the radius of convergence of the resulting series.

31. $f(x) = \frac{x}{1-x}$

32. $f(x) = \frac{1}{10+x}$

33. $f(x) = x^2 e^{-3x}$

34. $f(x) = \frac{x}{9-x^2}$

35. $f(x) = \sin(x^2)$

36. $f(x) = \cos^2 2x = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 4x)$

37. $f(x) = \sqrt[3]{1-x}$

38. $f(x) = (1+x^2)^{3/2}$

39. $f(x) = (1+x)^{-3}$

40. $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{9+x^3}}$

41. $f(x) = \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x}$

42. $f(x) = \frac{x - \arctan x}{x^3}$

In Problems 43 through 48, find a power series representation for the given function $f(x)$ by using termwise integration.

43. $f(x) = \int_0^x \sin t^3 dt$

44. $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt$

45. $f(x) = \int_0^x \exp(-t^3) dt$

46. $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\arctan t}{t} dt$

47. $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{1 - \exp(-t^2)}{t^2} dt$

48. $\tanh^{-1} x = \int_0^x \frac{1}{1-t^2} dt$

Beginning with the geometric series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$ as in Example 9, differentiate termwise to find the sums (for $|x| < 1$) of the power series in Problems 49 through 51.

49. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^n$ 50. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n(n-1)x^n$ 51. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2 x^n$

52. Use the power series of the preceding problems to sum the numerical series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{3^n}.$$

53. Verify by termwise differentiation of its Maclaurin series that the exponential function $y = e^x$ satisfies the differential equation $dy/dx = y$. (Thus the exponential series arises naturally as a power series that is its own termwise derivative.)

54. Verify by termwise differentiation of their Maclaurin series that the sine function $y = \sin x$ and the cosine function $y = \cos x$ both satisfy the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = 0.$$

55. Introduce the usual notation $i = \sqrt{-1}$ for the complex square root of -1 that lies on the positive y -axis in the complex plane. You can verify that $i^2 = -1$, $i^3 = -i$, $i^4 = 1$, and so forth, because the arithmetic of complex numbers obeys the same axioms of arithmetic as that of the real numbers. Assuming that the substitution $x = i\theta$ in the exponential series makes sense (it does), collect real and imaginary terms in the resulting series to derive formally Euler's formula

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta.$$

56. In elementary mathematics one sees various definitions (some circular!) of the trigonometric functions. But the now-familiar Maclaurin series for the sine and cosine functions arise naturally and independently (for example, as in the computation in Problem 55). So an alternative approach is to begin by defining $\cos x$ and $\sin x$ by means of their Maclaurin series. For instance, never having heard of sine, cosine, or the number π , we might define the function

$$S(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1} x^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!}$$

and verify using the ratio test that this series converges for all x . Use a computer algebra system to plot graphs of high-degree partial sums $s_n(x)$ of this series. Does it appear that the function $S(x)$ appears to have a zero

somewhere near the number π ? Solve the equation $s_n(x) = 0$ numerically (for some large values of n) to verify that this least positive zero of the sine function is approximately 3.14159 (and thus the famous number π makes a fresh new appearance).

57. The Bessel function of order 1 is defined by

$$J_1(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{2^{2n+1} n!(n+1)!} = \frac{x}{2} - \frac{x^3}{16} + \frac{x^5}{384} - \dots.$$

Verify that this series converges for all x and that the derivative of the Bessel function of order zero is given by $J_0'(x) = -J_1(x)$. Are the graphs in Fig. 11.8.6 consistent with this latter fact?

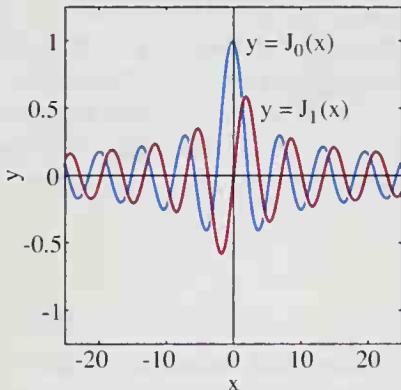


Fig. 11.8.6 Graphs of the Bessel functions $J_0(x)$ and $J_1(x)$. Note that their zeros are interlaced, like the zeros of the cosine and sine functions.

58. Verify by termwise integration that

$$\int x J_0(x) dx = x J_1(x) + C.$$

59. Bessel's equation of order n is the second-order differential equation

$$x^2 y'' + xy' + (x^2 - n^2)y = 0.$$

Verify by termwise differentiation that $y = J_0(x)$ satisfies Bessel's equation of order zero.

60. Verify that $y = J_1(x)$ satisfies Bessel's equation of order 1.
61. First use the sine series to find the Taylor series of $f(x) = (\sin x)/x$. Then use a graphing calculator or computer to illustrate the approximation of $f(x)$ by its Taylor polynomials with center $a = 0$.
62. First find the Taylor series of the function

$$g(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt.$$

Then determine where this power series converges. Finally, use a graphing calculator or computer to illustrate the approximation of $g(x)$ by its Taylor polynomials with center $a = 0$.

63. Deduce from the arctangent series (Example 11) that

$$\pi = \frac{6}{\sqrt{3}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2n+1} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n.$$

Then use this alternating series to show that $\pi = 3.14$ accurate to two decimal places.

64. Substitute the Maclaurin series for $\sin x$, then assume the validity of termwise integration of the resulting series, to derive the formula

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} \sin xt dt = \frac{x}{1+x^2} \quad (|x| < 1).$$

Use the fact from Section 9.8 that

$$\int_0^{\infty} t^n e^{-t} dt = \Gamma(n+1) = n!.$$

65. (a) Deduce from the Maclaurin series for e^x that

$$\frac{1}{x^x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} (x \ln x)^n.$$

(b) Assuming the validity of termwise integration of the series in part (a), use the integral formula of Problem 53 in Section 9.8 to conclude that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^x} dx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^n}.$$

66. Suppose that $f(x)$ is represented by the power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

for all x in some open interval centered at $x = 0$. Show by repeated differentiation of the series, substituting $x = 0$ after each differentiation, that $a_n = f^{(n)}(0)/n!$ for all $n \geq 0$. Thus the only power series in x that represents a function at and near $x = 0$ is its Maclaurin series.

67. (a) Consider the binomial series

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha(\alpha-1)(\alpha-2)\cdots(\alpha-n+1)}{n!} x^n,$$

which converges (to something) if $|x| < 1$. Compute the derivative $f'(x)$ by termwise differentiation, and show that it satisfies the differential equation $(1+x)f'(x) = \alpha f(x)$.

(b) Solve the differential equation in part (a) to obtain $f(x) = C(1+x)^\alpha$ for some constant C . Finally, show that $C = 1$. Thus the binomial series converges to $(1+x)^\alpha$ if $|x| < 1$.

68. (a) Show by direct integration that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{\arcsin x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \frac{\pi^2}{8}.$$

(b) Use the result of Problem 58 in Section 9.3 to show that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{x^{2n+1}}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \frac{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots (2n)}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n+1)}.$$

(c) Substitute the series of Example 12 for $\arcsin x$ into the integral of part (a); then use the integral of part (b) to integrate termwise. Conclude that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{\arcsin x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = 1 + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{5^2} + \frac{1}{7^2} + \cdots.$$

(d) Note that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n-1)^2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n)^2}.$$

Use this information and parts (a) and (c) to show that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}.$$

69. Prove that if the power series $\sum a_n x^n$ converges for some $x = x_0 \neq 0$, then it converges absolutely for all x such that $|x| < |x_0|$. (Suggestion: Conclude from the fact that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n x_0^n = 0$ that $|a_n x^n| \leq |x/x_0|^n$ for all n sufficiently large. Thus the series $\sum |a_n x^n|$ is eventually dominated by the geometric series $\sum |x/x_0|^n$, which converges if $|x| < |x_0|$.)

70. Suppose that the power series $\sum a_n x^n$ converges for some but not all nonzero values of x . Let S be the set of real numbers for which the series converges absolutely. (a) Conclude from Problem 69 that the set S is bounded above. (b) Let λ be the least upper bound of the set S (see Problem 61 of Section 11.2). Then show that $\sum a_n x^n$ converges absolutely if $|x| < \lambda$ and diverges if $|x| > \lambda$. Explain why this proves Theorem 1 without the additional hypothesis that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_{n+1}/a_n|$ exists.

11.9 POWER SERIES COMPUTATIONS

Power series often are used to approximate numerical values of functions and integrals. *Alternating* power series (such as the sine and cosine series) are especially common and useful. Recall the alternating series remainder (or “error”) estimate of Theorem 2 in Section 11.7. It applies to a convergent alternating series $\sum (-1)^{n+1} a_n$ whose terms are decreasing (so $a_n > a_{n+1}$ for every n). If we write

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k+1} a_k = (a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - \cdots \pm a_n) + E, \quad (1)$$

then $E = \mp a_{n+1} \pm a_{n+2} \mp a_{n+3} \pm \cdots$ is the error made when the series is *truncated*—the terms following $(-1)^{n+1} a_n$ are simply chopped off and discarded, and the n -term partial sum is used in place of the actual sum of the whole series. The remainder estimate then says that the error E has the same sign as the first term not retained and is less in magnitude than this first neglected term; that is, $|E| < a_{n+1}$.

EXAMPLE 1 Use the first four terms of the binomial series

$$\sqrt{1+x} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{8}x^2 + \frac{1}{16}x^3 - \frac{5}{128}x^4 + \cdots \quad (2)$$

to estimate the number $\sqrt{105}$ and to estimate the accuracy in the approximation.

Solution If $x > 0$, then the binomial series is, after the first term, an alternating series. To match the pattern on the left-hand side in Eq. (2), we first write

$$\sqrt{105} = \sqrt{100+5} = 10\sqrt{1+\frac{5}{100}} = 10\sqrt{1+0.05}.$$

Then with $x = 0.05$ the series in Eq. (2) gives

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{105} &= 10[1 + \frac{1}{2}(0.05) - \frac{1}{8}(0.05)^2 + \frac{1}{16}(0.05)^3 + E] \\ &= 10[1.02469531 + E] = 10.2469531 + 10E. \end{aligned}$$

Note that the error $10E$ in our approximation $\sqrt{105} \approx 10.2469531$ is 10 times the error E in the truncated series itself. It follows from the remainder estimate that E is negative and that

$$|10E| < 10 \cdot \frac{5}{128} (0.05)^4 \approx 0.0000024.$$

Therefore

$$10.2469531 - 0.0000024 = 10.2469507 < \sqrt{105} < 10.2469531,$$

so it follows that $\sqrt{105} \approx 10.24695$ rounded accurate to five decimal places. ■

REMARK Suppose that we had been asked in advance to approximate $\sqrt{105}$ accurate to five decimal places. A convenient way to do this is to continue writing terms of the series until it is clear that they have become too small in magnitude to affect the fifth decimal place. A good rule of thumb is to use two more decimal places in the computations than are required in the final answer. Thus we use seven decimal places in this case and get

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{105} &= 10 \cdot (1 + 0.05)^{1/2} \\ &\approx 10 \cdot (1 + 0.025 - 0.0003125 + 0.0000078 - 0.0000002 + \dots) \\ &\approx 10.246951 \approx 10.24695.\end{aligned}$$

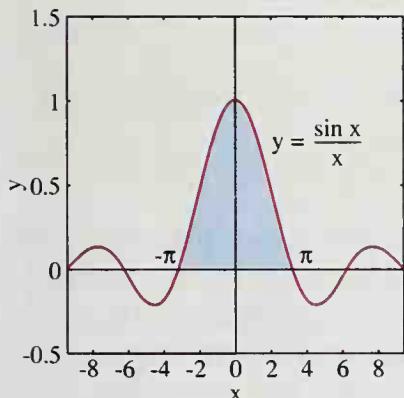


Fig. 11.9.1 The graph $y = \frac{\sin x}{x}$ of Example 2

EXAMPLE 2 Figure 11.9.1 shows the graph of the function $f(x) = (\sin x)/x$. Approximate (accurate to three decimal places) the area

$$A = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = 2 \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx \quad (3)$$

of the shaded region lying under the “principal arch” from $x = -\pi$ to π .

Solution When we substitute the Taylor series for $\sin x$ in Eq. (3) and integrate termwise, we get

$$\begin{aligned}A &= 2 \int_0^{\pi} \frac{1}{x} \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots \right) dx \\ &= 2 \int_0^{\pi} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{5!} - \frac{x^6}{7!} + \dots \right) dx \\ &= 2 \left[x - \frac{x^3}{3!3} + \frac{x^5}{5!5} - \frac{x^7}{7!7} + \dots \right]_0^{\pi},\end{aligned}$$

and thus

$$A = 2\pi - \frac{2\pi^3}{3!3} + \frac{2\pi^5}{5!5} - \frac{2\pi^7}{7!7} + \frac{2\pi^9}{9!9} - \frac{2\pi^{11}}{11!11} + \dots$$

Following the “+ 2 rule of thumb” and retaining five decimal places, we calculate

$$A = 6.28319 - 3.44514 + 1.02007 - 0.17122 + 0.01825 - 0.00134 + 0.00007 - \dots$$

The sum of the first six terms gives $A \approx 3.70381$. Because we are summing an alternating series, the error in this approximation is positive and less than the

next term 0.00007. Neglecting possible roundoff in the last place, we would conclude that $3.70381 < A < 3.70388$. Thus $A \approx 3.704$ rounded accurate to three decimal places. ■

The Algebra of Power Series

Theorem 1, which we state without proof, implies that power series may be added and multiplied much like polynomials. The guiding principle is that of collecting coefficients of like powers of x .

Theorem 1 Adding and Multiplying Power Series

Let $\sum a_n x^n$ and $\sum b_n x^n$ be power series with nonzero radii of convergence. Then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) x^n \quad (4)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \right) \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n \right) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n \\ &= a_0 b_0 + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0)x + (a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0)x^2 + \dots, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where

$$c_n = a_0 b_n + a_1 b_{n-1} + a_2 b_{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1} b_1 + a_n b_0. \quad (6)$$

The series in Eqs. (4) and (5) converge for any x that lies interior to the intervals of convergence of both $\sum a_n x^n$ and $\sum b_n x^n$.

Thus if $\sum a_n x^n$ and $\sum b_n x^n$ are power series representations of the functions $f(x)$ and $g(x)$, respectively, then the product power series $\sum c_n x^n$ found by “ordinary multiplication” and collection of terms is a power series representation of the product function $f(x)g(x)$. This fact can also be used to divide one power series by another, *provided* that the quotient is known to have a power series representation.

EXAMPLE 3 Assume that the tangent function has a power series representation $\tan x = \sum a_n x^n$ (it does). Use the Maclaurin series for $\sin x$ and $\cos x$ to find a_0 , a_1 , a_2 , and a_3 .

Solution We multiply series to obtain

$$\sin x = \tan x \cos x$$

$$= (a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \dots) \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{24} - \dots \right).$$

If we multiply each term in the first factor by each term in the second, then collect coefficients of like powers, the result is

$$\sin x = a_0 + a_1 x + \left(a_2 - \frac{1}{2} a_0 \right) x^2 + \left(a_2 - \frac{1}{2} a_1 \right) x^3 + \dots.$$

But because

$$\sin x = x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{120}x^5 - \dots,$$

comparison of coefficients gives the equations

$$a_0 = 0,$$

$$a_1 = 1,$$

$$-\frac{1}{2}a_0 + a_2 = 0,$$

$$-\frac{1}{2}a_1 + a_3 = -\frac{1}{6}.$$

Thus we find that $a_0 = 0$, $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 0$, and $a_3 = \frac{1}{3}$. So

$$\tan x = x + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \dots$$

Things are not always as they first appear. A computer algebra system gives the continuation

$$\tan x = x + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{2}{15}x^5 + \frac{17}{315}x^7 + \frac{62}{2835}x^9 + \frac{1382}{155925}x^{11} + \dots \quad (7)$$

of the tangent series. For the general form of the n th coefficient, see K. Knopp's *Theory and Application of Infinite Series* (New York: Hafner Press, 1971), p. 204. You may also check that the first few terms agree with the result of ordinary division of the Maclaurin series for $\cos x$ into the Maclaurin series for $\sin x$:

$$\frac{x + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{2}{15}x^5 + \dots}{1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{24}x^4 - \dots} \overline{(x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{1}{120}x^5 - \dots)}.$$

Figure 11.9.2 shows the approximation of the tangent function (on $-\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$) by the first four odd-degree polynomial partial sums corresponding to the terms exhibited in Eq. (7). Evidently these polynomial approximations have difficulty "keeping up" with $\tan x$ as it approaches $\pm\infty$ as $x \rightarrow \pm\pi/2$. ■

Power Series and Indeterminate Forms

According to Theorem 3 of Section 11.8, a power series is differentiable and therefore continuous within its interval of convergence. It follows that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x - c)^n = a_0. \quad (8)$$

Examples 4 and 5 illustrate the use of this simple observation to find the limit of the indeterminate form $f(x)/g(x)$. The technique is first to substitute power series representations for $f(x)$ and $g(x)$.

EXAMPLE 4 Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x - \arctan x}{x^2 \ln(1+x)}$.

Solution The power series of Eqs. (4), (19), and (20) in Section 11.8 give

$$\begin{aligned} \sin x - \arctan x &= (x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{120}x^5 - \dots) - (x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{1}{5}x^5 - \dots) \\ &= \frac{1}{6}x^3 - \frac{23}{120}x^5 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

and

$$x^2 \ln(1+x) = x^2 \cdot (x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \dots) = x^3 - \frac{1}{2}x^4 + \frac{1}{3}x^5 + \dots$$

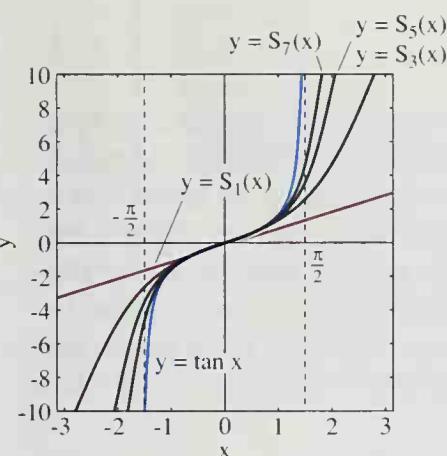


Fig. 11.9.2 The graphs of $y = \tan x$ and the first four partial sums of the power series in (7)

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x - \arctan x}{x^2 \ln(1+x)} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{6}x^3 - \frac{23}{120}x^5 + \dots}{x^3 - \frac{1}{2}x^4 + \dots} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{6} - \frac{23}{120}x^2 + \dots}{1 - \frac{1}{2}x + \dots} = \frac{1}{6}.\end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 5 Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\ln x}{x-1}$.

Solution We first replace x with $x-1$ in the power series for $\ln(1+x)$ used in Example 4. [Equation (8) makes it clear that this method requires all series to have center c if we are taking limits as $x \rightarrow c$.] This gives us

$$\ln x = (x-1) - \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{3}(x-1)^3 - \dots.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\ln x}{x-1} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1) - \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{3}(x-1)^3 - \dots}{x-1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \left[1 - \frac{1}{2}(x-1) + \frac{1}{3}(x-1)^2 - \dots \right] = 1.\end{aligned}$$

The method of Examples 4 and 5 provides a useful alternative to l'Hôpital's rule, especially when repeated differentiation of numerator and denominator is inconvenient or too time-consuming.

Numerical and Graphical Error Estimation

The following examples show how to investigate the accuracy in a power series partial sum approximation for a specified interval of values of x . We will take the statement that a given approximation is “accurate to p decimal places” to mean that its error E is numerically less than half a unit in the p th decimal place; that is, that $|E| < 0.5 \times 10^{-p}$. For instance, four-place accuracy means that $|E| < 0.00005$. (Note that $p = 4$ is the number of zeros here.) Nevertheless, we should remember that in some cases a result accurate to within a half unit in the p th place may round “the wrong way,” so that the result rounded to p places may still be in error by a unit in the p th decimal place (as in Problem 12).

EXAMPLE 6 Consider the polynomial approximation

$$\sin x \approx x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots + (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!} \quad (9)$$

obtained by truncating the alternating Taylor series of the sine function. Questions:

- How accurate is the cubic approximation $P_3(x) \approx x - x^3/3!$ for angles from 0° to 10° ? Use this approximation to estimate $\sin 10^\circ$.
- How many terms in (9) are needed to guarantee six-place accuracy in calculating $\sin x$ for angles from 0° to 45° ? Use the corresponding polynomial to approximate $\sin 30^\circ$ and $\sin 40^\circ$.
- For what values of x does the fifth-degree approximation yield five-place accuracy?

Solution (a) Of course, we must substitute x in radians in (9), so we deal here with values of x in the interval $0 \leq x \leq \pi/18$. For any such x , the error E is negative (why?) and is bounded by the magnitude of the next term:

$$|E| < \frac{x^5}{5!} \leq \frac{(\pi/18)^5}{5!} \approx 0.00000135 < 0.000005.$$

We count five zeros on the right, and thus we have five-place accuracy. For instance, substitution of $x = \pi/18$ in the cubic polynomial $P_3(x)$ gives

$$\begin{aligned}\sin 10^\circ &= \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{18}\right) \approx \frac{\pi}{18} - \frac{1}{3!} \cdot \left(\frac{\pi}{18}\right)^3 \\ &\approx 0.1736468 \approx 0.17365.\end{aligned}$$

This five-place approximation $\sin 10^\circ \approx 0.17365$ is correct, because the actual seven-place value of $\sin 10^\circ$ is $0.1736482 \approx 0.17365$.

(b) For any x in the interval $0 \leq x \leq \pi/4$, the error E made if we use the polynomial value in (9) in place of the actual value $\sin x$ is bounded by the first neglected term,

$$|E| < \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \leq \frac{(\pi/4)^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}.$$

The table in Fig. 11.9.3 shows calculator values for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ of this maximal error (rounded to eight decimal places). For six-place accuracy, we want $|E| < 0.0000005$, so we see that $n = 4$ will suffice. We therefore use the seventh-degree Taylor polynomial

$$P_7(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} \quad (10)$$

to approximate $\sin x$ for $0 \leq x \leq \pi/4$. With $x = \pi/6$, we get

$$\sin 30^\circ \approx \frac{\pi}{6} - \frac{(\pi/6)^3}{3!} + \frac{(\pi/6)^5}{5!} - \frac{(\pi/6)^7}{7!} \approx 0.49999999 \approx \frac{1}{2},$$

as expected. Substitution of $x = 2\pi/9$ in Eq. (10) similarly gives $\sin 40^\circ \approx 0.64278750$, whereas the actual eight-place value of $\sin 40^\circ$ is $0.64278761 \approx 0.642788$.

(c) The fifth-degree approximation

$$\sin x \approx P_5(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} \quad (11)$$

gives five-place accuracy when x is such that the error E satisfies the inequality

$$|E| < \frac{|x|^7}{7!} = \frac{|x|^7}{5040} \leq 0.000005;$$

that is, when $|x| \leq [(5040) \cdot (0.000005)]^{1/7} \approx 0.5910$ (radians). In degrees, this corresponds to angles between -33.86° and $+33.86^\circ$. In Fig. 11.9.4 the graph of $y = x^7/7!$ in the viewing window $-1 \leq x \leq 1$, $-0.00001 \leq y \leq 0.00001$ provides visual corroboration of this analysis—we see clearly that $x^7/7!$ remains between -0.000005 and 0.000005 when x is between -0.59 and 0.59 . ■

n	$\frac{(\pi/4)^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$
1	0.08074551
2	0.00249039
3	0.00003658
4	0.00000031
5	0.00000000

Fig. 11.9.3 Estimating the error in Example 6(b)

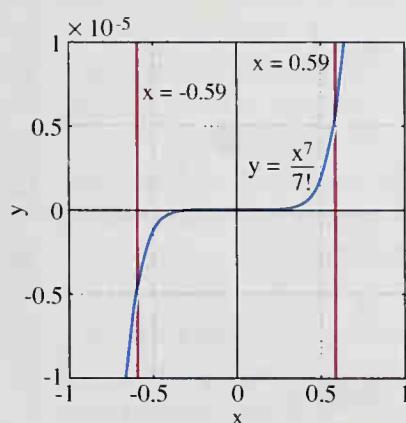


Fig. 11.9.4 The graph of the maximal error $y = \frac{x^7}{7!}$ in Example 6(c)

EXAMPLE 7 Suppose now that we want to approximate $f(x) = \sin x$ with three-place accuracy on the whole interval from 0° to 90° . Now it makes sense to begin with a Taylor series centered at the midpoint $x = \pi/4$ of the interval. Because the function $f(x)$ and its successive derivatives are $\sin x$, $\cos x$, $-\sin x$, $-\cos x$, and so forth, their values at $x = \pi/4$ are $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}$, $-\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}$, $-\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}$, and so forth. Consequently Taylor's formula with remainder (Section 11.4) for $f(x) = \sin x$ centered at $x = \pi/4$ takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} \sin x &= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \cdot \left[1 + \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right) - \frac{1}{2!} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{3!} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^3 \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \dots \pm \frac{1}{n!} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^n \right] + E(x), \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

where

$$|E(x)| = \left| \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^{n+1} \right| \leq \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \left| x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right|^{n+1} \quad (13)$$

for some z in the interval $0 \leq x \leq \pi/2$. Observe that the corresponding Taylor series is not alternating—if $x > \pi/4$, it has instead a “ $+ + - - + + - -$ ” pattern of signs—but we can still use the remainder estimate in Eq. (13). For three-place accuracy, we need to choose n so that $y = E(x)$ remains within the viewing window $-0.0005 \leq y \leq 0.0005$ on the whole interval $0 \leq x \leq \pi/2$. Looking at the graphs plotted in Fig. 11.9.5, we see that this is so if $n = 5$ but not if $n = 4$. The desired approximation is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \sin x &\approx \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \cdot \left[1 + \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right) - \frac{1}{2!} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{3!} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^3 \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{1}{4!} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^4 + \frac{1}{5!} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^5 \right]. \end{aligned}$$

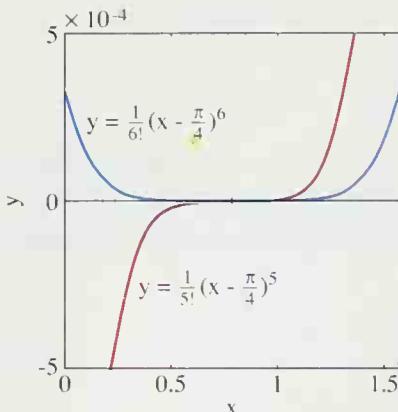


Fig. 11.9.5 Comparing errors in Example 7

For instance, substituting $x = 0$, we get $\sin 0^\circ \approx 0.00020 \approx 0.000$ as desired, and $x = \pi/2$ gives $\sin 90^\circ \approx 1.00025 \approx 1.000$.

11.9 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 10, use an infinite series to approximate the indicated number accurate to three decimal places.

1. $\sqrt[3]{65}$
2. $\sqrt[4]{630}$
3. $\sin(0.5)$
4. $e^{-0.2}$
5. $\tan^{-1}(0.5)$
6. $\ln(1.1)$
7. $\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{10}\right)$
8. $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{20}\right)$
9. $\sin 10^\circ$
10. $\cos 5^\circ$

In Problems 11 through 22, use power series to approximate the values of the given integrals accurate to four decimal places.

11. $\int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$
12. $\int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{\sqrt{x}} dx$
13. $\int_0^{1/2} \frac{\arctan x}{x} dx$
14. $\int_0^1 \sin x^2 dx$
15. $\int_0^{1/10} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} dx$
16. $\int_0^{1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^4}} dx$

17. $\int_0^{1/2} \frac{1 - e^{-x}}{x} dx$
18. $\int_0^{1/2} \sqrt{1 + x^3} dx$
19. $\int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx$
20. $\int_0^1 \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} dx$
21. $\int_0^{1/2} \sqrt[3]{1 + x^2} dx$
22. $\int_0^{1/2} \frac{x}{\sqrt{1 + x^3}} dx$

In Problems 23 through 28, use power series rather than l'Hôpital's rule to evaluate the given limit.

23. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 + x - e^x}{x^2}$
24. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x - \sin x}{x^3 \cos x}$
25. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x(e^x - 1)}$
26. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - e^{-x} - 2x}{x - \arctan x}$
27. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{\sin x} \right)$
28. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\ln(x^2)}{x - 1}$

In Problems 29 through 32, calculate the indicated number with the required accuracy using Taylor's formula for an

appropriate function centered at the given point $x = a$.

29. $\sin 80^\circ; a = \pi/4$, four decimal places
30. $\cos 35^\circ; a = \pi/4$, four decimal places
31. $\cos 47^\circ; a = \pi/4$, six decimal places
32. $\sin 58^\circ; a = \pi/3$, six decimal places

In Problems 33 through 36, determine the number of decimal places of accuracy the given approximation formula yields for $|x| \leq 0.1$.

33. $e^x \approx 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{24}x^4$
34. $\sin x \approx x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{120}x^5$
35. $\ln(1+x) \approx x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{4}x^4$
36. $\sqrt{1+x} \approx 1 + \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{8}x^2$

37. Show that the approximation in Problem 33 gives the value of e^x accurate to within 0.001 if $|x| \leq 0.5$. Then calculate $\sqrt[3]{e}$ accurate to two decimal places.
38. For what values of x is the approximation $\sin x \approx x - \frac{1}{6}x^3$ accurate to five decimal places?
39. (a) Show that the values of the cosine function for angles between 40° and 50° can be calculated with five-place accuracy using the approximation

$$\cos x \approx \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \left[1 - \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{6} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^3 \right].$$

- (b) Show that this approximation yields eight-place accuracy for angles between 44° and 46° .
40. Extend the approximation in Problem 39 to one that yields the values of $\cos x$ accurate to five decimal places for angles between 30° and 60° .

In Problems 41 through 44, use termwise integration of an appropriate power series to approximate the indicated area or volume accurate to two decimal places.

41. Figure 11.9.1 shows the region that lies between the graph of $y = (\sin x)/x$ and the x -axis from $x = -\pi$ to $x = \pi$. Substitute $\sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x)$ to approximate the volume of the solid that is generated by revolving this region around the x -axis.
42. Approximate the area of the region that lies between the graph of $y = (1 - \cos x)/x^2$ and the x -axis from $x = -2\pi$ to $x = 2\pi$ (Fig. 11.9.6).
43. Approximate the volume of the solid generated by rotating the region of Problem 42 around the y -axis.
44. Approximate the volume of the solid generated by rotating the region of Problem 42 around the x -axis.
45. Derive the geometric series by long division of $1 - x$ into 1.
46. Derive the series for $\tan x$ listed in Example 3 by long division of the Maclaurin series of $\cos x$ into the Maclaurin series of $\sin x$.
47. Derive the geometric series representation of $1/(1-x)$ by finding a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots such that

$$(1-x)(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \dots) = 1.$$

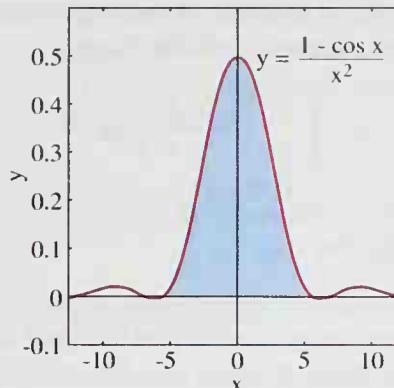


Fig. 11.9.6 The region of Problem 42

48. Derive the first five coefficients in the binomial series for $\sqrt{1+x}$ by finding a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3 , and a_4 such that

$$(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + a_4x^4 + \dots)^2 = 1 + x.$$

49. Use the method of Example 4 to find the coefficients a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3 , and a_4 in the series

$$\sec x = \frac{1}{\cos x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n.$$

50. Multiply the geometric series for $1/(1-x)$ and the series for $\ln(1-x)$ to show that if $|x| < 1$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\ln(1-x)}{1-x} &= -x - (1 + \frac{1}{2})x^2 - (1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3})x^3 \\ &\quad - (1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4})x^4 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

51. Take as known the logarithmic series

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \dots$$

Find the first four coefficients in the series for e^x by finding a_0, a_1, a_2 , and a_3 such that

$$1 + x = e^{\ln(1+x)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \dots)^n.$$

This is exactly how the power series for e^x was first discovered (by Newton)!

52. Use the method of Example 3 to show that

$$\frac{x}{\sin x} = 1 + \frac{1}{6}x^2 + \frac{7}{360}x^4 + \dots$$

53. Show that long division of power series gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{2+x}{1+x+x^2} &= 2 - x - x^2 + 2x^3 - x^4 - x^5 + 2x^6 \\ &\quad - x^7 - x^8 + 2x^9 - x^{10} - x^{11} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Show also that the radius of convergence of this series is $R = 1$.

54. Use the series in Problem 53 to approximate with two-place accuracy the value of the integral

$$\int_0^{1/2} \frac{x+2}{x^2+x+1} dx.$$

Compare your estimate with the exact result given by a computer algebra system.

Use the power series in Problem 53 to approximate with two-place accuracy the rather formidable integrals in Problems 55 and 56. Compare your estimates with the exact values given by a computer algebra system.

55. $\int_0^{1/2} \frac{1}{1+x^2+x^4} dx$

56. $\int_0^{1/2} \frac{1}{1+x^4+x^8} dx$

In Problems 57 and 58, graph the given function and several of its Taylor polynomials of the indicated degrees.

57. $f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}$; degrees $n = 2, 4, 6, \dots$

58. $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt$; degrees $n = 3, 5, 7, \dots$

59. Use known power series to evaluate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x - \tan x}{\sin^{-1} x - \tan^{-1} x}$.

60. Substitute series such as

$$\sin(\tan x) = x + \frac{x^3}{6} - \frac{x^5}{40} - \frac{55x^7}{1008} + \dots$$

provided by a computer algebra system to evaluate

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(\tan x) - \tan(\sin x)}{\sin^{-1}(\tan^{-1} x) - \tan^{-1}(\sin^{-1} x)}.$$

61. (a) First use the parametrization $x(t) = a \cos t$, $y(t) = b \sin t$, $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ of the ellipse $(x/a)^2 + (y/b)^2 = 1$ to show that its perimeter (arc length) p is given by

$$p = 4a \int_0^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1 - \epsilon^2 \cos^2 t} dt$$

where $\epsilon = \sqrt{1 - (b/a)^2}$ is the *eccentricity* of the ellipse. This so-called *elliptic integral* is nonelementary and so must be approximated numerically. (b) Use the binomial series to expand the integrand in the perimeter formula in part (a). Then integrate termwise—using formula 113

from the table of integrals on the inside back cover—to show that the perimeter of the ellipse is given in terms of its major semiaxis and eccentricity by the power series

$$p = 2\pi a \left(1 - \frac{1}{4} \epsilon^2 - \frac{3}{64} \epsilon^4 - \frac{5}{256} \epsilon^6 - \frac{175}{16384} \epsilon^8 - \dots \right).$$

62. The *arithmetic mean* of the major and minor semiaxes of the ellipse of Problem 61 is $A = \frac{1}{2}(a+b)$; their *root-square mean* is $R = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}(a^2+b^2)}$. Substitute $b = a\sqrt{1-\epsilon^2}$ and use the binomial series to derive the expansions

$$A = a \left(1 - \frac{1}{4} \epsilon^2 - \frac{1}{16} \epsilon^4 - \frac{1}{32} \epsilon^6 - \frac{5}{256} \epsilon^8 - \dots \right)$$

and

$$R = a \left(1 - \frac{1}{4} \epsilon^2 - \frac{1}{32} \epsilon^4 - \frac{1}{128} \epsilon^6 - \frac{5}{2048} \epsilon^8 - \dots \right).$$

Something wonderful happens when you average these two series; show that

$$\frac{1}{2}(A+R) = a \left(1 - \frac{1}{4} \epsilon^2 - \frac{3}{64} \epsilon^4 - \frac{5}{256} \epsilon^6 - \frac{180}{16384} \epsilon^8 - \dots \right),$$

and then note that the first four terms of the series within the parentheses here are the same as in the ellipse perimeter series of Problem 61(b). Conclude that the perimeter p of the ellipse is given by

$$p = \pi(A+R) + \frac{5\pi a}{8192} \epsilon^8 + \dots \quad (14)$$

If ϵ is quite small—as in a nearly circular ellipse—then the difference between the exact value of p and the simple approximation

$$p \approx \pi(A+R) = \pi \left(\frac{1}{2}(a+b) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}(a^2+b^2)} \right)$$

is extremely small. For instance, suppose that the orbit of the moon around the earth is an ellipse with major semiaxis a exactly 238,857 miles long and eccentricity ϵ exactly 0.0549. Then use Eq. (14) and a computer algebra system with extended-precision arithmetic to find the perimeter of the moon’s orbit accurate to the nearest inch; give your answer in miles-feet-inches format.

11.9 PROJECT: CALCULATING TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS ON A DESERTED ISLAND

Again (as in the 11.4 project), you’re stranded for life on a desert island with only a very basic calculator that doesn’t know about transcendental functions. Now your task is to use the (alternating) sine and cosine series to construct a table presenting (with five-place accuracy) the sines, cosines, and tangents of angles from 0° to 90° in increments of 5° .

To begin with, you can find the sine, cosine, and tangent of an angle of 45° from the familiar $1-1-\sqrt{2}$ right triangle. Then you can find the values of these functions at an angle of 60° from an equilateral triangle. Once you know all about 45° and 60° angles, you can use the sine and cosine addition formulas

$$\sin(\alpha \pm \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta \pm \cos \alpha \sin \beta$$

and

$$\cos(\alpha \pm \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta \mp \sin \alpha \sin \beta$$

and/or equivalent forms to find the sine, cosine, and tangent of such angles as 15° , 30° , 75° , and 90° .

But algebra and simple trigonometric identities will probably never give you the sine or cosine or an angle of 5° . For this you will need to use the power series for sine and cosine. Sum enough terms (and then some) so you know your result is accurate to nine decimal places. Then fill in all the entries in your table, rounding them to five places. Tell—honestly—whether your entries agree with those your *real* calculator gives.

Finally, explain what strategy you would use to complete a similar table of values of trigonometric functions with angles by increments of 1° rather than 5° .

CHAPTER 11 REVIEW: DEFINITIONS, CONCEPTS, RESULTS

Use the following list as a guide to concepts that you may need to review.

1. Definition of the limit of a sequence
2. The limit laws for sequences
3. The bounded monotonic sequence property
4. Definition of the sum of an infinite series
5. Formula for the sum of a geometric series
6. The n th-term test for divergence
7. Divergence of the harmonic series
8. The n th-degree Taylor polynomial of the function f at the point $x = a$
9. Taylor's formula with remainder
10. The Taylor series of the elementary transcendental functions
11. The integral test
12. Convergence of p -series
13. The comparison and limit comparison tests
14. The alternating series test
15. Absolute convergence: definition *and* the fact that it implies convergence
16. The ratio test
17. The root test
18. Power series; radius of convergence and interval of convergence
19. The binomial series
20. Termwise differentiation and integration of power series
21. The use of power series to approximate values of functions and integrals
22. The sum and product of two power series
23. The use of power series to evaluate indeterminate forms

CHAPTER 11 MISCELLANEOUS PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 15, determine whether the sequence $\{a_n\}$ converges, and if so, find its limit.

$$1. a_n = \frac{n^2 + 1}{n^2 + 4}$$

$$2. a_n = \frac{8n - 7}{7n - 8}$$

$$3. a_n = 10 - (0.99)^n$$

$$4. a_n = n \sin \pi n$$

$$5. a_n = \frac{1 + (-1)^n \sqrt{n}}{n + 1}$$

$$7. a_n = \frac{\sin 2n}{n}$$

$$9. a_n = (-1)^{\sin(n\pi/2)}$$

$$6. a_n = \sqrt{\frac{1 + (-0.5)^n}{n + 1}}$$

$$8. a_n = 2^{-(\ln n)/n}$$

$$10. a_n = \frac{(\ln n)^3}{n^2}$$

11. $a_n = \frac{1}{n} \sin \frac{1}{n}$

12. $a_n = \frac{n - e^n}{n + e^n}$

13. $a_n = \frac{\sinh n}{n}$

14. $a_n = \left(1 + \frac{2}{n}\right)^{2n}$

15. $a_n = (2n^2 + 1)^{1/n}$

Determine whether each infinite series in Problems 16 through 30 converges or diverges.

16. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n^2)!}{n^n}$

17. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} \ln n}{n}$

18. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{2^n + 4^n}$

19. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{e^{n^2}}$

20. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{3/2}} \sin \frac{1}{n}$

21. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-2)^n}{3^n + 1}$

22. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-(2/n^2)}$

23. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{(\ln n)^3}$

24. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{10^{1/n}}$

25. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n} + \sqrt[3]{n}}{n^2 + n^3}$

26. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^{[1+(1/n)]}}$

27. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} \arctan n}{\sqrt{n}}$

28. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \sin \frac{1}{n}$

29. $\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)(\ln \ln n)}$

30. $\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)(\ln \ln n)^2}$

Find the interval of convergence of the power series in Problems 31 through 40.

31. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^n x^n}{n!}$

32. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(3x)^n}{2^{n+1}}$

33. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-1)^n}{n \cdot 3^n}$

34. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2x-3)^n}{4^n}$

35. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{4n^2 - 1}$

36. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2x-1)^n}{n^2 + 1}$

37. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n! x^{2n}}{10^n}$

38. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{\ln n}$

39. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1 + (-1)^n}{2(n!)} x^n$

40. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n (x-1)^n$

Find the set of all values of x for which the series in Problems 41 through 43 converge.

41. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (x-n)^n$

42. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\ln x)^n$

43. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{nx}}{n!}$

44. Find the rational number that has repeated decimal expansion 2.7182818281828 . . .

45. Give an example of two convergent numerical series $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ such that the series $\sum a_n b_n$ diverges.

46. Prove that if $\sum a_n$ is a convergent positive-term series, then $\sum a_n^2$ converges.

47. Let the sequence $\{a_n\}$ be defined recursively as follows:

$$a_1 = 1; \quad a_{n+1} = 1 + \frac{1}{1 + a_n} \quad \text{if } n \geq 1.$$

The limit of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is the value of the *continued fraction*

$$1 + \cfrac{1}{2 + \cfrac{1}{2 + \cfrac{1}{2 + \cfrac{1}{2 + \cdots}}}}.$$

Assuming that $A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ exists, prove that $A = \sqrt{2}$.

48. Let $\{F_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be the Fibonacci sequence of Example 2 in Section 11.2. (a) Prove that $0 < F_n \leq 2^n$ for all $n \geq 1$, and hence conclude that the power series

$$F(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n x^n$$

converges if $|x| < \frac{1}{2}$. (b) Show that $(1 - x - x^2)F(x) = x$, so

$$F(x) = \frac{x}{1 - x - x^2}.$$

49. We say that the *infinite product* indicated by

$$\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 + a_n) = (1 + a_1)(1 + a_2)(1 + a_3)\cdots$$

converges provided that the infinite series

$$S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln(1 + a_n)$$

converges, in which case the value of the infinite product is, by definition, e^S . Use the integral test to prove that

$$\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)$$

diverges.

50. Prove that the infinite product (see Problem 49)

$$\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$

converges, and use the integral test remainder estimate to approximate its value. The actual value of this infinite product is known to be

$$\frac{\sinh \pi}{\pi} \approx 3.6760779103749777206956975.$$

In Problems 51 through 55, use infinite series to approximate the indicated number accurate to three decimal places.

51. $\sqrt[5]{1.5}$

53. $\int_0^{0.5} e^{-x^2} dx$

55. $\int_0^1 \frac{1 - e^{-x}}{x} dx$

52. $\ln(1.2)$

54. $\int_0^{0.5} \sqrt[3]{1 + x^4} dx$

56. Substitute the Maclaurin series for $\sin x$ into that for e^x to obtain

$$e^{\sin x} = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{8}x^4 + \dots$$

57. Substitute the Maclaurin series for the cosine and then integrate termwise to derive the formula

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-t^2} \cos 2xt dt = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} e^{-x^2}.$$

Use the reduction formula

$$\int_0^\infty t^{2n} e^{-t^2} dt = \frac{2n-1}{2} \int_0^\infty t^{2n-2} e^{-t^2} dt$$

derived in Problem 50 of Section 9.3. The validity of this improper termwise integration is subject to verification.

58. Prove that

$$\tanh^{-1} x = \int_0^x \frac{1}{1-t^2} dt = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}$$

if $|x| < 1$.

59. Prove that

$$\begin{aligned} \sinh^{-1} x &= \int_0^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+t^2}} dt \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots (2n)} \cdot \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} \end{aligned}$$

if $|x| < 1$.

60. Suppose that $\tan y = \sum a_n y^n$. Determine a_0, a_1, a_2 , and a_3 by substituting the inverse tangent series [Eq. (27) of Section 11.4] into the equation

$$x = \tan(\tan^{-1} x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (\tan^{-1} x)^n.$$

61. According to Stirling's series, the value of $n!$ for large n is given to a close approximation by

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n e^{\mu(n)},$$

where

$$\mu(n) = \frac{1}{12n} - \frac{1}{360n^3} + \frac{1}{1260n^5}.$$

Substitute $\mu(n)$ into Maclaurin's series for e^x to show that

$$e^{\mu(n)} = 1 + \frac{1}{12n} + \frac{1}{288n^2} - \frac{139}{51840n^3} + \dots.$$

Can you show that the next term in the last series is $-571/(2,488,320n^4)$?

62. Define

$$T(n) = \int_0^{\pi/4} \tan^n x dx$$

for $n \geq 0$. (a) Show by "reduction" of the integral that

$$T(n+2) = \frac{1}{n+1} - T(n)$$

for $n \geq 0$. (b) Conclude that $T(n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(c) Show that $T_0 = \pi/4$ and that $T_1 = \frac{1}{2} \ln 2$. (d) Prove by induction on n that

$$T(2n) = (-1)^{n+1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \dots \pm \frac{1}{2n-1} - \frac{\pi}{4} \right).$$

(e) Conclude from parts (b) and (d) that

$$1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \dots = \frac{\pi}{4}.$$

(f) Prove by induction on n that

$$T(2n+1) = \frac{1}{2} (-1)^n \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \dots \pm \frac{1}{n} - \ln 2 \right).$$

(g) Conclude from parts (b) and (f) that

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots = \ln 2.$$

63. Prove as follows that the number e is irrational. First suppose to the contrary that $e = p/q$, where p and q are positive integers. Note that $q > 1$. Write

$$\frac{p}{q} = e = \frac{1}{0!} + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \dots + \frac{1}{q!} + R_q,$$

where $0 < R_q < 3/(q+1)!$. (Why?) Then show that multiplication of both sides of this equation by $q!$ would lead to the contradiction that one side of the result is an integer but the other side is not.

64. Evaluate the infinite product (see Problem 49)

$$\prod_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n^2 - 1}$$

by finding an explicit formula for

$$\prod_{n=2}^k \frac{n^2}{n^2 - 1} \quad (k \geq 2)$$

and then taking the limit as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

- 65.** Find a continued fraction representation (see Problem 47)

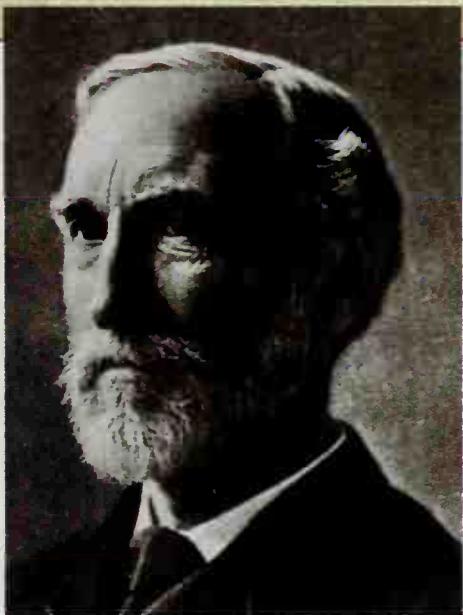
$$a_0 + \cfrac{1}{a_1 + \cfrac{1}{a_2 + \cfrac{1}{a_3 + \cfrac{1}{a_4 + \dots}}}}$$

of $\sqrt{5}$.

- 66.** Evaluate

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{2}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} - \frac{2}{9} + \frac{1}{10} + \dots$$

VECTORS, CURVES, AND SURFACES IN SPACE



J.W. Gibbs (1839–1903)

The study of vector quantities with both direction and magnitude (such as force and velocity) dates back at least to Newton's *Principia Mathematica*. But the vector notation and terminology used in science and mathematics today was largely "born in the USA." The modern system of vector analysis was created independently (and almost simultaneously) in the 1880s by the American mathematical physicist Josiah Willard Gibbs and the British electrical engineer Oliver Heaviside (1850–1925). Gibbs' first vector publication—*Elements of Vector Analysis* (1881)—appeared slightly earlier than Heaviside's (an 1885 paper) and was more systematic

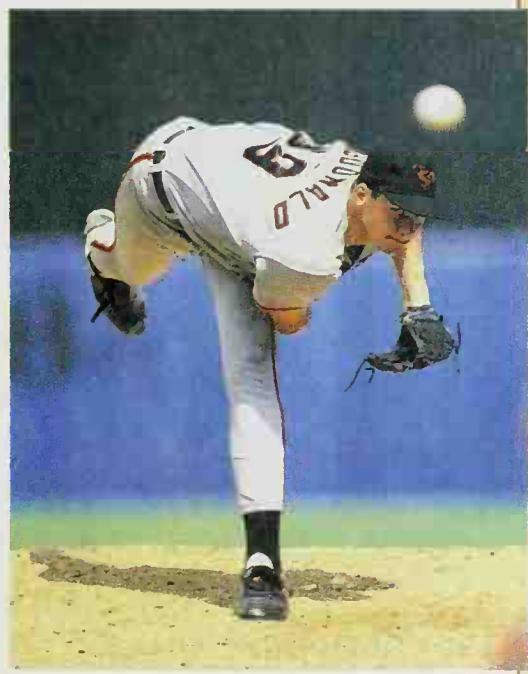
and complete in its exposition of the foundations of the subject.

Gibbs, the son of a Yale university professor, grew up in New Haven and attended Yale as an undergraduate. He studied both Latin and mathematics and remained at Yale for graduate work in engineering. In 1863 he received one of the first Ph.D. degrees awarded in the United States (and apparently the very first in engineering). After several years of postdoctoral study of mathematics and physics in France and Germany, he returned to Yale, where he served for more than three decades as professor of mathematical physics.

The educational careers of Gibbs and Heaviside were as different as their vectors were similar. At 16 Heaviside quit school, and at 18 he began work as a telegraph operator. Starting with this very practical introduction to electricity, he published in 1872 the first of a series of electrical papers leading to his famous three-volume treatise *Electromagnetic Theory*. The first volume of this treatise appeared in 1893 and included Heaviside's own systematic presentation of modern vector analysis.

Gibbs introduced the \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{j} , \mathbf{k} notation now standard for three-dimensional vectors, adapting it from the algebra of "quaternions,"

in which the Irish mathematician William Rowan Hamilton (1805–1865) earlier had used i , j , and k to denote three distinct square roots of -1 . Gibbs was the first to define clearly both the scalar (dot) product $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ and the vector (cross) product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ of the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} . He observed that $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a} = -\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$, in contrast with the commutativity of multiplication of ordinary numbers. In the Section 12.5 Project, you will see that the vector product is a key to the analysis of the "curve" of a baseball pitch.



12.1 VECTORS IN THE PLANE

A physical quantity such as length, temperature, or mass can be specified in terms of a single real number, its *magnitude*. Such a quantity is called a **scalar**. Other physical quantities, such as force and velocity, possess both magnitude and *direction*; these quantities are called **vector quantities**, or simply **vectors**.

For example, to specify the velocity of a moving point in the coordinate plane, we must give both the rate at which the point moves (its speed) and the direction of that motion. The *velocity vector* of the moving point incorporates both pieces of information—direction and speed. It is convenient to represent this velocity vector by an arrow, with its initial point located at the current position of the moving point on its trajectory (Fig. 12.1.1).

Although the arrow, a directed line segment, carries the desired information—both magnitude (the segment's length) and direction—it is a **pictorial** representation rather than a quantitative object. The following formal definition of a vector captures the essence of magnitude in combination with direction.

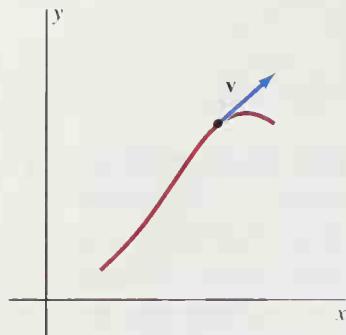


Fig. 12.1.1 A velocity vector may be represented by an arrow.

Definition Vector

A **vector** \mathbf{v} in the Cartesian plane is an ordered pair of real numbers that has the form $\langle a, b \rangle$. We write $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b \rangle$ and call a and b the **components** of the vector \mathbf{v} .

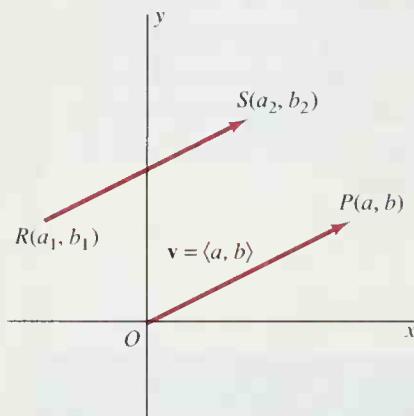


Fig. 12.1.2 The position vector \mathbf{v} of the point P and another representation \overrightarrow{RS} of \mathbf{v} .

The directed line segment \overrightarrow{OP} from the origin O to the point $P(a, b)$ is one geometric representation of the vector \mathbf{v} (see Fig. 12.1.2). For this reason, the vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b \rangle$ is called the **position vector** of the point $P(a, b)$. In fact, the relationship between $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b \rangle$ and $P(a, b)$ is so close that, in certain contexts, it is convenient to confuse the two deliberately—to regard \mathbf{v} and P as the same mathematical object.

The directed line segment from the point $Q(a_1, b_1)$ to the point $R(a_2, b_2)$ has the same direction and magnitude as the directed line segment from the origin $O(0, 0)$ to the point $P(a_2 - a_1, b_2 - b_1)$, and consequently they represent the same vector $\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{OP} = \overrightarrow{QR}$. With this observation, it is easy to find the components of the vector with arbitrary initial point Q and arbitrary terminal point R .

REMARK When discussing vectors, we often use the term *scalar* to refer to an ordinary numerical quantity, one that is *not* a vector. In printed work we use **bold** type to distinguish the names of vectors from those of other mathematical objects, such as the scalars a and b that are the components of the vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b \rangle$. In handwritten work a suitable alternative is to place an arrow—or just a bar—over every symbol that denotes a vector. Thus you may write $\vec{v} = \langle a, b \rangle$ or $\bar{v} = \langle a, b \rangle$. There is no need for an arrow or a bar over a vector $\langle a, b \rangle$ already identified by angle brackets, so none should be used there.

A directed line segment has both length and direction. The **length** of the vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b \rangle$ is denoted by $v = |\mathbf{v}|$ and is defined as follows:

$$v = |\mathbf{v}| = |\langle a, b \rangle| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}. \quad (1)$$

The notation $v = |\mathbf{v}|$ is used because the length of a vector is in many ways analogous to the absolute value of a real number (Fig. 12.1.3).

EXAMPLE 1 The length of the vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle 1, -2 \rangle$ is

$$v = |\langle 1, -2 \rangle| = \sqrt{(1)^2 + (-2)^2} = \sqrt{5}.$$

Fig. 12.1.3 The length $v = |\mathbf{v}|$ of the vector \mathbf{v} .

The only vector with length zero is the **zero vector** with both components zero, denoted by $\mathbf{0} = \langle 0, 0 \rangle$. The zero vector is unique in that it has no specific direction. Every nonzero vector has a specified direction; the vector represented by the arrow \overrightarrow{OP} from the origin O to another point P in the plane has direction specified (for instance) by the counterclockwise angle from the positive x -axis to \overrightarrow{OP} .

What is important about the vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b \rangle$ represented by \overrightarrow{OP} often is not where it is, but how long it is and which way it points. If the directed line segment \overrightarrow{RS} with endpoints $R(a_1, b_1)$ and $S(a_2, b_2)$ has the same length and direction as \overrightarrow{OP} , then we say that \overrightarrow{RS} represents (or is a **representation** of) the vector \mathbf{v} . Thus a single vector has many representatives (Fig. 12.1.4).

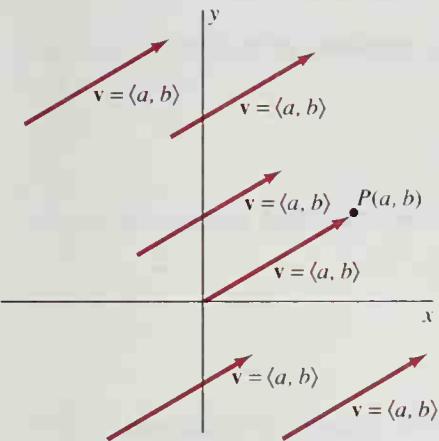


Fig. 12.1.4 All these arrows represent the same vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b \rangle$.

Algebraic Operations with Vectors

The operations of addition and multiplication of real numbers have **analogues** for vectors. We shall define each of these operations of *vector algebra* in terms of components of vectors and then give a geometric interpretation in terms of arrows.

Definition Equality of Vectors

The two vectors $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$ are **equal** provided that $u_1 = v_1$ and $u_2 = v_2$.

In other words, two vectors are equal if and only if *corresponding components* are the same. Moreover, two directed line segments \overrightarrow{PQ} and \overrightarrow{RS} represent the same vector provided that they have the same length and direction. This will be the case provided that the segments \overrightarrow{PQ} and \overrightarrow{RS} are opposite sides of a parallelogram (Fig. 12.1.5).

Definition Addition of Vectors

The **sum** $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ of the two vectors $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$ is the vector

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \langle u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2 \rangle. \quad (2)$$

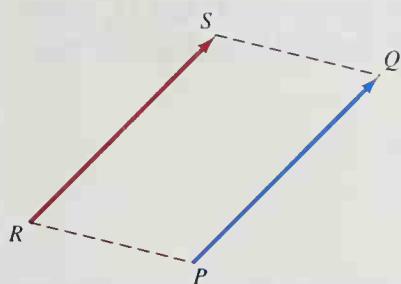


Fig. 12.1.5 Parallel directed segments representing equal vectors

Thus we add vectors by adding corresponding components—that is, by *componentwise addition*. The geometric interpretation of vector addition is the **triangle law of addition**, illustrated in Fig. 12.1.6, where the labeled lengths indicate why this interpretation is valid. An equivalent interpretation is the **parallelogram law of addition**, illustrated in Fig. 12.1.7.

EXAMPLE 2 The sum of the vectors $\mathbf{u} = \langle 4, 3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle -5, 2 \rangle$ is the vector

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \langle 4, 3 \rangle + \langle -5, 2 \rangle = \langle 4 + (-5), 3 + 2 \rangle = \langle -1, 5 \rangle.$$

It is natural to write $2\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{u}$. But if $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$, then

$$2\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle + \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle = \langle 2u_1, 2u_2 \rangle.$$

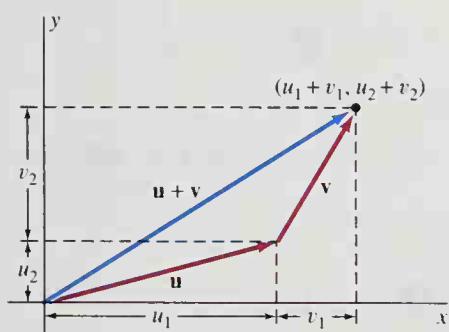


Fig. 12.1.6 The triangle law is a geometric interpretation of vector addition.

This suggests that multiplication of a vector by a scalar (real number) also is defined in a componentwise manner.

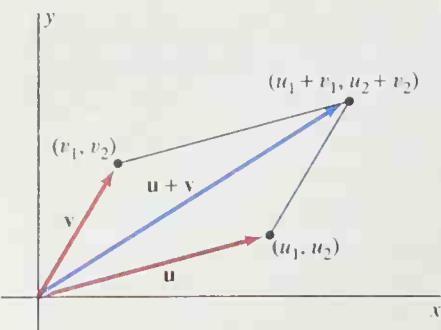


Fig. 12.1.7 The parallelogram law for vector addition

Definition Multiplication of a Vector by a Scalar

If $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$ and c is a real number, then the **scalar multiple** $c\mathbf{u}$ is the vector

$$c\mathbf{u} = \langle cu_1, cu_2 \rangle. \quad (3)$$

Note that

$$|c\mathbf{u}| = \sqrt{(cu_1)^2 + (cu_2)^2} = |c| \sqrt{(u_1)^2 + (u_2)^2} = |c| \cdot |\mathbf{u}|.$$

Thus the length of $|c\mathbf{u}|$ is $|c|$ times the length of \mathbf{u} . The **negative** of the vector \mathbf{u} is the vector

$$-\mathbf{u} = (-1)\mathbf{u} = \langle -u_1, -u_2 \rangle,$$

with the same length as \mathbf{u} but the opposite direction. We say that the two nonzero vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} have

- ▼ The **same direction** if $\mathbf{u} = cv$ for some $c > 0$;
- ▼ **Opposite directions** if $\mathbf{u} = cv$ for some $c < 0$.

The geometric interpretation of scalar multiplication is that $c\mathbf{u}$ is the vector with length $|c| \cdot |\mathbf{u}|$, with the same direction as \mathbf{u} if $c > 0$ but with the opposite direction if $c < 0$ (Fig. 12.1.8).

The **difference** $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ of the vectors $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$ is defined to be

$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \langle u_1 - v_1, u_2 - v_2 \rangle. \quad (4)$$

If we think of $\langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$ and $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$ as position vectors of the points P and Q , respectively, then $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ may be represented by the arrow \overrightarrow{QP} from Q to P . We may therefore write

$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{OP} - \overrightarrow{OQ} = \overrightarrow{QP},$$

as illustrated in Fig. 12.1.9.

EXAMPLE 3 Suppose that $\mathbf{u} = \langle 4, -3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle -2, 3 \rangle$. Find $|\mathbf{u}|$ and the vectors $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$, $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$, $3\mathbf{u} - 2\mathbf{v}$, and $2\mathbf{u} + 4\mathbf{v}$.

Solution

$$|\mathbf{u}| = \sqrt{4^2 + (-3)^2} = \sqrt{25} = 5.$$

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \langle 4 + (-2), -3 + 3 \rangle = \langle 2, 0 \rangle.$$

$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \langle 4 - (-2), -3 - 3 \rangle = \langle 6, -6 \rangle.$$

$$3\mathbf{u} = \langle 3 \cdot 4, 3 \cdot (-3) \rangle = \langle 12, -9 \rangle.$$

$$-2\mathbf{v} = \langle -2 \cdot (-2), -2 \cdot 3 \rangle = \langle 4, -6 \rangle.$$

$$2\mathbf{u} + 4\mathbf{v} = \langle 2 \cdot 4 + 4 \cdot (-2), 2 \cdot (-3) + 4 \cdot 3 \rangle = \langle 0, 6 \rangle.$$

Fig. 12.1.8 The vector $c\mathbf{u}$ may have the same direction as \mathbf{u} or the opposite direction, depending on the sign of c .

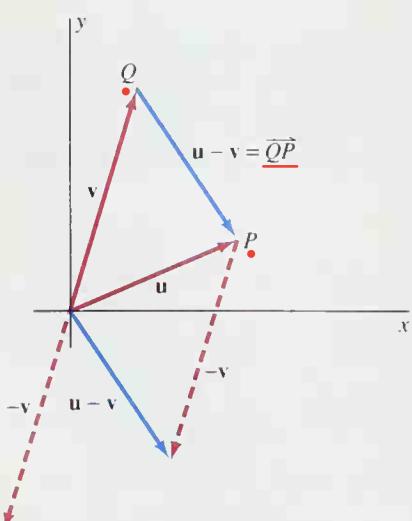


Fig. 12.1.9 Geometric interpretation of the difference $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$

The familiar algebraic properties of real numbers carry over to the following analogous properties of vector addition and scalar multiplication. Let \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} be vectors and r and s real numbers. Then

1. $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a},$
 2. $\mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c},$
 3. $r(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = r\mathbf{a} + r\mathbf{b},$
 4. $(r + s)\mathbf{a} = r\mathbf{a} + s\mathbf{a},$
 5. $(rs)\mathbf{a} = r(s\mathbf{a}) = s(r\mathbf{a}).$
- (5)

You can easily verify these identities by working with components. For example, if $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$, then

$$\begin{aligned} r(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) &= r\langle a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2 \rangle = \langle r(a_1 + b_1), r(a_2 + b_2) \rangle \\ &= \langle ra_1 + rb_1, ra_2 + rb_2 \rangle = \langle ra_1, ra_2 \rangle + \langle rb_1, rb_2 \rangle = r\mathbf{a} + r\mathbf{b}. \end{aligned}$$

The proofs of the other four identities in Eq. (5) are left as exercises.

The Unit Vectors \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{j}

A **unit vector** is a vector of length 1. If $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle \neq \mathbf{0}$, then

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|} \quad (6)$$

is the unit vector with the same direction as \mathbf{a} , because

interesting
$$|\mathbf{u}| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{a_1}{|\mathbf{a}|}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{a_2}{|\mathbf{a}|}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{a}|} \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2} = 1.$$

For example, if $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, -4 \rangle$, then $|\mathbf{a}| = 5$. Thus $\langle \frac{3}{5}, -\frac{4}{5} \rangle$ is a unit vector that has the same direction as \mathbf{a} .

Two particular unit vectors play a special role, the vectors

$$\mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0 \rangle \text{ and } \mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1 \rangle.$$

The first points in the positive x -direction; the second points in the positive y -direction (Fig. 12.1.10). Together they provide a useful alternative notation for vectors. If $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$, then

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, 0 \rangle + \langle 0, a_2 \rangle = a_1\langle 1, 0 \rangle + a_2\langle 0, 1 \rangle = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j}. \quad (7)$$

Thus every vector in the plane is a **linear combination** of \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{j} . The usefulness of this notation is based on the fact that such linear combinations of \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{j} may be manipulated as if they were ordinary sums. For example, if

$$\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j} \text{ and } \mathbf{b} = b_1\mathbf{i} + b_2\mathbf{j},$$

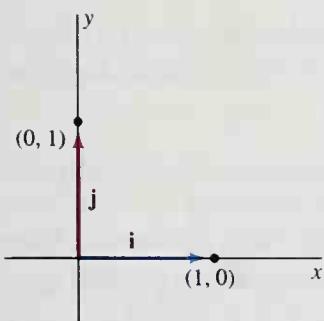


Fig. 12.1.10 The vectors \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{j}

then

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = (a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j}) + (b_1\mathbf{i} + b_2\mathbf{j}) = (a_1 + b_1)\mathbf{i} + (a_2 + b_2)\mathbf{j}.$$

Also,

$$c\mathbf{a} = c(a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j}) = (ca_1)\mathbf{i} + (ca_2)\mathbf{j}.$$

EXAMPLE 4 Suppose that $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{b} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$. Express $5\mathbf{a} - 3\mathbf{b}$ in terms of \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{j} .

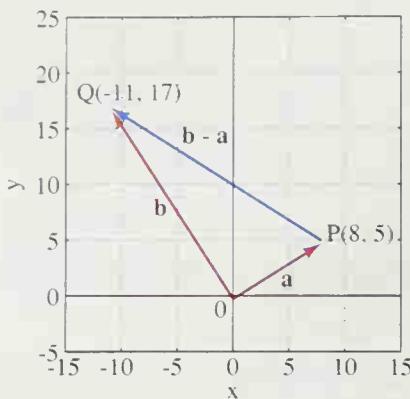


Fig. 12.1.11 The vectors \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and $\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}$ of Example 5

Solution

vector operation

$$\begin{aligned} 5\mathbf{a} - 3\mathbf{b} &= 5 \cdot (2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j}) - 3 \cdot (3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}) \\ &= (10 - 9)\mathbf{i} + (-15 - 12)\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{i} - 27\mathbf{j}. \end{aligned}$$

■

EXAMPLE 5 When the vectors $\mathbf{a} = 8\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{b} = -11\mathbf{i} + 17\mathbf{j}$ are plotted carefully (Fig. 12.1.11), they look as though they might be perpendicular. Determine whether this is so.

Solution If the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are regarded as position vectors of the points $P(8, 5)$ and $Q(-11, 17)$, then their difference $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a} = -19\mathbf{i} + 12\mathbf{j}$ represents the third side PQ of the triangle OPQ (Fig. 12.1.11). According to the Pythagorean theorem, this triangle is a right triangle with hypotenuse PQ if and only if $|\mathbf{c}|^2 = |\mathbf{a}|^2 + |\mathbf{b}|^2$. But

$$|\mathbf{c}|^2 = (-19)^2 + 12^2 = 505 \quad \text{whereas} \quad |\mathbf{a}|^2 + |\mathbf{b}|^2 = [8^2 + 5^2] + [(-11)^2 + 17^2] = 499.$$

It follows that the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are not perpendicular. ■

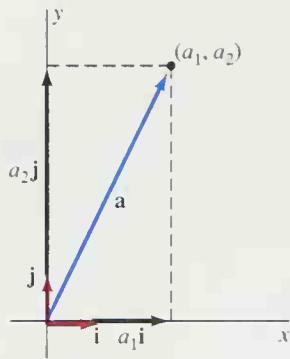


Fig. 12.1.12 Resolution of $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2)$ into its horizontal and vertical components

Equation (7) expresses the vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2)$ as the sum of a horizontal vector $a_1\mathbf{i}$ and a vertical vector $a_2\mathbf{j}$, as Fig. 12.1.12 shows. The decomposition or resolution of a vector into its horizontal and vertical components is an important technique in the study of vector quantities. For example, a force \mathbf{F} may be decomposed into its horizontal and vertical components $F_1\mathbf{i}$ and $F_2\mathbf{j}$, respectively. The physical effect of the single force \mathbf{F} is the same as the combined effect of the separate forces $F_1\mathbf{i}$ and $F_2\mathbf{j}$. (This is an instance of the empirically verifiable parallelogram law of addition of forces.) Because of this decomposition, many two-dimensional problems can be reduced to one-dimensional problems, the latter solved, and the two results combined (again by vector methods) to give the solution of the original problem.

EXAMPLE 6 A 100-lb weight is suspended from the ceiling by means of two perpendicular flexible cables of equal length (Fig. 12.1.13). Find the tension (in pounds) in each cable. **convert to mathematical equations**

Solution Each cable is inclined at an angle of 45° from the horizontal, so it follows readily upon calculating horizontal and vertical components that the indicated tension force vectors \mathbf{T}_1 and \mathbf{T}_2 are given by

$$\underline{\mathbf{T}_1 = (T_1 \cos 45^\circ)\mathbf{i} + (T_1 \sin 45^\circ)\mathbf{j}} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{\mathbf{T}_2 = (-T_2 \cos 45^\circ)\mathbf{i} + (T_2 \sin 45^\circ)\mathbf{j}},$$

where $T_1 = |\mathbf{T}_1|$ and $T_2 = |\mathbf{T}_2|$ are the tension forces we seek. The downward force of gravity acting on the weight is given by $\mathbf{F} = -100\mathbf{j}$. So that the weight will hang motionless, the three forces must "balance," so that $\mathbf{T}_1 + \mathbf{T}_2 + \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$; that is,

$$[(T_1 \cos 45^\circ)\mathbf{i} + (T_1 \sin 45^\circ)\mathbf{j}] + [(-T_2 \cos 45^\circ)\mathbf{i} + (T_2 \sin 45^\circ)\mathbf{j}] = 100\mathbf{j}.$$

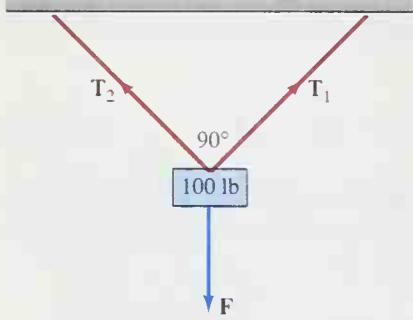


Fig. 12.1.13 The suspended weight of Example 6

When we equate the components of \mathbf{i} in this equation and separately equate the components of \mathbf{j} , we get the two scalar equations

$$\underline{T_1 \cos 45^\circ - T_2 \cos 45^\circ = 0} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{T_1 \sin 45^\circ + T_2 \sin 45^\circ = 100}.$$

The first of these scalar equations implies that $T_1 = T_2 = T$, and the second yields $T = 100/(2 \sin 45^\circ) = 50\sqrt{2} \approx 70.71$ (pounds) for the tension in each cable. ■

12.1 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 4, find a vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b \rangle$ that is represented by the directed line segment \overrightarrow{RS} . Then sketch both \overrightarrow{RS} and the position vector of the point $P(a, b)$.

1. $R(1, 2), S(3, 5)$
2. $R(-2, -3), S(1, 4)$
3. $R(5, 10), S(-5, -10)$
4. $R(-10, 20), S(15, -25)$

In Problems 5 through 8, find the sum $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ and illustrate it geometrically.

5. $\mathbf{u} = \langle 1, -2 \rangle, \mathbf{v} = \langle 3, 4 \rangle$
6. $\mathbf{u} = \langle 4, 2 \rangle, \mathbf{v} = \langle -2, 5 \rangle$
7. $\mathbf{u} = 3\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{i} - 7\mathbf{j}$
8. $\mathbf{u} = 7\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{v} = -10\mathbf{i}$

In Problems 9 through 16, find $|\mathbf{a}|, |-\mathbf{2b}|, |\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}|, \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$, and $3\mathbf{a} - 2\mathbf{b}$.

9. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, -2 \rangle, \mathbf{b} = \langle -3, 2 \rangle$
10. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, 4 \rangle, \mathbf{b} = \langle -4, 3 \rangle$
11. $\mathbf{a} = \langle -2, -2 \rangle, \mathbf{b} = \langle -3, -4 \rangle$
12. $\mathbf{a} = -2\langle 4, 7 \rangle, \mathbf{b} = -3\langle -4, -2 \rangle$
13. $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{b} = 2\mathbf{i} - 5\mathbf{j}$
14. $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} - 5\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{i} - 6\mathbf{j}$
15. $\mathbf{a} = 4\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{b} = -7\mathbf{j}$
16. $\mathbf{a} = -\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{b} = 2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}$

In Problems 17 through 20, find a unit vector \mathbf{u} with the same direction as the given vector \mathbf{a} . Express \mathbf{u} in terms of \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{j} . Also find a unit vector \mathbf{v} with the direction opposite that of \mathbf{a} .

17. $\mathbf{a} = \langle -3, -4 \rangle$
18. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 5, -12 \rangle$
19. $\mathbf{a} = 8\mathbf{i} + 15\mathbf{j}$
20. $\mathbf{a} = 7\mathbf{i} - 24\mathbf{j}$

In Problems 21 through 24, find the vector \mathbf{a} , expressed in terms of \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{j} , that is represented by the arrow \overrightarrow{PQ} in the plane.

21. $P = (3, 2), Q = (3, -2)$
22. $P = (-3, 5), Q = (-3, 6)$
23. $P = (-4, 7), Q = (4, -7)$
24. $P = (1, -1), Q = (-4, -1)$

In Problems 25 through 28, determine whether the given vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are perpendicular.

25. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 6, 0 \rangle, \mathbf{b} = \langle 0, -7 \rangle$
26. $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{b} = 3\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$
27. $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{j} + 8\mathbf{i}$
28. $\mathbf{a} = 8\mathbf{i} + 10\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{b} = 15\mathbf{i} - 12\mathbf{j}$

In Problems 29 and 30, express \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{j} in terms of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

29. $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{b} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$
30. $\mathbf{a} = 5\mathbf{i} - 9\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} - 7\mathbf{j}$

In Problems 31 and 32, write \mathbf{c} in the form $r\mathbf{a} + s\mathbf{b}$, where r and s are scalars.

31. $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{c} = 2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j}$
32. $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{b} = 8\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{c} = 7\mathbf{i} + 9\mathbf{j}$

33. Find a vector that has the same direction as $5\mathbf{i} - 7\mathbf{j}$ and is (a) three times its length; (b) one-third its length.
34. Find a vector that has the opposite direction from $-3\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}$ and is (a) four times its length; (b) one-fourth its length.
35. Find a vector of length 5 with (a) the same direction as $7\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j}$; (b) the direction opposite that of $8\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}$.
36. For what numbers c are the vectors $\langle c, 2 \rangle$ and $\langle c, -8 \rangle$ perpendicular?
37. For what numbers c are the vectors $2c\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j}$ and $3\mathbf{i} + c\mathbf{j}$ perpendicular?
38. Given the three points $A(2, 3), B(-5, 7)$, and $C(1, -5)$, verify by direct computation of the vectors and their sum that $\overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BC} + \overrightarrow{CA} = \mathbf{0}$.

In Problems 39 through 42, give a componentwise proof of the indicated property of vector algebra. Take $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{c} = \langle c_1, c_2 \rangle$ throughout.

39. $\mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c}$
40. $(r + s)\mathbf{a} = r\mathbf{a} + s\mathbf{a}$
41. $(rs)\mathbf{a} = r(s\mathbf{a})$
42. If $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a}$, then $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$.
43. Find the tension in each cable of Example 6 if the angle between them is 120° .

In Problems 44 through 46, a given weight (in pounds) is suspended by two cables as shown in the figure. Find the tension in each cable.

44. Figure 12.1.14

45. Figure 12.1.15

46. Figure 12.1.16

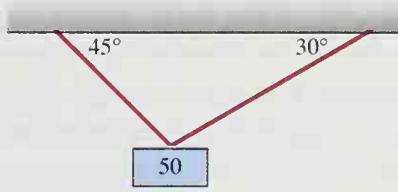


Fig. 12.1.14

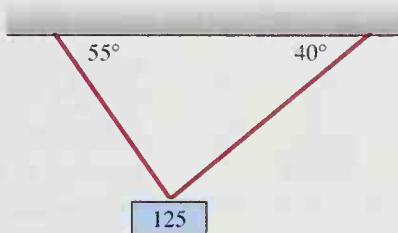


Fig. 12.1.15

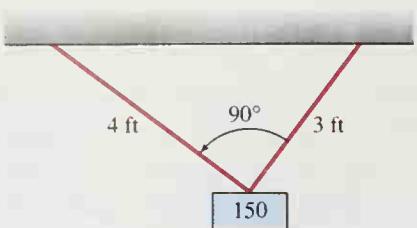


Fig. 12.1.16

In Problems 47 through 49, assume the following fact: If an airplane flies with velocity vector \mathbf{v}_a relative to the air and the velocity of the wind is \mathbf{w} , then the velocity vector of the plane relative to the ground is $\mathbf{v}_g = \mathbf{v}_a + \mathbf{w}$ (Fig. 12.1.17). The velocity \mathbf{v}_a is called the *apparent velocity vector*, and the vector \mathbf{v}_g is called the *true velocity vector*.

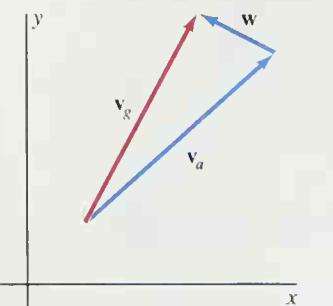
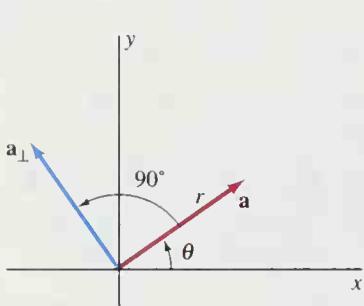


Fig. 12.1.17 The vectors of Problems 47 through 49

- ▼ Apparent velocity: \mathbf{v}_a
- ▼ Wind velocity: \mathbf{w}
- ▼ True velocity: $\mathbf{v}_g = \mathbf{v}_a + \mathbf{w}$

Fig. 12.1.18 Rotate \mathbf{a} counterclockwise 90° to obtain \mathbf{a}_\perp (Problem 55).

47. Suppose that the wind is blowing from the northeast at 50 mi/h and that the pilot wishes to fly due east at 500 mi/h. What should the plane's apparent velocity vector be?
48. Repeat Problem 47 with the phrase *due east* replaced with *due west*.
49. Repeat Problem 47 in the case that the pilot wishes to fly northwest at 500 mi/h.
50. Given any three points A , B , and C in the plane, show that $\overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BC} + \overrightarrow{CA} = \mathbf{0}$. (Suggestion: Picture the triangle ABC .)
51. If \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are the position vectors of the points P and Q in the plane and M is the point with position vector $\mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b})$, show that M is the midpoint of the line segment PQ . Is it sufficient to show that the vectors \overrightarrow{PM} and \overrightarrow{QM} are equal and opposite?
52. In the triangle ABC , let M and N be the midpoints of AB and AC , respectively. Show that $\overrightarrow{MN} = \frac{1}{2}\overrightarrow{BC}$. Conclude that the line segment joining the midpoints of two sides of a triangle is parallel to the third side. How are their lengths related?
53. Prove that the diagonals of a parallelogram $ABCD$ bisect each other. (Suggestion: If M and N are the midpoints of the diagonals AC and BD , respectively, and O is the origin, show that $\overrightarrow{OM} = \overrightarrow{ON}$.)
54. Use vectors to prove that the midpoints of the four sides of an arbitrary quadrilateral are the vertices of a parallelogram.
55. Figure 12.1.18 shows the vector \mathbf{a}_\perp obtained by rotating the vector $\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j}$ through a counterclockwise angle of 90° . Show that

$$\mathbf{a}_\perp = -a_2\mathbf{i} + a_1\mathbf{j}.$$

(Suggestion: Begin by writing $\mathbf{a} = (r \cos \theta)\mathbf{i} + (r \sin \theta)\mathbf{j}$.)

12.2 RECTANGULAR COORDINATES AND THREE-DIMENSIONAL VECTORS

In the first eleven chapters we discussed many aspects of the calculus of functions of a *single* variable. The geometry of such functions is two-dimensional, because the graph of a function of a single variable is a curve in the coordinate plane. Most of the remaining chapters deal with the calculus of functions of *several* (two or more) independent variables. The geometry of functions of two variables is three-dimensional, because the graphs of such functions are generally surfaces in space.

Rectangular coordinates in the plane may be generalized to rectangular coordinates in space. A point in space is determined by giving its location relative to three mutually perpendicular **coordinate axes** that pass through the origin O . We shall usually draw the x -, y -, and z -axes as shown in Fig. 12.2.1, sometimes with arrows indicating the positive direction along each axis; the positive x -axis will always be labeled x , and similarly for the positive y - and z -axes. With this configuration of axes, our rectangular coordinate system is said to be **right-handed**: If you curl the fingers of your right hand in the direction of a 90° rotation from the positive x -axis to the positive y -axis, then your thumb will point in the direction of the positive z -axis. If the x - and y -axes were interchanged, then the coordinate system would be left-handed.

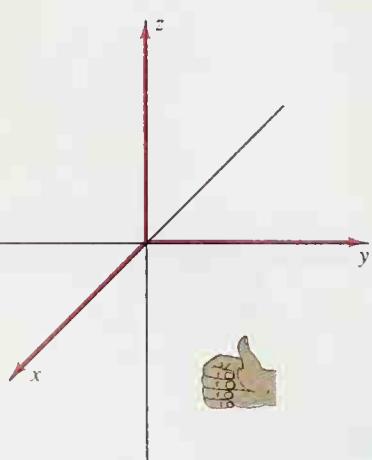


Fig. 12.2.1 The right-handed coordinate system

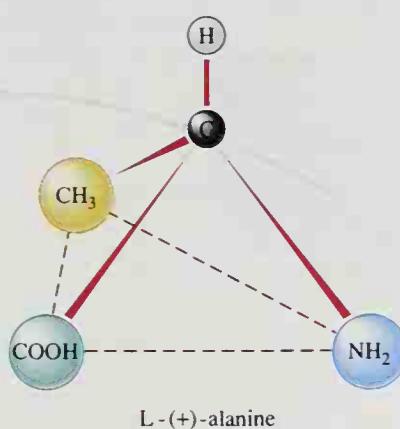


Fig. 12.2.2 The stereoisomers of the amino acid alanine are physically and biologically different even though they have the same molecular formula.

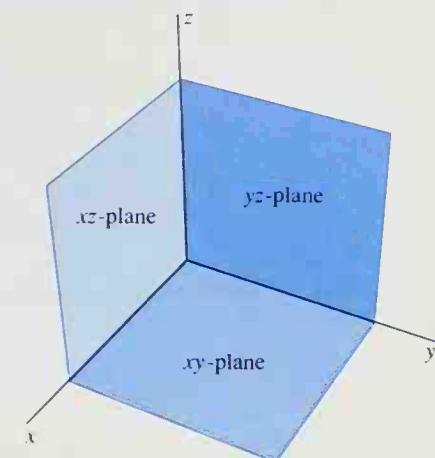


Fig. 12.2.3 The coordinate planes in space

These two coordinate systems are different in that it is impossible to bring one into coincidence with the other by means of rotations and translations. This is why the L- and D-alanine molecules shown in Fig. 12.2.2 are different; you can metabolize the left-handed (“levo”) version but not the right-handed (“dextro”) version. In this book we shall discuss right-handed coordinate systems exclusively and always draw the x -, y -, and z -axes with the right-handed orientation shown in Fig. 12.2.1.

The three coordinate axes taken in pairs determine the three **coordinate planes** (Fig. 12.2.3):

1. The (horizontal) xy -plane, where $z = 0$;
2. The (vertical) yz -plane, where $x = 0$; and
3. The (vertical) xz -plane, where $y = 0$.

The point P in space is said to have **rectangular coordinates** (x, y, z) if

1. x is its signed distance from the yz -plane,
2. y is its signed distance from the xz -plane, and
3. z is its signed distance from the xy -plane

Fig. 12.2.4 Locating the point P in rectangular coordinates

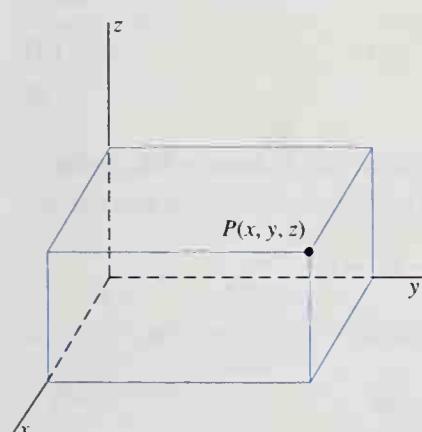


Fig. 12.2.5 Completing the box to show P with the illusion of the third dimension

(see Fig. 12.2.4). In this case we may describe the location of P simply by calling it “the point $P(x, y, z)$.” There is a natural one-to-one correspondence between ordered triples (x, y, z) of real numbers and points P in space; this correspondence is called a **rectangular coordinate system** in space. In Fig. 12.2.5 the point P is located in the **first octant**—the eighth of space in which all three rectangular coordinates are positive.

If we apply the Pythagorean theorem to the right triangles P_1QR and P_1RP_2 in Fig. 12.2.6, we get

$$\begin{aligned}|P_1P_2|^2 &= |RP_2|^2 + |P_1R|^2 = |RP_2|^2 + |QR|^2 + |P_1Q|^2 \\&= (x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2.\end{aligned}$$

Thus the **distance formula** for the **distance** $|P_1P_2|$ between the points P_1 and P_2 is

$$|P_1P_2| = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2}. \quad (1)$$

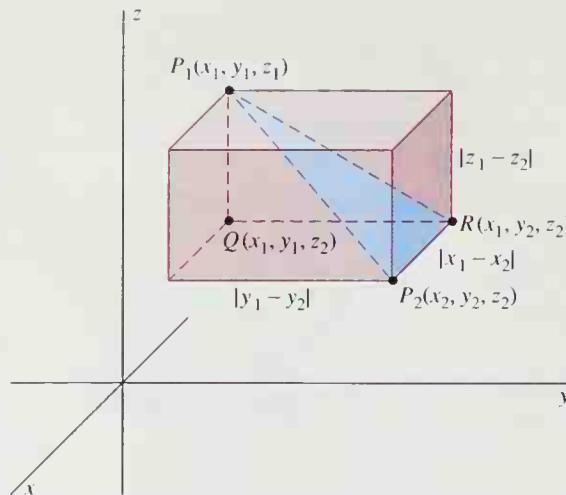


Fig. 12.2.6 The distance between P_1 and P_2 is the length of the long diagonal of the box.

EXAMPLE 1 The distance between the points $A(1, 3, -2)$ and $B(4, -3, 1)$ is

$$|AB| = \sqrt{(4-1)^2 + (-3-3)^2 + (1+2)^2} = \sqrt{54} \approx 7.348. \quad \blacksquare$$

You can apply the distance formula in Eq. (1) to show that the **midpoint** M of the line segment joining $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $P_2(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ is **think from Eq1**

$$\underline{M\left(\frac{x_1+x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1+y_2}{2}, \frac{z_1+z_2}{2}\right)} \quad (2)$$

(see Problem 63).

The **graph** of an equation in three variables x , y , and z is the set of all points in space with rectangular coordinates that satisfy that equation. In general, the graph of an equation in three variables is a *two-dimensional surface* in \mathbf{R}^3 (three-dimensional space with rectangular coordinates).

EXAMPLE 2 Given a fixed point $C(h, k, l)$ and a number $r > 0$, find an equation of the sphere with radius r and center C .

Solution By definition, the sphere is the set of all points $P(x, y, z)$ such that the distance from P to C is r . That is, $|CP| = r$, and thus $|CP|^2 = r^2$. Therefore

$$(x-h)^2 + (y-k)^2 + (z-l)^2 = r^2. \quad (3) \quad \blacksquare$$

Equation (3) is worth remembering as the equation of the **sphere with radius r and center $C(h, k, l)$** shown in Fig. 12.2.7. Moreover, given an equation of the form

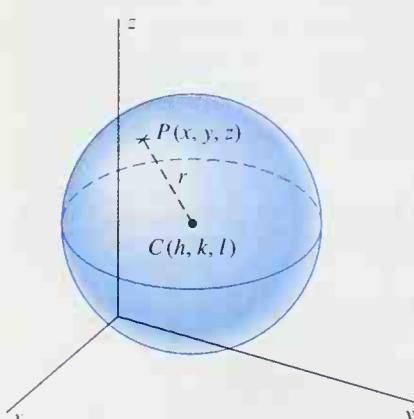
$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + Ax + By + Cz + D = 0,$$

we can attempt—by completing the square in each variable—to write it in the form of Eq. (3) and thereby show that its graph is a sphere.

EXAMPLE 3 Determine the graph of the equation

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 4x + 2y - 6z - 2 = 0.$$

Fig. 12.2.7 The sphere with center (h, k, l) and radius r



Solution We complete the square in each variable. The equation then takes the form

$$(x^2 + 4x + 4) + (y^2 + 2y + 1) + (z^2 - 6z + 9) = 2 + (4 + 1 + 9) = 16;$$

that is,

$$(x + 2)^2 + (y + 1)^2 + (z - 3)^2 = 4^2.$$

Thus the graph of the given equation is the sphere with radius 4 and center $(-2, -1, 3)$. ■

Vectors in Space

The discussion of vectors in space parallels the discussion in Section 12.1 of vectors in the plane. The difference is that a vector in space has three components rather than two. The point $P(x, y, z)$ has **position vector** $\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{OP} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$, which is represented by the directed line segment (or arrow) \overrightarrow{OP} from the origin O to the point P (as well as by any parallel translate of this arrow—see Fig. 12.2.8). The distance formula in Eq. (1) gives

$$|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \quad (4)$$

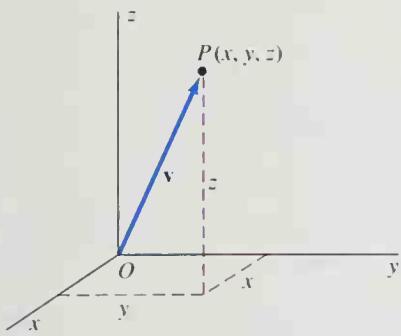


Fig. 12.2.8 The arrow \overrightarrow{OP} represents the position vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$.

for the **length (or magnitude)** of the vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$.

Given two points $A(a_1, a_2, a_3)$ and $B(b_1, b_2, b_3)$ in space, the directed line segment \overrightarrow{AB} in Fig. 12.2.9 represents the vector

$$\mathbf{v} = \langle b_1 - a_1, b_2 - a_2, b_3 - a_3 \rangle.$$

Its length is the distance between the two points A and B :

$$|\mathbf{v}| = |\overrightarrow{AB}| = \sqrt{(b_1 - a_1)^2 + (b_2 - a_2)^2 + (b_3 - a_3)^2}.$$

What it means for two vectors in space to be equal is essentially the same as in the case of two-dimensional vectors: The vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$ are **equal** provided that $a_1 = b_1$, $a_2 = b_2$, and $a_3 = b_3$. That is, two vectors are equal exactly when corresponding components are equal.

We define addition and scalar multiplication of vectors exactly as we did in Section 12.1, taking into account that the vectors now have three components rather than two: The **sum** of the vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$ is the vector

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \langle a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, a_3 + b_3 \rangle. \quad (5)$$

Because \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} lie in a plane (although not necessarily the xy -plane) if their initial points coincide, addition of vectors obeys the same **parallelogram law** as in the two-dimensional case (Fig. 12.2.10).

If c is a real number, then the **scalar multiple** $c\mathbf{a}$ is the vector

$$c\mathbf{a} = \langle ca_1, ca_2, ca_3 \rangle. \quad (6)$$

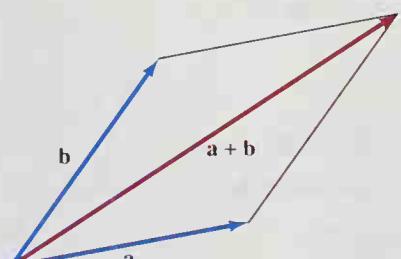


Fig. 12.2.10 The parallelogram law for addition of vectors

The length of $c\mathbf{a}$ is $|c|$ times the length of \mathbf{a} , and $c\mathbf{a}$ has the same direction as \mathbf{a} if $c > 0$ but the opposite direction if $c < 0$. The following algebraic properties of vector addition and scalar multiplication are easy to establish; they follow from computations with components, exactly as in Section 12.1:

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a},$$

$$\mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c},$$

$$r(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = r\mathbf{a} + r\mathbf{b}, \quad (7)$$

$$(r + s)\mathbf{a} = r\mathbf{a} + s\mathbf{a},$$

$$(rs)\mathbf{a} = r(s\mathbf{a}) = s(r\mathbf{a}).$$

EXAMPLE 4 If $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, 4, 12 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle -4, 3, 0 \rangle$, then

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \langle 3 - 4, 4 + 3, 12 + 0 \rangle = \langle -1, 7, 12 \rangle,$$

$$|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2 + 12^2} = \sqrt{169} = 13,$$

$$2\mathbf{a} = \langle 2 \cdot 3, 2 \cdot 4, 2 \cdot 12 \rangle = \langle 6, 8, 24 \rangle, \quad \text{and}$$

$$2\mathbf{a} - 3\mathbf{b} = \langle 6 + 12, 8 - 9, 24 - 0 \rangle = \langle 18, -1, 24 \rangle.$$

A **unit vector** is a vector of length 1. We can express any vector in space (or *space vector*) in terms of the three **basic unit vectors**

$$\mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1, 0 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{k} = \langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle.$$

When located with their initial points at the origin, these basic unit vectors form a right-handed triple of vectors pointing in the positive directions along the three coordinate axes (Fig. 12.2.11).

The space vector $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ can be written as

$$\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j} + a_3\mathbf{k},$$

a linear combination of the basic unit vectors. As in the two-dimensional case, the usefulness of this representation is that algebraic operations involving vectors may be carried out simply by collecting coefficients of \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{j} , and \mathbf{k} .

EXAMPLE 5 Given the vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, -4, 2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle 5, 2, -5 \rangle$, we can write

$$\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{b} = 5\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 7\mathbf{k}$$

in order to calculate

$$\begin{aligned} 7\mathbf{a} + 5\mathbf{b} &= 7 \cdot (3\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}) + 5 \cdot (5\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 7\mathbf{k}) \\ &= (21 + 25)\mathbf{i} + (-28 + 10)\mathbf{j} + (14 - 35)\mathbf{k} \\ &= 46\mathbf{i} - 18\mathbf{j} - 25\mathbf{k} = \langle 46, -18, -25 \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

The Dot Product of Two Vectors

The **dot product** of the two vectors

$$\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j} + a_3\mathbf{k} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{b} = b_1\mathbf{i} + b_2\mathbf{j} + b_3\mathbf{k}$$

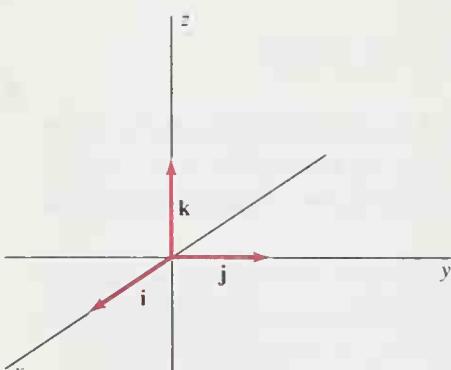


Fig. 12.2.11 The basic unit vectors \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{j} , and \mathbf{k}

is the number obtained when we multiply corresponding components of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} and add the results. That is,

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3. \quad (8)$$

Thus the dot product of two vectors is the sum of the products of their corresponding components. In the case of plane vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$, we simply dispense with third components and write $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2$.

EXAMPLE 6 To apply the definition to calculate the dot product of the two vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, 4, 12 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle -4, 3, 0 \rangle$, we simply follow the pattern in Eq. (8):

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = (3)(-4) + (4)(3) + (12)(0) = -12 + 12 + 0 = 0.$$

And if $\mathbf{c} = \langle 4, 5, -3 \rangle$, then

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c} = (3)(4) + (4)(5) + (12)(-3) = 12 + 20 - 36 = -4. \quad \blacksquare$$

IMPORTANT The dot product of two *vectors* is a scalar—that is, an ordinary real number. For this reason, the dot product is often called the **scalar product**. Example 6 illustrates the fact that the scalar product of two nonzero vectors (with positive lengths) may be zero, or even a negative number.

The following **properties of the dot product** show that dot products of vectors behave in many ways in analogy to the ordinary algebra of real numbers.

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} = |\mathbf{a}|^2, \quad \text{why he did not introduce cos here?}$$

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a},$$

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c},$$

$$(r\mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = r(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot (r\mathbf{b}).$$

Each of the properties in (9) can be established by working with components of the vectors involved. For instance, to establish the second equation, suppose that $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$. Then **coefficients of the unit vectors**

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3 = b_1 a_1 + b_2 a_2 + b_3 a_3 = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}.$$

This derivation makes it clear that the commutative law for the dot product is a consequence of the commutative law $ab = ba$ for multiplication of ordinary real numbers.

Example 6 shows that the *algebraic definition* of the dot product is easy to apply in routine calculations. But what does it mean? The significance and meaning of the dot product lie in its geometric interpretation. ★

Let the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} be represented as position vectors by the directed segments \overrightarrow{OP} and \overrightarrow{OQ} , respectively. Then the angle θ between \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is the angle at O in triangle OPQ of Fig. 12.2.12. We say that \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are **parallel** if $\theta = 0$ or if $\theta = \pi$ and that \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are **perpendicular** if $\theta = \pi/2$. For convenience, we regard the zero vector $\mathbf{0} = \langle 0, 0, 0 \rangle$ as both parallel to and perpendicular to every vector.

Theorem 1 Interpretation of the Dot Product

If θ is the angle between the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , then

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta. \quad (10)$$

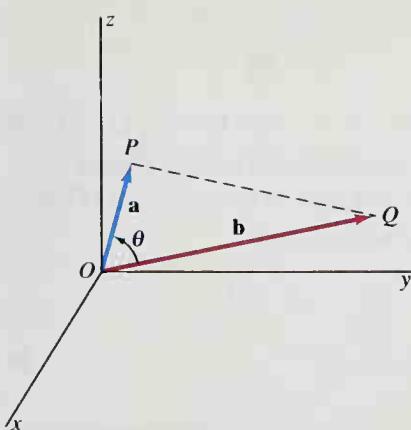


Fig. 12.2.12 The angle θ between the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b}

PROOF If either $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$ or $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$, then Eq. (10) follows immediately. If the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are parallel, then $\mathbf{b} = t\mathbf{a}$ with either $t > 0$ and $\theta = 0$ or $t < 0$ and $\theta = \pi$. In either case, both sides in Eq. (10) reduce to $t|\mathbf{a}|^2$, so again the conclusion of Theorem 1 follows.

We turn to the general case in which the vector $\mathbf{a} = \overrightarrow{OP}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \overrightarrow{OQ}$ are nonzero and nonparallel. Then **read this**

$$\begin{aligned} |\overrightarrow{QP}|^2 &= |\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}|^2 = (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}) \cdot (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}) \\ &= \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}|^2 + |\mathbf{b}|^2 - 2\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}. \end{aligned}$$

But $c = |\overrightarrow{QP}|$ is the side of triangle OPQ (Fig. 12.2.12) that is opposite the angle θ included between the sides $a = |\mathbf{a}|$ and $b = |\mathbf{b}|$. Hence the law of cosines (Appendix L) gives

$$\begin{aligned} |\overrightarrow{QP}|^2 &= c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta \\ &= |\mathbf{a}|^2 + |\mathbf{b}|^2 - 2|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, comparison of these two expressions for $|\overrightarrow{QP}|^2$ yields Eq. (10). ■

This theorem tells us that the angle θ between the nonzero vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} can be found by using the equation

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}|}. \quad (11)$$

For instance, given the vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle 8, 5 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle -11, 17 \rangle$ of Example 5 in Section 12.1, we calculate

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle 8, 5 \rangle \cdot \langle -11, 17 \rangle}{|\langle 8, 5 \rangle| |\langle -11, 17 \rangle|} = \frac{(8)(-11) + (5)(17)}{\sqrt{8^2 + 5^2} \sqrt{(-11)^2 + 17^2}} = \frac{-3}{\sqrt{89} \sqrt{410}}.$$

It follows that $\theta = \arccos(-3/\sqrt{89}\sqrt{410}) \approx 1.5865$ (radians) $\approx 90.90^\circ \neq 90^\circ$, so we see again that the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are not perpendicular.

More generally, the two nonzero vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are perpendicular if and only if they make a right angle, so that $\theta = \pi/2$. By Eq. (11), this in turn is so if and only if $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$. Hence we have a quick computational check for perpendicularity of vectors.

Corollary Test for Perpendicular Vectors

The two nonzero vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are perpendicular if and only if $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$.

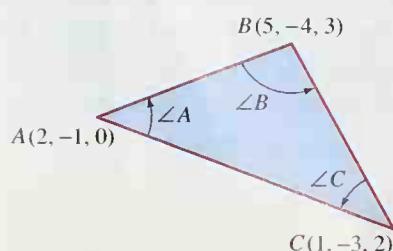


Fig. 12.2.13 The triangle of Example 8

EXAMPLE 7 (a) To show that the plane vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle 8, 5 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle -11, 17 \rangle$ of Example 5 in Section 12.1 were not perpendicular, we need only have calculated their dot product $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = -88 + 85 = -3$ and observed that its value is not zero. (b) Given the space vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle 8, 5, -1 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle -11, 17, -3 \rangle$, we find that

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = (8)(-11) + (5)(17) + (-1)(-3) = -88 + 85 + 3 = 0.$$

We may therefore conclude that \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are perpendicular. ■

EXAMPLE 8 Find the angles shown in the triangle of Fig. 12.2.13 with vertices at $A(2, -1, 0)$, $B(5, -4, 3)$, and $C(1, -3, 2)$.

Solution We apply Eq. (10) with $\theta = \angle A$, $\mathbf{a} = \overrightarrow{AB} = \langle 3, -3, 3 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{b} = \overrightarrow{AC} = \langle -1, -2, 2 \rangle$. This yields

$$\begin{aligned}\angle A &= \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\overrightarrow{AB} \cdot \overrightarrow{AC}}{|\overrightarrow{AB}| |\overrightarrow{AC}|} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\langle 3, -3, 3 \rangle \cdot \langle -1, -2, 2 \rangle}{\sqrt{27} \sqrt{9}} \right) \\ &= \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{9}{\sqrt{27} \sqrt{9}} \right) \approx 0.9553 \text{ (rad)} \approx 54.74^\circ.\end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned}\angle B &= \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\overrightarrow{BA} \cdot \overrightarrow{BC}}{|\overrightarrow{BA}| |\overrightarrow{BC}|} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\langle -3, 3, -3 \rangle \cdot \langle -4, 1, -1 \rangle}{\sqrt{27} \sqrt{18}} \right) \\ &= \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{18}{\sqrt{27} \sqrt{18}} \right) \approx 0.6155 \text{ (rad)} \approx 35.26^\circ.\end{aligned}$$

Then $\angle C = 180^\circ - \angle A - \angle B = 90^\circ$. As a check, note that

$$\overrightarrow{CA} \cdot \overrightarrow{CB} = \langle 1, 2, -2 \rangle \cdot \langle 4, -1, 1 \rangle = 0.$$

So the angle at C is, indeed, a right angle. ■

Direction Angles and Projections

The **direction angles** of the nonzero vector $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ are the angles α , β , and γ that it makes with the vectors \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{j} , and \mathbf{k} , respectively (Fig. 12.2.14). The cosines of these angles, $\cos \alpha$, $\cos \beta$, and $\cos \gamma$, are called the **direction cosines** of the vector \mathbf{a} . When we replace \mathbf{b} in Eq. (11) with \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{j} , and \mathbf{k} in turn, we find that

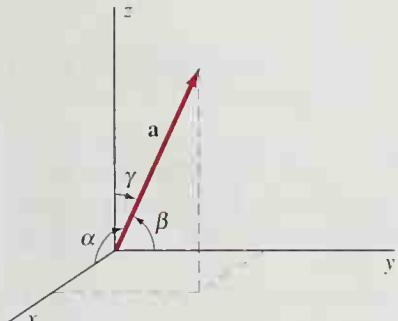


Fig. 12.2.14 The direction angles of the vector \mathbf{a}

$$\begin{aligned}\cos \underline{\alpha} &= \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{i}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{i}|} = \frac{a_1}{|\mathbf{a}|}, \\ \cos \underline{\beta} &= \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{j}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{j}|} = \frac{a_2}{|\mathbf{a}|}, \quad \text{and} \\ \cos \underline{\gamma} &= \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{k}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{k}|} = \frac{a_3}{|\mathbf{a}|}.\end{aligned}\tag{12}$$

That is, the direction cosines of \mathbf{a} are the components of the *unit vector* $\mathbf{a}/|\mathbf{a}|$ with the same direction as \mathbf{a} . Consequently

$$\cos^2 \alpha + \cos^2 \beta + \cos^2 \gamma = 1.\tag{13}$$

EXAMPLE 9 Find the direction angles of the vector $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$.

Solution Because $|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{14}$, the equations in (12) give

$$\alpha = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{14}} \right) \approx 57.69^\circ, \quad \beta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{3}{\sqrt{14}} \right) \approx 36.70^\circ,$$

$$\text{and} \quad \gamma = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{-1}{\sqrt{14}} \right) \approx 105.50^\circ. \quad \blacksquare$$

Sometimes we need to find the component of one vector \mathbf{a} in the direction of another *nonzero* vector \mathbf{b} . Think of the two vectors located with the same initial

how beautiful, the dots connected

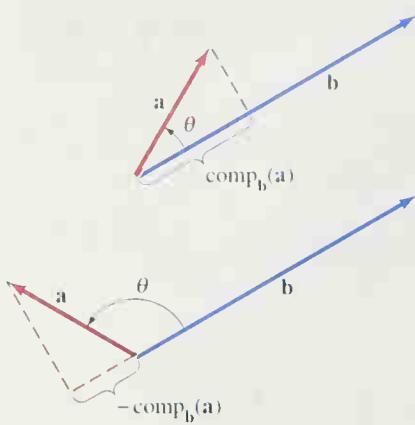


Fig. 12.2.15 The component of \mathbf{a} along \mathbf{b}

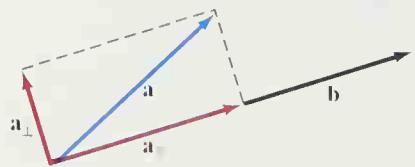


Fig. 12.2.16 Construction of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{a}_\perp

point (Fig. 12.2.15). Then the (scalar) **component of \mathbf{a} along \mathbf{b}** , denoted by $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{a}$, is numerically the length of the perpendicular projection of \mathbf{a} onto the straight line determined by \mathbf{b} . The number $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{a}$ is positive if the angle θ between \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is acute (so \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} point in the same general direction) and negative if $\theta > \pi/2$. Thus $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{a} = |\mathbf{a}| \cos \theta$ in either case. Equation (10) then gives

$$\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{a} = \frac{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta}{|\mathbf{b}|} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{b}|}. \quad \text{why not just "}|a|*\cos(theta)"? \quad (14)$$

There is no need to memorize this formula, for—in practice—we can always read $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{a} = |\mathbf{a}| \cos \theta$ from the figure and then apply Eq. (10) to eliminate $\cos \theta$. Note that $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{a}$ is a scalar, not a vector.

EXAMPLE 10 Given $\mathbf{a} = \langle 4, -5, 3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle 2, 1, -2 \rangle$, express \mathbf{a} as the sum of a vector \mathbf{a} parallel to \mathbf{b} and a vector \mathbf{a}_\perp perpendicular to \mathbf{b} . ?

Solution Our method of solution is motivated by the diagram in Fig. 12.2.16. We take

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a} &= (\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{a}) \frac{\mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{b}|} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{b}|^2} \mathbf{b} = \frac{8 - 5 - 6}{9} \mathbf{b} \\ &= -\frac{1}{3} \langle 2, 1, -2 \rangle = \left\langle -\frac{2}{3}, -\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3} \right\rangle, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\mathbf{a}_\perp = \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{a} = \langle 4, -5, 3 \rangle - \left\langle -\frac{2}{3}, -\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3} \right\rangle = \left\langle \frac{14}{3}, -\frac{14}{3}, \frac{7}{3} \right\rangle.$$

The diagram makes our choice of \mathbf{a}_\perp plausible, and we have deliberately chosen \mathbf{a}_\perp so that $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{a}_\perp$. To verify that the vector \mathbf{a} is indeed parallel to \mathbf{b} , we simply note that it is a scalar multiple of \mathbf{b} . To verify that \mathbf{a}_\perp is perpendicular to \mathbf{b} , we compute the dot product

$$\mathbf{a}_\perp \cdot \mathbf{b} = \frac{28}{3} - \frac{14}{3} - \frac{14}{3} = 0.$$

Thus \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{a}_\perp have the required properties. ■

One important application of vector components is to the definition and computation of *work*. Recall that the work W done by a constant force \mathbf{F} exerted along the line of motion in moving a particle a distance d is given by $W = Fd$. But what if the force is a constant vector \mathbf{F} pointing in some direction other than the line of motion, as when a child pulls a sled against the resistance of friction (Fig. 12.2.17)? Suppose that \mathbf{F} moves a particle along the line segment from P to Q , and let $\mathbf{D} = \overrightarrow{PQ}$ be the resulting *displacement vector* of the object (Fig. 12.2.18). Then the **work** W done by the force \mathbf{F} in moving the object along the line from P to Q is, by definition, the product of the component of \mathbf{F} along \mathbf{D} and the distance moved:

$$W = (\text{comp}_{\mathbf{D}} \mathbf{F}) |\mathbf{D}|. \quad (15)$$

If we use Eq. (14) and substitute $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{D}} \mathbf{F} = (\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{D}) / |\mathbf{D}|$, we get

$$W = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{D} \quad (16)$$

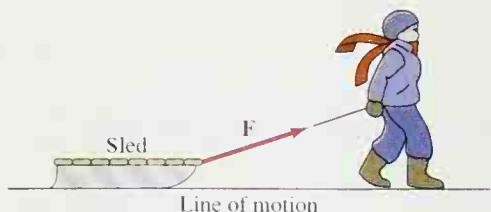


Fig. 12.2.17 The vector force \mathbf{F} is constant but acts at an angle to the line of motion (Example 10).

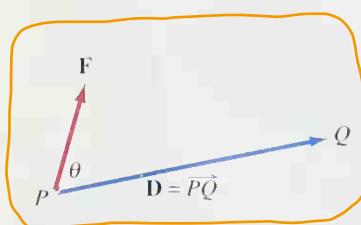


Fig. 12.2.18 The force vector \mathbf{F} and displacement vector \mathbf{D} in Eq. (16)

for the work done by the constant force \mathbf{F} in moving an object along the displacement vector $\mathbf{D} = \overrightarrow{PQ}$. This formula is the vector generalization of the scalar work formula $W = Fd$. Work is measured in foot-pounds ($\text{ft}\cdot\text{lb}$) if distance is measured in feet and force in pounds. If metric units of meters (m) for distance and newtons (N) for force are used, then work is measured in joules (J).

EXAMPLE 11 Suppose that the force vector in Fig. 12.2.17 is inclined at an angle of 30° from the ground. If the child exerts a constant force of 20 lb, how much work is done in pulling the sled a distance of one mile?

Solution We are given that $|\mathbf{F}| = 20$ (lb) and $|\mathbf{D}| = 5280$ (ft). Because $\cos 30^\circ = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}$, Eq. (16) yields

$$W = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{D} = |\mathbf{F}| |\mathbf{D}| \cos 30^\circ = (20)(5280)\left(\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}\right) \approx 91452 \quad (\text{ft}\cdot\text{lb}).$$

This may seem like a lot of work for a child to do. If the 1-mile trip takes an hour, then the child is generating *power* (work per unit time) at the rate of $(91452 \text{ ft}\cdot\text{lb})/(3600 \text{ s}) \approx 25.4 \text{ ft}\cdot\text{lb/s}$. Because 1 horsepower (hp) is defined to be 550 ft·lb/s, the child's "power rating" is $25.4/550 \approx \frac{1}{20} \text{ hp}$. By comparison, an adult in excellent physical condition can climb the 2570 steps of the staircase of the CN tower in Toronto in less than 40 minutes. On October 29, 1989, Brendon Keenory of Toronto set the world's record for the fastest stairclimb there with a time of 7 min 52 s. Assuming that he climbed 1672 ft and weighed 160 lb, he generated an average of more than 0.988 hp over this time interval.

12.2 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 6, find (a) $2\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$, (b) $3\mathbf{a} - 4\mathbf{b}$, (c) $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$, (d) $|\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}|$, and (e) $\mathbf{a}/|\mathbf{a}|$.

1. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 2, 5, -4 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 1, -2, -3 \rangle$
2. $\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 0, 2 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 3, 4, -5 \rangle$
3. $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$
4. $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{b} = 5\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} - 7\mathbf{k}$
5. $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$
6. $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$

7 through 12. Find, to the nearest degree, the angle between the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} in Problems 1 through 6.

13 through 18. Find $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b}$ and $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{a}$ for the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} given in Problems 1 through 6.

In Problems 19 through 24, write the equation of the indicated sphere.

19. Center $(3, 1, 2)$, radius 5
20. Center $(-2, 1, -5)$, radius $\sqrt{7}$
21. One diameter: the segment joining $(3, 5, -3)$ and $(7, 3, 1)$
22. Center $(4, 5, -2)$, passing through the point $(1, 0, 0)$
23. Center $(0, 0, 2)$, tangent to the xy -plane
24. Center $(3, -4, 3)$, tangent to the xz -plane

In Problems 25 through 28, find the center and radius of the sphere with the given equation.

25. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 4x - 6y = 0$
26. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 8x - 9y + 10z + 40 = 0$

27. $3x^2 + 3y^2 + 3z^2 - 18z - 48 = 0$

28. $2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2 = 7x + 9y + 11z$

In Problems 29 through 38, describe the graph of the given equation in geometric terms, using plain, clear language.

29. $z = 0$
30. $x = 0$
31. $z = 10$
32. $xy = 0$
33. $xyz = 0$
34. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 7 = 0$
35. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 0$
36. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 2x + 1 = 0$
37. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 6x + 8y + 25 = 0$
38. $x^2 + y^2 = 0$

Two vectors are **parallel** provided that one is a scalar multiple of the other. Determine whether the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} in Problems 39 through 42 are parallel, perpendicular, or neither.

39. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 4, -2, 6 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle 6, -3, 9 \rangle$
40. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 4, -2, 6 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle 4, 2, 2 \rangle$
41. $\mathbf{a} = 12\mathbf{i} - 20\mathbf{j} + 16\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{b} = -9\mathbf{i} + 15\mathbf{j} - 12\mathbf{k}$
42. $\mathbf{a} = 12\mathbf{i} - 20\mathbf{j} + 17\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{b} = -9\mathbf{i} + 15\mathbf{j} + 24\mathbf{k}$

In Problems 43 and 44, determine whether the three given points lie on a single straight line.

43. $P(0, -2, 4)$, $Q(1, -3, 5)$, $R(4, -6, 8)$
44. $P(6, 7, 8)$, $Q(3, 3, 3)$, $R(12, 15, 18)$

In Problems 45 through 48, find (to the nearest degree) the three angles of the triangle with the given vertices.

45. $A(1, 0, 0)$, $B(0, 1, 0)$, $C(0, 0, 1)$
46. $A(1, 0, 0)$, $B(1, 2, 0)$, $C(1, 2, 3)$
47. $A(1, 1, 1)$, $B(3, -2, 3)$, $C(3, 4, 6)$
48. $A(1, 0, 0)$, $B(0, 1, 0)$, $C(-1, -2, -2)$

In Problems 49 through 52, find the direction angles of the vector represented by \vec{PQ} .

49. $P(1, -1, 0)$, $Q(3, 4, 5)$
50. $P(2, -3, 5)$, $Q(1, 0, -1)$
51. $P(-1, -2, -3)$, $Q(5, 6, 7)$
52. $P(0, 0, 0)$, $Q(5, 12, 13)$

In Problems 53 and 54, find the work W done by the force \mathbf{F} in moving a particle in a straight line from P to Q .

53. $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{k}$; $P(0, 0, 0)$, $Q(3, 1, 0)$
54. $\mathbf{F} = 2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$; $P(5, 3, -4)$, $Q(-1, -2, 5)$
55. Suppose that the force vector in Fig. 12.2.17 is inclined at an angle of 40° from the ground. If the child exerts a constant force of 40 N, how much heat energy (in calories) does the child expend in pulling the sled a distance of 1 km along the ground? (Note: 1 J of work requires an expenditure of 0.239 calories of energy.)
56. A 1000-lb dog sled has a coefficient of sliding friction of 0.2, so it requires a force with a horizontal component of 200 lb to keep it moving at a constant speed. Suppose that a dog-team harness is attached so that the team's force vector makes an angle of 5° with the horizontal. If the dog team pulls this sled at a speed of 10 mi/h, how much power (in horsepower) are the dogs generating? (Note: 1 hp is 550 ft·lb/s.)
57. Suppose that the horizontal and vertical components of the three vectors shown in Fig. 12.2.19 balance (the algebraic sum of the horizontal components is zero, as is the sum of the vertical components). How much work is done by the constant force \mathbf{F} (parallel to the inclined plane) in pulling the weight mg up the inclined plane a vertical height h ?
58. Prove the **Cauchy-Schwarz inequality**:

$$|\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}| \leq |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}|$$

for all pairs of vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

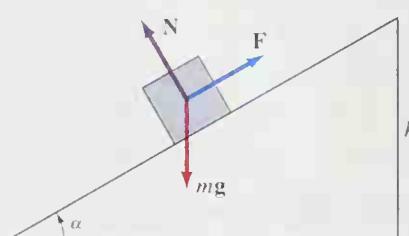


Fig. 12.2.19 The inclined plane of Problem 57

59. Given two arbitrary vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , prove that they satisfy the **triangle inequality**

$$|\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}| \leq |\mathbf{a}| + |\mathbf{b}|.$$

(*Suggestion:* Square both sides.)

60. Prove that if \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are arbitrary vectors, then

$$|\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}| \geq |\mathbf{a}| - |\mathbf{b}|.$$

(*Suggestion:* Write $\mathbf{a} = (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{b}$; then apply the triangle inequality of Problem 59.)

61. Use the dot product to construct a nonzero vector $\mathbf{w} = \langle w_1, w_2, w_3 \rangle$ perpendicular to both of the vectors $\mathbf{u} = \langle 1, 2, -3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle 2, 0, 1 \rangle$.
62. The unit cube in the first octant in space has opposite vertices $O(0, 0, 0)$ and $P(1, 1, 1)$. Find the angle between the edge of the cube on the x -axis and the diagonal OP .
63. Prove that the point M given in Eq. (2) is indeed the midpoint of the segment P_1P_2 . (*Note:* You must prove *both* that M is equally distant from P_1 and P_2 and that M lies on the segment P_1P_2 .)
64. Given vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , let $a = |\mathbf{a}|$ and $b = |\mathbf{b}|$. Prove that the vector

$$\mathbf{c} = \frac{\mathbf{ba} + \mathbf{ab}}{a + b}$$

bisects the angle between \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

65. Let \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} be three vectors in the xy -plane with \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} nonzero and nonparallel. Show that there exist scalars α and β such that $\mathbf{c} = \alpha\mathbf{a} + \beta\mathbf{b}$. (*Suggestion:* Begin by expressing \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} in terms of \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{j} , and \mathbf{k} .)
66. Let $ax + by + c = 0$ be the equation of the line L in the xy -plane with normal vector \mathbf{n} . Let $P_0(x_0, y_0)$ be a point on this line and $P_1(x_1, y_1)$ be a point not on L . Prove that the perpendicular distance from P_1 to L is

$$d = \frac{|\mathbf{n} \cdot \overrightarrow{P_0P_1}|}{|\mathbf{n}|} = \frac{|ax_1 + by_1 + c|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}.$$

67. Given the two points $A(3, -2, 4)$ and $B(5, 7, -1)$, write an equation in x , y , and z that says that the point $P(x, y, z)$ is equally distant from the points A and B . Then simplify this equation and give a geometric description of the set of all such points $P(x, y, z)$.
68. Given the fixed point $A(1, 3, 5)$, the point $P(x, y, z)$, and the vector $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$, use the dot product to help you write an equation in x , y , and z that says this: \mathbf{n} and \overrightarrow{AP} are perpendicular. Then simplify this equation and give a geometric description of all such points $P(x, y, z)$.
69. Prove that the points $(0, 0, 0)$, $(1, 1, 0)$, $(1, 0, 1)$, and $(0, 1, 1)$ are the vertices of a regular tetrahedron by showing that each of the six edges has length $\sqrt{2}$. Then use the dot product to find the angle between any two edges of the tetrahedron.

70. The methane molecule CH_4 is arranged with the four hydrogen atoms at the vertices of a regular tetrahedron and with the carbon atom at its center (Fig. 12.2.20). Suppose that the axes and scale are chosen so that the tetrahedron is that of Problem 69, with its center at $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$. Find the *bond angle* α between the lines from the carbon atom to two of the hydrogen atoms.

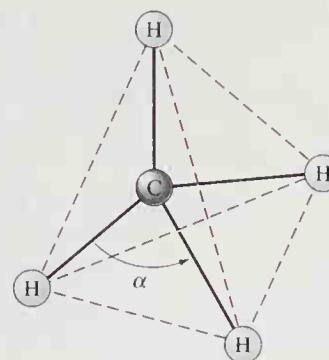


Fig. 12.2.20 The methane bond angle α of Problem 70

12.3 THE CROSS PRODUCT OF TWO VECTORS

We often need to find a vector that is perpendicular to each of two vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} in space. A routine way of doing this is provided by the *cross product* $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ of the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} . This vector product is quite unlike the dot product $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ in that $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ is a *scalar*, whereas $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is a *vector*. For this reason $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is sometimes called the *vector product* of the two vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

The **cross product** (or **vector product**) of the vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$ is defined algebraically by the formula

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \langle a_2 b_3 - a_3 b_2, a_3 b_1 - a_1 b_3, a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1 \rangle. \quad (1)$$

Although this formula seems unmotivated, it has a redeeming feature: The product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is perpendicular both to \mathbf{a} and to \mathbf{b} , as suggested in Fig. 12.3.1.

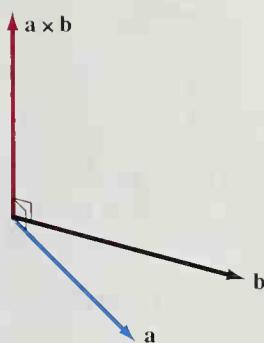


Fig. 12.3.1 The cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is perpendicular to both \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

Theorem 1 Perpendicularity of the Cross Product

The cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is perpendicular both to \mathbf{a} and to \mathbf{b} .

PROOF We show that $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is perpendicular to \mathbf{a} by showing that the dot product of \mathbf{a} and $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is zero. With the components as in Eq. (1), we find that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) &= a_1(a_2 b_3 - a_3 b_2) + a_2(a_3 b_1 - a_1 b_3) + a_3(a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1) \\ &= a_1 a_2 b_3 - a_1 a_3 b_2 + a_2 a_3 b_1 - a_2 a_1 b_3 + a_3 a_1 b_2 - a_3 a_2 b_1 = 0.\end{aligned}$$

A similar computation shows that $\mathbf{b} \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) = 0$ as well, so $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is also perpendicular to the vector \mathbf{b} . ■

You need not memorize Eq. (1), because there is an alternative version involving determinants that is easy both to remember and to use. Recall that a *determinant* of order 2 is defined as follows:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} = a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1. \quad (2)$$

EXAMPLE 1

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = 2 \cdot 4 - (-1) \cdot 3 = 11. \quad \blacksquare$$

A determinant of order 3 can be defined in terms of determinants of order 2:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = +a_1 \begin{vmatrix} b_2 & b_3 \\ c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} - a_2 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} + a_3 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \\ c_1 & c_2 \end{vmatrix}. \quad (3)$$

Each element a_i of the first row is multiplied by the 2-by-2 “subdeterminant” obtained by deleting the row *and* column that contain a_i . Note in Eq. (3) that signs are attached to the a_i in accord with the checkerboard pattern

$$\begin{vmatrix} + & - & + \\ - & + & - \\ + & - & + \end{vmatrix}.$$

Equation (3) is an expansion of the 3-by-3 determinant along its first row. It can be expanded along any other row or column as well. For example, its expansion along its second column is

be comfortable with those rules

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = -a_2 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} + b_2 \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ c_1 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} - c_2 \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

In linear algebra it is shown that all such expansions yield the same value for the determinant.

Although we can expand a determinant of order 3 along any row or column, we shall use only expansions along the first row, as in Eq. (3) and in Example 2.

EXAMPLE 2

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 & 4 \\ -3 & 7 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ 7 & 5 \end{vmatrix} - 3 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ -3 & 5 \end{vmatrix} + (-2) \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -3 & 7 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 1 \cdot (-5 - 28) + (-3) \cdot (10 + 12) + (-2) \cdot (14 - 3)$$

$$= -33 - 66 - 22 = -121. \quad \blacksquare$$

Equation (1) for the cross product of the vectors $\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j} + a_3\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{b} = b_1\mathbf{i} + b_2\mathbf{j} + b_3\mathbf{k}$ is equivalent to

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & a_3 \\ b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} - \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{j} + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}. \quad (4)$$

This is easy to verify by expanding the 2-by-2 determinants on the right-hand side and noting that the three components of the right-hand side of Eq. (1) result. Motivated by Eq. (4), we write

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}. \quad (5)$$

understand what it says and appearing the image while reading it

The “symbolic determinant” in this equation is to be evaluated by expansion along its first row, just as in Eq. (3) and just as though it were an ordinary determinant with real number entries. The result of this expansion is the right-hand side of Eq. (4). The components of the *first* vector \mathbf{a} in $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ form the *second* row of the 3-by-3 determinant, and the components of the *second* vector \mathbf{b} form the *third* row. The order of

the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is important because, as we soon shall see, $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is generally not equal to $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a}$: The cross product is *not* commutative.

Equation (5) for the cross product is the form most convenient for computational purposes.

EXAMPLE 3 If $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{b} = 2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 3 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} - \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{j} + \begin{vmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k} \\ &= (1 - 4)\mathbf{i} - (-3 - 4)\mathbf{j} + (6 - (-2))\mathbf{k}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -3\mathbf{i} + 7\mathbf{j} + 8\mathbf{k}.$$

You might now pause to verify (by using the dot product) that the vector $-3\mathbf{i} + 7\mathbf{j} + 8\mathbf{k}$ is perpendicular both to \mathbf{a} and to \mathbf{b} .

If the vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} share the same initial point, then Theorem 1 implies that $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is perpendicular to the plane determined by \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} (Fig. 12.3.2). There are still two possible directions for $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$, but if $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{0}$, then the triple $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is a right-handed triple in exactly the same sense as the triple $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}$. Thus if the thumb of your right hand points in the direction of $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$, then your fingers curl in the direction of rotation (less than 180°) from \mathbf{a} to \mathbf{b} .

Once we have established the direction of $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$, we can describe the cross product in completely geometric terms by telling what the length $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|$ of the vector $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is. This is given by the formula

$$|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|^2 = |\mathbf{a}|^2 |\mathbf{b}|^2 - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})^2. \quad (6)$$

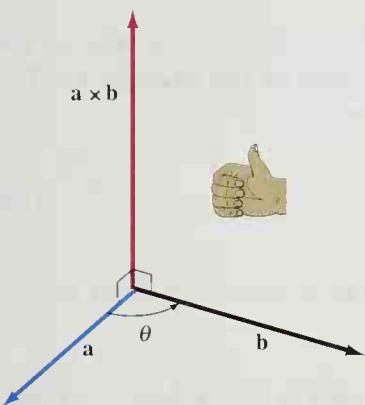


Fig. 12.3.2 The vectors \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ —in that order—form a right-handed triple.

We can verify this vector identity routinely (though tediously) by writing $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$, computing both sides of Eq. (6), and then noting that the results are equal (Problem 36).

Geometric Significance of the Cross Product

Equation (6) tells us what $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|$ is, but Theorem 2 reveals the geometric significance of the cross product.

Theorem 2 Length of the Cross Product

Let θ be the angle between the nonzero vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} (measured so that $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$). Then

$$|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}| = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta. \quad (7)$$

PROOF We begin with Eq. (6) and use the fact that $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned}|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|^2 &= |\mathbf{a}|^2 |\mathbf{b}|^2 - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})^2 = |\mathbf{a}|^2 |\mathbf{b}|^2 - (|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta)^2 \\ &= |\mathbf{a}|^2 |\mathbf{b}|^2 (1 - \cos^2 \theta) = |\mathbf{a}|^2 |\mathbf{b}|^2 \sin^2 \theta.\end{aligned}$$

Equation (7) now follows after we take the positive square root of both sides. (This is the correct root on the right-hand side because $\sin \theta \geq 0$ for $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$.)

Corollary Parallel Vectors

Two nonzero vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are parallel ($\theta = 0$ or $\theta = \pi$) if and only if $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$.

In particular, the cross product of any vector with itself is the zero vector. Also, Eq. (1) shows immediately that the cross product of any vector with the zero vector is the zero vector itself. Thus

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} \times \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0} \quad (8)$$

for every vector \mathbf{a} .

Equation (7) has an important geometric interpretation. Suppose that \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are represented by adjacent sides of a parallelogram $PQRS$, with $\mathbf{a} = \overrightarrow{PQ}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \overrightarrow{PS}$ (Fig. 12.3.3). The parallelogram then has base of length $|\mathbf{a}|$ and height $|\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta$, so its area is **area rule?**

$$A = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta = |\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|. \quad (9)$$

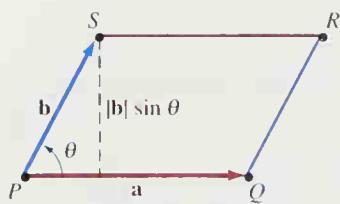


Fig. 12.3.3 The area of the parallelogram $PQRS$ is $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|$.

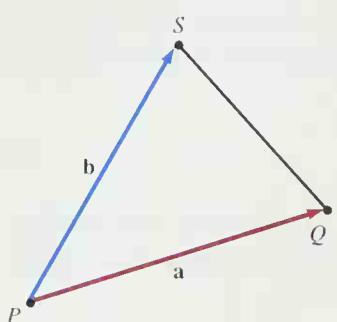


Fig. 12.3.4 The area of $\triangle PQS$ is $\frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|$.

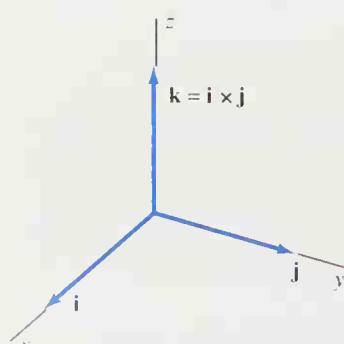


Fig. 12.3.5 The basic unit vectors in space

Thus the length of the cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is numerically the same as the area of the parallelogram determined by \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} . It follows that the area of the triangle PQS in Fig. 12.3.4, whose area is half that of the parallelogram, is

$$\frac{1}{2} A = \frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}| = \frac{1}{2} |\overrightarrow{PQ} \times \overrightarrow{PS}|. \quad (10)$$

Equation (10) gives a quick way to compute the area of a triangle—even one in space—with the need of finding any of its angles.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the area of the triangle with vertices $A(3, 0, -10)$, $B(4, 2, 5)$, and $C(7, -2, 4)$.

Solution $\overrightarrow{AB} = \langle 1, 2, 6 \rangle$ and $\overrightarrow{AC} = \langle 4, -2, 5 \rangle$, so

$$\overrightarrow{AB} \times \overrightarrow{AC} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \\ 4 & -2 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 22\mathbf{i} + 19\mathbf{j} - 10\mathbf{k}.$$

Therefore, by Eq. (10), the area of triangle ABC is

$$\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{22^2 + 19^2 + (-10)^2} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{945} \approx 15.37. \quad \blacksquare$$

Now let \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} , \mathbf{w} be a right-handed triple of mutually perpendicular unit vectors. The angle between any two of these is $\theta = \pi/2$, and $|\mathbf{u}| = |\mathbf{v}| = |\mathbf{w}| = 1$. Thus it follows from Eq. (7) that $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{w}$. When we apply this observation to the basic unit vectors \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{j} , and \mathbf{k} (Fig. 12.3.5), we see that

$$\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{i}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j}. \quad (11a)$$

But

$$\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{i} = -\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{j} = -\mathbf{i}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{k} = -\mathbf{j}. \quad (11b)$$

These observations, together with the fact that

$$\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{0}, \quad (11c)$$

also follow directly from the original definition of the cross product [in the form in Eq. (5)]. The products in Eq. (11a) are easily remembered in terms of the sequence

$$\mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{j}, \quad \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{j}, \quad \mathbf{k}, \quad \dots$$

The product of any two consecutive unit vectors, in the order in which they appear in this sequence, is the next in the sequence.

Note *The cross product is not commutative: $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} \neq \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{i}$.* Instead, it is **anticommutative**: For any two vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -(\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a})$. This is the first part of Theorem 3.

Theorem 3 Algebraic Properties of the Cross Product

If \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} are vectors and k is a real number, then

$$1. \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -(\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a}); \quad (12)$$

$$2. (k\mathbf{a}) \times \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \times (k\mathbf{b}) = k(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}); \quad (13)$$

$$3. \mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) + (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{c}); \quad (14)$$

$$4. \underline{\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c}}; \quad (15)$$

$$5. \underline{\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c})\mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})\mathbf{c}}. \quad (16)$$

The proofs of Eqs. (12) through (15) are straightforward applications of the definition of the cross product in terms of components. See Problem 33 for an outline of the proof of Eq. (16).

We can find cross products of vectors expressed in terms of the basic unit vectors \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{j} , and \mathbf{k} by means of computations that closely resemble those of ordinary algebra. We simply apply the algebraic properties summarized in Theorem 3 together with the relations in Eq. (11) giving the various products of the three unit vectors. We must be careful to preserve the order of factors, because vector multiplication is not commutative—although, of course, we should not hesitate to use Eq. (12).

EXAMPLE 5 $(\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}) \times (3\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k})$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 3(\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{i}) + 2(\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j}) - 4(\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{k}) - 6(\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{i}) - 4(\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{j}) \\ &\quad + 8(\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{k}) + 9(\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{i}) + 6(\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{j}) - 12(\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{k}) \\ &= 3 \cdot \mathbf{0} + 2\mathbf{k} - 4 \cdot (-\mathbf{j}) - 6 \cdot (-\mathbf{k}) - 4 \cdot \mathbf{0} \\ &\quad + 8\mathbf{i} + 9\mathbf{j} + 6 \cdot (-\mathbf{i}) - 12 \cdot \mathbf{0} \\ &= 2\mathbf{i} + 13\mathbf{j} + 8\mathbf{k}. \end{aligned}$$

Scalar Triple Products

Let us examine the product $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$ that appears in Eq. (15). This expression would not make sense were the parentheses instead around $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$, because $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ is a scalar, and thus we could not form the cross product of $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ with the vector \mathbf{c} . This means that we may omit the parentheses—the expression $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$ is not ambiguous—but we keep them for simplicity. The dot product of the vectors \mathbf{a} and $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$ is a real

number, called the **scalar triple product** of the vectors \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} . Equation (15) implies the curious fact that we can interchange the operations \cdot (dot) and \times (cross) without affecting the value of the expression:

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c}$$

for all vectors \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} .

To compute the scalar triple product in terms of components, write $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{c} = \langle c_1, c_2, c_3 \rangle$. Then

$$\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c} = (b_2 c_3 - b_3 c_2) \mathbf{i} - (b_1 c_3 - b_3 c_1) \mathbf{j} + (b_1 c_2 - b_2 c_1) \mathbf{k},$$

so

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = a_1(b_2 c_3 - b_3 c_2) - a_2(b_1 c_3 - b_3 c_1) + a_3(b_1 c_2 - b_2 c_1).$$

But the expression on the right is the value of the 3-by-3 determinant

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}. \quad (17)$$

This is the quickest way to compute the scalar triple product.

EXAMPLE 6 If $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$, and $\mathbf{c} = 4\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) &= \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 0 & -3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= +2 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & -1 \end{vmatrix} - 0 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} + (-3) \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= 2 \cdot (-5) + (-3) \cdot 4 = -22. \end{aligned}$$

The importance of the scalar triple product for applications depends on the following geometric interpretation. Let \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} be three vectors with the same initial point. Figure 12.3.6 shows the parallelepiped determined by these vectors—that is, with arrows representing these vectors as adjacent edges. If the vectors \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} are coplanar (lie in a single plane), then the parallelepiped is **degenerate** and its volume is zero. Theorem 4 holds whether or not the three vectors are **coplanar**, but it is most useful when they are not.

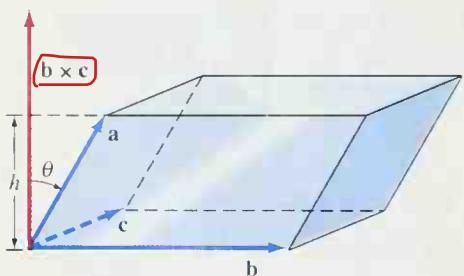


Fig. 12.3.6 The volume of the parallelepiped is $|\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})|$.

Theorem 4 Scalar Triple Products and Volume

The volume V of the parallelepiped determined by the vectors \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} is the absolute value of the scalar triple product $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$; that is,

$$V = |\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})|. \quad \text{but isn't the scalar triple product already resulted in a scalar value, why ||} \quad (18)$$

PROOF If the three vectors are coplanar, then \mathbf{a} and $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$ are perpendicular, so $V = |\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})| = 0$. Assume, then, that they are not coplanar. By Eq. (9) the area of the base (determined by \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{c}) of the parallelepiped is $A = |\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}|$.

Now let α be the *acute* angle between \mathbf{a} and the line through $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$ that is perpendicular to the base. Then the height of the parallelepiped is $h = |\mathbf{a} \cos \alpha|$. If θ is

the angle between the vectors \mathbf{a} and $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$, then either $\theta = \alpha$ or $\theta = \pi - \alpha$. Hence $\cos \alpha = |\cos \theta|$, so

$$V = Ah = |\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}| |\mathbf{a}| \cos \alpha = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}| |\cos \theta| = |\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})|.$$

Thus we have verified Eq. (18). ■

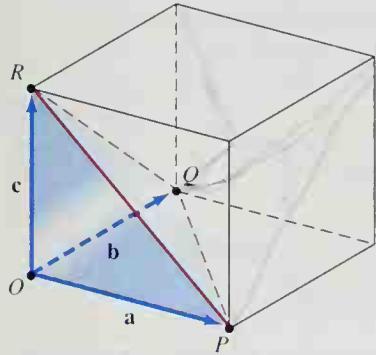


Fig. 12.3.7 The pyramid (and parallelepiped) of Example 7

EXAMPLE 7 Figure 12.3.7 shows the pyramid $OPQR$ and the parallelepiped both determined by the vectors

$$\mathbf{a} = \overrightarrow{OP} = (3, 2, -1), \quad \mathbf{b} = \overrightarrow{OQ} = (-2, 5, 1), \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{c} = \overrightarrow{OR} = (2, 1, 5).$$

The volume of the pyramid is $V = \frac{1}{3}Ah$, where h is its height and the area of its base OPR is half the area of the corresponding base of the parallelepiped. It therefore follows from Eqs. (17) and (18) that V is one-sixth the volume of the parallelepiped: **be aware the base A here is not the Area of cross product of 2 vectors and trying to use Exp 5 approach**

$$V = \frac{1}{6} |\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})| = \frac{1}{6} \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 2 & -1 \\ -2 & 5 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{108}{6} = 18.$$

EXAMPLE 8 Use the scalar triple product to show that the points $A(1, -1, 2)$, $B(2, 0, 1)$, $C(3, 2, 0)$, and $D(5, 4, -2)$ are coplanar.

Solution It's enough to show that the vectors $\overrightarrow{AB} = (1, 1, -1)$, $\overrightarrow{AC} = (2, 3, -2)$, and $\overrightarrow{AD} = (4, 5, -4)$ are coplanar. But their scalar triple product is

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & -2 \\ 4 & 5 & -4 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \cdot (-2) - 1 \cdot 0 + (-1) \cdot (-2) = 0,$$

so Theorem 4 guarantees that the parallelepiped determined by these three vectors has volume zero. Hence the four given points are coplanar. ■

The cross product occurs quite often in scientific applications. For example, suppose that a body in space is free to rotate around the fixed point O . If a force \mathbf{F} acts at a point P of the body, that force causes the body to rotate. This effect is measured by the **torque vector τ** defined by the relation

how about the theta on a torque wrench?

$$\tau = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F},$$

where $\mathbf{r} = \overrightarrow{OP}$, the straight line through O determined by τ , is the axis of rotation, and the length

$$|\tau| = |\mathbf{r}| |\mathbf{F}| \sin \theta$$

is the **moment** of the force \mathbf{F} around this axis (Fig. 12.3.8).

Another application of the cross product involves the force exerted on a moving charged particle by a magnetic field. This force is important in particle accelerators, mass spectrometers, and television picture tubes; controlling the paths of the ions is accomplished through the interplay of electric and magnetic fields. In such circumstances, the force \mathbf{F} on the particle due to a magnetic field depends on three things: the charge q of the particle, its velocity vector \mathbf{v} , and the magnetic field vector \mathbf{B} at the instantaneous location of the particle. And it turns out that

$$\mathbf{F} = (q\mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{B}.$$

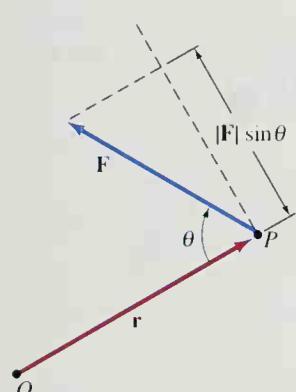


Fig. 12.3.8 The torque vector τ is normal to both \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{F} .

12.3 PROBLEMS

Find $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ in Problems 1 through 4.

1. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 5, -1, -2 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle -3, 2, 4 \rangle$
2. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, -2, 0 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 0, 3, -2 \rangle$
3. $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{b} = -2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$
4. $\mathbf{a} = 4\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{b} = 2\mathbf{i} - 5\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$

In Problems 5 and 6, find the cross product of the given two-dimensional vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$ by first “extending” them to three-dimensional vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, 0 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, 0 \rangle$.

5. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 2, -3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle 4, 5 \rangle$
6. $\mathbf{a} = -5\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{b} = 7\mathbf{i} - 11\mathbf{j}$

In Problems 7 and 8, find two different unit vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} both of which are perpendicular to both the given vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

7. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, 12, 0 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle 0, 4, 3 \rangle$
8. $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{b} = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$
9. Apply Eq. (5) to verify the equations in (11a).
10. Apply Eq. (5) to verify the equations in (11b).
11. Prove that the vector product is not associative by comparing $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$ with $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{c}$ in the case $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$, and $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$.
12. Find nonzero vectors \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} such that $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{c}$ but $\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{c}$.
13. Suppose that the three vectors \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} are mutually perpendicular. Prove that $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{0}$.
14. Find the area of the triangle with vertices $P(1, 1, 0)$, $Q(1, 0, 1)$, and $R(0, 1, 1)$.
15. Find the area of the triangle with vertices $P(1, 3, -2)$, $Q(2, 4, 5)$, and $R(-3, -2, 2)$.
16. Find the volume of the parallelepiped with adjacent edges \overrightarrow{OP} , \overrightarrow{OQ} , and \overrightarrow{OR} , where P , Q , and R are the points given in Problem 14.
17. (a) Find the volume of the parallelepiped with adjacent edges \overrightarrow{OP} , \overrightarrow{OQ} , and \overrightarrow{OR} , where P , Q , and R are the points given in Problem 15. (b) Find the volume of the pyramid with vertices O , P , Q , and R .
18. Find a unit vector \mathbf{n} perpendicular to the plane through the points P , Q , and R of Problem 15. Then find the distance from the origin to this plane by computing $\mathbf{n} \cdot \overrightarrow{OP}$.

In Problems 19 through 22, determine whether the four given points A , B , C , and D are coplanar. If not, find the volume of the pyramid with these four points as its vertices, given that its volume is one-sixth that of the parallelepiped spanned by \overrightarrow{AB} , \overrightarrow{AC} , and \overrightarrow{AD} .

19. $A(1, 3, -2)$, $B(3, 4, 1)$, $C(2, 0, -2)$, and $D(4, 8, 4)$
20. $A(13, -25, -37)$, $B(25, -14, -22)$, $C(24, -38, -25)$, and $D(26, 10, -19)$
21. $A(5, 2, -3)$, $B(6, 4, 0)$, $C(7, 5, 1)$, and $D(14, 14, 18)$

22. $A(25, 22, -33)$, $B(36, 34, -20)$, $C(27, 25, -29)$, and $D(34, 34, -12)$

23. Figure 12.3.9 shows a polygonal plot of land, with angles and lengths measured by a surveyor. First find the coordinates of each vertex. Then use the vector product [as in Eq. (10)] to calculate the area of the plot.

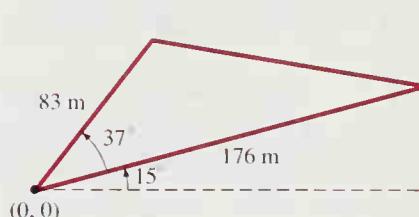


Fig. 12.3.9 Problem 23

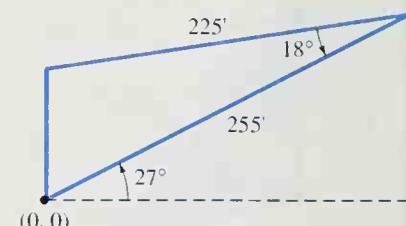


Fig. 12.3.10 Problem 24

24. Repeat Problem 23 with the plot shown in Fig. 12.3.10.
25. Repeat Problem 23 with the plot shown in Fig. 12.3.11. (Suggestion: First divide the plot into two triangles.)

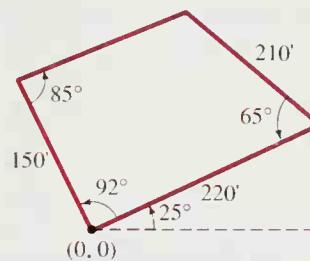


Fig. 12.3.11 Problem 25

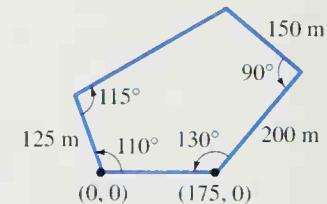


Fig. 12.3.12 Problem 26

26. Repeat Problem 23 with the plot shown in Fig. 12.3.12.
27. Apply Eq. (5) to verify Eq. (12), the anticommutativity of the vector product.
28. Apply Eq. (17) to verify the identity for scalar triple products stated in Eq. (15).
29. Suppose that P and Q are points on a line L in space. Let A be a point not on L (Fig. 12.3.13). (a) Calculate in two ways the area of the triangle APQ to show that the perpendicular distance from A to the line L is

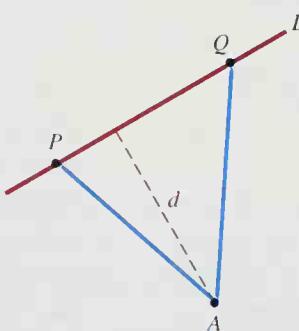


Fig. 12.3.13 Problem 29

$$d = \frac{|\overrightarrow{AP} \times \overrightarrow{AQ}|}{|\overrightarrow{PQ}|}.$$

(b) Use this formula to compute the distance from the point $(1, 0, 1)$ to the line through the two points $P(2, 3, 1)$ and $Q(-3, 1, 4)$.

30. Suppose that A is a point not on the plane determined by the three points P, Q , and R . Calculate in two ways the volume of the pyramid $APQR$ to show that the perpendicular distance from A to this plane is

$$d = \frac{|\overrightarrow{AP} \cdot (\overrightarrow{AQ} \times \overrightarrow{AR})|}{|\overrightarrow{PQ} \times \overrightarrow{PR}|}.$$

Use this formula to compute the distance from the point $(1, 0, 1)$ to the plane through the points $P(2, 3, 1)$, $Q(3, -1, 4)$, and $R(0, 0, 2)$.

31. Suppose that P_1 and Q_1 are two points on the line L_1 and that P_2 and Q_2 are two points on the line L_2 . If the lines L_1 and L_2 are not parallel, then the perpendicular distance d between them is the projection of $\overrightarrow{P_1P_2}$ onto a vector \mathbf{n} that is perpendicular to both $\overrightarrow{P_1Q_1}$ and $\overrightarrow{P_2Q_2}$. Prove that

$$d = \frac{|\overrightarrow{P_1P_2} \cdot (\overrightarrow{P_1Q_1} \times \overrightarrow{P_2Q_2})|}{|\overrightarrow{P_1Q_1} \times \overrightarrow{P_2Q_2}|}.$$

32. Use the following method to establish that the **vector triple product** $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{c}$ is equal to $(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c})\mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c})\mathbf{a}$.
 (a) Let \mathbf{I} be a unit vector in the direction of \mathbf{a} and let \mathbf{J} be a unit vector perpendicular to \mathbf{I} and parallel to the plane of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} . Let $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{I} \times \mathbf{J}$. Explain why there are scalars a_1, b_1, b_2, c_1, c_2 , and c_3 such that

12.4 LINES AND PLANES IN SPACE

Just as in the plane, a straight line in space is determined by any two points P_0 and P_1 that lie on it. We may write $\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{P_0P_1}$ —meaning that the directed line segment $\overrightarrow{P_0P_1}$ represents the vector \mathbf{v} —to describe the “direction of the line.” Thus, alternatively, a line in space can be specified by giving a point P_0 on it and a [nonzero] vector \mathbf{v} that determines the direction of the line.

To investigate equations that describe lines in space, let us begin with a straight line L that passes through the point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and is parallel to the vector $\mathbf{v} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j} + c\mathbf{k}$ (Fig. 12.4.1). Then another point $P(x, y, z)$ lies on the line L if and only if the vectors \mathbf{v} and $\overrightarrow{P_0P}$ are parallel, in which case

$$\overrightarrow{P_0P} = t\mathbf{v} \quad (1)$$

for some real number t . If $\mathbf{r}_0 = \overrightarrow{OP_0}$ and $\mathbf{r} = \overrightarrow{OP}$ are the position vectors of the points P_0 and P , respectively, then $\overrightarrow{P_0P} = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0$. Hence Eq. (1) gives the **vector equation**

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{v} \quad (2)$$

describing the line L . As indicated in Fig. 12.4.1, \mathbf{r} is the position vector of an *arbitrary* point P on the line L , and Eq. (2) gives \mathbf{r} in terms of the parameter t , the position vector \mathbf{r}_0 of a *fixed* point P_0 on L , and the fixed vector \mathbf{v} that determines the direction of L .

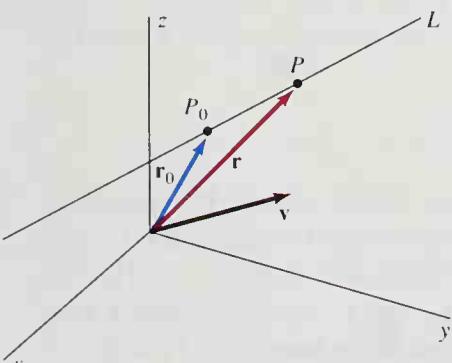


Fig. 12.4.1 Finding the equation of the line L that passes through the point P_0 and is parallel to the vector \mathbf{v}

$$\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{I}, \quad \mathbf{b} = b_1\mathbf{I} + b_2\mathbf{J}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{c} = c_1\mathbf{I} + c_2\mathbf{J} + c_3\mathbf{K}.$$

(b) Now show that

$$(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{c} = -a_1b_2c_2\mathbf{I} + a_1b_2c_1\mathbf{J}.$$

(c) Finally, substitute for \mathbf{I} and \mathbf{J} in terms of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

33. By permutation of the vectors \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} , deduce from Problem 32 that

$$\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c})\mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})\mathbf{c}$$

[this is Eq. (16)].

34. Deduce from the orthogonality properties of the vector product that the vector $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \times (\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{d})$ can be written in the form $r_1\mathbf{a} + r_2\mathbf{b}$ and in the form $s_1\mathbf{c} + s_2\mathbf{d}$.

35. Consider the triangle in the xy -plane that has vertices $(x_1, y_1, 0)$, $(x_2, y_2, 0)$, and $(x_3, y_3, 0)$. Use the vector product to prove that the area of this triangle is *half* the *absolute value* of the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & x_1 & y_1 \\ 1 & x_2 & y_2 \\ 1 & x_3 & y_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

36. Given the vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$, verify Eq. (6),

$$|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|^2 = |\mathbf{a}|^2|\mathbf{b}|^2 - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})^2,$$

by computing each side in terms of the components of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

The left- and right-hand sides of Eq. (2) are equal, and each side is a vector. So corresponding components are also equal. When we write the resulting equations, we get a scalar description of the line L . Because $\mathbf{r}_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and $\mathbf{r} = (x, y, z)$, Eq. (2) thereby yields the three scalar equations

$$x = x_0 + at, \quad y = y_0 + bt, \quad z = z_0 + ct. \quad (3)$$

These are **parametric equations** of the line L that passes through the point (x_0, y_0, z_0) and is parallel to the vector $\mathbf{v} = (a, b, c)$.

EXAMPLE 1 Write parametric equations of the line L that passes through the points $P_1(1, 2, 2)$ and $P_2(3, -1, 3)$ of Fig. 12.4.2.

Solution The line L is parallel to the vector

$$\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{P_1 P_2} = (3\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}) - (\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}) = 2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k},$$

so we take $a = 2$, $b = -3$, and $c = 1$. With P_1 as the fixed point, the equations in (3) give

$$x = 1 + 2t, \quad y = 2 - 3t, \quad z = 2 + t$$

as parametric equations of L . In contrast, with P_2 as the fixed point and with

$$-2\mathbf{v} = -4\mathbf{i} + 6\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$$

as the direction vector, the equations in (3) yield the parametric equations

$$x = 3 - 4t, \quad y = -1 + 6t, \quad z = 3 - 2t.$$

Thus the parametric equations of a line are not unique. ■

Given two straight lines L_1 and L_2 with parametric equations

$$x = x_1 + a_1t, \quad y = y_1 + b_1t, \quad z = z_1 + c_1t \quad (4)$$

and

$$x = x_2 + a_2s, \quad y = y_2 + b_2s, \quad z = z_2 + c_2s, \quad (5)$$

respectively, we can see at a glance whether L_1 and L_2 are parallel. Because L_1 is parallel to $\mathbf{v}_1 = (a_1, b_1, c_1)$ and L_2 is parallel to $\mathbf{v}_2 = (a_2, b_2, c_2)$, it follows that the lines L_1 and L_2 are parallel if and only if the vectors \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 are scalar multiples of each other (Fig. 12.4.3). If the two lines are not parallel, we can attempt to find a point of intersection by solving the equations

$$x_1 + a_1t = x_2 + a_2s \quad \text{and} \quad y_1 + b_1t = y_2 + b_2s$$

simultaneously for s and t . If these values of s and t also satisfy the equation $z_1 + c_1t = z_2 + c_2s$, then we have found a point of intersection. Its rectangular coordinates can be found by substituting the resulting value of t into Eq. (4) [or the resulting value of s into Eq. (5)]. Otherwise, the lines L_1 and L_2 do not intersect. Two nonparallel and nonintersecting lines in space are called **skew lines** (Fig. 12.4.4).

EXAMPLE 2 The line L_1 with parametric equations

$$x = 1 + 2t, \quad y = 2 - 3t, \quad z = 2 + t$$

Fig. 12.4.2 The line L of Example 1

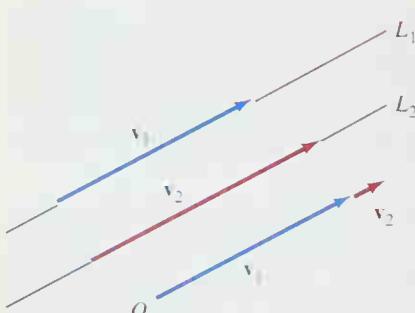


Fig. 12.4.3 Parallel lines

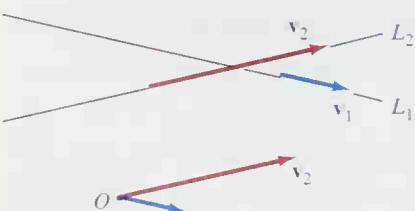


Fig. 12.4.4 Skew lines

passes through the point $P_1(1, 2, 2)$ (discovered by substitution of $t = 0$) and is parallel to the vector $\mathbf{v}_1 = \langle 2, -3, 1 \rangle$. The line L_2 with parametric equations

$$x = 3 + 4t, \quad y = 1 - 6t, \quad z = 5 + 2t$$

passes through the point $P_2(3, 1, 5)$ and is parallel to the vector $\mathbf{v}_2 = \langle 4, -6, 2 \rangle$. Because $\mathbf{v}_2 = 2\mathbf{v}_1$, we see that L_1 and L_2 are parallel.

But are L_1 and L_2 actually different lines, or are we perhaps dealing with two different parametrizations of the same line? To answer this question, we note that $\overrightarrow{P_1P_2} = \langle 2, -1, 3 \rangle$ is not parallel to $\mathbf{v}_1 = \langle 2, -3, 1 \rangle$. Thus the point P_2 does not lie on the line L_1 , and hence the lines L_1 and L_2 are indeed distinct. ■

If all the coefficients a , b , and c in Eq. (3) are nonzero, then we can eliminate the parameter t . Simply solve each equation for t and then set the resulting expressions equal to each other. This gives

$$\frac{x - x_0}{a} = \frac{y - y_0}{b} = \frac{z - z_0}{c}. \quad (6)$$

These are called the **symmetric equations** of the line L . If one or more of a or b or c is zero, this means that L lies in a plane parallel to one of the coordinate planes, and in this case the line does not have symmetric equations. For example, if $c = 0$, then L lies in the horizontal plane $z = z_0$. Of course, it is still possible to write equations for L that don't include the parameter t ; if $c = 0$, for instance, but a and b are nonzero, then we could describe the line L as the simultaneous solution of the equations

$$\frac{x - x_0}{a} = \frac{y - y_0}{b}, \quad z = z_0.$$

EXAMPLE 3 Find both parametric and symmetric equations of the line L through the points $P_0(3, 1, -2)$ and $P_1(4, -1, 1)$. Find also the points at which L intersects the three coordinate planes.

Solution The line L is parallel to the vector $\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{P_0P_1} = \langle 1, -2, 3 \rangle$, so we take $a = 1$, $b = -2$, and $c = 3$. The equations in (3) then give the parametric equations

$$x = 3 + t, \quad y = 1 - 2t, \quad z = -2 + 3t$$

of L , and the equations in (6) give the symmetric equations

$$\frac{x - 3}{1} = \frac{y - 1}{-2} = \frac{z + 2}{3}.$$

To find the point at which L intersects the xy -plane, we set $z = 0$ in the symmetric equations. This gives

$$\frac{x - 3}{1} = \frac{y - 1}{-2} = \frac{2}{3},$$

and so $x = \frac{11}{3}$ and $y = -\frac{1}{3}$. Thus L meets the xy -plane at the point $(\frac{11}{3}, -\frac{1}{3}, 0)$. Similarly, $x = 0$ gives $(0, 7, -11)$ for the point where L meets the yz -plane, and $y = 0$ gives $(\frac{7}{2}, 0, -\frac{1}{2})$ for its intersection with the xz -plane. ■

Planes in Space

A plane \mathcal{P} in space is determined by a point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ through which \mathcal{P} passes and a line through P_0 that is normal to \mathcal{P} . Alternatively, we may be given P_0 on \mathcal{P} and a vector $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ normal to the plane \mathcal{P} . The point $P(x, y, z)$ lies on the plane \mathcal{P} if and only if the vectors \mathbf{n} and $\overrightarrow{P_0P}$ are perpendicular (Fig. 12.4.5), in which case $\mathbf{n} \cdot \overrightarrow{P_0P} = 0$. We write $\overrightarrow{P_0P} = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0$, where \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{r}_0 are the position vectors $\mathbf{r} = \overrightarrow{OP}$ and $\mathbf{r}_0 = \overrightarrow{OP_0}$ of the points P and P_0 , respectively. Thus we obtain a **vector equation**

$$\mathbf{n} \cdot (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0) = 0 \quad (7)$$

of the plane \mathcal{P} .

If we substitute $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$, $\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$, and $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$ into Eq. (7), we thereby obtain a **scalar equation**

$$a(x - x_0) + b(y - y_0) + c(z - z_0) = 0 \quad (8)$$

of the plane through $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ with **normal vector** $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$.

EXAMPLE 4 An equation of the plane through $P_0(-1, 5, 2)$ with normal vector $\mathbf{n} = \langle 1, -3, 2 \rangle$ is

$$1 \cdot (x + 1) + (-3) \cdot (y - 5) + 2 \cdot (z - 2) = 0;$$

that is, $x - 3y + 2z = -12$.

IMPORTANT The coefficients of x , y , and z in the last equation are the components of the normal vector. This is always the case, because we can write Eq. (8) in the form

$$ax + by + cz = d, \quad (9)$$

where $d = ax_0 + by_0 + cz_0$. Conversely, every **linear equation** in x , y , and z of the form in Eq. (9) represents a plane in space provided that the coefficients a , b , and c are not all zero. The reason is that if $c \neq 0$ (for instance), then we can choose x_0 and y_0 arbitrarily and solve the equation $ax_0 + by_0 + cz_0 = d$ for z_0 . With these values, Eq. (9) takes the form

$$ax + by + cz = ax_0 + by_0 + cz_0;$$

that is,

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

so this equation represents the plane through (x_0, y_0, z_0) with normal vector $\langle a, b, c \rangle$.

EXAMPLE 5 Find an equation for the plane through the three points $P(2, 4, -3)$, $Q(3, 7, -1)$, and $R(4, 3, 0)$.

Solution We want to use Eq. (8), so we first need a vector \mathbf{n} that is normal to the plane in question. One easy way to obtain such a normal vector is by using the cross product. Let

$$\mathbf{n} = \overrightarrow{PQ} \times \overrightarrow{PR} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 11\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - 7\mathbf{k}.$$

Because \overrightarrow{PQ} and \overrightarrow{PR} are in the plane, their cross product \mathbf{n} is normal to the plane (Fig. 12.4.6). Hence the plane has equation

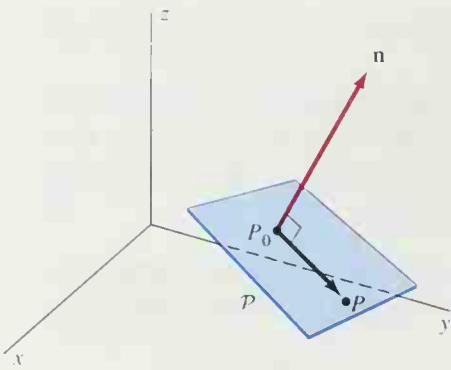


Fig. 12.4.5 Because \mathbf{n} is normal to \mathcal{P} , it follows that \mathbf{n} is normal to $\overrightarrow{P_0P}$ for all points P in \mathcal{P} .

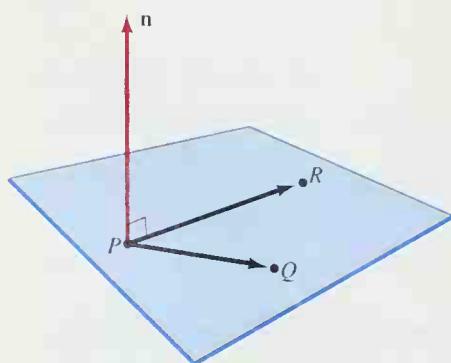


Fig. 12.4.6 The normal vector \mathbf{n} as a cross product (Example 5)

$$11(x - 2) + (y - 4) - 7(z + 3) = 0.$$

After simplifying, we write the equation as

$$11x + y - 7z = 47.$$

Two planes with normal vectors \mathbf{n} and \mathbf{m} are said to be parallel provided that \mathbf{n} and \mathbf{m} are parallel. Otherwise, the two planes meet in a straight line (Fig. 12.4.7). We define the angle between the two planes to be the angle between their normal vectors \mathbf{n} and \mathbf{m} , as in Fig. 12.4.8.

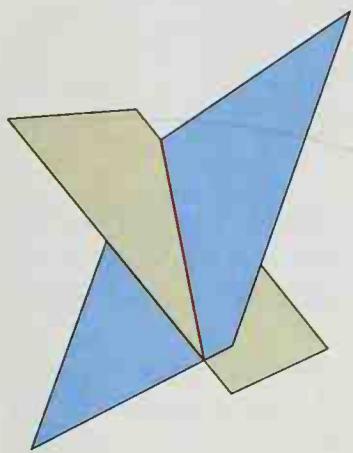


Fig. 12.4.7 The intersection of two nonparallel planes is a straight line.

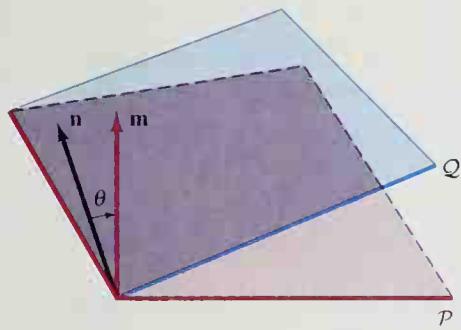


Fig. 12.4.8 Vectors \mathbf{m} and \mathbf{n} normal to the planes \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} , respectively

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to my mind first

EXAMPLE 6 Find the angle θ between the planes with equations

$$2x + 3y - z = 3 \quad \text{and} \quad 4x + 5y + z = 1.$$

Then write symmetric equations of their line of intersection L .

Solution The vectors $\mathbf{n} = \langle 2, 3, -1 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{m} = \langle 4, 5, 1 \rangle$ are normal to the two planes, so

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{m}}{|\mathbf{n}| |\mathbf{m}|} = \frac{22}{\sqrt{14}\sqrt{42}}.$$

$$\text{Hence } \theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{11}{21}\sqrt{3}\right) \approx 24.87^\circ.$$

To determine the line of intersection L of the two planes, we need first to find a point P_0 that lies on L . We can do this by substituting an arbitrarily chosen value of x into the equations of the given planes and then solving the resulting equations for y and z . With $x = 1$ we get the equations

$$2 + 3y - z = -3, \quad \text{why it becomes - here}$$

$$4 + 5y + z = 1.$$

The common solution is $y = -1, z = 2$. Thus the point $P_0(1, -1, 2)$ lies on the line L .

Next we need a vector \mathbf{v} parallel to L . The vectors \mathbf{n} and \mathbf{m} normal to the two planes are both perpendicular to L , so their cross product is parallel to L . Alternatively, we can find a second point P_1 on L by substituting a second value of x into the equations of the given planes and solving for y and z , as before. With $x = 5$, we obtain the equations

$$10 + 3y - z = -3,$$

$$20 + 5y + z = 1,$$

with common solution $y = -4, z = 1$. Thus we obtain a second point $P_1(5, -4, 1)$ on L and thereby the vector

$$\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{P_0 P_1} = \langle 4, -3, -1 \rangle$$

parallel to L . From Eq. (6) we now find symmetric equations

recall Symmetric Equation

$$\frac{x - 1}{4} = \frac{y + 1}{-3} = \frac{z - 2}{-1}$$

of the line of intersection of the two given planes.

Finally, we may note that the symmetric equations of a line L present the line as an intersection of planes: We can rewrite the equations in (6) in the form

$$b(x - x_0) - a(y - y_0) = 0,$$

$$c(x - x_0) - a(z - z_0) = 0, \quad (10)$$

$$c(y - y_0) - b(z - z_0) = 0.$$

These are the equations of three planes that intersect in the line L . The first has normal vector $(b, -a, 0)$, a vector parallel to the xy -plane. So the first plane is perpendicular to the xy -plane. Similarly, the second plane is perpendicular to the xz -plane and the third is perpendicular to the yz -plane.

The equations in (10) are symmetric equations of the line that passes through the point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and is parallel to $\mathbf{v} = (a, b, c)$. Unlike the equations in (6), these equations are meaningful whether all the components a, b , and c are nonzero. They have a special form, though, if one of the three components is zero. If, say, $a = 0$, then the first two equations in (10) take the form $x = x_0$. The line is then the intersection of the two planes $x = x_0$ and $c(y - y_0) = b(z - z_0)$.



Lines, Planes, and Linear Mappings

Here we briefly discuss lines and planes from the viewpoint of elementary linear algebra. First, let L be a line through the origin O in space that is determined by the nonzero vector \mathbf{v} —that is, a point P lies on the line L provided that its position vector \overrightarrow{OP} is a scalar multiple of \mathbf{v} . Then we may write

p_0 becomes 0

$$F(t) = t\mathbf{v} \quad (11)$$

to define a function or *mapping* that maps the real line \mathbf{R} (considered as the t -axis) into 3-space \mathbf{R}^3 . This mapping $F: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$ is *linear*, meaning that

$$F(as + bt) = aF(s) + bF(t) \quad (12)$$

I think diff R okay, vector operation

for all s and t in \mathbf{R} and all scalars a and b . To see that this is so, we need only write

$$\begin{aligned} F(as + bt) &= (as + bt)\mathbf{v} \\ &= a(s\mathbf{v}) + b(t\mathbf{v}) = aF(s) + bF(t). \end{aligned}$$

Thus every line through the origin in space is the image of a linear mapping $F: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$.

Similarly, every plane \mathcal{P} through the origin in space is the image of a linear mapping $F: \mathbf{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$ of the plane \mathbf{R}^2 into space \mathbf{R}^3 . To define the mapping F , we may write

$$F(\mathbf{t}) = t_1\mathbf{v}_1 + t_2\mathbf{v}_2 \quad (13)$$

where $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, t_2)$ represents a typical point (t_1, t_2) of the plane and $\mathbf{v}_1 = (a_1, b_1, c_1)$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = (a_2, b_2, c_2)$ are noncollinear (that is, nonparallel) vectors in the plane \mathcal{P} . In Problem 69 we ask you to verify that Eq. (13) defines a *linear mapping*; that is, that

$$F(as + bt) = aF(s) + bF(t) \quad (14)$$

for any two scalars a and b and any two points $\mathbf{s} = (s_1, s_2)$ and $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, t_2)$ of \mathbf{R}^2 .

REMARK The mapping $F: \mathbf{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$ can still be defined by Eq. (13) if the nonzero vectors \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 are collinear; that is, if both are parallel to a single vector \mathbf{v} . But in this case the image of F is the *line* (rather than a plane) through the origin that consists of all scalar multiples of \mathbf{v} .

T the input vector

If we write $F(\mathbf{t}) = \langle x, y, z \rangle$ and $\langle s, t \rangle$ (rather than $\langle t_1, t_2 \rangle$) for a typical point of \mathbb{R}^2 , then the “scalar components” of the vector equation in (14) are the scalar equations

+++ Wrong +++

$$F(V) = s \cdot \langle a_1, b_1, c_1 \rangle + t \cdot \langle a_2, b_2, c_2 \rangle$$

$$F(V) = \langle x, y, z \rangle$$

then we have $x = s \cdot a_1 + t \cdot b_1$

$$x = a_1s + b_1t,$$

$$y = a_2s + b_2t,$$

$$z = a_3s + b_3t.$$

(15)

it was directly from Eq(13)

These are parametric equations of the plane \mathcal{P} through the origin that contains the points (a_1, b_1, c_1) and (a_2, b_2, c_2) —the coordinates (x, y, z) of a typical point of \mathcal{P} are given in terms of the parameters s and t . Similarly, the equations

$$x = a_1s + b_1t + c_1,$$

$$y = a_2s + b_2t + c_2,$$

$$z = a_3s + b_3t + c_3$$

not lifted, always pass origin

describe parametrically a plane in space that passes through the point (c_1, c_2, c_3) (and may or may not also pass through the origin).

It is possible for two different triples of parametric equations—as in (15) or (16)—to describe the same plane in space. In a particular example, the methods of this section can be used to determine whether this is the case.

EXAMPLE 7

Determine whether the parametric equations

$$x = 2s - t - 2 \quad x = s - 2t + 1$$

$$y = s + 2t - 1 \quad \text{and} \quad y = s - t$$

$$z = s + t - 1 \quad z = 2s + t - 3$$

(17)

represent the same plane in space.

Solution Substituting $s = t = 0$, we see that the first plane \mathcal{P} in (17) passes through the point $A(-2, -1, -1)$. It is “spanned” by the vectors $\mathbf{v}_1 = \langle 2, 1, 1 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = \langle -1, 2, 1 \rangle$, and therefore has normal vector

? **s=2 and t = 0**

$$\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{v}_1 \times \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}.$$

The second plane \mathcal{Q} in (17) passes through the point $B(1, 0, -3)$. It is spanned by the vector $\mathbf{u}_1 = \langle 1, 1, 2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{u}_2 = \langle -2, -1, 1 \rangle$ and therefore has normal vector

$$\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{u}_1 \times \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ -2 & -1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 3\mathbf{i} - 5\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}.$$

Because neither of the normal vectors \mathbf{n} and \mathbf{m} is a scalar multiple of the other, they are not parallel. It follows that the planes \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} are not parallel, and hence cannot be identical. ■

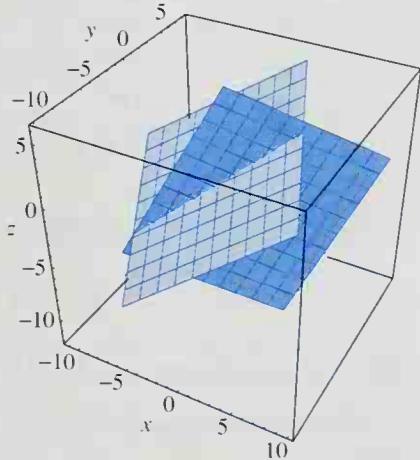


Fig. 12.4.9 Computer plot of the planes of Example 7

REMARK 1 Figure 12.4.9 corroborates the result of Example 7. It was plotted using typical computer algebra system syntax like the *Mathematica* command

```
ParametricPlot3D[{2s-t-2, s+2t-1, s+t-1}, {s,-3,3}, {t,-3,3}]
```

or the *Maple* command

```
plot3d([s-2*t+1, s-t, 2*s+t-3], s=-3..3, t=-3..3)
```

REMARK 2 If the two normal vectors \mathbf{m} and \mathbf{n} in Example 7 had turned out to be parallel, it would have remained for us to determine whether the two planes P and Q were identical or distinct (but parallel). For instance, we could settle this question by determining whether the point $A(-2, -1, -1)$ of P lies on Q . If so, there must be values of s and t that satisfy the equations **both passes origin, how could be parallel**

$$s - 2t + 1 = -2, \quad s - t = -1, \quad 2s + t - 3 = -1.$$

(Why?) But if we solve the first two of these equations, we get the values $s = 1$ and $t = 2$, which do not satisfy the third equation. Therefore the point $A(-2, -1, -1)$ does *not* lie on Q .

12.4 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 4, write parametric equations of the straight line that passes through the point P and is parallel to the vector \mathbf{v} .

1. $P(0, 0, 0), \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$
2. $P(3, -4, 5), \mathbf{v} = -2\mathbf{i} + 7\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$
3. $P(4, 13, -3), \mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{k}$
4. $P(17, -13, -31), \mathbf{v} = \langle -17, 13, 31 \rangle$

In Problems 5 through 8, write parametric equations of the straight line that passes through the points P_1 and P_2 .

5. $P_1(0, 0, 0), P_2(-6, 3, 5)$
6. $P_1(3, 5, 7), P_2(6, -8, 10)$
7. $P_1(3, 5, 7), P_2(6, 5, 4)$
8. $P_1(29, -47, 13), P_2(73, 53, -67)$

In Problems 9 through 14, write both parametric and symmetric equations for the indicated straight line.

9. Through $P(2, 3, -4)$ and parallel to $\mathbf{v} = \langle 1, -1, -2 \rangle$
10. Through $P(2, 5, -7)$ and $Q(4, 3, 8)$
11. Through $P(1, 1, 1)$ and perpendicular to the xy -plane
12. Through the origin and perpendicular to the plane with equation $x + y + z = 1$
13. Through $P(2, -3, 4)$ and perpendicular to the plane with equation $2x - y + 3z = 4$
14. Through $P(2, -1, 5)$ and parallel to the line with parametric equations $x = 3t, y = 2 + t, z = 2 - t$

In Problems 15 through 20, determine whether the two lines L_1 and L_2 are parallel, skew, or intersecting. If they intersect, find the point of intersection.

15. $L_1: x - 2 = \frac{1}{2}(y + 1) = \frac{1}{3}(z - 3);$
 $L_2: \frac{1}{3}(x - 5) = \frac{1}{2}(y - 1) = z - 4$
16. $L_1: \frac{1}{4}(x - 11) = y - 6 = -\frac{1}{2}(z + 5);$
 $L_2: \frac{1}{6}(x - 13) = -\frac{1}{3}(y - 2) = \frac{1}{8}(z - 5)$

17. $L_1: x = 6 + 2t, y = 5 + 2t, z = 7 + 3t;$
 $L_2: x = 7 + 3s, y = 5 + 3s, z = 10 + 5s$
18. $L_1: x = 14 + 3t, y = 7 + 2t, z = 21 + 5t;$
 $L_2: x = 5 + 3s, y = 15 + 5s, z = 10 + 7s$
19. $L_1: \frac{1}{6}(x - 7) = \frac{1}{4}(y + 5) = -\frac{1}{8}(z - 9);$
 $L_2: -\frac{1}{9}(x - 11) = -\frac{1}{6}(y - 7) = \frac{1}{12}(z - 13)$
20. $L_1: x = 13 + 12t, y = -7 + 20t, z = 11 - 28t;$
 $L_2: x = 22 + 9s, y = 8 + 15s, z = -10 - 21s$

In Problems 21 through 24, write an equation of the plane with normal vector \mathbf{n} that passes through the point P .

21. $P(0, 0, 0), \mathbf{n} = \langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle$
22. $P(3, -4, 5), \mathbf{n} = \langle -2, 7, 3 \rangle$
23. $P(5, 12, 13), \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{k}$
24. $P(5, 12, 13), \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{j}$

In Problems 25 through 32, write an equation of the indicated plane.

25. Through $P(5, 7, -6)$ and parallel to the xz -plane
26. Through $P(1, 0, -1)$ with normal vector $\mathbf{n} = \langle 2, 2, -1 \rangle$
27. Through $P(10, 4, -3)$ with normal vector $\mathbf{n} = \langle 7, 11, 0 \rangle$
28. Through $P(1, -3, 2)$ with normal vector $\mathbf{n} = \overrightarrow{OP}$
29. Through the origin and parallel to the plane with equation $3x + 4y = z + 10$
30. Through $P(5, 1, 4)$ and parallel to the plane with equation $x + y - 2z = 0$
31. Through the origin and the points $P(1, 1, 1)$ and $Q(1, -1, 3)$
32. Through the points $A(1, 0, -1), B(3, 3, 2)$, and $C(4, 5, -1)$

In Problems 33 and 34, write an equation of the plane that contains both the point P and the line L .

33. $P(2, 4, 6); L: x = 7 - 3t, y = 3 + 4t, z = 5 + 2t$
34. $P(13, -7, 29); L: x = 17 - 9t, y = 23 + 14t, z = 35 - 41t$

In Problems 35 through 38, determine whether the line L and the plane \mathcal{P} intersect or are parallel. If they intersect, find the point of intersection.

35. $L: x = 7 - 4t, y = 3 + 6t, z = 9 + 5t;$
 $\mathcal{P}: 4x + y + 2z = 17$
36. $L: x = 15 + 7t, y = 10 + 12t, z = 5 - 4t;$
 $\mathcal{P}: 12x - 5y + 6z = 50$
37. $L: x = 3 + 2t, y = 6 - 5t, z = 2 + 3t;$
 $\mathcal{P}: 3x + 2y - 4z = 1$
38. $L: x = 15 - 3t, y = 6 - 5t, z = 21 - 14t;$
 $\mathcal{P}: 23x + 29y - 31z = 99$

In Problems 39 through 42, find the angle between the planes with the given equations.

39. $x = 10$ and $x + y + z = 0$
40. $2x - y + z = 5$ and $x + y - z = 1$
41. $x - y - 2z = 1$ and $x - y - 2z = 5$
42. $2x + y + z = 4$ and $3x - y - z = 3$

In Problems 43 through 46, write both parametric and symmetric equations of the line of intersection of the indicated planes.

43. The planes of Problem 39
44. The planes of Problem 40
45. The planes of Problem 41
46. The planes of Problem 42
47. Write symmetric equations for the line through $P(3, 3, 1)$ that is parallel to the line of Problem 46.
48. Find an equation of the plane through $P(3, 3, 1)$ that is perpendicular to the planes $x + y = 2z$ and $2x + z = 10$.
49. Find an equation of the plane through $(1, 1, 1)$ that intersects the xy -plane in the same line as does the plane $3x + 2y - z = 6$.
50. Find an equation for the plane that passes through the point $P(1, 3, -2)$ and contains the line of intersection of the planes $x - y + z = 1$ and $x + y - z = 1$.
51. Find an equation of the plane that passes through the points $P(1, 0, -1)$ and $Q(2, 1, 0)$ and is parallel to the line of intersection of the planes $x + y + z = 5$ and $3x - y = 4$.
52. Prove that the lines $x - 1 = \frac{1}{2}(y + 1) = z - 2$ and $x - 2 = \frac{1}{3}(y - 2) = \frac{1}{2}(z - 4)$ intersect. Find an equation of the (only) plane that contains them both.
53. Prove that the line of intersection of the planes $x + 2y - z = 2$ and $3x + 2y + 2z = 7$ is parallel to the line $x = 1 + 6t, y = 3 - 5t, z = 2 - 4t$. Find an equation of the plane determined by these two lines.
54. Show that the perpendicular distance D from the point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ to the plane $ax + by + cz = d$ is

$$D = \frac{|ax_0 + by_0 + cz_0 - d|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$

(*Suggestion:* The line that passes through P_0 and is perpendicular to the given plane has parametric equations $x = x_0 + at, y = y_0 + bt, z = z_0 + ct$. Let $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ be the point of this line, corresponding to $t = t_1$, at which it intersects the given plane. Solve for t_1 , and then compute $D = |P_0P_1|$.)

In Problems 55 and 56, use the formula of Problem 54 to find the distance between the given point and the given plane.

55. The origin and the plane $x + y + z = 10$
56. The point $P(5, 12, -13)$ and the plane with equation $3x + 4y + 5z = 12$
57. Prove that any two skew lines lie in parallel planes.
58. Use the formula of Problem 54 to show that the perpendicular distance D between the two parallel planes $ax + by + cz + d_1 = 0$ and $ax + by + cz + d_2 = 0$ is

$$D = \frac{|d_1 - d_2|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}.$$

59. The line L_1 is described by the equations

$$x - 1 = 2y + 2, \quad z = 4.$$

The line L_2 passes through the points $P(2, 1, -3)$ and $Q(0, 8, 4)$. (a) Show that L_1 and L_2 are skew lines. (b) Use the results of Problems 57 and 58 to find the perpendicular distance between L_1 and L_2 .

60. Find the shortest distance between points of the line L_1 with parametric equations

$$x = 7 + 2t, \quad y = 11 - 5t, \quad z = 13 + 6t$$

and the line L_2 of intersection of the planes $3x - 2y + 4z = 10$ and $5x + 3y - 2z = 15$.

In Problems 61 through 64, both the parametric equations of a line L and those of a plane \mathcal{P} are given. Determine whether L and \mathcal{P} are parallel, perpendicular, or neither. If the line and plane intersect, find both the point of intersection and the angle between the line L and the plane \mathcal{P} (that is, the complement of the angle between L and a normal vector to \mathcal{P}).

61. $L: x = 11 + 3r, y = 17 - 9r, z = 5 + r;$
 $\mathcal{P}: x = 5s + 4t, y = 7s - t, z = 3s + 2t$
62. $L: x = 16 + 13r, y = -18 - 23r, z = 23 + 4r;$
 $\mathcal{P}: x = 9s + 3t, y = 7s + t, z = 11s - 4t$
63. $L: x = 12 + 5r, y = 11 + 10r, z = 21 + 20r;$
 $\mathcal{P}: x = 2s + 5t, y = -s + 2t, z = 4s - 3t$
64. $L: x = 7 - 6r, y = 3 + 3r, z = 10 + 3r;$
 $\mathcal{P}: x = 7s + 3t, y = 4s - 2t, z = -5s + 6t$

In Problems 65 through 68, the parametric equations of two planes \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 are given. Determine whether these two planes are equal, parallel, or neither. If \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 intersect, find the angle between them (that is, the angle between their normals) and write parametric equations of their line of intersection.

65. \mathcal{P}_1 : $x = 5s + 7t, y = 3s + 8t, z = 2s + 5t$;

\mathcal{P}_2 : $x = -3s + 4t, y = 7s + 4t, z = -2s + 11t$

\mathcal{P}_2 : $x = -1 + 12s + t, y = 7 + 11s + 12t, z = 4 + 7s + 7t$

68. \mathcal{P}_1 : $x = 7 + 2s + 7t, y = 3 - s + 4t, z = 5 + 4s + 5t$;

66. \mathcal{P}_1 : $x = 7 - s + t, y = 3 + 7s + 12t, z = 9 + 2s + 5t$;

\mathcal{P}_2 : $x = 11 + 5s + 4t, y = 7 - s + 4t, z = 10 - 2s + 5t$

\mathcal{P}_2 : $x = 5 + 7t, y = 3 + 19s + 8t, z = 4 + 7s + 7t$

69. Show that the mapping in Eq. (13) defines a linear map-

67. \mathcal{P}_1 : $x = 7s + t, y = 8s + 12t, z = 7s + 5t$;

ping; that is, show that Eq. (14) holds.

12.5 CURVES AND MOTION IN SPACE

In Section 10.4 we discussed parametric curves in the plane. Now think of a point that moves along a curve in three-dimensional space. We can describe this point's changing position by means of *parametric equations*

$$x = f(t), \quad y = g(t), \quad z = h(t) \quad (1)$$

that specify its coordinates as functions of time t . A **parametric curve** C in space is (by definition) simply a triple (f, g, h) of such *coordinate functions*. But often it is useful to refer informally to C as the trajectory in space that is traced out by a moving point with these coordinate functions. Space curves exhibit a number of interesting new phenomena that we did not see with plane curves.

EXAMPLE 1 Figure 12.5.1 shows a common *trefoil knot* in space defined by the parametric equations

$$x(t) = (2 + \cos \frac{3}{2}t) \cos t, \quad y(t) = (2 + \cos \frac{3}{2}t) \sin t, \quad z(t) = \sin \frac{3}{2}t.$$

Actually, to enhance the three-dimensional appearance of this curve's shape, we have plotted in the figure a thin tubular surface whose centerline is the knot itself. The viewpoint for the computer plot is so chosen that we are looking down on the curve from a point on the positive z -axis. ■

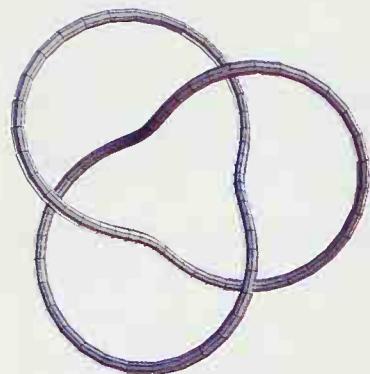


Fig. 12.5.1 A tubular knot whose centerline is the parametric curve of Example 1

EXAMPLE 2 Figure 12.5.2 shows simultaneously the circle

$$x(t) = 4 \cos t, \quad y(t) = 4 \sin t, \quad z(t) \equiv 0$$

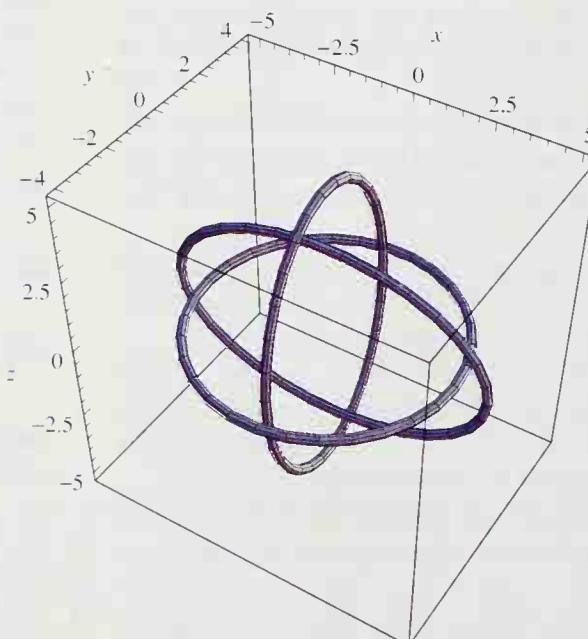


Fig. 12.5.2 The Borromean rings of Example 2

in the xy -plane, the ellipse

$$x(t) = 5 \cos t, \quad y(t) = 0, \quad z(t) = 3 \sin t$$

in the xz -plane, and the ellipse

$$x(t) = 0, \quad y(t) = 3 \cos t, \quad z(t) = 5 \sin t$$

in the yz -plane. Here, again, we actually have plotted thin tubular tori having these closed curves as centerlines. Can you see that any two of these curves are unlinked, but that the three together apparently cannot be “pulled apart”? ■

Vector-Valued Functions

The changing location of a point moving along the parametric curve in Eq. (1) can be described by giving its **position vector**

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k} = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle, \quad (2)$$

or simply

$$\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k} = \langle x, y, z \rangle,$$

whose components are the coordinate functions of the moving point (Fig. 12.5.3). Equation (2) defines a **vector-valued function** that associates with the number t the vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$. In the case of a plane curve described by a two-dimensional position vector, we may suppress the third component in Eq. (2) and write $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} = \langle x(t), y(t) \rangle$.

EXAMPLE 3 The position vector

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

describes the **helix** of Fig. 12.5.4. Because $x^2 + y^2 = \cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$ for all t , the projection $(x(t), y(t))$ into the xy -plane moves around and around the unit circle. Meanwhile, because $z = t$, the point $(\cos t, \sin t, t)$ steadily moves upward on the vertical cylinder in space that stands above and below the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ in the xy -plane. The familiar corkscrew shape of the helix appears everywhere, from the coiled springs of an automobile to the *double helix* model of the DNA molecule that carries the genetic information of living cells (Fig. 12.5.5). ■

Much of the calculus of (ordinary) real-valued functions applies to vector-valued functions. To begin with, the **limit** of a vector-valued function $\mathbf{r} = \langle f, g, h \rangle$ is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \rightarrow a} \mathbf{r}(t) &= \left\langle \lim_{t \rightarrow a} f(t), \lim_{t \rightarrow a} g(t), \lim_{t \rightarrow a} h(t) \right\rangle \\ &= \mathbf{i} \left(\lim_{t \rightarrow a} f(t) \right) + \mathbf{j} \left(\lim_{t \rightarrow a} g(t) \right) + \mathbf{k} \left(\lim_{t \rightarrow a} h(t) \right), \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

provided that the limits in the last three expressions exist. Thus we take limits of vector-valued functions by taking limits of their component functions.

We say that $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$ is **continuous** at the number a provided that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(a).$$

This amounts to saying that \mathbf{r} is continuous at a if and only if its component functions f , g , and h are continuous at a .

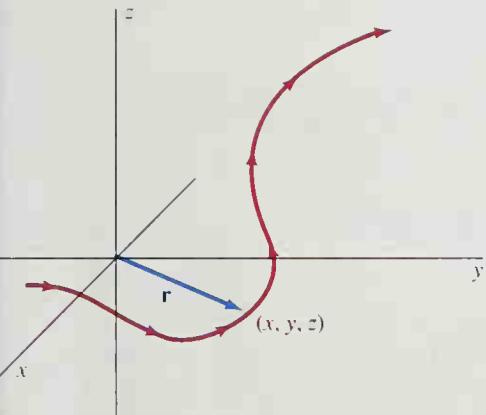


Fig. 12.5.3 The position vector $\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$ of a moving particle in space

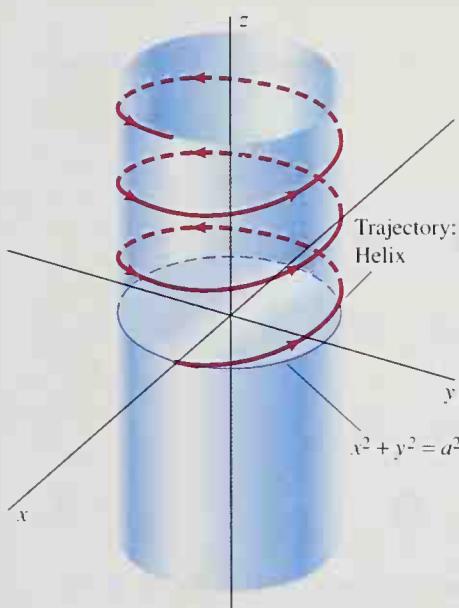


Fig. 12.5.4 The point of Example 3 moves in a helical path.



Fig. 12.5.5 The intertwined helices that model the DNA molecule served as a model for the DNA Tower in Kings Park, Perth, Australia. For a fascinating account of the discovery of the role of the helix as the genetic basis for life itself, see James D. Watson, *The Double Helix* (New York: Atheneum, 1968)

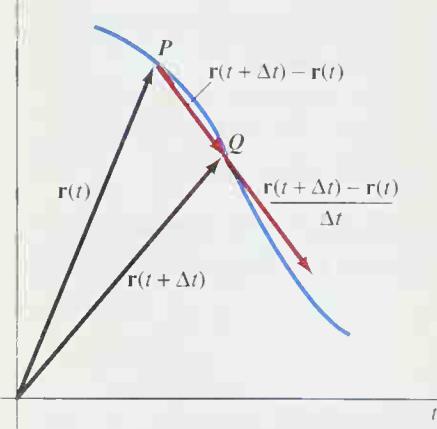


Fig. 12.5.6 Geometry of the derivative of a vector-valued function

The **derivative** $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ of the vector-valued function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is defined in almost exactly the same way as the derivative of a real-valued function. Specifically,

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{\Delta t}, \quad (5)$$

provided that this limit exists. Figures 12.5.6 and 12.5.7 correctly suggest that the **derivative vector**

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = D_t[\mathbf{r}(t)]$$

will be tangent to the curve C with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$. For this reason, we call $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ a **tangent vector** to the curve C at the point $\mathbf{r}(t)$ provided that $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ exists and is non-zero there. The **tangent line** to C at this point P with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is then the line through P determined by $\mathbf{r}'(t)$.

Our next result implies the simple *but important* fact that the derivative vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ can be calculated by **componentwise differentiation** of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ —that is, by differentiating separately the component functions of $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

Theorem 1 Componentwise Differentiation

Suppose that

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k},$$

where f , g , and h are differentiable functions. Then

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle f'(t), g'(t), h'(t) \rangle = f'(t)\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\mathbf{k}. \quad (6)$$

That is, if $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$, then

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \frac{dx}{dt}\mathbf{i} + \frac{dy}{dt}\mathbf{j} + \frac{dz}{dt}\mathbf{k}.$$

PROOF We take the limit in Eq. (5) simply by taking limits of components. We find that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}'(t) &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \mathbf{r}}{\Delta t} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{\Delta t} \\ &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t + \Delta t)\mathbf{i} + g(t + \Delta t)\mathbf{j} + h(t + \Delta t)\mathbf{k} - f(t)\mathbf{i} - g(t)\mathbf{j} - h(t)\mathbf{k}}{\Delta t} \\ &= \left(\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t + \Delta t) - f(t)}{\Delta t} \right) \mathbf{i} + \left(\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(t + \Delta t) - g(t)}{\Delta t} \right) \mathbf{j} \\ &\quad + \left(\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{h(t + \Delta t) - h(t)}{\Delta t} \right) \mathbf{k} \\ &= f'(t)\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\mathbf{k}. \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 4 Find parametric equations of the line tangent to the helix C of Example 3 at the point $P(-1, 0, \pi)$ where $t = \pi$.

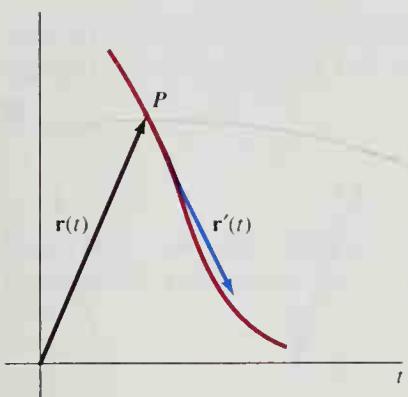


Fig. 12.5.7 The derivative vector is tangent to the curve at the point of evaluation.

Solution Componentwise differentiation of $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i} \cos t + \mathbf{j} \sin t + t\mathbf{k}$ yields

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = -\mathbf{i} \sin t + \mathbf{j} \cos t + \mathbf{k},$$

so the vector tangent to C at P is $\mathbf{v}(\pi) = \mathbf{r}'(\pi) = -\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k} = \langle 0, -1, 1 \rangle$. It follows that the parametric equations of the line tangent at P —with its own position vector $\mathbf{r}(\pi) + t\mathbf{r}'(\pi)$ —are

$$x = -1, \quad y = -t, \quad z = \pi + t.$$

In particular, we see that this tangent line lies in the vertical plane $x = -1$. ■

Theorem 2 tells us that the formulas for computing derivatives of sums and products of vector-valued functions are formally similar to those for real-valued functions.

Theorem 2 Differentiation Formulas

Let $\mathbf{u}(t)$ and $\mathbf{v}(t)$ be differentiable vector-valued functions. Let $h(t)$ be a differentiable real-valued function and let c be a (constant) scalar. Then

1. $D_t[\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) + \mathbf{v}'(t)$,
2. $D_t[c\mathbf{u}(t)] = c\mathbf{u}'(t)$,
3. $D_t[h(t)\mathbf{u}(t)] = h'(t)\mathbf{u}(t) + h(t)\mathbf{u}'(t)$,
4. $D_t[\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}'(t)$, and
5. $D_t[\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}'(t)$.

PROOF We'll prove part (4), working with two-dimensional vectors for simplicity, and leave the other parts as exercises. If

$$\mathbf{u}(t) = \langle f_1(t), f_2(t) \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{v}(t) = \langle g_1(t), g_2(t) \rangle,$$

then

$$\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) = f_1(t)g_1(t) + f_2(t)g_2(t).$$

Hence the product rule for ordinary real-valued functions gives

$$\begin{aligned} D_t[\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)] &= D_t[f_1(t)g_1(t) + f_2(t)g_2(t)] \\ &= [f_1'(t)g_1(t) + f_2'(t)g_2(t)] + [f_1(t)g_1'(t) + f_2(t)g_2'(t)] \\ &= \mathbf{u}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}'(t). \end{aligned}$$

REMARK The order of the factors in part (5) of Theorem 2 *must* be preserved because the cross product is not commutative.

EXAMPLE 5 The trajectory of the parametric curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = a\mathbf{i} \cos t + a\mathbf{j} \sin t$ is the circle of radius a centered at the origin in the xy -plane. Because $\mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t) = a^2$, a constant, part 4 of Theorem 2 gives

$$0 \equiv \frac{d}{dt}(a^2) = \frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t)] = \mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t) + \mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) = 2\mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t).$$

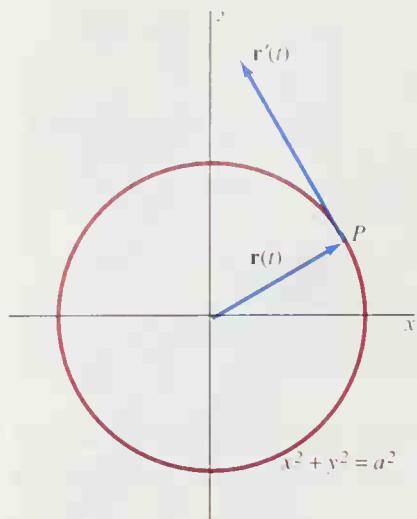


Fig. 12.5.8 The position and tangent vectors for the circle of Example 5

Because $\mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t) \equiv 0$, we see that (consistent with elementary geometry) the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is perpendicular to the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at every point of the circle (Fig. 12.5.8). ■

Velocity and Acceleration Vectors

Looking at Fig. 12.5.6 and the definition of $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ in Eq. (5), we note that $|\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)|$ is the distance from the point with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ to the point with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t)$. It follows that the quotient

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

is the average speed of a particle that travels from $\mathbf{r}(t)$ to $\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t)$ in time Δt . Consequently, the limit in Eq. (5) yields both the direction of motion and the instantaneous speed of a particle moving along a curve with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

We therefore define the **velocity vector** $\mathbf{v}(t)$ at time t of a point moving along a curve with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ as the derivative

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = f'(t)\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\mathbf{k}; \quad (7a)$$

in differential notation,

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \frac{dx}{dt}\mathbf{i} + \frac{dy}{dt}\mathbf{j} + \frac{dz}{dt}\mathbf{k}. \quad (7b)$$

Its **acceleration vector** $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}(t)$ is given by

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = f''(t)\mathbf{i} + g''(t)\mathbf{j} + h''(t)\mathbf{k}; \quad (8a)$$

alternatively,

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}\mathbf{i} + \frac{d^2y}{dt^2}\mathbf{j} + \frac{d^2z}{dt^2}\mathbf{k}. \quad (8b)$$

Thus, for motion in the plane or in space, just as for motion along a line,

velocity is the time derivative of position;
acceleration is the time derivative of velocity.

The **speed** $v(t)$ and **scalar acceleration** $a(t)$ of the moving point are the lengths of its velocity and acceleration vectors, respectively:

$$v(t) = |\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2} \quad (9)$$

and

$$a(t) = |\mathbf{a}(t)| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{d^2x}{dt^2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{d^2y}{dt^2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{d^2z}{dt^2}\right)^2}. \quad (10)$$

Note The scalar acceleration $a = |\mathbf{dv}/dt|$ is generally *not* equal to the derivative dv/dt of the speed of a moving point. The difference between the two is discussed in Section 12.6.

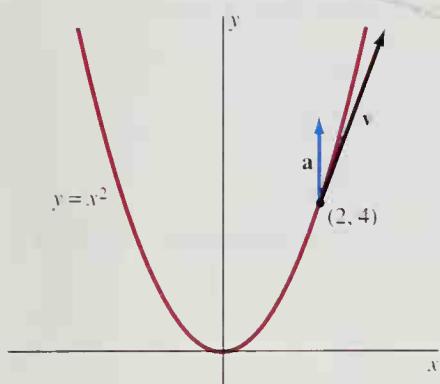


Fig. 12.5.9 The velocity and acceleration vectors at $t = 2$ (Example 6)

EXAMPLE 6 A particle moving along the parabola $y = x^2$ in the plane has position vector $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j}$. Find its velocity and acceleration vectors and its speed and scalar acceleration at the instant when $t = 2$.

Solution Because $\mathbf{r}(2) = 2\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$, the location of the particle at time $t = 2$ is $(2, 4)$. Its velocity vector and speed are given by

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + 2t\mathbf{j} \quad \text{and} \quad v(t) = |\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{1 + 4t^2},$$

so $\mathbf{v}(2) = \mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ (a vector) and $v(2) = \sqrt{17}$ (a scalar). Its acceleration is $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = 2\mathbf{j}$ (a constant vector), so $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{j}$ and $a = |\mathbf{a}| = 2$ (scalar acceleration) for all t , including the instant at which $t = 2$. Figure 12.5.9 shows the trajectory of the particle with its velocity and acceleration vectors $\mathbf{v}(2)$ and $\mathbf{a}(2)$ attached at its location $(2, 4)$ when $t = 2$. ■

EXAMPLE 7 Find the velocity, acceleration, speed, and scalar acceleration of a moving point P whose trajectory is the helix with position vector

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (a \cos \omega t)\mathbf{i} + (a \sin \omega t)\mathbf{j} + bt\mathbf{k}. \quad (11)$$

Solution Equation (11) is a generalization of the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i} \cos t + \mathbf{j} \sin t + t\mathbf{k}$ of the helix in Example 3. Here $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$, so the xy -projection $(a \cos \omega t, a \sin \omega t)$ of P lies on the circle of radius a centered at the origin. This projection moves around the circle with angular speed ω (radians per unit time). Meanwhile, the point P itself also is moving upward (if $b > 0$) on the vertical cylinder of radius a ; the z -component of its velocity is $dz/dt = b$. Except for the radius of the cylinder, the picture looks the same as Fig. 12.5.4.

The derivative of the position vector in Eq. (11) is the velocity vector

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = (-a\omega \sin \omega t)\mathbf{i} + (a\omega \cos \omega t)\mathbf{j} + b\mathbf{k}. \quad (12)$$

Another differentiation gives its acceleration vector

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a}(t) &= (-a\omega^2 \cos \omega t)\mathbf{i} + (-a\omega^2 \sin \omega t)\mathbf{j} \\ &= -a\omega^2(\mathbf{i} \cos \omega t + \mathbf{j} \sin \omega t). \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

The speed of the moving point is a constant, because

$$v(t) = |\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{a^2\omega^2 + b^2}.$$

Note that the acceleration vector is a horizontal vector of length $a\omega^2$. Moreover, if we think of $\mathbf{a}(t)$ as attached to the moving point at the time t of evaluation—so that the initial point of $\mathbf{a}(t)$ is the terminal point of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ —then $\mathbf{a}(t)$ points directly toward the point $(0, 0, bt)$ on the z -axis. ■

REMARK The helix of Example 7 is a typical trajectory of a charged particle in a constant magnetic field. Such a particle must satisfy both Newton's law $\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$ and the magnetic force law $\mathbf{F} = (q\mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{B}$ mentioned in Section 12.3. Hence its velocity and acceleration vectors must satisfy the equation

$$(q\mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{B} = m\mathbf{a}. \quad (14)$$

If the constant magnetic field is vertical, $\mathbf{B} = B\mathbf{k}$, then with the velocity vector of Eq. (12) we find that

$$q\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B} = q \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -a\omega \sin \omega t & a\omega \cos \omega t & b \\ 0 & 0 & B \end{vmatrix} = qa\omega B(\mathbf{i} \cos \omega t + \mathbf{j} \sin \omega t).$$

The acceleration vector in Eq. (13) gives

$$m\mathbf{a} = -ma\omega^2(\mathbf{i} \cos \omega t + \mathbf{j} \sin \omega t).$$

When we compare the last two results, we see that the helix of Example 7 satisfies Eq. (14) provided that

$$qa\omega B = -ma\omega^2; \quad \text{that is, } \omega = -\frac{qB}{m}.$$

For example, this equation would determine the angular speed ω for the helical trajectory of electrons ($q < 0$) in a cathode-ray tube placed in a constant magnetic field parallel to the axis of the tube (Fig. 12.5.10).

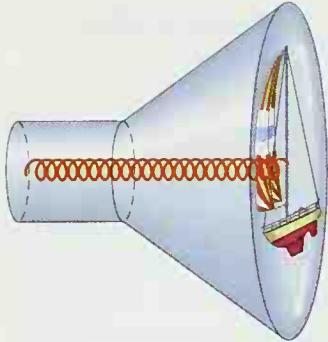


Fig. 12.5.10 A spiraling electron in a cathode-ray tube

Integration of Vector-Valued Functions

Integrals of vector-valued functions are defined by analogy with the definition of an integral of a real-valued function:

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{r}(t_i^*) \Delta t,$$

where t_i^* is a point of the i th subinterval of a partition of $[a, b]$ into n subintervals, all with the same length $\Delta t = (b - a)/n$.

If $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j}$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, then—by taking limits componentwise—we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t) dt &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{r}(t_i^*) \Delta t \\ &= \mathbf{i} \left(\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(t_i^*) \Delta t \right) + \mathbf{j} \left(\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n g(t_i^*) \Delta t \right). \end{aligned}$$

This gives the result that

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \mathbf{i} \left(\int_a^b f(t) dt \right) + \mathbf{j} \left(\int_a^b g(t) dt \right). \quad (15)$$

Thus a vector-valued function may be integrated componentwise. The three-dimensional version of Eq. (15) is derived in the same way, merely including third components.

Now suppose that $\mathbf{R}(t)$ is an antiderivative of $\mathbf{r}(t)$, meaning that $\mathbf{R}'(t) = \mathbf{r}(t)$. That is, if $\mathbf{R}(t) = F(t)\mathbf{i} + G(t)\mathbf{j}$, then

$$\mathbf{R}'(t) = F'(t)\mathbf{i} + G'(t)\mathbf{j} = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{r}(t).$$

Then componentwise integration yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t) dt &= \mathbf{i} \left(\int_a^b f(t) dt \right) + \mathbf{j} \left(\int_a^b g(t) dt \right) = \mathbf{i} \left[F(t) \right]_a^b + \mathbf{j} \left[G(t) \right]_a^b \\ &= [F(b)\mathbf{i} + G(b)\mathbf{j}] - [F(a)\mathbf{i} + G(a)\mathbf{j}]. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the *fundamental theorem of calculus* for vector-valued functions takes the form

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \left[\mathbf{R}(t) \right]_a^b = \mathbf{R}(b) - \mathbf{R}(a), \quad (16)$$

where $\mathbf{R}'(t) = \mathbf{r}(t)$.

Indefinite integrals of vector-valued functions may be computed as well. If $\mathbf{R}'(t) = \mathbf{r}(t)$, then every antiderivative of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is of the form $\mathbf{R}(t) + \mathbf{C}$ for some constant vector \mathbf{C} . We therefore write

$$\int \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \mathbf{R}(t) + \mathbf{C} \quad \text{if } \mathbf{R}'(t) = \mathbf{r}(t), \quad (17)$$

on the basis of a componentwise computation similar to the one leading to Eq. (16).

If $\mathbf{r}(t)$, $\mathbf{v}(t)$, and $\mathbf{a}(t)$ are the position, velocity, and acceleration vectors of a point moving in space, then the vector derivatives

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \mathbf{v} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \mathbf{a}$$

imply the indefinite integrals

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \int \mathbf{a}(t) dt \quad (18)$$

and

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \int \mathbf{v}(t) dt. \quad (19)$$

Both of these integrals involve a *vector* constant of integration.

EXAMPLE 8 Suppose that a moving point has given initial position vector $\mathbf{r}(0) = 2\mathbf{i}$, initial velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$, and acceleration vector $\mathbf{a}(t) = 2\mathbf{i} + 6t\mathbf{j}$. Find its position and velocity at time t .

Solution Equation (18) gives

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \int \mathbf{a}(t) dt = \int (2\mathbf{i} + 6t\mathbf{j}) dt = 2t\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{C}_1.$$

To evaluate the constant vector \mathbf{C}_1 , we substitute $t = 0$ in this equation and find that $\mathbf{v}(0) = (0)\mathbf{i} + (0)\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{C}_1$, so $\mathbf{C}_1 = \mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$. Thus the velocity vector of the moving point at time t is

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = (2t\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\mathbf{j}) + (\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}) = (2t + 1)\mathbf{i} + (3t^2 - 1)\mathbf{j}.$$

A second integration, using Eq. (19), gives

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}(t) &= \int \mathbf{v}(t) dt \\ &= \int [(2t + 1)\mathbf{i} + (3t^2 - 1)\mathbf{j}] dt = (t^2 + t)\mathbf{i} + (t^3 - t)\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{C}_2. \end{aligned}$$

Again we substitute $t = 0$ and find that $\mathbf{C}_2 = \mathbf{r}(0) = 2\mathbf{i}$. Hence

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

is the position vector of the point at time t .

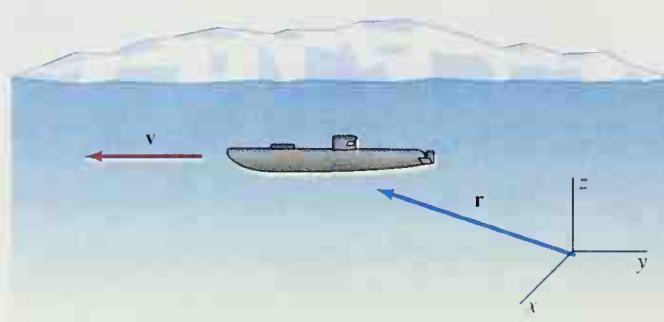


Fig. 12.5.11 A submarine beneath the polar icecap

Vector integration is the basis for at least one method of navigation. If a submarine is cruising beneath the icecap at the North Pole, as in Fig. 12.5.11, and thus can use neither visual nor radio methods to determine its position, there is an alternative. Build a sensitive gyroscope-accelerometer combination and install it in the submarine. The device continuously measures the sub's acceleration vector, beginning at the time $t = 0$ when its position $\mathbf{r}(0)$ and velocity $\mathbf{v}(0)$ are known. Because $\mathbf{v}'(t) = \mathbf{a}(t)$, Eq. (16) gives

$$\int_0^t \mathbf{a}(t) dt = \left[\mathbf{v}(t) \right]_0^t = \mathbf{v}(t) - \mathbf{v}(0),$$

so

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{v}(0) + \int_0^t \mathbf{a}(t) dt.$$

Thus the velocity at every time $t \geq 0$ is known. Similarly, because $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{v}(t)$, a second integration gives

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(0) + \int_0^t \mathbf{v}(t) dt$$

for the position of the sub at every time $t \geq 0$. On-board computers can be programmed to carry out these integrations (perhaps by using Simpson's approximation) and continuously provide captain and crew with the submarine's (almost) exact position and velocity.

Motion of Projectiles

Suppose that a projectile is launched from the point (x_0, y_0) , with y_0 denoting its initial height above the surface of the earth. Let α be the angle of inclination from the horizontal of its initial velocity vector \mathbf{v}_0 (Fig. 12.5.12). Then its initial position vector is

$$\mathbf{r}_0 = x_0\mathbf{i} + y_0\mathbf{j}, \quad (20a)$$

and from Fig. 12.5.12 we see that

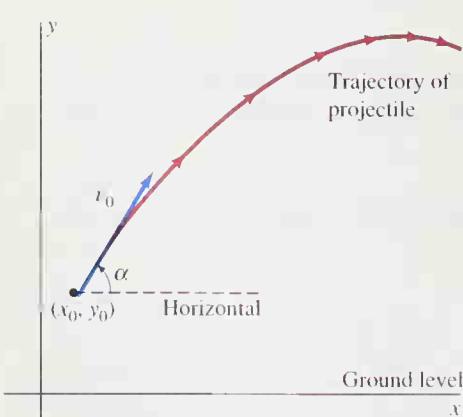


Fig. 12.5.12 Trajectory of a projectile launched at the angle α

$$\mathbf{v}_0 = (v_0 \cos \alpha) \mathbf{i} + (v_0 \sin \alpha) \mathbf{j}, \quad (20b)$$

where $v_0 = |\mathbf{v}_0|$ is the initial speed of the projectile.

We suppose that the motion takes place sufficiently close to the surface that we may assume that the earth is flat and that gravity is perfectly uniform. Then, if we also ignore air resistance, the acceleration of the projectile is

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = -g\mathbf{j},$$

where $g = 32 \text{ ft/s}^2 \approx 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$. Antidifferentiation gives

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = -gt\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{C}_1.$$

Put $t = 0$ in both sides of this last equation. This shows that $\mathbf{C}_1 = \mathbf{v}_0$ (as expected!) and thus that

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

Another antidifferentiation gives

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{v}_0 t + \mathbf{C}_2.$$

Now substitution of $t = 0$ yields $\mathbf{C}_2 = \mathbf{r}_0$, so the position vector of the projectile at time t is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{v}_0 t + \mathbf{r}_0. \quad (21)$$

Equations (20a) and (20b) now give

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

so parametric equations of the trajectory of the particle are

$$x(t) = (v_0 \cos \alpha)t + x_0, \quad (22)$$

$$y(t) = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2 + (v_0 \sin \alpha)t + y_0. \quad (23)$$

EXAMPLE 9 An airplane is flying horizontally at an altitude of 1600 ft to pass directly over snowbound cattle on the ground and release hay to land there. The plane's speed is a constant 150 mi/h (220 ft/s). At what angle of sight ϕ (between the horizontal and the direct line to the target) should a bale of hay be released in order to hit the target?

Solution See Fig. 12.5.13. We take $x_0 = 0$ where the bale of hay is released at time $t = 0$. Then $y_0 = 1600$ (ft), $v_0 = 220$ (ft/s), and $\alpha = 0$. Then Eqs. (22) and (23) take the forms

$$x(t) = 220t, \quad y(t) = -16t^2 + 1600.$$

From the second of these equations, we find that $t = 10$ (s) when the bale of hay hits the ground ($y = 0$). It has then traveled a horizontal distance

$$x(10) = 220 \cdot 10 = 2200 \text{ (ft)}.$$

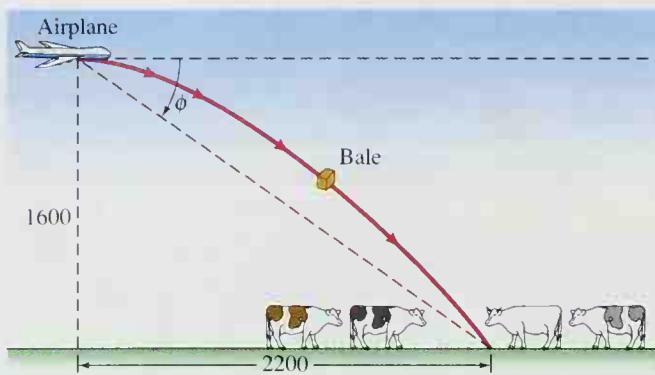


Fig. 12.5.13 Trajectory of the hay bale of Example 9

Hence the required angle of sight is

$$\phi = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1600}{2200}\right) \approx 36^\circ.$$

EXAMPLE 10 A ball is thrown northward into the air from the origin in xyz -space (the xy -plane represents the ground and the positive y -axis points north). The initial velocity (vector) of the ball is

$$\mathbf{v}_0 = \mathbf{v}(0) = 80\mathbf{j} + 80\mathbf{k}.$$

The spin of the ball causes an eastward acceleration of 2 ft/s^2 in addition to gravitational acceleration. Thus the acceleration vector produced by the combination of gravity and spin is

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = 2\mathbf{i} - 32\mathbf{k}.$$

First find the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(t)$ of the ball and its position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$. Then determine where and with what speed the ball hits the ground (Fig. 12.5.14).

Solution When we antidifferentiate $\mathbf{a}(t)$, we get

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \int \mathbf{a}(t) dt = \int (2\mathbf{i} - 32\mathbf{k}) dt = 2t\mathbf{i} - 32t\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{c}_1.$$

We substitute $t = 0$ to find that $\mathbf{c}_1 = \mathbf{v}_0 = 80\mathbf{j} + 80\mathbf{k}$, so

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = 2t\mathbf{i} + 80\mathbf{j} + (80 - 32t)\mathbf{k}.$$

Another antidifferentiation yields

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}(t) &= \int \mathbf{v}(t) dt = \int [2t\mathbf{i} + 80\mathbf{j} + (80 - 32t)\mathbf{k}] dt \\ &= t^2\mathbf{i} + 80t\mathbf{j} + (80t - 16t^2)\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{c}_2, \end{aligned}$$

and substitution of $t = 0$ gives $\mathbf{c}_2 = \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{0}$. Hence the position vector of the ball is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + 80t\mathbf{j} + (80t - 16t^2)\mathbf{k}.$$

The ball hits the ground when $z = 80t - 16t^2 = 0$; that is, when $t = 5$. Its position vector then is

$$\mathbf{r}(5) = 5^2\mathbf{i} + 80 \cdot 5\mathbf{j} = 25\mathbf{i} + 400\mathbf{j}.$$

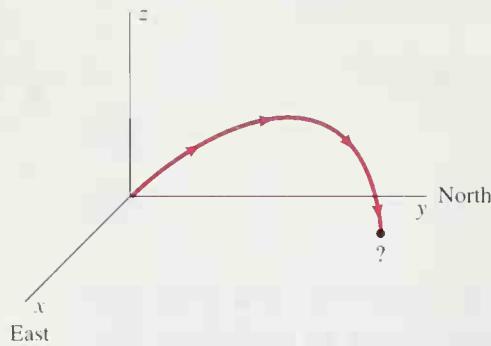


Fig. 12.5.14 The trajectory of the ball of Example 10

so the ball has traveled 25 ft eastward and 400 ft northward. Its velocity vector at impact is

$$\mathbf{v}(5) = 2 \cdot 5\mathbf{i} + 80\mathbf{j} + (80 - 32 \cdot 5)\mathbf{k} = 10\mathbf{i} + 80\mathbf{j} - 80\mathbf{k},$$

so its speed when it hits the ground is

$$v(5) = |\mathbf{v}(5)| = \sqrt{10^2 + 80^2 + (-80)^2},$$

approximately 113.58 ft/s. Because the ball started with initial speed $v_0 = \sqrt{80^2 + 80^2} \approx 113.14$ ft/s, its eastward acceleration has slightly increased its terminal speed. ■

12.5 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 4, also match the curves there defined with their three-dimensional plots in Figs. 12.5.15 through 12.5.18.

1. Show that the graph of the curve with parametric equations $x = t$, $y = \sin 5t$, $z = \cos 5t$ lies on the circular cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 1$ centered along the x -axis.
2. Show that the graph of the curve with parametric equations $x = \sin t$, $y = \cos t$, $z = \cos 8t$ lies on the vertical circular cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

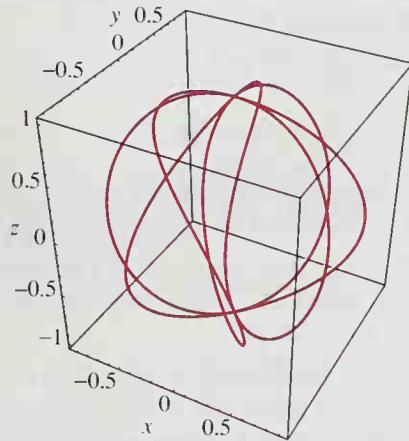


Fig. 12.5.15

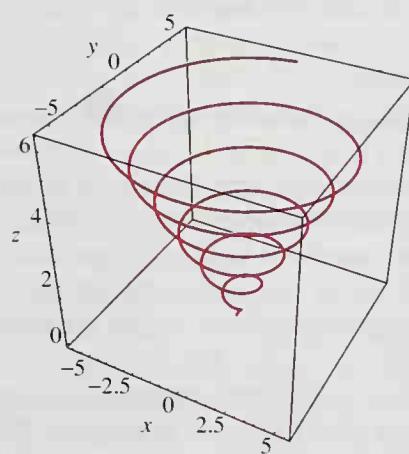


Fig. 12.5.16

3. Show that the graph of the curve with parametric equations $x = t \sin 6t$, $y = t \cos 6t$, $z = t$ lies on the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ with its vertex at the origin and opening upward.
4. Show that the graph of the curve with parametric equations $x = \cos t \sin 4t$, $y = \sin t \sin 4t$, $z = \cos 4t$ lies on the surface of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$.

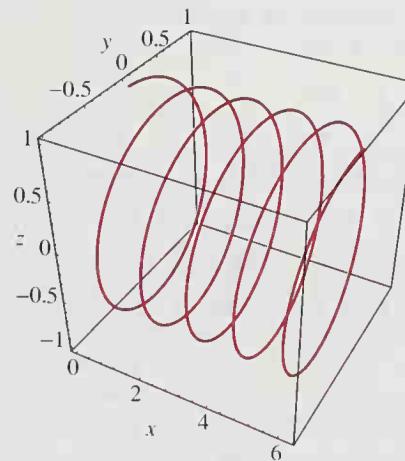


Fig. 12.5.17

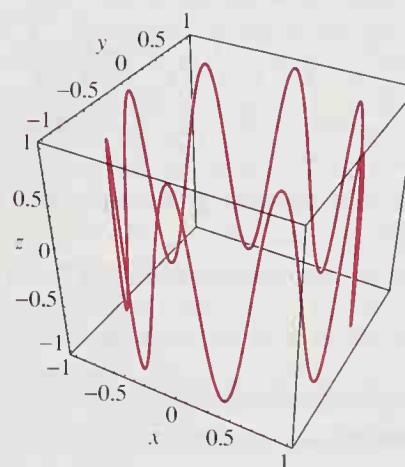


Fig. 12.5.18

In Problems 5 through 10, find the values of $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}''(t)$ for the given values of t .

5. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 3\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j}; t = 1$
6. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} - t^3\mathbf{j}; t = 2$
7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^{2t}\mathbf{i} + e^{-t}\mathbf{j}; t = 0$
8. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i} \cos t + \mathbf{j} \sin t; t = \pi/4$
9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 3\mathbf{i} \cos 2\pi t + 3\mathbf{j} \sin 2\pi t; t = 3/4$
10. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 5\mathbf{i} \cos t + 4\mathbf{j} \sin t; t = \pi$

In Problems 11 through 16, the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ of a particle moving in space is given. Find its velocity and acceleration vectors and its speed at time t .

11. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^3\mathbf{k}$
12. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2(3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} - 12\mathbf{k})$
13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + 3e^t\mathbf{j} + 4e^t\mathbf{k}$
14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\mathbf{i} + e^{2t}\mathbf{j} + e^{3t}\mathbf{k}$
15. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3 \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (3 \sin t)\mathbf{j} - 4t\mathbf{k}$
16. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 12\mathbf{i} + (5 \sin 2t)\mathbf{j} - (5 \cos 2t)\mathbf{k}$

Calculate the integrals in Problems 17 through 20.

17. $\int_0^{\pi/4} (\mathbf{i} \sin t + 2\mathbf{j} \cos t) dt$
18. $\int_1^e \left(\frac{1}{t}\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} \right) dt$
19. $\int_0^2 t^2(1 + t^3)^{3/2}\mathbf{i} dt$
20. $\int_0^1 (\mathbf{i}e^t - \mathbf{j}te^{-t^2}) dt$

In Problems 21 through 24, apply Theorem 2 to compute the derivative $D_t[\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)]$.

21. $\mathbf{u}(t) = 3\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{v}(t) = 2\mathbf{i} - 5\mathbf{j}$
22. $\mathbf{u}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{v}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} - t\mathbf{j}$
23. $\mathbf{u}(t) = \langle \cos t, \sin t \rangle, \mathbf{v}(t) = \langle \sin t, -\cos t \rangle$
24. $\mathbf{u} = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle, \mathbf{v} = \langle \cos 2t, \sin 2t, e^{-3t} \rangle$

In Problems 25 through 34, the acceleration vector $\mathbf{a}(t)$, the initial position $\mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{r}(0)$, and the initial velocity $\mathbf{v}_0 = \mathbf{v}(0)$ of a particle moving in xyz-space are given. Find its position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at time t .

25. $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}; \mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{i}; \mathbf{v}_0 = \mathbf{k}$
26. $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i}; \mathbf{r}_0 = 3\mathbf{j}; \mathbf{v}_0 = 4\mathbf{k}$
27. $\mathbf{a}(t) = 2\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{k}; \mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{0}; \mathbf{v}_0 = 10\mathbf{j}$
28. $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}; \mathbf{r}_0 = 5\mathbf{i}; \mathbf{v}_0 = 7\mathbf{j}$
29. $\mathbf{a}(t) = 2\mathbf{j} - 6t\mathbf{k}; \mathbf{r}_0 = 2\mathbf{i}; \mathbf{v}_0 = 5\mathbf{k}$
30. $\mathbf{a}(t) = 6\mathbf{i} - 5\mathbf{j} + 12t^2\mathbf{k}; \mathbf{r}_0 = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}; \mathbf{v}_0 = 4\mathbf{j} - 5\mathbf{k}$
31. $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^3\mathbf{k}; \mathbf{r}_0 = 10\mathbf{i}; \mathbf{v}_0 = 10\mathbf{j}$
32. $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{i} + e^{-t}\mathbf{j}; \mathbf{r}_0 = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}; \mathbf{v}_0 = 5\mathbf{k}$
33. $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{i} \cos t + \mathbf{j} \sin t; \mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{j}; \mathbf{v}_0 = -\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{k}$
34. $\mathbf{a}(t) = 9(\mathbf{i} \sin 3t + \mathbf{j} \cos 3t) + 4\mathbf{k}; \mathbf{r}_0 = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}; \mathbf{v}_0 = 2\mathbf{i} - 7\mathbf{k}$
35. The parametric equations of a moving point are

$$x(t) = 3 \cos 2t, \quad y(t) = 3 \sin 2t, \quad z(t) = 8t.$$

Find its velocity, speed, and acceleration at time $t = 7\pi/8$.

36. Use the equations in Theorem 2 to calculate

$$D_t[\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)] \quad \text{and} \quad D_t[\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)]$$

if $\mathbf{u}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v}(t) = \langle e^t, \cos t, \sin t \rangle$.

37. Verify part 5 of Theorem 2 in the special case $\mathbf{u}(t) = \langle 0, 3, 4t \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v}(t) = \langle 5t, 0, -4 \rangle$.
38. Prove part 5 of Theorem 2.
39. A point moves on a sphere centered at the origin. Show that its velocity vector is always tangent to the sphere.
40. A particle moves with constant speed along a curve in space. Show that its velocity and acceleration vectors are always perpendicular.
41. Find the maximum height reached by the ball in Example 10 and also its speed at that height.
42. The **angular momentum** $\mathbf{L}(t)$ and **torque** $\boldsymbol{\tau}(t)$ of a moving particle of mass m with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ are defined to be

$$\mathbf{L}(t) = m\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t), \quad \boldsymbol{\tau}(t) = m\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{a}(t).$$

Prove that $\mathbf{L}'(t) = \boldsymbol{\tau}(t)$. It follows that $\mathbf{L}(t)$ must be constant if $\boldsymbol{\tau} \equiv \mathbf{0}$; this is the law of conservation of angular momentum.

Problems 43 through 48 deal with a projectile fired from the origin (so $x_0 = y_0 = 0$) with initial speed v_0 and initial angle of inclination α . The **range** of the projectile is the horizontal distance it travels before it returns to the ground.

43. If $\alpha = 45^\circ$, what value of v_0 gives a range of 1 mi?
44. If $\alpha = 60^\circ$ and the range is $R = 1$ mi, what is the maximum height attained by the projectile?
45. Deduce from Eqs. (22) and (23) the fact that the range is

$$R = \frac{1}{16}v_0^2 \sin \alpha \cos \alpha.$$

46. Given the initial speed v_0 , find the angle α that maximizes the range. (Suggestion: Use the result of Problem 45.)
47. Suppose that $v_0 = 160$ (ft/s). Find the maximum height y_{\max} and the range R of the projectile if (a) $\alpha = 30^\circ$; (b) $\alpha = 45^\circ$; (c) $\alpha = 60^\circ$.
48. The projectile of Problem 47 is to be fired at a target 600 ft away, and there is a hill 300 ft high midway between the gun site and this target. At what initial angle of inclination should the projectile be fired?
49. A projectile is to be fired horizontally from the top of a 100-m cliff at a target 1 km from the base of the cliff. What should be the initial velocity of the projectile? (Use $g = 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$.)
50. A bomb is dropped (initial speed zero) from a helicopter hovering at a height of 800 m. A projectile is fired from a gun located on the ground 800 m west of the point directly beneath the helicopter. The projectile is supposed to intercept the bomb at a height of exactly 400 m. If the projectile is fired at the same instant that the bomb is dropped, what should be its initial velocity and angle of inclination?

51. Suppose, more realistically, that the projectile of Problem 50 is fired 1 s after the bomb is dropped. What should be its initial velocity and angle of inclination?
52. An artillery gun with a muzzle velocity of 1000 ft/s is located atop a seaside cliff 500 ft high. At what initial incli-

- nation angle (or angles) should it fire a projectile in order to hit a ship at sea 20000 ft from the base of the cliff?
53. Suppose that the vector-valued functions $\mathbf{u}(t)$ and $\mathbf{v}(t)$ both have limits as $t \rightarrow a$. Prove

$$(a) \lim_{t \rightarrow a} (\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)) = \lim_{t \rightarrow a} \mathbf{u}(t) + \lim_{t \rightarrow a} \mathbf{v}(t);$$

$$(b) \lim_{t \rightarrow a} (\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)) = (\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \mathbf{u}(t)) \cdot (\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \mathbf{v}(t)).$$

54. Suppose that both the vector-valued function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and the real-valued function $h(t)$ are differentiable. Deduce the chain rule for vector-valued functions,

$$D_t[\mathbf{r}(h(t))] = h'(t)\mathbf{r}'(h(t)),$$

in componentwise fashion from the ordinary chain rule.

55. A point moves with constant speed, so its velocity vector \mathbf{v} satisfies the condition

$$|\mathbf{v}|^2 = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = C \quad (\text{a constant}).$$

Prove that the velocity and acceleration vectors of the point are always perpendicular to each other.

56. A point moves on a circle whose center is at the origin. Use the dot product to show that the position and velocity vectors of the moving point are always perpendicular.
57. A point moves on the hyperbola $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ with position vector

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i} \cosh \omega t + \mathbf{j} \sinh \omega t$$

(the number ω is a constant). Prove that the acceleration vector $\mathbf{a}(t)$ satisfies the equation $\mathbf{a}(t) = c\mathbf{r}(t)$, where c is a positive constant. What sort of external force would produce this kind of motion?

58. Suppose that a point moves on the ellipse

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i}a \cos \omega t + \mathbf{j}b \sin \omega t$ (ω is a constant). Prove that the acceleration vector \mathbf{a} satisfies the equation $\mathbf{a}(t) = c\mathbf{r}(t)$, where c is a negative constant. To what sort of external force $\mathbf{F}(t)$ does this motion correspond?

59. A point moves in the plane with constant acceleration vector $\mathbf{a} = a\mathbf{j}$. Prove that its path is a parabola or a straight line.
60. Suppose that a particle is subject to no force, so its acceleration vector $\mathbf{a}(t)$ is identically zero. Prove that the particle travels along a straight line at constant speed (Newton's first law of motion).
61. *Uniform Circular Motion* Consider a particle that moves counterclockwise around the circle with center $(0, 0)$ and radius r at a constant angular speed of ω radians per second (Fig. 12.5.19). If its initial position is $(r, 0)$, then its position vector is

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

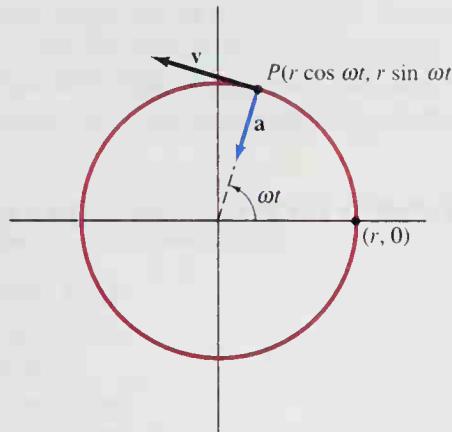


Fig. 12.5.19 Uniform circular motion
(Problem 61)

- (a) Show that the velocity vector of the particle is tangent to the circle and that the speed of the particle is

$$v(t) = |\mathbf{v}(t)| = r\omega.$$

- (b) Show that the acceleration vector \mathbf{a} of the particle is directed opposite to \mathbf{r} and that

$$a(t) = |\mathbf{a}(t)| = r\omega^2.$$

62. Suppose that a particle is moving under the influence of a *central* force field $\mathbf{R} = k\mathbf{r}$, where k is a scalar function of x , y , and z . Conclude that the trajectory of the particle lies in a *fixed* plane through the origin.
63. A baseball is thrown with an initial velocity of 160 ft/s straight upward from the ground. It experiences a downward gravitational acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 . Because of spin, it experiences also a (horizontal) northward acceleration of 0.1 ft/s^2 ; otherwise, the air has no effect on its motion. How far north of the throwing point will the ball land?
64. A baseball is hit with an initial velocity of 96 ft/s and an initial inclination angle of 15° from ground level straight down a foul line. Because of spin it experiences a horizontal acceleration of 2 ft/s^2 perpendicular to the foul line; otherwise, the air has no effect on its motion. When the ball hits the ground, how far is it from the foul line?
65. A projectile is fired northward (in the positive y -direction) out to sea from the top of a seaside cliff 384 ft high. The projectile's initial velocity vector is $\mathbf{v}_0 = 200\mathbf{j} + 160\mathbf{k}$. In addition to a downward (negative z -direction) gravitational acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 , it experiences in flight an eastward (positive x -direction) acceleration of 2 ft/s^2 due to spin. (a) Find the projectile's velocity and position vectors t seconds after it is fired. (b) How long is the projectile in the air? (c) Where does the projectile hit the water ($z = 0$)? Give the answer by telling how far north out to sea and how far east along the coast its impact position is (d) What is the maximum height of the projectile above the water?
66. A gun fires a shell with a muzzle velocity of 150 m/s. While the shell is in the air, it experiences a downward (vertical)

gravitational acceleration of 9.8 m/s^2 and an eastward (horizontal) Coriolis acceleration of 5 cm/s^2 ; air resistance may be ignored. The target is 1500 m due north of the gun, and both the gun and target are on level ground. Halfway

between them is a hill 600 m high. Tell precisely how to aim the gun—both compass heading and inclination from the horizontal—so that the shell will clear the hill and hit the target.

12.5 PROJECT: DOES A PITCHED BASEBALL REALLY CURVE?

Have you ever wondered whether a baseball pitch really curves or whether it's some sort of optical illusion? In this project you'll use calculus to settle the matter.

Suppose that a pitcher throws a ball toward home plate (60 ft away, as in Fig. 12.5.20), and gives it a spin of S revolutions per second counterclockwise (as viewed from above) about a vertical axis through the center of the ball. This spin is described by the *spin vector* \mathbf{S} that points along the axis of revolution in the right-handed direction and has length S (Fig. 12.5.21).

We know from studies of aerodynamics that this spin causes a difference in air pressure on the sides of the ball toward and away from this spin. Studies also show that this pressure difference results in a *spin acceleration*

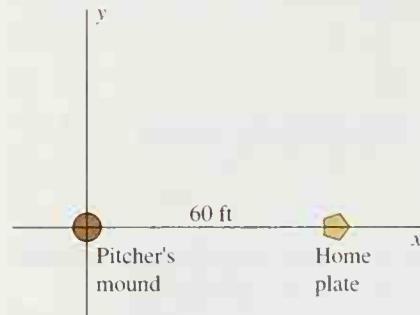


Fig. 12.5.20 The x -axis points toward home plate.

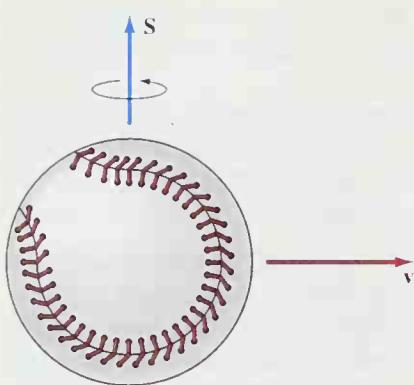


Fig. 12.5.21 The spin and velocity vectors

$$\mathbf{a}_s = c\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{v} \quad (1)$$

of the ball (where c is an empirical constant). The total acceleration of the ball is then

$$\mathbf{a} = (c\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{v}) - g\mathbf{k}, \quad (2)$$

where $g \approx 32 \text{ ft/s}^2$ is the gravitational acceleration. Here we will ignore any other effects of air resistance.

With the spin vector $\mathbf{S} = Sk\mathbf{j}$ pointing upward, as in Fig. 12.5.21, show first that

$$\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{v} = -Sv_y\mathbf{i} + Sv_x\mathbf{j}, \quad (3)$$

where v_x is the component of \mathbf{v} in the x -direction and v_y is the component of \mathbf{v} in the y -direction.

For a ball pitched along the x -axis, v_x is much larger than v_y , and so the approximation $\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{v} \approx Sv_x\mathbf{j}$ is sufficiently accurate for our purposes. We may then take the acceleration vector of the ball to be

$$\mathbf{a} = cSv_x\mathbf{j} - g\mathbf{k}. \quad (4)$$

Now suppose that the pitcher throws the ball from the initial position $x_0 = y_0 = 0, z_0 = 5$ (ft), with initial velocity vector

$$\mathbf{v}_0 = 120\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 4\mathbf{k} \quad (5)$$

(with components in feet per second, so $v_0 \approx 120 \text{ ft/s}$, about 82 mi/h) and with a spin of $S = \frac{80}{3} \text{ rev/s}$. A reasonable value of c is

$$c = 0.005 \text{ ft/s}^2 \text{ per ft/s of velocity and rev/s of spin,}$$

although the precise value depends on whether the pitcher has (accidentally, of course) scuffed the ball or administered some foreign substance to it.

Show first that these values of the parameters yield

$$\mathbf{a} = 16\mathbf{j} - 32\mathbf{k}$$

for the ball's acceleration vector. Then integrate twice in succession to find the ball's position vector

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}.$$

Use your results to fill in the following table, giving the pitched ball's horizontal deflection y and height z (above the ground) at quarter-second intervals.

t (s)	x (ft)	y (ft)	z (ft)
0.0	0	0	5
0.25	30	?	?
0.50	60	?	?

Suppose that the batter gets a "fix" on the pitch by observing the ball during the first quarter-second and prepares to swing. After 0.25 s does the pitch still appear to be straight on target toward home plate at a height of 5 ft?

What happens to the ball during the final quarter-second of its approach to home plate—*after* the batter has begun to swing the bat? What were the ball's horizontal and vertical deflections during this brief period? What is your conclusion? Does the pitched ball really "curve"?

12.6 CURVATURE AND ACCELERATION

The speed of a moving point is closely related to the arc length of its trajectory. The arc-length formula for parametric curves in space (or *space curves*) is a natural generalization of the formula for parametric plane curves [Eq. (8) of Section 10.5]. The **arc length** s along the smooth curve with position vector

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k} = xi\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k} \quad (1)$$

from the point $\mathbf{r}(a)$ to the point $\mathbf{r}(b)$ is, by definition,

$$\begin{aligned} s &= \int_a^b \sqrt{[x'(t)]^2 + [y'(t)]^2 + [z'(t)]^2} dt \\ &= \int_a^b \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2} dt. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

We see from Eq. (9) in Section 12.5 that the integrand is the speed $v(t) = |\mathbf{r}'(t)|$ of the moving point with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$, so

$$s = \int_a^b v(t) dt. \quad (3)$$

EXAMPLE 1 Find the arc length of one turn (from $t = 0$ to $t = 2\pi/\omega$) of the helix shown in Fig. 12.6.1. This helix has the parametric equations

$$x(t) = a \cos \omega t, \quad y(t) = a \sin \omega t, \quad z(t) = bt.$$

Solution We found in Example 7 of Section 12.5 that

$$v(t) = \sqrt{a^2\omega^2 + b^2}.$$

Hence Eq. (3) gives

$$s = \int_0^{2\pi/\omega} \sqrt{a^2\omega^2 + b^2} dt = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} \sqrt{a^2\omega^2 + b^2}.$$

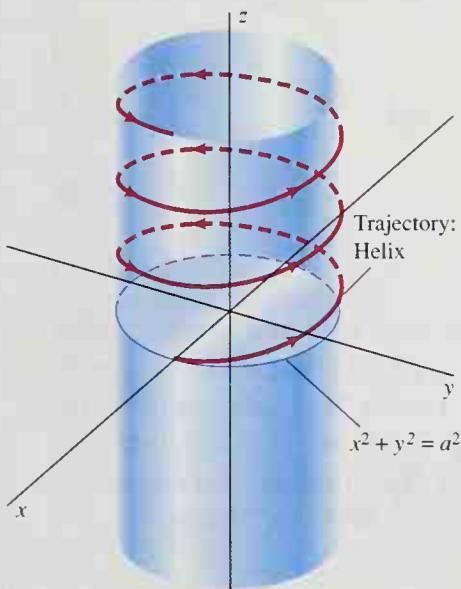


Fig. 12.6.1 The helix of Example 1

For instance, if $a = b = \omega = 1$, then $s = 2\pi\sqrt{2}$, which is $\sqrt{2}$ times the circumference of the circle in the xy -plane over which the helix lies. ■

Let $s(t)$ denote the arc length along a smooth curve from its initial point $\mathbf{r}(a)$ to the variable point $\mathbf{r}(t)$ (Fig. 12.6.2). Then, from Eq. (3), we obtain the **arc-length function** $s(t)$ of the curve:

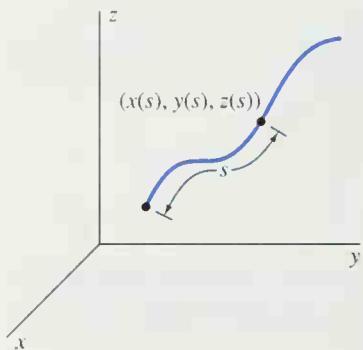


Fig. 12.6.2 A curve parameterized by arc length s

The fundamental theorem of calculus then gives

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = v. \quad (5)$$

Thus *the speed of the moving point is the time rate of change of its arc-length function*. If $v(t) > 0$ for all t , then it follows that $s(t)$ is an increasing function of t and therefore has an inverse function $t(s)$. When we replace t with $t(s)$ in the curve's original parametric equations, we obtain the **arc-length parametrization**

$$x = x(s), \quad y = y(s), \quad z = z(s).$$

This gives the position of the moving point as a function of arc length measured along the curve from its initial point (see Fig. 13.5.2).

EXAMPLE 2 If we take $a = 5$, $b = 12$, and $\omega = 1$ for the helix of Example 1, then the velocity formula $v = (a^2\omega^2 + b^2)^{1/2}$ yields

$$v = \sqrt{5^2 \cdot 1^2 + 12^2} = \sqrt{169} = 13.$$

Hence Eq. (5) gives $ds/dt = 13$, so

$$s = 13t,$$

taking $s = 0$ when $t = 0$ and thereby measuring arc length from the natural starting point $(5, 0, 0)$. When we substitute $t = s/13$ and the numerical values of a , b , and ω into the original parametric equations of the helix, we get the arc-length parametrization

$$x(s) = 5 \cos \frac{s}{13}, \quad y(s) = 5 \sin \frac{s}{13}, \quad z(s) = \frac{12s}{13}$$

of the helix. ■

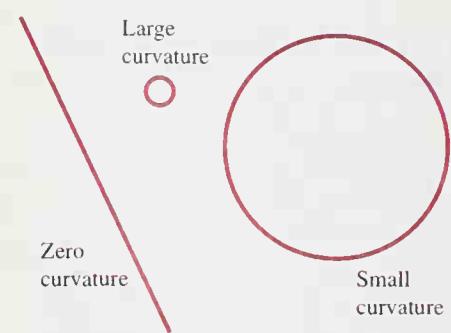


Fig. 12.6.3 The intuitive idea of curvature

Curvature of Plane Curves

The word *curvature* has an intuitive meaning that we need to make precise. Most people would agree that a straight line does not curve at all, whereas a circle of small radius is more curved than a circle of large radius (Fig. 12.6.3). This judgment may be based on a feeling that curvature is “rate of change of direction.” The direction of a curve is determined by its velocity vector, so you would expect the idea of curvature to have something to do with the rate at which the velocity vector is turning.

Let

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j}, \quad a \leq t \leq b \quad (6)$$

be the position vector of a smooth *plane* curve with nonzero velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t)$. The curve's **unit tangent vector** at the point $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the unit vector

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{|\mathbf{v}(t)|} = \frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{v(t)}, \quad (7)$$

where $v(t) = |\mathbf{v}(t)|$ is the speed. Now denote by ϕ the angle of inclination of \mathbf{T} , measured counterclockwise from the positive x -axis (Fig. 12.6.4). Then

$$\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{i} \cos \phi + \mathbf{j} \sin \phi. \quad (8)$$

We can express the unit tangent vector \mathbf{T} of Eq. (8) as a function of the arc-length parameter s indicated in Fig. 12.6.4. Then the rate at which \mathbf{T} is turning is measured by the derivative

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{d\phi} \cdot \frac{d\phi}{ds} = (-\mathbf{i} \sin \phi + \mathbf{j} \cos \phi) \frac{d\phi}{ds}. \quad (9)$$

Note that

$$\left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} \right| = \left| \frac{d\phi}{ds} \right| \quad (10)$$

because the vector on the right-hand side of Eq. (9) is a unit vector.

The **curvature** at a point of a plane curve, denoted by κ (lowercase Greek kappa), is therefore defined to be

$$\kappa = \left| \frac{d\phi}{ds} \right|, \quad (11)$$

the absolute value of the rate of change of the angle ϕ with respect to arc length s . We define the curvature κ in terms of $d\phi/ds$ rather than $d\phi/dt$ because the latter depends not only on the shape of the curve, but also on the speed of the moving point $\mathbf{r}(t)$. For a straight line the angle ϕ is a constant, so the curvature given by Eq. (11) is zero. If you imagine a point that is moving with constant speed along a curve, the curvature is greatest at points where ϕ changes the most rapidly, such as the points P and R on the curve of Fig. 12.6.5. The curvature is least at points such as Q and S , where ϕ is changing the least rapidly.

We need to derive a formula that is effective in computing the curvature of a smooth parametric plane curve $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$. First we note that

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{y'(t)}{x'(t)} \right)$$

provided $x'(t) \neq 0$. Hence

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \frac{y''x' - y'x''}{(x')^2} \div \left(1 + \left(\frac{y'}{x'} \right)^2 \right) = \frac{x'y'' - x''y'}{(x')^2 + (y')^2},$$

where primes denote derivatives with respect to t . Because $v = ds/dt > 0$, Eq. (11) gives

$$\kappa = \left| \frac{d\phi}{ds} \right| = \left| \frac{d\phi}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{ds} \right| = \frac{1}{v} \left| \frac{d\phi}{dt} \right|;$$

thus

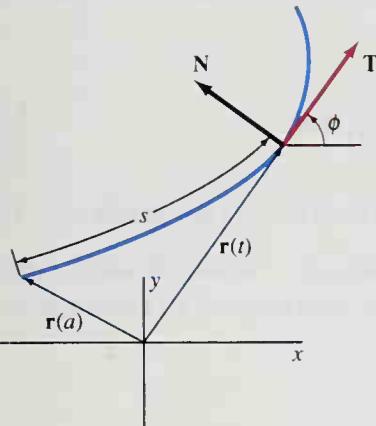


Fig. 12.6.4 The unit tangent vector \mathbf{T}

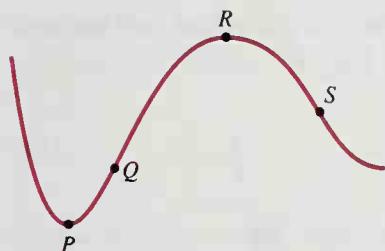


Fig. 12.6.5 The curvature is large at P and R , small at Q and S .

$$\kappa = \frac{|x'y'' - x''y'|}{[(x')^2 + (y')^2]^{3/2}} = \frac{|x'y'' - x''y'|}{v^3}. \quad (12)$$

At a point where $x'(t) = 0$, we know that $y'(t) \neq 0$, because the curve is smooth. Thus we will obtain the same result if we begin with the equation $\phi = \cot^{-1}(x'/y')$.

An explicitly described curve $y = f(x)$ may be regarded as a parametric curve $x = x, y = f(x)$. Then $x' = 1$ and $x'' = 0$, so Eq. (12)—with x in place of t as the parameter—becomes

$$\kappa = \frac{|y''|}{[1 + (y')^2]^{3/2}} = \frac{|d^2y/dx^2|}{[1 + (dy/dx)^2]^{3/2}}. \quad (13)$$

EXAMPLE 3 Show that the curvature at each point of a circle of radius a is $\kappa = 1/a$.

Solution With the familiar parametrization $x = a \cos t, y = a \sin t$ of such a circle centered at the origin, we let primes denote derivatives with respect to t and obtain

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= -a \sin t, & y' &= a \cos t, \\ x'' &= -a \cos t, & y'' &= -a \sin t. \end{aligned}$$

Hence Eq. (12) gives

$$\kappa = \frac{|(-a \sin t)(-a \sin t) - (-a \cos t)(a \cos t)|}{[(-a \sin t)^2 + (a \cos t)^2]^{3/2}} = \frac{a^2}{a^3} = \frac{1}{a}.$$

Alternatively, we could have used Eq. (13). Our point of departure would then be the equation $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ of the same circle, and we would compute y' and y'' by implicit differentiation (see Problem 27). ■

It follows immediately from Eqs. (8) and (9) that

$$\mathbf{T} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = 0,$$

so the unit tangent vector \mathbf{T} and its derivative vector $d\mathbf{T}/ds$ are perpendicular. The unit vector \mathbf{N} that points in the direction of $d\mathbf{T}/ds$ is called the **principal unit normal vector** to the curve. Because $\kappa = |d\phi/ds| = |d\mathbf{T}/ds|$ by Eq. (10), it follows that

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = \kappa \mathbf{N}. \quad (14)$$

Intuitively, \mathbf{N} is the unit normal vector to the curve that points in the direction in which the curve is bending.

Suppose that P is a point on a parametrized curve at which $\kappa \neq 0$. Consider the circle that is tangent to the curve at P and has the same curvature there. The center of the circle is to lie on the concave side of the curve—that is, on the side toward which the normal vector \mathbf{N} points. This circle is called the **osculating circle** (or **circle of curvature**) of the curve at the given point because it touches the curve so closely there. (*Osculum* is the Latin word for *kiss*.) Let ρ be the radius of the osculating circle and let γ be the position vector of its center. Then $\gamma = \overrightarrow{OC}$, where C is the center of the osculating circle (Fig. 12.6.6). Then ρ is called the **radius of curvature** of the curve at the point P and γ is called the (vector) **center of curvature** of the curve at P .

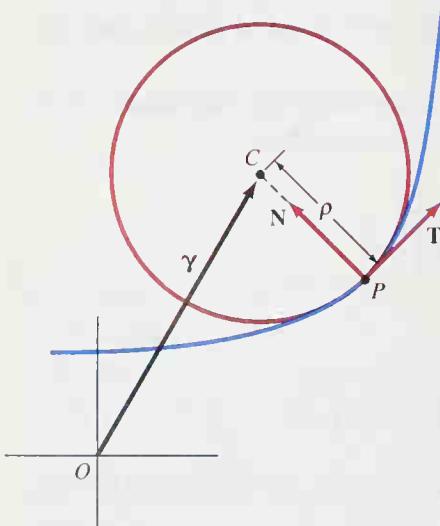


Fig. 12.6.6 Osculating circle, radius of curvature, and center of curvature

Example 3 implies that the radius of curvature is

$$\rho = \frac{1}{\kappa}, \quad (15)$$

and the fact that $|\mathbf{N}| = 1$ implies that the position vector of the center of curvature is

$$\gamma = \mathbf{r} + \rho \mathbf{N} \quad (\mathbf{r} = \overrightarrow{OP}). \quad (16)$$

EXAMPLE 4 Determine the vectors \mathbf{T} and \mathbf{N} , the curvature κ , and the center of curvature of the parabola $y = x^2$ at the point $(1, 1)$.

Solution If the parabola is parametrized by $x = t$, $y = t^2$, then its position vector is $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j}$, so $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{i} + 2t\mathbf{j}$. The speed is $v(t) = \sqrt{1 + 4t^2}$, so Eq. (7) yields

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

By substituting $t = 1$, we find that the unit tangent vector at $(1, 1)$ is

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}\mathbf{j}.$$

Because the parabola is concave upward at $(1, 1)$, the principal unit normal vector is the upward-pointing unit vector

$$\mathbf{N} = -\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\mathbf{j}$$

that is perpendicular to \mathbf{T} . (Note that $\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{N} = 0$.) If $y = x^2$, then $dy/dx = 2x$ and $d^2y/dx^2 = 2$, so Eq. (13) yields

$$\kappa = \frac{|y''|}{[1 + (y')^2]^{3/2}} = \frac{2}{(1 + 4x^2)^{3/2}}.$$

So at the point $(1, 1)$ we find the curvature and radius of curvature to be

$$\kappa = \frac{2}{5\sqrt{5}} \quad \text{and} \quad \rho = \frac{5\sqrt{5}}{2},$$

respectively.

Next, Eq. (16) gives the center of curvature as

$$\gamma = \langle 1, 1 \rangle + \frac{5\sqrt{5}}{2} \left\langle -\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \right\rangle = \left\langle -4, \frac{7}{2} \right\rangle.$$

The equation of the osculating circle to the parabola at $(1, 1)$ is therefore

$$(x + 4)^2 + \left(y - \frac{7}{2}\right)^2 = \rho^2 = \frac{125}{4}.$$

Figure 12.6.7 shows this large osculating circle at the point $(1, 1)$, as well as the smaller osculating circles that are tangent to the parabola at the points $(0, 0)$, $(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{9})$, and $(\frac{2}{3}, \frac{4}{9})$. Is it clear to you which of these osculating circles is which? ■

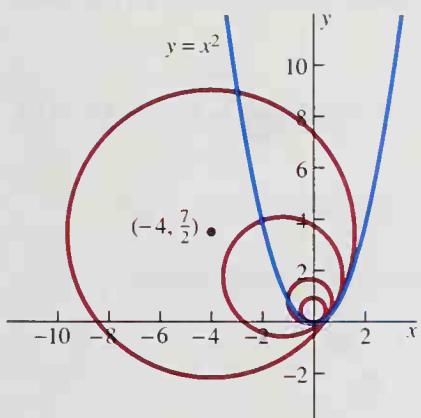


Fig. 12.6.7 Osculating circles for the parabola of Example 4

Curvature of Space Curves

Consider now a moving particle in space with twice-differentiable position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$. Suppose also that the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(t)$ is never zero. The **unit tangent vector** at time t is defined, as before, to be

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{|\mathbf{v}(t)|} = \frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{v(t)}, \quad (17)$$

so

$$\mathbf{v} = v\mathbf{T}. \quad (18)$$

We defined the curvature of a plane curve to be $\kappa = |d\phi/ds|$, where ϕ is the angle of inclination of \mathbf{T} from the positive x -axis. For a space curve, there is no single angle that determines the direction of \mathbf{T} , so we adopt the following approach (which leads to the same value for curvature when applied to a space curve that happens to lie in the xy -plane). Differentiation of the identity $\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{T} = 1$ with respect to arc length s gives

$$\mathbf{T} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = 0.$$

It follows that the vectors \mathbf{T} and $d\mathbf{T}/ds$ are always perpendicular.

Then we define the **curvature** κ of the curve at the point $\mathbf{r}(t)$ to be

$$\kappa = \left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} \right| = \left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} \frac{dt}{ds} \right| = \frac{1}{v} \left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} \right|. \quad (19)$$

At a point where $\kappa \neq 0$, we define the **principal unit normal vector** \mathbf{N} to be

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{d\mathbf{T}/ds}{|d\mathbf{T}/ds|} = \frac{1}{\kappa} \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}, \quad (20)$$

so

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = \kappa \mathbf{N}. \quad (21)$$

Equation (21) shows that \mathbf{N} has the same direction as $d\mathbf{T}/ds$ (Fig. 12.6.8), and Eq. (20) shows that \mathbf{N} is a unit vector. Because Eq. (21) is the same as Eq. (14), we see that the present definitions of κ and \mathbf{N} agree with those given earlier in the two-dimensional case.

EXAMPLE 5 Compute the curvature κ of the helix of Example 1, the helix with parametric equations

$$x(t) = a \cos \omega t, \quad y(t) = a \sin \omega t, \quad z(t) = bt.$$

Solution In Example 7 of Section 12.5, we computed the velocity vector

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

and speed

$$v = |\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{a^2\omega^2 + b^2}.$$

Hence Eq. (17) gives the unit tangent vector

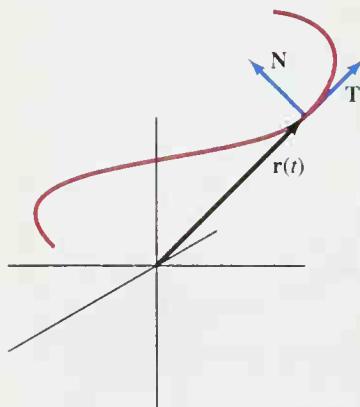


Fig. 12.6.8 The principal unit normal vector \mathbf{N} points in the direction in which the curve is turning.

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

Then

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} = \frac{\mathbf{i}(-a\omega^2 \cos \omega t) + \mathbf{j}(-a\omega^2 \sin \omega t)}{\sqrt{a^2\omega^2 + b^2}},$$

so Eq. (19) gives

$$\kappa = \frac{1}{v} \left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} \right| = \frac{a\omega^2}{a^2\omega^2 + b^2}$$

for the curvature of the helix of Example 7 (Section 12.5). Note that the helix has constant curvature. Also note that, if $b = 0$ (so that the helix reduces to a circle of radius a in the xy -plane), our result reduces to $\kappa = 1/a$, in agreement with our computation of the curvature of a circle in Example 3. ■

Normal and Tangential Components of Acceleration

We may apply Eq. (21) to analyze the meaning of the acceleration vector of a moving particle with velocity vector \mathbf{v} and speed v . Then Eq. (17) gives $\mathbf{v} = v\mathbf{T}$, so the acceleration vector of the particle is

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \frac{dv}{dt}\mathbf{T} + v\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} = \frac{dv}{dt}\mathbf{T} + v\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\frac{ds}{dt}.$$

But $ds/dt = v$, so Eq. (21) gives

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{dv}{dt}\mathbf{T} + \kappa v^2 \mathbf{N}. \quad (22)$$

Because \mathbf{T} and \mathbf{N} are unit vectors tangent and normal to the curve, respectively, Eq. (22) provides a *decomposition of the acceleration vector* into its components tangent to and normal to the trajectory. The **tangential component**

$$a_T = \frac{dv}{dt} \quad (23)$$

is the rate of change of speed of the particle, whereas the **normal component**

$$a_N = \kappa v^2 = \frac{v^2}{\rho} \quad (24)$$

measures the rate of change of its direction of motion. The decomposition

$$\mathbf{a} = a_T \mathbf{T} + a_N \mathbf{N} \quad (25)$$

is illustrated in Fig. 12.6.9.

As an application of Eq. (22), think of a train moving along a straight track with constant speed v , so that $a_T = 0 = a_N$ (the latter because $\kappa = 0$ for a straight line). Suppose that at time $t = 0$, the train enters a circular curve of radius ρ . At that instant, it will suddenly be subjected to a normal acceleration of magnitude v^2/ρ , proportional to the square of the speed of the train. A passenger in the train will

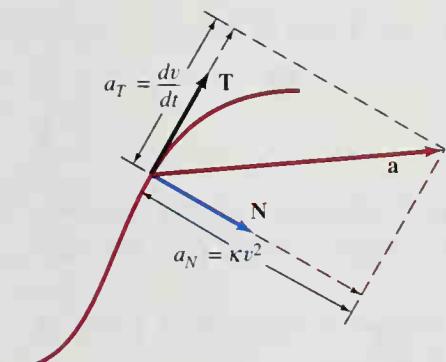


Fig. 12.6.9 Resolution of the acceleration vector \mathbf{a} into its tangential and normal components

experience a sudden jerk to the side. If v is large, the stresses may be great enough to damage the track or derail the train. It is for exactly this reason that railroads are built not with curves shaped like arcs of circles but with *approach curves* in which the curvature, and hence the normal acceleration, build up smoothly.

EXAMPLE 6 A particle moves in the xy -plane with parametric equations

$$x(t) = \frac{3}{2}t^2, \quad y(t) = \frac{4}{3}t^3.$$

Find the tangential and normal components of its acceleration vector when $t = 1$.

Solution The trajectory and the vectors \mathbf{N} and \mathbf{T} appear in Fig. 12.6.10. There \mathbf{N} and \mathbf{T} are shown attached at the point of evaluation, at which $t = 1$. The particle has position vector

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \frac{3}{2}t^2\mathbf{i} + \frac{4}{3}t^3\mathbf{j}$$

and thus velocity

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = 3t\mathbf{i} + 4t^2\mathbf{j}.$$

Hence its speed is

$$v(t) = \sqrt{9t^2 + 16t^4},$$

from which we calculate

$$a_T = \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{9t + 32t^3}{\sqrt{9t^2 + 16t^4}}.$$

Thus $v = 5$ and $a_T = \frac{41}{5}$ when $t = 1$.

To use Eq. (12) to compute the curvature at $t = 1$, we compute $dx/dt = 3t$, $dy/dt = 4t^2$, $d^2x/dt^2 = 3$, and $d^2y/dt^2 = 8t$. Thus at $t = 1$ we have

$$\kappa = \frac{|x'y'' - x''y'|}{v^3} = \frac{|3 \cdot 8 - 3 \cdot 4|}{5^3} = \frac{12}{125}.$$

Hence

$$a_N = \kappa v^2 = \frac{12}{125} \cdot 5^2 = \frac{12}{5}$$

when $t = 1$. As a check (Problem 28), you might compute \mathbf{T} and \mathbf{N} when $t = 1$ and verify that

$$\frac{41}{5}\mathbf{T} + \frac{12}{5}\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 8\mathbf{j}. \quad \blacksquare$$

It remains for us to see how to compute a_T , a_N , and \mathbf{N} effectively in the case of a space curve. We would prefer to have formulas that explicitly contain only the vectors \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{a} .

If we compute the dot product of $\mathbf{v} = v\mathbf{T}$ with the acceleration \mathbf{a} as given in Eq. (22) and use the facts that $\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{T} = 1$ and $\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{N} = 0$, we get

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a} = v\mathbf{T} \cdot \left(\frac{dv}{dt}\mathbf{T} \right) + (v\mathbf{T}) \cdot (\kappa v^2 \mathbf{N}) = v \frac{dv}{dt}.$$

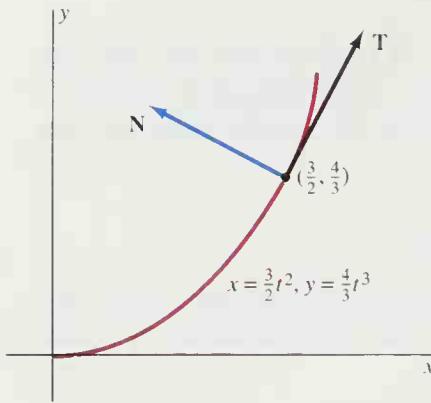


Fig. 12.6.10 The moving particle of Example 6

It follows that

$$a_T = \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{v} = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}''(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}. \quad (26)$$

Similarly, when we compute the cross product of $\mathbf{v} = v\mathbf{T}$ with each side of Eq. (22), we find that

$$\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a} = \left(v\mathbf{T} \times \frac{dv}{dt}\mathbf{T} \right) + (v\mathbf{T} \times \kappa v^2 \mathbf{N}) = \kappa v^3 (\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}).$$

Because κ and v are nonnegative and because $\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}$ is a unit vector, we may conclude that

$$\kappa = \frac{|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}|}{v^3} = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^3}. \quad (27)$$

It now follows from Eq. (24) that

$$a_N = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}. \quad (28)$$

The curvature of a space curve often is not as easy to compute directly from the definition as we found the case of the helix of Example 5. It is generally more convenient to use Eq. (27). Once \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{T} , a_T , and a_N have been computed, we can rewrite Eq. (25) as

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{\mathbf{a} - a_T \mathbf{T}}{a_N} \quad (29)$$

to find the principal unit normal vector.

EXAMPLE 7 Compute \mathbf{T} , \mathbf{N} , κ , a_T , and a_N at the point $(1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3})$ of the twisted cubic with parametric equations

$$x(t) = t, \quad y(t) = \frac{1}{2}t^2, \quad z(t) = \frac{1}{3}t^3.$$

Solution Differentiation of the position vector

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, \frac{1}{2}t^2, \frac{1}{3}t^3 \rangle$$

gives

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle 1, t, t^2 \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{r}''(t) = \langle 0, 1, 2t \rangle.$$

When we substitute $t = 1$, we obtain

$$\mathbf{v}(1) = \langle 1, 1, 1 \rangle \quad (\text{velocity}),$$

$$v(1) = |\mathbf{v}(1)| = \sqrt{3} \quad (\text{speed}), \text{ and}$$

$$\mathbf{a}(1) = \langle 0, 1, 2 \rangle \quad (\text{acceleration})$$

at the point $(1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3})$. Then Eq. (26) gives the tangential component of acceleration:

$$a_T = \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{v} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{3}} = \sqrt{3}.$$

Because

$$\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = \langle 1, -2, 1 \rangle,$$

Eq. (27) gives the curvature:

$$\kappa = \frac{|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}|}{v^3} = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{(\sqrt{3})^3} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{3}.$$

The normal component of acceleration is $a_N = \kappa v^2 = \sqrt{2}$. The unit tangent vector is

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \langle 1, 1, 1 \rangle = \frac{\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{3}}.$$

Finally, Eq. (29) gives

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{\mathbf{a} - a_T \mathbf{T}}{a_N} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\langle 0, 1, 2 \rangle - \langle 1, 1, 1 \rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \langle -1, 0, 1 \rangle = \frac{-\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

Figure 12.6.11 shows the twisted cubic and its osculating circle at the point $P(1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3})$. This osculating circle has radius $a = 1/\kappa = \frac{3}{2}\sqrt{2}$, and its center C has position vector $\overrightarrow{OC} = \overrightarrow{OP} + a\mathbf{N} = \langle -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{11}{6} \rangle$.

Newton, Kepler, and the Solar System

Ancient Greek mathematicians and astronomers developed an elaborate mathematical model to account for the complicated motions of the sun, moon, and six planets then known as viewed from the earth. A combination of uniform circular motions was used to describe the motion of each body around the earth—if the earth is placed at the origin, then each body *does* orbit the earth.

In this system, it was typical for a planet P to travel uniformly around a small circle (the *epicycle*) with center C , which in turn traveled uniformly around a circle centered at the earth, labeled E in Fig. 12.6.12. The radii of the circles and the angular speeds of P and C were chosen to match the observed motion of the planet as closely as possible. For greater accuracy, the ancient Greeks could use secondary circles. In fact, several circles were required for each body in the solar system. The theory of epicycles reached its definitive form in Ptolemy's *Almagest* of the second century A.D.

In 1543, Copernicus altered Ptolemy's approach by placing the center of each primary circle at the sun rather than at the earth. This change was of much greater philosophical than mathematical importance. For, contrary to popular belief, this *heliocentric system* was *not* simpler than Ptolemy's geocentric system. Indeed, Copernicus's system actually required more circles.

It was Johannes Kepler (1571–1630) who finally got rid of all these circles. On the basis of a detailed analysis of a lifetime of planetary observations by the Danish astronomer Tycho Brahe, Kepler stated the following three propositions, now known as **Kepler's laws of planetary motion**.

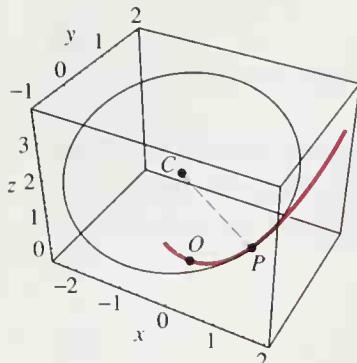


Fig. 12.6.11 Osculating circle for the twisted cubic of Example 7. It is plotted as the parametric curve with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t) = \overrightarrow{OC} - (a \cos t)\mathbf{N} + (a \sin t)\mathbf{T}$.

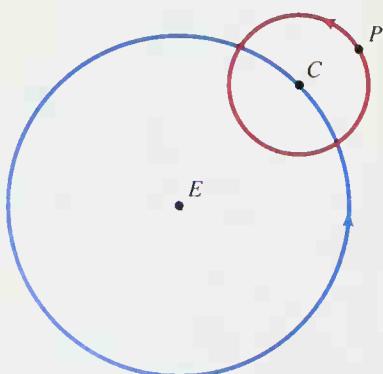


Fig. 12.6.12 The small circle is the epicycle.

1. The orbit of each planet is an ellipse with the sun at one focus.
2. The radius vector from the sun to a planet sweeps out area at a constant rate.
3. The *square* of the period of revolution of a planet is proportional to the *cube* of the major semiaxis of its elliptical orbit.

In his *Principia Mathematica* (1687), Newton showed that Kepler's laws follow from the basic principles of mechanics ($F = ma$, and so on) and the inverse-square law of gravitational attraction. His success in using mathematics to explain natural phenomena ("I now demonstrate the frame of the System of the World") inspired confidence that the universe could be understood and perhaps even mastered. This new confidence permanently altered humanity's perception of itself and of its place in the scheme of things.

Newton employed a powerful but now antiquated form of geometrical calculus in the *Principia*. In the remainder of this section we apply the modern calculus of vector functions to outline the relation between Newton's laws and Kepler's laws.

Radial and Transverse Components of Acceleration

To begin, we set up a coordinate system in which the sun is located at the origin in the plane of motion of a planet. Let $r = r(t)$ and $\theta = \theta(t)$ be the polar coordinates at time t of the planet as it orbits the sun. We want first to split the planet's position, velocity, and acceleration vectors \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{a} into *radial* and *transverse* components. To do so, we introduce at each point (r, θ) of the plane (the origin excepted) the *unit vectors*

$$\mathbf{u}_r = \mathbf{i} \cos \theta + \mathbf{j} \sin \theta, \quad \mathbf{u}_\theta = -\mathbf{i} \sin \theta + \mathbf{j} \cos \theta. \quad (30)$$

If we substitute $\theta = \theta(t)$, then \mathbf{u}_r and \mathbf{u}_θ become functions of t . The **radial** unit vector \mathbf{u}_r always points directly away from the origin; the **transverse** unit vector \mathbf{u}_θ is obtained from \mathbf{u}_r by a 90° counterclockwise rotation (Fig. 12.6.13).

In Problem 68 we ask you to verify, by componentwise differentiation of the equations in (30), that

$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}_r}{dt} = \mathbf{u}_\theta \frac{d\theta}{dt} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d\mathbf{u}_\theta}{dt} = -\mathbf{u}_r \frac{d\theta}{dt}. \quad (31)$$

The position vector \mathbf{r} points directly away from the origin and has length $|\mathbf{r}| = r$, so

$$\mathbf{r} = r\mathbf{u}_r. \quad (32)$$

Differentiation of both sides of Eq. (32) with respect to t gives

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \mathbf{u}_r \frac{dr}{dt} + r \frac{d\mathbf{u}_r}{dt}.$$

We use the first equation in (31) and find that the planet's velocity vector is

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}_r \frac{dr}{dt} + r \frac{d\theta}{dt} \mathbf{u}_\theta. \quad (33)$$

Thus we have expressed the velocity \mathbf{v} in terms of the radial vector \mathbf{u}_r and the transverse vector \mathbf{u}_θ .

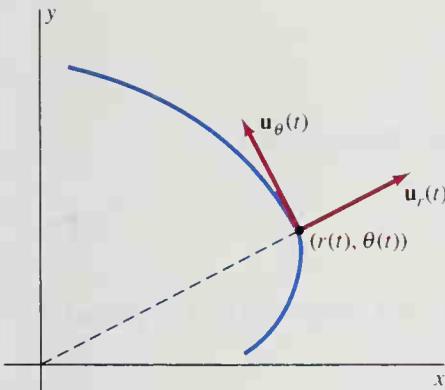


Fig. 12.6.13 The radial and transverse unit vector \mathbf{u}_r and \mathbf{u}_θ

We differentiate both sides of Eq. (33) and thereby find that

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \left(\mathbf{u}_r \frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} + \frac{dr}{dt} \frac{d\mathbf{u}_r}{dt} \right) + \left(\frac{dr}{dt} \frac{d\theta}{dt} \mathbf{u}_\theta + r \frac{d^2 \theta}{dt^2} \mathbf{u}_\theta + r \frac{d\theta}{dt} \frac{d\mathbf{u}_\theta}{dt} \right).$$

Then, by using the equations in (31) and collecting the coefficients of \mathbf{u}_r and \mathbf{u}_θ (Problem 69), we obtain the decomposition

$$\mathbf{a} = \left[\frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} - r \left(\frac{d\theta}{dt} \right)^2 \right] \mathbf{u}_r + \left[\frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dt} \left(r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt} \right) \right] \mathbf{u}_\theta \quad (34)$$

of the acceleration vector into its radial and transverse components.

Planets and Satellites

The key to Newton's analysis was the connection between his law of gravitational attraction and Kepler's *second* law of planetary motion. Suppose that we begin with the inverse-square law of gravitation in its vector form

$$\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a} = -\frac{GMm}{r^2} \mathbf{u}_r, \quad (35)$$

where M denotes the mass of the sun and m the mass of the orbiting planet. Then the acceleration of the planet is given *also* by

$$\mathbf{a} = -\frac{\mu}{r^2} \mathbf{u}_r, \quad (36)$$

where $\mu = GM$. We equate the transverse components in Eqs. (34) and (36) and thus obtain

$$\frac{1}{r} \cdot \frac{d}{dt} \left(r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt} \right) = 0.$$

We drop the factor $1/r$, then antidifferentiate both sides. We find that

$$r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt} = h \quad (h \text{ a constant}). \quad (37)$$

We know from Section 10.3 that if $A(t)$ denotes the area swept out by the planet's radius vector from time 0 to time t (Fig. 12.6.14), then

$$A(t) = \int_{*}^{**} \frac{1}{2} r^2 d\theta = \int_0^t \frac{1}{2} r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt} dt.$$

Now we apply the fundamental theorem of calculus, which yields

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt}. \quad (38)$$

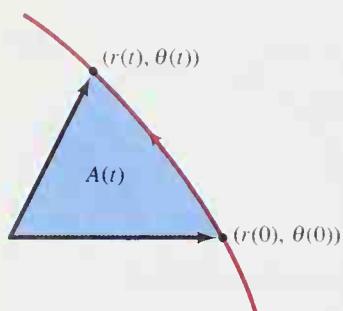


Fig. 12.6.14 Area swept out by the radius vector

When we compare Eqs. (37) and (38), we see that

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{h}{2}. \quad (39)$$

Because $h/2$ is a constant, we have derived Kepler's second law: The radius vector from sun to planet sweeps out area at a constant rate.

Next we outline the derivation of Newton's law of gravitation from Kepler's first and second laws of planetary motion. According to Problem 65, the polar-coordinate equation of an ellipse with eccentricity $e < 1$ and directrix $x = p$ (Fig. 12.6.15) is

$$r = \frac{pe}{1 + e \cos \theta}. \quad (40)$$

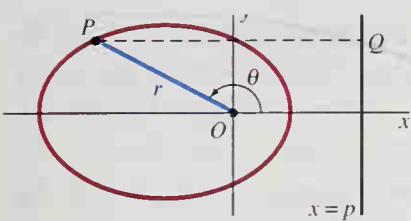


Fig. 12.6.15 A polar coordinate ellipse with eccentricity $e = |OP|/|PQ|$

In Problem 66 we ask you to show by differentiating twice, using the chain rule and Kepler's second law in the form in Eq. (37), that Eq. (40) implies that

$$\frac{d^2r}{dt^2} = \frac{h^2}{r^2} \left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{pe} \right). \quad (41)$$

Now if Kepler's second law in the form in Eq. (37) holds, then Eq. (34) gives

$$\mathbf{a} = \left[\frac{d^2r}{dt^2} - r \left(\frac{d\theta}{dt} \right)^2 \right] \mathbf{u}_r \quad (42)$$

for the planet's acceleration vector. Finally, upon substituting $d\theta/dt = h/r^2$ from Eq. (37) and the expression in Eq. (41) for d^2r/dt^2 , we find (Problem 67) that Eq. (42) can be simplified to the form

$$\mathbf{a} = -\frac{h^2}{per^2} \mathbf{u}_r. \quad (43)$$

This is the inverse-square law of gravitation in the form of Eq. (36) with $\mu = h^2/pe$.

Now suppose that the elliptical orbit of a planet around the sun has major semiaxis a and minor semiaxis b . Then the constant

$$pe = \frac{h^2}{\mu}$$

that appears in Eq. (42) satisfies the equations

$$pe = a(1 - e^2) = a \left(1 - \frac{a^2 - b^2}{a^2} \right) = \frac{b^2}{a}.$$

[This follows from Eq. (40) as in Problem 64.] We equate these two expressions for pe and find that $h^2 = \mu b^2/a$.

Now let T denote the period of revolution of the planet—the time required for it to complete one full revolution in its elliptical orbit around the sun. Then we see from Eq. (38) that the area of the ellipse bounded by this orbit is $A = \frac{1}{2}hT = \pi ab$ and thus that

$$T^2 = \frac{4\pi^2 a^2 b^2}{h^2} = \frac{4\pi^2 a^2 b^2}{\mu b^2/a}.$$

Therefore,

$$T^2 = \gamma a^3, \quad (44)$$

where the proportionality constant $\gamma = 4\pi^2/\mu = 4\pi^2/GM$ [compare Eqs. (35) and (36)] depends on the gravitational constant G and the sun's mass M . Thus we have derived Kepler's third law of planetary motion from his first two laws and Newton's law of gravitational attraction.



Fig. 12.6.16 The inner planets of the solar system (Example 8)

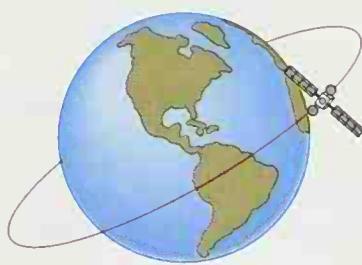


Fig. 12.6.17 A communications satellite in orbit around the earth (Example 9)

EXAMPLE 8 The period of revolution of Mercury in its elliptical orbit around the sun is $T = 87.97$ days, whereas that of Earth is 365.26 days. Compute the major semiaxis (in astronomical units) of the orbit of Mercury. See Fig. 12.6.16.

Solution The major semiaxis of the orbit of the earth is, by definition, 1 AU. So Eq. (44) gives the value of the constant $\gamma = (365.26)^2$ (in day²/AU³). Hence the major semiaxis of the orbit of Mercury is

$$a = \left(\frac{T^2}{\gamma} \right)^{1/3} = \left(\frac{(87.97)^2}{(365.26)^2} \right)^{1/3} \approx 0.387 \text{ (AU).}$$

As yet we have considered only planets in orbits around the sun. But Kepler's laws and the equations of this section apply to bodies in orbit around any common central mass, so long as they move solely under the influence of *its* gravitational attraction. Examples include satellites (artificial or natural) orbiting the earth or the moons of Jupiter.

EXAMPLE 9 A communications relay satellite is to be placed in a circular orbit around Earth and is to have a period of revolution of 24 h. This is a *geosynchronous* orbit in which the satellite appears to be stationary in the sky. Assume that the earth's natural moon has a period of 27.32 days in a circular orbit of radius 238,850 mi. What should be the radius of the satellite's orbit? See Fig. 12.6.17.

Solution Equation (44), when applied to the moon, yields

$$(27.32)^2 = \gamma(238,850)^3.$$

For the stationary satellite that has period $T = 1$ (day), it yields $1^2 = \gamma r^3$, where r is the radius of the geosynchronous orbit. To eliminate γ , we divide the second of these equations by the first and find that

$$r^3 = \frac{(238,850)^3}{(27.32)^2}.$$

Thus r is approximately 26330 mi. The radius of the earth is about 3960 mi, so the satellite will be 22370 mi above the surface.

12.6 PROBLEMS

Find the arc length of the curves described in Problems 1 through 6.

1. $x = 3 \sin 2t, y = 3 \cos 2t, z = 8t;$ from $t = 0$ to $t = \pi$
2. $x = t, y = t^2/\sqrt{2}, z = t^3/3;$ from $t = 0$ to $t = 1$
3. $x = 6e^t \cos t, y = 6e^t \sin t, z = 17e^t;$ from $t = 0$ to $t = 1$
4. $x = t^2/2, y = \ln t, z = t\sqrt{2};$ from $t = 1$ to $t = 2$
5. $x = 3t \sin t, y = 3t \cos t, z = 2t^2;$ from $t = 0$ to $t = 4/5$
6. $x = 2e^t, y = e^{-t}, z = 2t;$ from $t = 0$ to $t = 1$

In Problems 7 through 12, find the curvature of the given plane curve at the indicated point.

7. $y = x^3$ at $(0, 0)$
8. $y = x^3$ at $(-1, -1)$
9. $y = \cos x$ at $(0, 1)$
10. $x = t - 1, y = t^2 + 3t + 2,$ where $t = 2$

11. $x = 5 \cos t, y = 4 \sin t,$ where $t = \pi/4$

12. $x = 5 \cosh t, y = 3 \sinh t,$ where $t = 0$

In Problems 13 through 16, find the point or points on the given curve at which the curvature is a maximum.

13. $y = e^x$
14. $y = \ln x$
15. $x = 5 \cos t, y = 3 \sin t$
16. $xy = 1$

For the plane curves in Problems 17 through 21, find the unit tangent and normal vectors at the indicated point.

17. $y = x^3$ at $(-1, -1)$
18. $x = t^3, y = t^2$ at $(-1, 1)$
19. $x = 3 \sin 2t, y = 4 \cos 2t,$ where $t = \pi/6$
20. $x = t - \sin t, y = 1 - \cos t,$ where $t = \pi/2$
21. $x = \cos^3 t, y = \sin^3 t,$ where $t = 3\pi/4$

The position vector of a particle moving in the plane is given in Problems 22 through 26. Find the tangential and normal components of the acceleration vector.

22. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 3\mathbf{i} \sin \pi t + 3\mathbf{j} \cos \pi t$

23. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2t+1)\mathbf{i} + (3t^2-1)\mathbf{j}$

24. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i} \cosh 3t + \mathbf{j} \sinh 3t$

25. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} \cos t + t\mathbf{j} \sin t \quad 26. \mathbf{r}(t) = \langle e^t \sin t, e^t \cos t \rangle$

27. Use Eq. (13) to compute the curvature of the circle with equation $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$.

28. Verify the equation $\frac{41}{5}\mathbf{T} + \frac{12}{5}\mathbf{N} = 3\mathbf{i} + 8\mathbf{j}$ given at the end of Example 6.

In Problems 29 through 31, find the equation of the osculating circle for the given plane curve at the indicated point.

29. $y = 1 - x^2$ at $(0, 1)$

30. $y = e^x$ at $(0, 1)$

31. $xy = 1$ at $(1, 1)$

Find the curvature κ of the space curves with position vectors given in Problems 32 through 36.

32. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + (2t-1)\mathbf{j} + (3t+5)\mathbf{k}$

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

34. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$

35. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle e^t \cos t, e^t \sin t, e^t \rangle$

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

37 through 41. Find the tangential and normal components of acceleration a_T and a_N for the curves of Problems 32 through 36, respectively.

In Problems 42 through 45, find the unit vectors \mathbf{T} and \mathbf{N} for the given curve at the indicated point.

42. The curve of Problem 34 at $(1, 1, 1)$

43. The curve of Problem 33 at $(0, 0, 1)$

44. The curve of Problem 3 at $(6, 0, 17)$

45. The curve of Problem 35 at $(1, 0, 1)$

46. Find \mathbf{T} , \mathbf{N} , a_T , and a_N as functions of t for the helix of Example 1.

47. Find the arc-length parametrization of the line

$$x(t) = 2 + 4t, \quad y(t) = 1 - 12t, \quad z(t) = 3 + 3t$$

in terms of the arc length s measured from the initial point $(2, 1, 3)$.

48. Find the arc-length parametrization of the circle

$$x(t) = 2 \cos t, \quad y(t) = 2 \sin t, \quad z = 0.$$

49. Find the arc-length parametrization of the helix

$$x(t) = 3 \cos t, \quad y(t) = 3 \sin t, \quad z(t) = 4t$$

in terms of the arc length s measured from the initial point $(3, 0, 0)$.

50. Substitute $x = t$, $y = f(t)$, and $z = 0$ into Eq. (27) to verify that the curvature of the plane curve $y = f(x)$ is

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

51. A particle moves under the influence of a force that is always perpendicular to its direction of motion. Show that the speed of the particle must be constant.

52. Deduce from Eq. (20) that

$$\kappa = \frac{\sqrt{a^2 - (a_T)^2}}{v^2} = \frac{\sqrt{(x''(t))^2 + (y''(t))^2 - (v'(t))^2}}{(x'(t))^2 + (y'(t))^2}.$$

53. Apply the formula of Problem 52 to calculate the curvature of the curve

$$x(t) = \cos t + t \sin t, \quad y(t) = \sin t - t \cos t.$$

54. The folium of Descartes with equation $x^3 + y^3 = 3xy$ is shown in Fig. 12.6.18. Find the curvature and center of curvature of this folium at the point $(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{2})$. Begin by calculating dy/dx and d^2y/dx^2 by implicit differentiation.

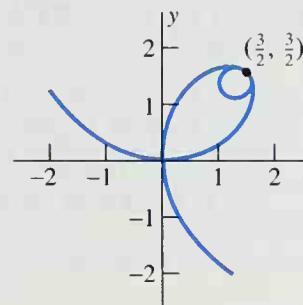


Fig. 12.6.18 The folium of Descartes (Problem 54)

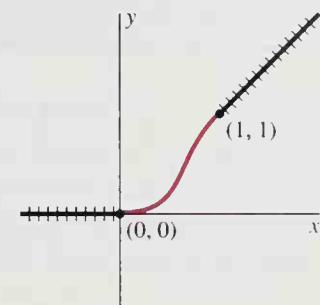


Fig. 12.6.19 Connecting railroad tracks (Problem 55)

55. Determine the constants A, B, C, D, E , and F so that the curve

$$y = Ax^5 + Bx^4 + Cx^3 + Dx^2 + Ex + F$$

does, simultaneously, all of the following:

- ▼ Joins the two points $(0, 0)$ and $(1, 1)$;
- ▼ Has slope 0 at $(0, 0)$ and slope 1 at $(1, 1)$;
- ▼ Has curvature 0 at both $(0, 0)$ and $(1, 1)$.

The curve in question is shown in color in Fig. 12.6.19. Why would this be a good curve to join the railroad tracks, shown in black in the figure?

56. Consider a body in an elliptical orbit with major and minor semiaxes a and b and period of revolution T . (a) Deduce from Eq. (33) that $v = r(d\theta/dt)$ when the body is nearest to and farthest from its foci. (b) Then apply Kepler's second law to conclude that $v = 2\pi ab/(rT)$ at the body's nearest and farthest points.

In Problems 57 through 60, apply the equation of part (b) of Problem 56 to compute the speed (in miles per second) of the

given body at the nearest and farthest points of its orbit. Convert 1 AU, the major semiaxis of Earth's orbit, into 92,956,000 mi.

57. Mercury: $a = 0.387$ AU, $e = 0.206$, $T = 87.97$ days
58. Earth: $e = 0.0167$, $T = 365.26$ days
59. Earth's moon: $a = 238,900$ mi, $e = 0.055$, $T = 27.32$ days
60. An artificial Earth satellite: $a = 10000$ mi, $e = 0.5$
61. Assuming Earth to be a sphere with radius 3960 mi, find the altitude above Earth's surface of a satellite in a circular orbit that has a period of revolution of 1 h.
62. Given the fact that Jupiter's period of (almost) circular revolution around the Sun is 11.86 yr, calculate the distance of Jupiter from the Sun.
63. Suppose that an Earth satellite in elliptical orbit varies in altitude from 100 to 1000 mi above Earth's surface (assumed spherical). Find this satellite's period of revolution.
64. Substitute $\theta = 0$ and $\theta = \pi$ into Eq. (40) to deduce that $pe = a(1 - e^2)$.

65. Figure 12.6.15 shows an ellipse with eccentricity e and focus at the origin. Derive Eq. (40) from the defining relation $|OP| = e|PQ|$ of the ellipse.
66. (a) Beginning with the polar-coordinates equation of an ellipse in Eq. (40), apply the chain rule and Kepler's second law in the form $d\theta/dt = h/r^2$ to differentiate r with respect to t and thereby show that $dr/dt = (h \sin \theta)/p$.
(b) Differentiate again to show that $d^2r/dt^2 = (h^2 \cos \theta)/(pr^2)$. (c) Derive Eq. (41) by solving Eq. (40) for $\cos \theta$ and substituting the result in the formula in part (b).
67. Derive Eq. (43) by substituting the expressions for $d\theta/dt$ and d^2r/dt^2 given by Eqs. (37) and (41), respectively, into Eq. (42).
68. Derive both equations in (31) by differentiation of the equations in (30).
69. Derive Eq. (34) by differentiating Eq. (33).

12.7 CYLINDERS AND QUADRIC SURFACES

Just as the graph of an equation $f(x, y) = 0$ is generally a curve in the xy -plane, the graph of an equation in three variables is generally a surface in space. A function F of three variables associates a real number $F(x, y, z)$ with each ordered triple (x, y, z) of real numbers. The **graph** of the equation

$$F(x, y, z) = 0 \quad (1)$$

is the set of all points whose coordinates (x, y, z) satisfy this equation. We refer to the graph of such an equation as a **surface**. For instance, the graph of the equation

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 1 = 0$$

is a familiar surface, the unit sphere centered at the origin. But note that the graph of Eq. (1) does not always agree with our intuitive notion of a surface. For example, the graph of the equation

$$(x^2 + y^2)(y^2 + z^2)(z^2 + x^2) = 0$$

consists of the points lying on the three coordinate axes in space, because

- ▼ $x^2 + y^2 = 0$ implies that $x = y = 0$ (the z -axis)
- ▼ $y^2 + z^2 = 0$ implies that $y = z = 0$ (the x -axis)
- ▼ $z^2 + x^2 = 0$ implies that $z = x = 0$ (the y -axis).

We leave for advanced calculus the precise definition of *surface* as well as the study of conditions sufficient to imply that the graph of Eq. (1) actually is a surface.

Planes and Traces

The simplest example of a surface is a plane with linear equation $Ax + By + Cz + D = 0$. In this section we discuss examples of other simple surfaces that frequently appear in multivariable calculus.

When sketching a surface S , it is often helpful to examine its intersections with various planes. The **trace** of the surface S in the plane P is the intersection of P and S .

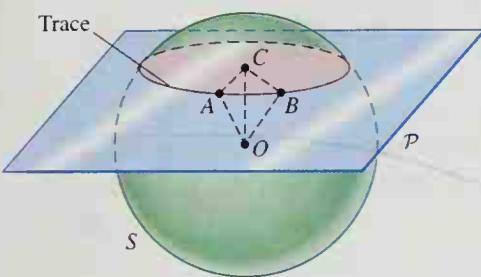


Fig. 12.7.1 The intersection of the sphere S and the plane P is a circle.

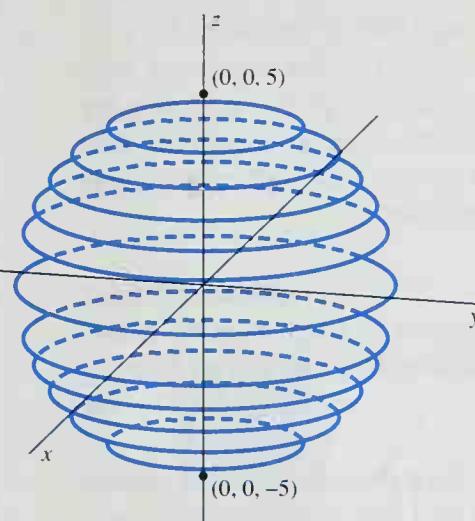


Fig. 12.7.2 A sphere as a union of circles (and two points)

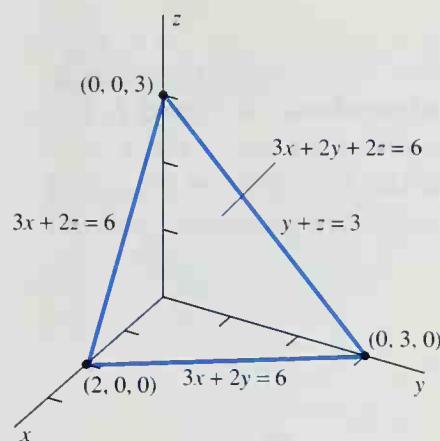


Fig. 12.7.3 Traces of the plane $3x + 2y + 2z = 6$ in the coordinate planes (Example 1)

For example, if S is a sphere, then we can verify by the methods of elementary geometry that the trace of S in the plane P is a circle (Fig. 12.7.1), provided that P intersects the sphere but is not merely tangent to it (Problem 49). Figure 12.7.2 illustrates the horizontal trace circles that (together with two “polar points”) make up the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 25$.

When we want to visualize a specific surface in space, it often suffices to examine its traces in the coordinate planes and possibly a few planes parallel to them, as in Example 1.

EXAMPLE 1 Consider the plane with equation $3x + 2y + 2z = 6$. We find its trace in the xy -plane by setting $z = 0$. The equation then reduces to the equation $3x + 2y = 6$ of a straight line in the xy -plane. Similarly, when we set $y = 0$, we get the line $3x + 2z = 6$ as the trace of the given plane in the xz -plane. To find its trace in the yz -plane, we set $x = 0$, and this yields the line $y + z = 3$. Figure 12.7.3 shows the portions of these three trace lines that lie in the first octant. Together they give us a good picture of how the plane $3x + 2y + 2z = 6$ is situated in space. ■

Cylinders and Rulings

Let C be a curve in a plane and let L be a line not parallel to that plane. Then the set of points on lines parallel to L that intersect C is called a **cylinder**. These straight lines that make up the cylinder are called **rulings** of the cylinder.

EXAMPLE 2 Figure 12.7.4 shows a vertical cylinder for which C is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ in the xy -plane. The trace of this cylinder in any horizontal plane $z = c$ is a circle with radius a and center $(0, 0, c)$ on the z -axis. Thus the point (x, y, z) lies on this cylinder if and only if $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$. Hence this cylinder is the graph of the equation $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$, an equation in **three** variables—even though the variable z is technically missing.

The fact that the variable z does not appear explicitly in the equation $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ means that given any point $(x_0, y_0, 0)$ on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ in the xy -plane, the point (x_0, y_0, z) lies on the cylinder for any and all values of z . The set of all such points is the vertical line through the point $(x_0, y_0, 0)$. Thus this vertical line is a ruling of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$. Figure 12.7.5 exhibits the cylinder as the union of its rulings. ■

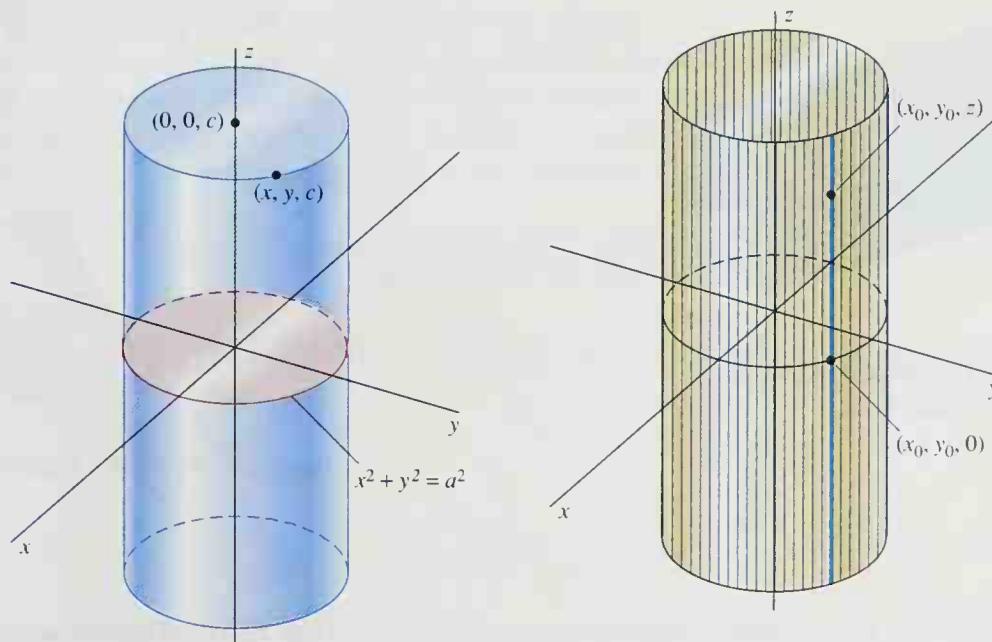


Fig. 12.7.4 A right circular cylinder

Fig. 12.7.5 The cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$; its rulings are parallel to the z -axis.

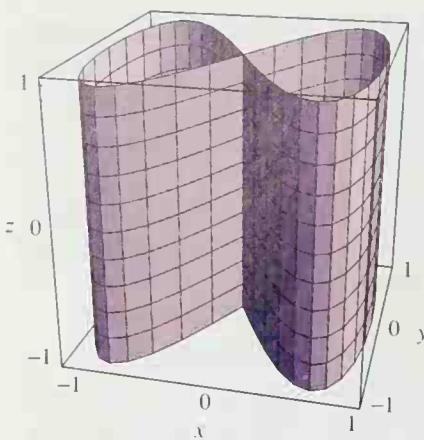


Fig. 12.7.6 The vertical cylinder through the figure-eight curve $x = \sin t, y = \sin 2t$

A cylinder need not be circular—that is, the curve C can be an ellipse, a rectangle, or a quite arbitrary curve.

EXAMPLE 3 Figure 12.7.6 shows both horizontal traces and vertical rulings on a vertical cylinder through a figure-eight curve C in the xy -plane (C has the parametric equations $x = \sin t, y = \sin 2t, 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$). ■

If the curve C in the xy -plane has equation

$$f(x, y) = 0, \quad (2)$$

then the cylinder through C with vertical rulings has the same equation in space. This is so because the point $P(x, y, z)$ lies on the cylinder if and only if the point $(x, y, 0)$ lies on the curve C . Similarly, the graph of an equation $g(x, z) = 0$ is a cylinder with rulings parallel to the y -axis, and the graph of an equation $h(y, z) = 0$ is a cylinder with rulings parallel to the x -axis. Thus the graph in space of an equation that includes only two of the three coordinate variables is always a cylinder; its rulings are parallel to the axis corresponding to the *missing* variable.

EXAMPLE 4 The graph of the equation $4y^2 + 9z^2 = 36$ is the **elliptic cylinder** shown in Fig. 12.7.7. Its rulings are parallel to the x -axis, and its trace in every plane perpendicular to the x -axis is an ellipse with semiaxes of lengths 3 and 2 (just like the pictured ellipse $y^2/9 + z^2/4 = 1$ in the yz -plane). ■

EXAMPLE 5 The graph of the equation $z = 4 - x^2$ is the **parabolic cylinder** shown in Fig. 12.7.8. Its rulings are parallel to the y -axis, and its trace in every plane perpendicular to the y -axis is a parabola that is a parallel translate of the parabola $z = 4 - x^2$ in the xz -plane. ■

Surfaces of Revolution

Another way to use a plane curve C to generate a surface is to revolve the curve in space around a line L in its plane. This gives a **surface of revolution** with **axis** L . For example, Fig. 12.7.9 shows the surface generated by revolving the curve $f(x, y) = 0$ in the first quadrant of the xy -plane around the x -axis. The typical point $P(x, y, z)$ lies on this surface of revolution provided that it lies on the vertical circle (parallel

Fig. 12.7.7 An elliptical cylinder (Example 4)

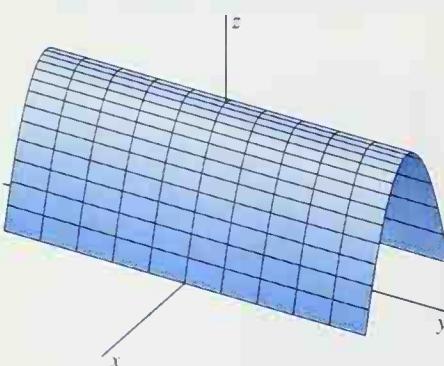


Fig. 12.7.8 The parabolic cylinder $z = 4 - x^2$ (Example 5)

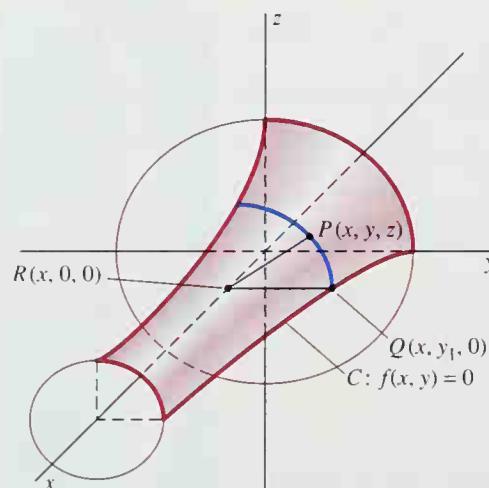


Fig. 12.7.9 The surface generated by rotating C around the x -axis. (For clarity, only a quarter of the surface is shown.)

to the yz -plane) with center $R(x, 0, 0)$ and radius r such that the point $Q(x, r, 0)$ lies on the given curve C , in which case $f(x, r) = 0$. Because

$$r = |RQ| = |RP| = \sqrt{y^2 + z^2},$$

it is therefore necessary that

$$f(x, \sqrt{y^2 + z^2}) = 0. \quad (3)$$

This, then, is the equation of a **surface of revolution around the x -axis**.

The equations of surfaces of revolution around other coordinate axes are obtained similarly. If the first-quadrant curve $f(x, y) = 0$ is revolved instead around the y -axis, then we replace x with $\sqrt{x^2 + z^2}$ to get the equation $f(\sqrt{x^2 + z^2}, y) = 0$ of the resulting surface of revolution. If the curve $g(y, z) = 0$ in the first quadrant of the yz -plane is revolved around the z -axis, we replace y with $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. Thus the equation of the resulting surface of revolution around the z -axis is $g(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, z) = 0$. These assertions are easily verified with the aid of diagrams similar to Fig 12.7.9.

EXAMPLE 6 Write an equation of the **ellipsoid of revolution** obtained by revolving the ellipse $4y^2 + z^2 = 4$ around the z -axis (Fig. 12.7.10).

Solution We replace y with $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ in the given equation. This yields $4x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 = 4$ as an equation of the ellipsoid. ■

EXAMPLE 7 Determine the graph of the equation $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$.

Solution First we rewrite the given equation in the form $z = \pm\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. Thus the surface is symmetric around the xy -plane, and the upper half has equation $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. We can obtain this last equation from the simple equation $z = y$ by replacing y with $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. Thus we obtain the upper half of the surface by revolving the line $z = y$ (for $y \geq 0$) around the z -axis. The graph is the **cone** shown in Fig. 12.7.11. Its upper half has equation $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, and its lower half has equation $z = -\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. The entire cone $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ is obtained by revolving the entire line $z = y$ around the z -axis. ■

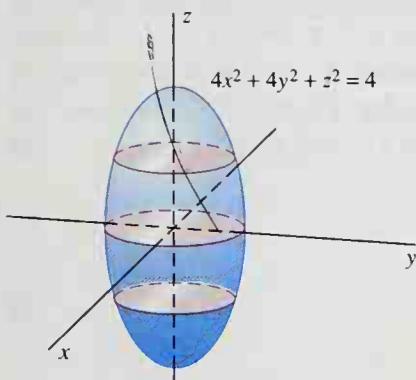


Fig. 12.7.10 The ellipsoid of revolution of Example 6

Quadric Surfaces

Cones, spheres, circular and parabolic cylinders, and ellipsoids of revolution are all surfaces that are graphs of second-degree equations in x , y , and z . The graph of a second-degree equation in three variables is called a **quadric surface**. We discuss here some important special cases of the equation

$$Ax^2 + By^2 + Cz^2 + Dx + Ey + Fz + H = 0. \quad (4)$$

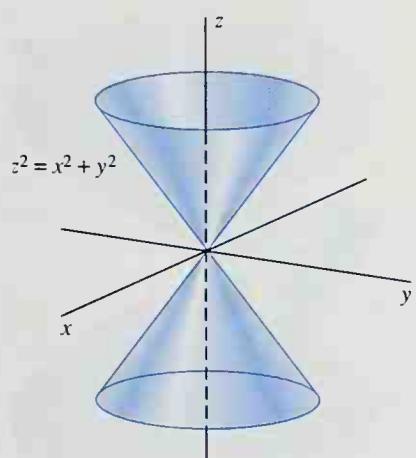
This is a special second-degree equation in that it contains no terms involving the products xy , xz , or yz .

EXAMPLE 8 The **ellipsoid**

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1 \quad (5)$$

is symmetric around each of the three coordinate planes and has intercepts $(\pm a, 0, 0)$, $(0, \pm b, 0)$, and $(0, 0, \pm c)$ on the three coordinate axes. (There is no loss of generality in assuming that a , b , and c are positive.) Each trace of this ellipsoid in

Fig. 12.7.11 The cone of Example 7



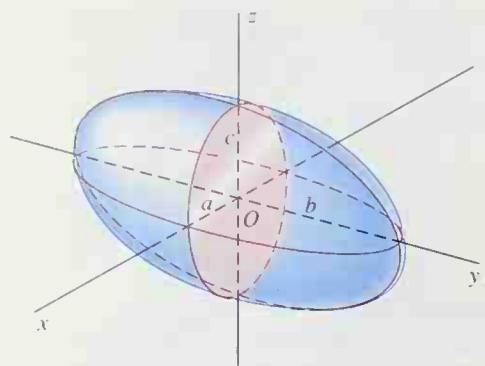
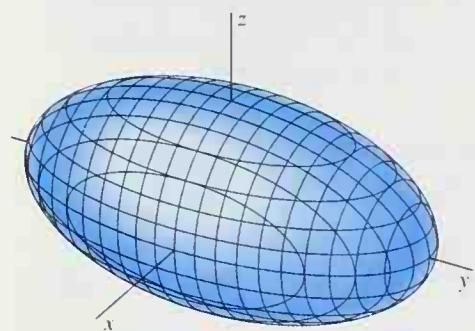


Fig. 12.7.12 The ellipsoid of Example 8

a plane parallel to one of the coordinate planes is either a single point or an ellipse. For example, if $-c < z_0 < c$, then the trace of the ellipsoid of Eq. (5) in the plane $z = z_0$ has equation

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1 - \frac{z_0^2}{c^2} > 0,$$

which is the equation of an ellipse with semiaxes $(a/c)\sqrt{c^2 - z_0^2}$ and $(b/c)\sqrt{c^2 - z_0^2}$. Figure 12.7.12 shows this ellipsoid with semiaxes a , b , and c labeled. Figure 12.7.13 shows its trace ellipses in planes parallel to the three coordinate planes. ■

EXAMPLE 9 The elliptic paraboloidFig. 12.7.13 The traces of the ellipsoid $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$ (Example 8)

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = \frac{z}{c} \quad (6)$$

is shown in Fig. 12.7.14. Its trace in the horizontal plane $z = z_0 > 0$ is the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = z_0/c$ with semiaxes $a\sqrt{z_0}/c$ and $b\sqrt{z_0}/c$. Its trace in any vertical plane is a parabola. For instance, its trace in the plane $y = y_0$ has equation $x^2/a^2 + y_0^2/b^2 = z/c$, which can be written in the form $z - z_1 = k(x - x_1)^2$ by taking $z_1 = cy_0^2/b^2$ and $x_1 = 0$. The paraboloid opens upward if $c > 0$ and downward if $c < 0$. If $a = b$, then the paraboloid is said to be **circular**. Figure 12.7.15 shows the traces of a circular paraboloid in planes parallel to the xz - and yz -planes. ■

EXAMPLE 10 The elliptical cone

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = \frac{z^2}{c^2} \quad (7)$$

is shown in Fig. 12.7.16. Its trace in the horizontal plane $z = z_0 \neq 0$ is an ellipse with semiaxes $a|z_0|/c$ and $b|z_0|/c$. ■

EXAMPLE 11 The hyperboloid of one sheet with equation

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1 \quad (8)$$

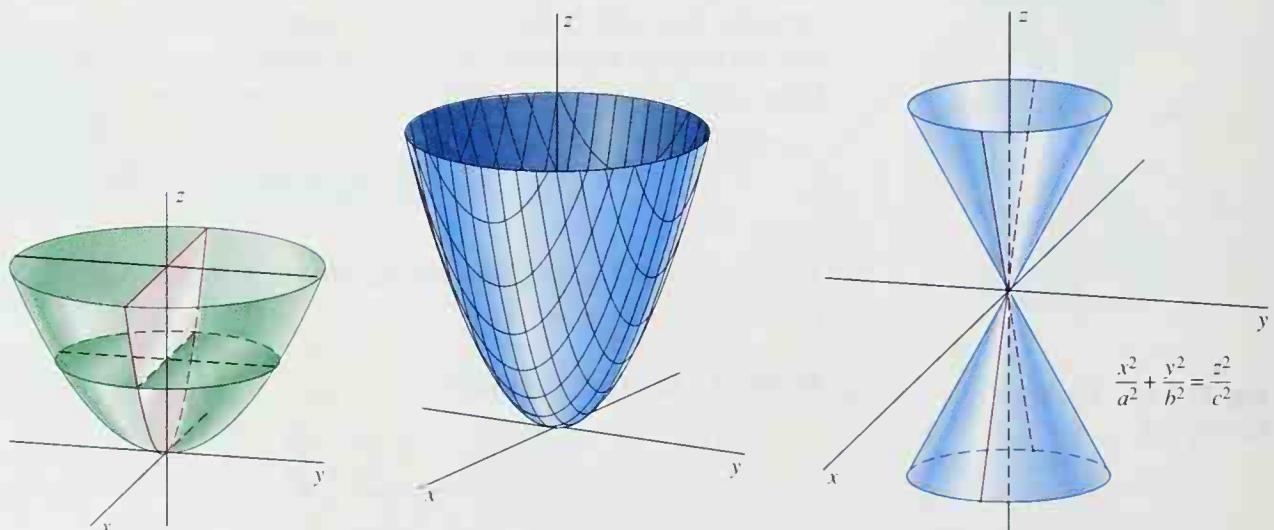


Fig. 12.7.14 An elliptic paraboloid (Example 9)

Fig. 12.7.15 Trace parabolals of a circular paraboloid (Example 9)

Fig. 12.7.16 An elliptic cone (Example 10)

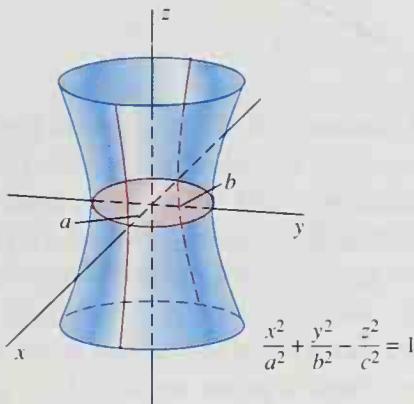


Fig. 12.7.17 A hyperboloid of one sheet (Example 11)

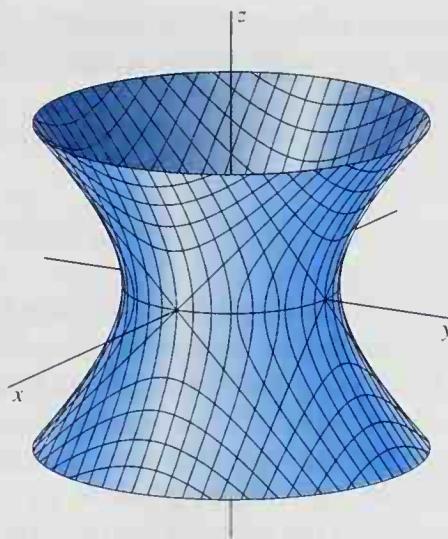


Fig. 12.7.18 A circular hyperboloid of one sheet (Example 11). Its traces in horizontal planes are circles; its traces in vertical planes are hyperbolas.

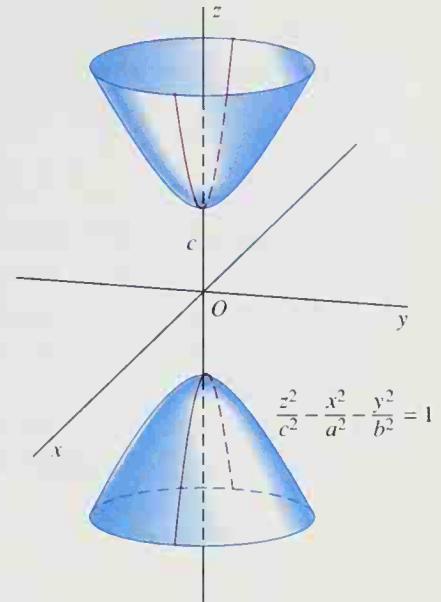


Fig. 12.7.19 A hyperboloid of two sheets (Example 12)

is shown in Fig. 12.7.17. Its trace in the horizontal plane $z = z_0$ is the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1 + z_0^2/c^2 > 0$. Its trace in a vertical plane is a hyperbola except when the vertical plane intersects the xy -plane in a line tangent to the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$. In this special case, the trace is a degenerate hyperbola consisting of two intersecting lines. Figure 12.7.18 shows the traces (in planes parallel to the coordinate planes) of a circular ($a = b$) hyperboloid of one sheet.

The graph of the equations

$$\frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} - \frac{x^2}{a^2} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

are also hyperboloids of one sheet, opening along the x - and y -axes, respectively. ■

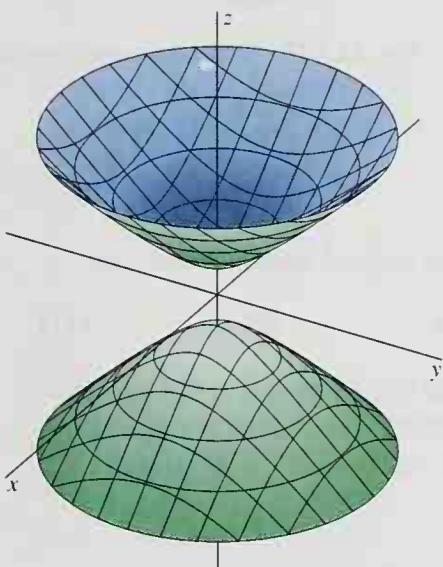


Fig. 12.7.20 A circular hyperboloid of two sheets (Example 12). Its (nondegenerate) traces in horizontal planes are circles; its traces in vertical planes are hyperbolas.

EXAMPLE 12 The hyperboloid of two sheets with equation

$$\frac{z^2}{c^2} - \frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1 \tag{9}$$

consists of two separate pieces, or *sheets* (Fig. 12.7.19). The two sheets open along the positive and negative z -axis and intersect it at the points $(0, 0, \pm c)$. The trace of this hyperboloid in a horizontal plane $z = z_0$ with $|z_0| > c$ is the ellipse

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = \frac{z_0^2}{c^2} - 1 > 0.$$

Its trace in any vertical plane is a nondegenerate hyperbola. Figure 12.7.20 shows traces of a circular hyperboloid of two sheets.

The graphs of the equations

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$$

are also hyperboloids of two sheets, opening along the x -axis and y -axis, respectively. When the equation of a hyperboloid is written in standard form with $+1$ on the

right-hand side [as in Eqs. (8) and (9)], then the number of sheets is equal to the number of negative terms on the left-hand side. ■

EXAMPLE 13 The hyperbolic paraboloid

$$\frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{x^2}{a^2} = \frac{z}{c} \quad (c > 0) \quad (10)$$

is saddle-shaped, as indicated in Fig. 12.7.21. Its trace in the horizontal plane $z = z_0$ is a hyperbola (or two intersecting lines if $z_0 = 0$). Its trace in a vertical plane parallel to the xz -plane is a parabola that opens downward, whereas its trace in a vertical plane parallel to the yz -plane is a parabola that opens upward. In particular, the trace of the hyperbolic paraboloid in the xz -plane is a parabola opening downward from the origin, whereas its trace in the yz -plane is a parabola opening upward from the origin. Thus the origin looks like a local maximum from one direction but like a local minimum from another. Such a point on a surface is called a **saddle point**.

Figure 12.7.22 shows the parabolic traces in vertical planes of the hyperbolic paraboloid $z = y^2 - x^2$. Figure 12.7.23 shows its hyperbolic traces in horizontal planes.

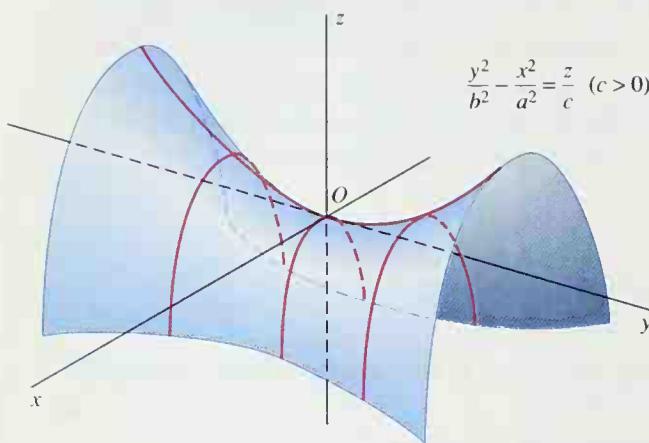


Fig. 12.7.21 A hyperbolic paraboloid is a saddle-shaped surface (Example 13).

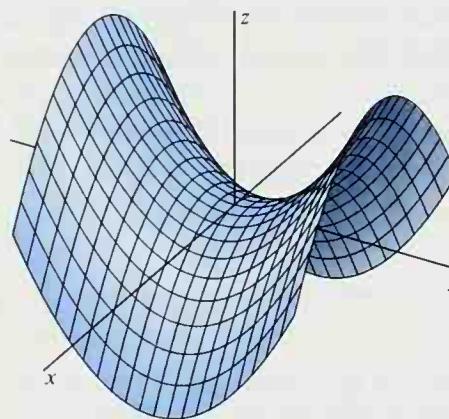


Fig. 12.7.22 The vertical traces of the hyperbolic paraboloid $z = y^2 - x^2$ (Example 13)

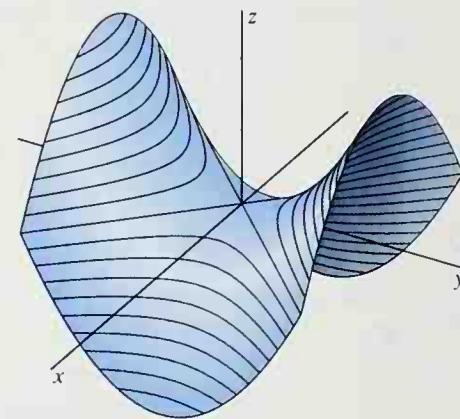


Fig. 12.7.23 The horizontal traces of the hyperbolic paraboloid $z = y^2 - x^2$ (Example 13)

Rotated Conics and Quadrics

In Sections 10.6 through 10.8 we (in effect) studied the second-degree equation

$$ax^2 + cy^2 + dx + ey = f, \quad (11)$$

which is special in that it includes no xy -term. We found that its graph in the xy -plane is always a **conic section**—a parabola, ellipse, or hyperbola—apart from “degenerate cases” of the following five types (where you should verify that the graph of each given equation is of the type claimed):

1. A single point; for example, $x^2 + y^2 = 0$,
2. A straight line; for example, $(x - 1)^2 = 0$,
3. Two parallel lines; for example, $(x - 1)^2 = 1$,
4. Two intersecting lines; for example, $x^2 - y^2 = 0$,
5. The empty set; for example, $x^2 + y^2 = -1$.

We may therefore say that the graph of the special second-degree equation in (11) is always a conic section, possibly **degenerate** (any of the exceptional cases just listed).

The same is true of the *general* second-degree equation

$$ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 + dx + ey = f \quad (12)$$

containing a “cross-product” xy -term. But now the graph of this conic section may be rotated in the xy -plane. That is, it takes a standard form such as $u^2/a^2 \pm v^2/b^2 = 1$ only in some *rotated* (and possibly translated) coordinate system. Figure 12.7.24 illustrates what is meant by a “standard form” conic in a rotated coordinate system. It turns out that the computer-plotted ellipse $73x^2 - 72xy + 52y^2 = 100$ shown there has the standard form $\frac{1}{4}u^2 + v^2 = 1$ in the uv -coordinate system obtained by rotating the xy -coordinate system through a counterclockwise angle of $\alpha = \sin^{-1}(\frac{4}{3}) \approx 53^\circ$.

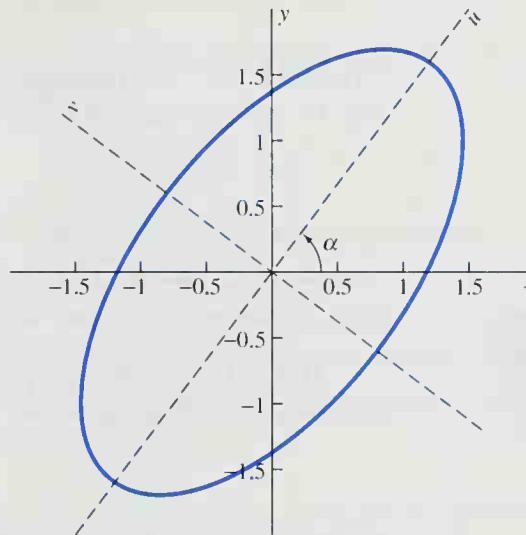


Fig. 12.7.24 The rotated ellipse
 $73x^2 - 72xy + 52y^2 = 100$

Here we will not discuss the determination of such rotation angles and standard rotated forms. Instead, let us take the view that we can use an appropriate computer system to plot the graph of a given equation of the form

$$ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 = f \quad (13)$$

(with only second-degree terms appearing on the left), but we would like to know what determines the type of conic section we should expect to see. For those familiar with matrix notation and multiplication, the reason for writing $2b$ rather than b in Eq. (13) is that this equation then takes the matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 1$$

with *coefficient matrix*

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix}.$$

The nature of the graph of Eq. (13) is then determined by the two roots of the quadratic equation

$$\begin{vmatrix} a - \lambda & b \\ b & c - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (a - \lambda)(c - \lambda) - b^2 = \lambda^2 - (a + c)\lambda + (ac - b^2) = 0. \quad (14)$$

The following result is established in elementary linear algebra textbooks.

Theorem 1 Classification of Conic Sections

In an appropriate rotated uv -coordinate system Eq. (13) takes the form $\lambda_1 u^2 + \lambda_2 v^2 = f$, where λ_1 and λ_2 are the two roots of the quadratic equation in (14). Assuming that $f > 0$, it then follows that:

- ▼ If both λ_1 and λ_2 are positive, then the graph of Eq. (13) is an ellipse.
- ▼ If either λ_1 and λ_2 is positive and the other is negative, then the graph of Eq. (13) is a hyperbola.

EXAMPLE 14 For the equation $73x^2 - 72xy + 52y^2 = 100$ whose graph is shown in Fig. 12.7.24, we have $a = 72$, $b = -36$, and $c = 52$, so Eq. (14) takes the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} 72 - \lambda & -36 \\ -36 & 52 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (72 - \lambda)(52 - \lambda) - 36^2 = \lambda^2 - 125\lambda + 2500 = 0$$

with roots $\lambda_1 = 100$ and $\lambda_2 = 25$. The fact that both roots are positive is consistent with the (rotated) ellipse we see in the figure. ■

The nature of the graph of Eq. (13) determines the nature of the graph of the three-dimensional equation

$$z = ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2, \quad (15)$$

a “quadratic surface” in space. An ellipse in Eq. (13) corresponds to elliptical horizontal trace curves on this surface—which is then an elliptic paraboloid, and a hyperbola in Eq. (13) corresponds to hyperbolic horizontal trace curves on a hyperbolic paraboloid. Of course, this paraboloid is also rotated in space in the same fashion that the ellipse or hyperbola is rotated in the plane. Here again, we take the view that we’ll ordinarily use a computer to plot the graph of an equation like (15), but we’d like to know what sort of picture to expect to see.

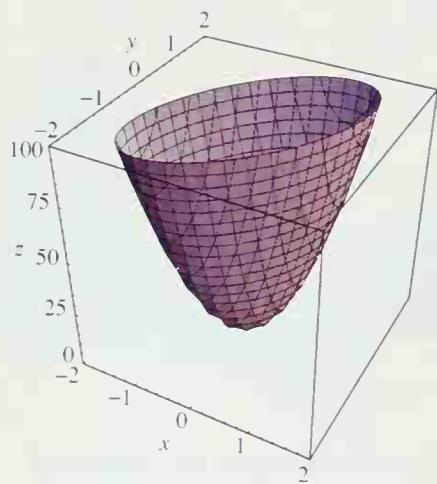


Fig. 12.7.25
 $z = 73x^2 - 72xy + 52y^2$

Theorem 2 Classification of Quadratic Surfaces

Let λ_1 and λ_2 be the two roots of the quadratic equation in (14).

- ▼ If both λ_1 and λ_2 are nonzero and have the same sign, then the graph of Eq. (15) is an elliptic paraboloid.
- ▼ If either λ_1 or λ_2 is positive and the other is negative, then the graph of Eq. (15) is a hyperbolic paraboloid.

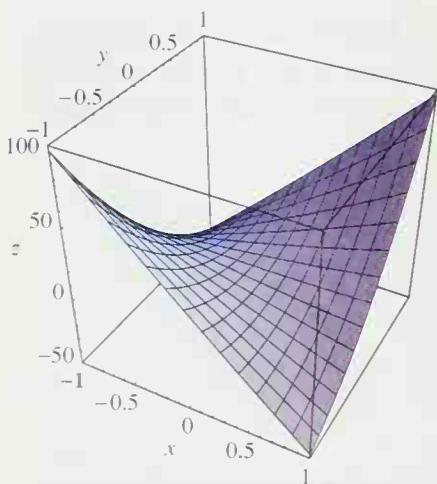


Fig. 12.7.26
 $z = 2x^2 + 72xy + 23y^2$

EXAMPLE 15 Figure 12.7.25 shows the elliptic paraboloid $z = 73x^2 - 72xy + 52y^2$ for which $\lambda_1 = 100$ and $\lambda_2 = 25$, as in Example 14. Figure 12.7.26 shows the graph of the equation $z = 2x^2 + 72xy + 23y^2$, for which Eq. (14) takes the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 36 \\ 36 & 23 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (2 - \lambda)(23 - \lambda) - 36^2 = \lambda^2 - 25\lambda - 1250 = 0.$$

This equation has roots $\lambda_1 = 50$ and $\lambda_2 = -25$. Theorem 2 then implies that the graph is a hyperbolic paraboloid. Do you see the saddle point in Fig. 12.7.26? ■

Apart from certain degenerate cases, the graph in space of a second-degree equation of the general form

$$ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + 2dxy + 2exz + 2fyz + hx + ky + lz = g \quad (16)$$

is a rotated and/or translated quadric surface. For brevity, we will assume that $h = k = l = 0$, so there are no linear terms. Thus the equation takes the form

$$ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + 2dxy + 2exz + 2fyz = g. \quad (17)$$

The nature of the graph of Eq. (17) is determined by the roots of the equation

$$\begin{vmatrix} a - \lambda & d & e \\ d & b - \lambda & f \\ e & f & c - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0. \quad (18)$$

When the determinant is expanded and coefficients are collected, the result is a cubic equation in λ of the form

$$\lambda^3 + p\lambda^2 + q\lambda + r = 0. \quad (19)$$

Suppose that Eq. (17) is rewritten (if necessary) so that $g > 0$, and let λ_1 , λ_2 , and λ_3 denote the three solutions of Eq. (19). Then a three-dimensional analogue of Theorem 1 implies that:

- ▼ If λ_1 , λ_2 , and λ_3 are all positive, then the graph of Eq. (17) is an ellipsoid.
- ▼ If λ_1 , λ_2 , and λ_3 are all nonzero but not all positive, then the graph of Eq. (17) is a hyperboloid.

In the hyperbolic case, the number of sheets of the hyperboloid is equal to the number of negative roots.

EXAMPLE 16 Given the second-degree equation

$$5x^2 + 7y^2 + 5z^2 + 2xy + 6xz + 2yz = 30, \quad (20)$$

the equation

$$\begin{vmatrix} 5 - \lambda & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 7 - \lambda & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 5 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (5 - \lambda) \begin{vmatrix} 7 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 5 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} - (1) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} + (3) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 7 - \lambda \\ 3 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

in (18) simplifies to the cubic equation

$$\lambda^3 - 17\lambda^2 + 84\lambda - 108 = 0. \quad (21)$$

We need only graph such an equation to determine the signs of its solutions. The graph in Fig. 12.7.27 shows that all three solutions ($\lambda_1 = 9$, $\lambda_2 = 6$, and $\lambda_3 = 2$) of Eq. (21) are positive, so the graph of Eq. (20) is an ellipsoid. Figure 12.7.28 shows a computer plot of this quadric.

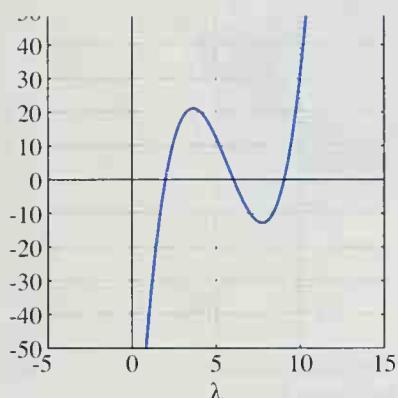


Fig. 12.7.27 The graph
 $w = \lambda^3 - 17\lambda^2 + 84\lambda - 108$

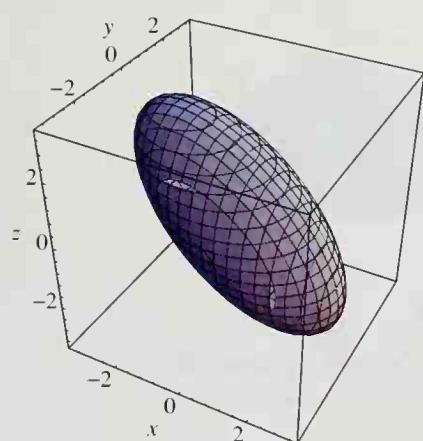


Fig. 12.7.28 $5x^2 + 7y^2 + 5z^2 + 2xy + 6xz + 2yz = 30$

In Section 13.9 we will see how to find the major and minor semiaxes of a rotated ellipse (as in Fig. 12.7.24) or ellipsoid (as in Fig. 12.7.28).

12.7 PROBLEMS

Describe and sketch the graphs of the equations given in Problems 1 through 30.

1. $3x + 2y + 10z = 20$
2. $3x + 2y = 30$
3. $x^2 + y^2 = 9$
4. $y^2 = x^2 - 9$
5. $xy = 4$
6. $z = 4x^2 + 4y^2$
7. $z = 4x^2 + y^2$
8. $4x^2 + 9y^2 = 36$
9. $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$
10. $y^2 + z^2 = 1$
11. $2z = x^2 + y^2$
12. $x = 1 + y^2 + z^2$
13. $z^2 = 4(x^2 + y^2)$
14. $y^2 = 4x$
15. $x^2 = 4z + 8$
16. $x = 9 - z^2$
17. $4x^2 + y^2 = 4$
18. $x^2 + z^2 = 4$
19. $x^2 = 4y^2 + 9z^2$
20. $x^2 - 4y^2 = z$
21. $x^2 + y^2 + 4z = 0$
22. $x = \sin y$
23. $x = 2y^2 - z^2$
24. $x^2 + 4y^2 + 2z^2 = 4$
25. $x^2 + y^2 - 9z^2 = 9$
26. $x^2 - y^2 - 9z^2 = 9$
27. $y = 4x^2 + 9z^2$
28. $y^2 + 4x^2 - 9z^2 = 36$
29. $y^2 - 9x^2 - 4z^2 = 36$
30. $x^2 + 9y^2 + 4z^2 = 36$

Problems 31 through 40 give the equation of a curve in one of the coordinate planes. Write an equation for the surface generated by revolving this curve around the indicated axis. Then sketch the surface.

31. $x = 2z^2$; the x -axis
32. $4x^2 + 9y^2 = 36$; the y -axis
33. $y^2 - z^2 = 1$; the z -axis
34. $z = 4 - x^2$; the z -axis
35. $y^2 = 4x$; the x -axis
36. $yz = 1$; the z -axis
37. $z = \exp(-x^2)$; the z -axis
38. $(y - z)^2 + z^2 = 1$; the z -axis
39. The line $z = 2x$; the z -axis
40. The line $z = 2x$; the x -axis

In Problems 41 through 48, describe the traces of the given surfaces in planes of the indicated type.

41. $x^2 + 4y^2 = 4$; in horizontal planes (those parallel to the xy -plane)
42. $x^2 + 4y^2 + 4z^2 = 4$; in horizontal planes
43. $x^2 + 4y^2 + 4z^2 = 4$; in planes parallel to the yz -plane
44. $z = 4x^2 + 9y^2$; in horizontal planes
45. $z = 4x^2 + 9y^2$; in planes parallel to the yz -plane
46. $z = xy$; in horizontal planes
47. $z = xy$; in vertical planes through the z -axis
48. $x^2 - y^2 + z^2 = 1$; in both horizontal and vertical planes parallel to the coordinate axes
49. Prove that the triangles OAC and OBC in Fig. 12.7.1 are congruent, and thereby conclude that the trace of a sphere in an intersecting plane is a circle.
50. Prove that the projection into the yz -plane of the curve of intersection of the surfaces $x = 1 - y^2$ and $x = y^2 + z^2$ is an ellipse (Fig. 12.7.29).

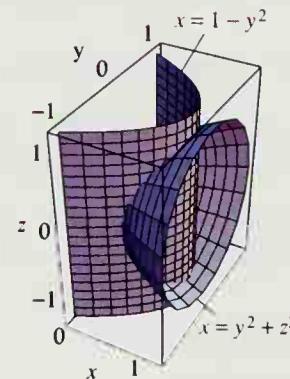


Fig. 12.7.29 The paraboloid and parabolic cylinder of Problem 50

51. Show that the projection into the xy -plane of the intersection of the plane $z = y$ and the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ is a circle (Fig. 12.7.30).

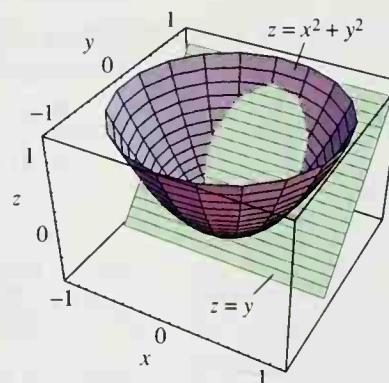


Fig. 12.7.30 The plane and paraboloid of Problem 51

52. Prove that the projection into the xz -plane of the intersection of the paraboloids $y = 2x^2 + 3z^2$ and $y = 5 - 3x^2 - 2z^2$ is a circle (Fig. 12.7.31).

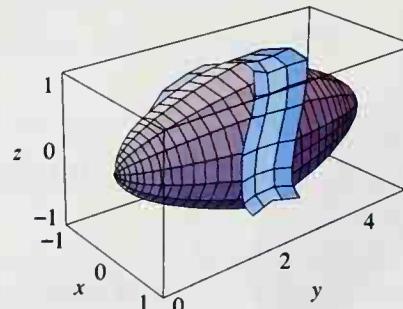


Fig. 12.7.31 The two paraboloids of Problem 52

53. Prove that the projection into the xy -plane of the intersection of the plane $x + y + z = 1$ and the ellipsoid $x^2 + 4y^2 + 4z^2 = 4$ is an ellipse.

54. Show that the curve of intersection of the plane $z = ky$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is an ellipse. (Suggestion: Introduce uv -coordinates into the plane $z = ky$ as follows: Let the u -axis be the original x -axis and let the v -axis be the line $z = ky, x = 0$.)

In Problems 55 through 60, determine whether the graph (in the xy -plane) of the given equation is an ellipse or a hyperbola. Check your answer graphically if you have access to a computer algebra system with a “contour plotting” facility.

55. $3x^2 + 2xy + 3y^2 = 8$ 56. $5x^2 + 2xy + 5y^2 = 12$
 57. $9x^2 + 4xy + 6y^2 = 19$ 58. $7x^2 + 12xy - 2y^2 = 21$
 59. $34x^2 - 24xy + 41y^2 = 99$
 60. $40x^2 + 36xy + 25y^2 = 101$

In Problems 61 through 66, determine whether the graph of the given equation is an elliptic or a hyperbolic paraboloid.

Check your answer graphically by plotting the surface.

61. $z = 3x^2 - 2xy + 3y^2$ 62. $z = x^2 + 6xy + y^2$
 63. $z = 4x^2 + 6xy - 4y^2$ 64. $z = 9x^2 - 4xy + 6y^2$
 65. $z = 33x^2 + 8xy + 18y^2$
 66. $z = 9x^2 + 24xy + 16y^2$

In Problems 67 through 72, determine whether the graph of the given equation is a paraboloid or a hyperboloid. Check your answer graphically if you have access to a computer algebra system with a “contour plotting” facility.

67. $x^2 + y^2 + 2z^2 + 6xy = 10$
 68. $2x^2 + 5y^2 + 2z^2 + 2xz = 11$
 69. $6xy + 8yz = 14$
 70. $3x^2 + 2y^2 + 5z^2 - 2xy - 4xz - 2yz = 20$
 71. $3x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2 + 4xy + 2xz + 6yz = 19$
 72. $x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 + 2xy + 8xz + 2yz = 18$

12.8 CYLINDRICAL AND SPHERICAL COORDINATES

Rectangular coordinates provide only one of several useful ways of describing points, curves, and surfaces in space. Here we discuss two additional coordinate systems in three-dimensional space. Each is a generalization of polar coordinates in the coordinate plane.

Recall from Section 10.2 that the relationship between the rectangular coordinates (x, y) and the polar coordinates (r, θ) of a point in space is given by

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta \quad (1)$$

and

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2, \quad \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \quad \text{if } x \neq 0. \quad (2)$$

Read these relationships directly from the right triangle in Fig. 12.8.1.

Cylindrical Coordinates

The **cylindrical coordinates** (r, θ, z) of a point P in space are natural hybrids of its polar and rectangular coordinates. We use the polar coordinates (r, θ) of the point in the plane with rectangular coordinates (x, y) and use the same z -coordinate as in rectangular coordinates. (The cylindrical coordinates of a point P in space are illustrated in Fig. 12.8.2.) This means that we can obtain the relations between the rectangular coordinates (x, y, z) of the point P and its cylindrical coordinates (r, θ, z) by simply adjoining the identity $z = z$ to the equations in (1) and (2):

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta, \quad z = z \quad (3)$$

and

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2, \quad \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}, \quad z = z. \quad (4)$$

Fig. 12.8.1 The relation between rectangular and polar coordinates in the xy -plane

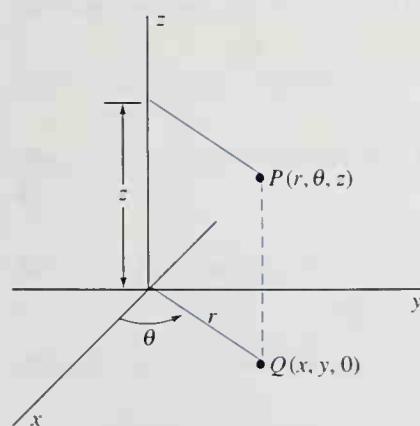


Fig. 12.8.2 Finding the cylindrical coordinates of the point P

We can use these equations to convert from rectangular to cylindrical coordinates and vice versa.

EXAMPLE 1 (a) Find the rectangular coordinates of the point P having cylindrical coordinates $(4, \frac{5}{3}\pi, 7)$. (b) Find the cylindrical coordinates of the point Q having rectangular coordinates $(-2, 2, 5)$.

Solution (a) We apply the equations in (3) to write

$$x = 4 \cos\left(\frac{5}{3}\pi\right) = 4 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = 2,$$

$$y = 4 \sin\left(\frac{5}{3}\pi\right) = 4 \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}\right) = -2\sqrt{3},$$

$$z = 7.$$

Thus the point P has rectangular coordinates $(2, -2\sqrt{3}, 7)$.

(b) Noting first that the point Q is in the second quadrant of the xy -plane, we apply the equations in (4) and write

$$r = \sqrt{(-2)^2 + 2^2} = 2\sqrt{2},$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{-2}{2} = -1, \text{ so } \theta = \frac{3\pi}{4},$$

$$z = 5.$$

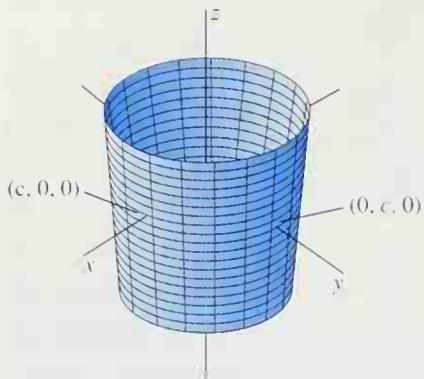


Fig. 12.8.3 The cylinder $r = c$

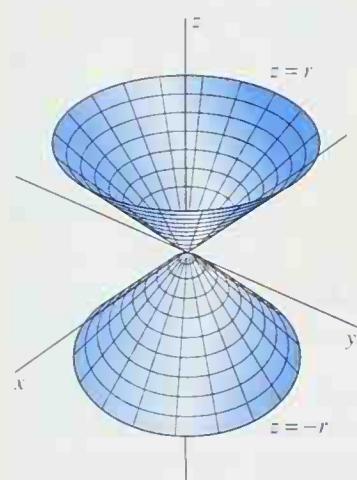


Fig. 12.8.4 The cone $z^2 = r^2$

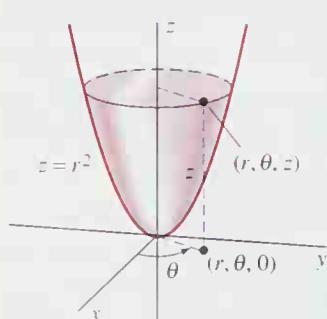


Fig. 12.8.5 The paraboloid $z = r^2$

Thus the point Q has cylindrical coordinates $(2\sqrt{2}, \frac{3}{4}\pi, 5)$. We can add any even integral multiple of π to θ , so other cylindrical coordinates for Q are $(2\sqrt{2}, \frac{11}{4}\pi, 5)$ and $(2\sqrt{2}, -\frac{5}{4}\pi, 5)$. ■

The **graph** of an equation involving r , θ , and z is the set of all points in space having cylindrical coordinates that satisfy the equation. The name *cylindrical coordinates* arises from the fact that the graph in space of the equation $r = c$ (a constant) is a cylinder of radius c symmetric around the z -axis (Fig. 12.8.3). Cylindrical coordinates are useful in describing other surfaces that are symmetric around the z -axis. The rectangular-coordinates equation of such a surface typically involves x and y only in the combination $x^2 + y^2$, for which we can then substitute r^2 to get the cylindrical-coordinates equation.

EXAMPLE 2 (a) The sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ has cylindrical-coordinates equation $r^2 + z^2 = a^2$.

(b) The cone $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ has cylindrical-coordinates equation $z^2 = r^2$. Taking square roots, we get $z = \pm r$, and the two signs give (for $r \geq 0$) the two nappes of the cone (Fig. 12.8.4).

(c) The paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ has cylindrical-coordinates equation $z = r^2$ (Fig. 12.8.5).

(d) The ellipsoid $(x/3)^2 + (y/3)^2 + (z/2)^2 = 1$ has cylindrical-coordinates equation $(r/3)^2 + (z/2)^2 = 1$ (Fig. 12.8.6). ■

EXAMPLE 3 Sketch the region that is bounded by the surfaces with cylindrical equations $z = r^2$ and $z = 8 - r^2$.

Solution If we substitute $r^2 = x^2 + y^2$ in the given equations, we get the familiar rectangular equations

$$z = x^2 + y^2 \quad \text{and} \quad z = 8 - x^2 - y^2$$

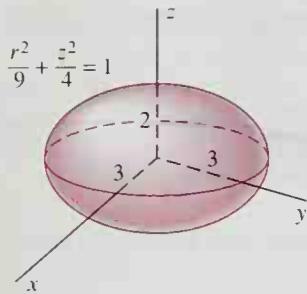


Fig. 12.8.6 The ellipsoid

$$\frac{r^2}{9} + \frac{z^2}{4} = 1$$

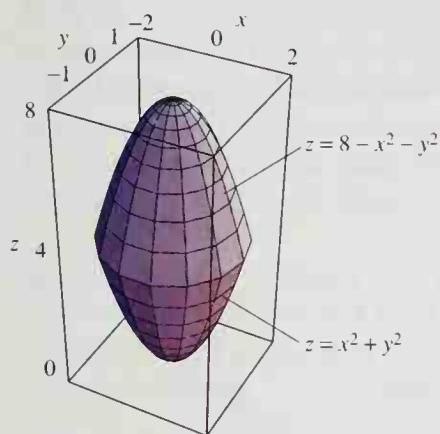


Fig. 12.8.7 The solid of Example 3

that describe paraboloids opening upward from $(0, 0, 0)$ and downward from $(0, 0, 8)$, respectively. Figure 12.8.7 shows a computer plot of the region in space that is bounded below by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and above by the paraboloid $z = 8 - x^2 - y^2$.

REMARK The relations $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$ play an important role in the computer plotting of figures symmetric around the z -axis. For instance, the paraboloid $z = 8 - r^2$ of Example 3 can be plotted using computer algebra system syntax like the *Maple* command

```
plot3d( [r*cos(t), r*sin(t), 8 - r^2],
        r=0..2, t=0..2*Pi );
```

or the *Mathematica* command

```
ParametricPlot3D[ {r*Cos[t], r*Sin[t], 8 - r^2},
{r,0,2}, {t,0,2*Pi} ];
```

In either command the paraboloid is described parametrically by giving x , y , and z in terms of r and t (for θ).

Spherical Coordinates

Figure 12.8.8 shows the **spherical coordinates** (ρ, ϕ, θ) of the point P in space. The first spherical coordinate ρ is simply the distance $\rho = |OP|$ from the origin O to P . The second spherical coordinate ϕ is the angle between OP and the positive z -axis. Thus we may always choose ϕ in the interval $[0, \pi]$, although it is not restricted to that domain. Finally, θ is the familiar angle θ of cylindrical coordinates. That is, θ is the angular coordinate of the vertical projection Q of P into the xy -plane. Thus we may always choose θ in the interval $[0, 2\pi]$, although it is not restricted to that domain. Both angles ϕ and θ are always measured in radians.

The name *spherical coordinates* is used because the graph of the equation $\rho = c$ (c is a constant) is a sphere—more precisely, a spherical surface—of radius c centered at the origin. The equation $\phi = c$ (a constant) describes (one nappe of) a cone if $0 < c < \pi/2$ or if $\pi/2 < c < \pi$ (Fig. 12.8.9). The spherical equation of the xy -plane is $\phi = \pi/2$.

From the right triangle OPQ of Fig. 12.8.8, we see that

$$r = \rho \sin \phi \quad \text{and} \quad z = \rho \cos \phi. \quad (5)$$

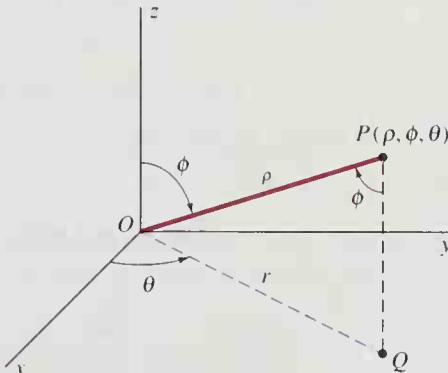


Fig. 12.8.8 Finding the spherical coordinates of the point P

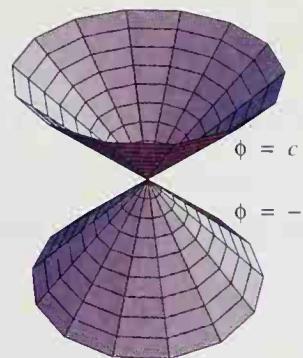


Fig. 12.8.9 The two nappes of a 45° cone; $\phi = \pi/2$ is the spherical equation of the xy -plane.

Indeed, these equations are most easily remembered by visualizing this triangle. Substitution of the equations in (5) into those in (3) yields

$$x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \quad y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \quad z = \rho \cos \phi. \quad (6)$$

These three equations give the relationship between rectangular and spherical coordinates. Also useful is the formula

$$\rho^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2, \quad (7)$$

a consequence of the distance formula.

It is important to note the order in which the spherical coordinates (ρ, ϕ, θ) of a point P are written—first the distance ρ of P from the origin, then the angle ϕ down from the positive z -axis, and last the counterclockwise angle θ measured from the positive x -axis. You may find this mnemonic device to be helpful: The consonants in the word “raft” remind us, in order, of *rho*, *fee* (for ϕ), and *theta*. *Warning:* In some other physics and mathematics books, a different order, or even different symbols, may be used.

Given the rectangular coordinates (x, y, z) of the point P , one systematic method for finding the spherical coordinates (ρ, ϕ, θ) of P is this. First we find the cylindrical coordinates r and θ of P with the aid of the triangle in Fig. 12.8.10(a). Then we find ρ and ϕ from the triangle in Fig. 12.8.10(b).

EXAMPLE 4 (a) Find the rectangular coordinates of the point P having the spherical coordinates $(8, \frac{5}{6}\pi, \frac{1}{3}\pi)$. (b) Approximate the spherical coordinates of the point Q having rectangular coordinates $(-3, -4, -12)$.

Solution We apply the equations in (6) to write

$$x = 8 \sin\left(\frac{5}{6}\pi\right) \cos\left(\frac{1}{3}\pi\right) = 8 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = 2,$$

$$y = 8 \sin\left(\frac{5}{6}\pi\right) \sin\left(\frac{1}{3}\pi\right) = 8 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}\right) = 2\sqrt{3},$$

$$z = 8 \cos\left(\frac{5}{6}\pi\right) = 8 \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}\right) = -4\sqrt{3}.$$

Thus the point P has rectangular coordinates $(2, 2\sqrt{3}, -4\sqrt{3})$.

(b) First we note that $r = \sqrt{(-3)^2 + (-4)^2} = \sqrt{25} = 5$ and that

$$\rho = \sqrt{(-3)^2 + (-4)^2 + (-12)^2} = \sqrt{169} = 13.$$

Next,

$$\phi = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{z}{\rho}\right) = \cos^{-1}\left(-\frac{12}{13}\right) \approx 2.7468 \text{ (rad)}.$$

Finally, the point $(-3, -4)$ lies in the third quadrant of the xy -plane, so

$$\theta = \pi + \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{3}{4}\right) \approx 3.7851 \text{ (rad)}.$$

Thus the approximate spherical coordinates of the point Q are $(13, 2.7468, 3.7851)$. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Find a spherical equation of the paraboloid with rectangular equation $z = x^2 + y^2$.

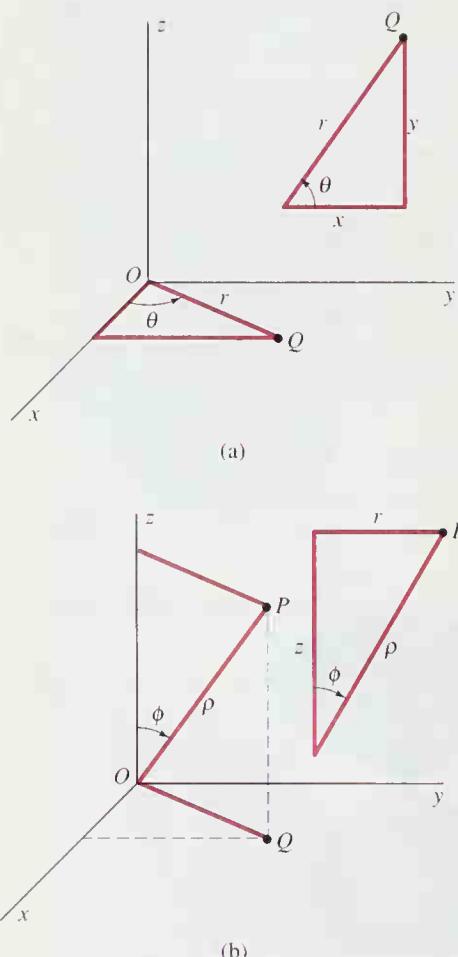


Fig. 12.8.10 Triangles used in finding spherical coordinates

Solution We substitute $z = \rho \cos \phi$ from Eq. (5) and $x^2 + y^2 = r^2 = \rho^2 \sin^2 \phi$ from Eq. (6). This gives $\rho \cos \phi = \rho^2 \sin^2 \phi$. Cancellation of ρ gives $\cos \phi = \rho \sin^2 \phi$; that is,

$$\rho = \csc \phi \cot \phi$$

is the spherical equation of the paraboloid. We get the whole paraboloid by using ϕ in the range $0 < \phi \leq \pi/2$. Note that $\phi = \pi/2$ gives the point $\rho = 0$ that might otherwise have been lost by canceling ρ . ■

EXAMPLE 6 Determine the graph of the spherical equation $\rho = 2 \cos \phi$.

Solution Multiplication by ρ gives

$$\rho^2 = 2\rho \cos \phi;$$

then substitution of $\rho^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ and $z = \rho \cos \phi$ yields

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2z$$

as the rectangular equation of the graph. Completion of the square in z now gives

$$x^2 + y^2 + (z - 1)^2 = 1,$$

so the graph is a sphere with center $(0, 0, 1)$ and radius 1. It is tangent to the xy -plane at the origin (Fig. 12.8.11). ■

EXAMPLE 7 Determine the graph of the spherical equation $\rho = \sin \phi \sin \theta$.

Solution We first multiply each side by ρ and get $\rho^2 = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta$. We then use Eqs. (6) and (7) and find that $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = y$. This is a rectangular equation of a sphere with center $(0, \frac{1}{2}, 0)$ and radius $\frac{1}{2}$. ■

REMARK The relations in (6) are used in computer plotting of spherical-coordinate surfaces. For instance, the sphere $\rho = 2 \cos \phi$ of Example 6 can be plotted using computer algebra system syntax such as the *Maple* commands

```
p := 2*cos(f);
plot3d( [p*sin(f)*cos(t), p*sin(f)*sin(t), p*cos(f)],
        f = 0..Pi/2, t = 0..2*Pi );
```

or the *Mathematica* commands

```
p = 2 Cos[f];
ParametricPlot3D[
  {p Sin[f] Cos[t], p Sin[f] Sin[t], p Cos[f]},
  {f, 0, Pi/2}, {t, 0, 2 Pi}];
```

In each case the sphere is described parametrically by writing p for ρ and giving x , y , and z in terms of f (for ϕ) and t (for θ).

*Latitude and Longitude

A **great circle** of a spherical surface is a circle formed by the intersection of the surface with a plane through the center of the sphere. Thus a great circle of a spherical surface is a circle (in the surface) that has the same radius of the sphere. Therefore a great circle is a circle of maximum possible circumference that lies on the sphere. It's

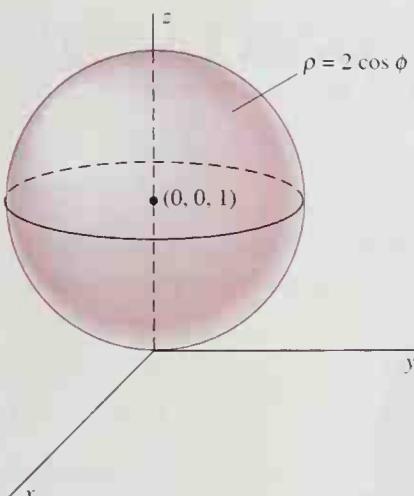


Fig. 12.8.11 The sphere of Example 6

easy to see that any two points on a spherical surface lie on a great circle (uniquely determined unless the two points lie on the ends of a diameter of the sphere). In the calculus of variations, it is shown that the shortest distance between two such points—measured along the curved surface—is the shorter of the two arcs of the great circle that contains them. The surprise is that the *shortest* distance is found by using the *largest* circle.

The spherical coordinates ϕ and θ are closely related to the latitude and longitude of points on the surface of the earth. Assume that the earth is a sphere with radius $\rho = 3960$ mi. We begin with the **prime meridian** (a **meridian** is a great semi-circle connecting the North and South Poles) through Greenwich, England, just outside London. This is the point marked G in Fig. 12.8.12.

We take the z -axis through the North Pole and the x -axis through the point where the prime meridian intersects the equator. The **latitude** α and (west) **longitude** β of a point P in the Northern Hemisphere are given by the equations

$$\alpha = 90^\circ - \phi^\circ \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = 360^\circ - \theta^\circ, \quad (8)$$

where ϕ° and θ° are the angular spherical coordinates, measured in *degrees*, of P . (That is, ϕ° and θ° denote the degree equivalents of the angles ϕ and θ , respectively, which are measured in radians unless otherwise specified.) Thus the latitude α is measured northward from the equator and the longitude β is measured westward from the prime meridian.

EXAMPLE 8 Find the great-circle distance between New York (latitude 40.75° north, longitude 74° west) and London (latitude 51.5° north, longitude 0°). See Fig. 12.8.13.

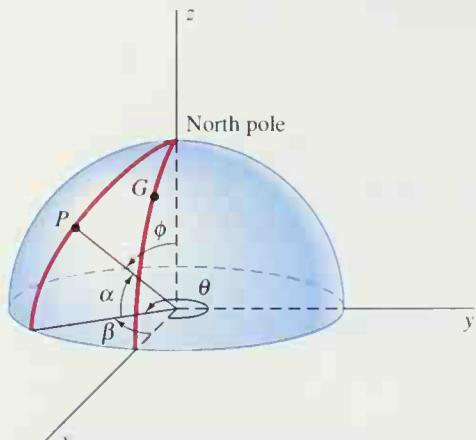


Fig. 12.8.12 The relations among latitude, longitude, and spherical coordinates

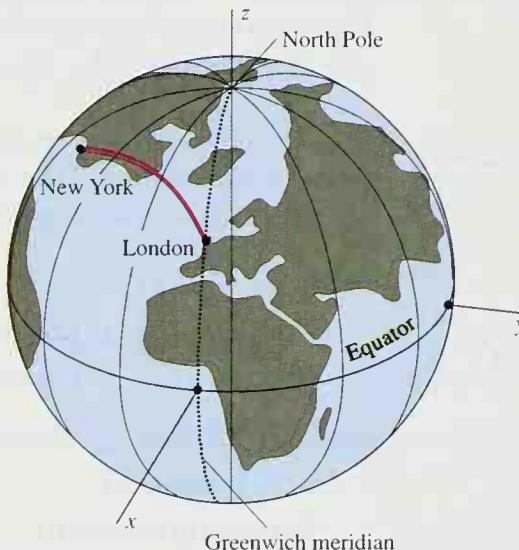


Fig. 12.8.13 Finding the great-circle distance d from New York to London (Example 8)

Solution From the equations in (8), we find that $\phi^\circ = 49.25^\circ$, $\theta^\circ = 286^\circ$ for New York, and $\phi^\circ = 38.5^\circ$, $\theta^\circ = 360^\circ$ (or 0°) for London. Hence the angular spherical coordinates of New York are $\phi = (49.25/180)\pi$, $\theta = (286/180)\pi$, and those of London are $\phi = (38.5/180)\pi$, $\theta = 0$. With these values of ϕ and θ and with $\rho = 3960$ (mi), the equations in (6) give the rectangular coordinates

New York: $P_1(826.90, -2883.74, 2584.93)$

and

London: $P_2(2465.16, 0.0, 3099.13)$.

The angle γ between the radius vectors $\mathbf{u} = \overrightarrow{OP_1}$ and $\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{OP_2}$ in Fig. 12.8.14 satisfies the equation

$$\begin{aligned}\cos \gamma &= \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}|} \\ &= \frac{826.90 \cdot 2465.16 - 2883.74 \cdot 0 + 2584.93 \cdot 3099.13}{(3960)^2} \approx 0.641.\end{aligned}$$

Thus γ is approximately 0.875 (rad). Hence the great-circle distance between New York and London is close to

$$d = 3960 \cdot 0.875 \approx 3465 \text{ (mi)},$$

about 5576 km. ■

12.8 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 6, find the rectangular coordinates of the point with the given cylindrical coordinates.

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. $(1, \frac{1}{2}\pi, 2)$ | 2. $(3, \frac{3}{2}\pi, -1)$ |
| 3. $(2, \frac{3}{4}\pi, 3)$ | 4. $(3, \frac{7}{6}\pi, -1)$ |
| 5. $(2, \frac{1}{3}\pi, -5)$ | 6. $(4, \frac{5}{3}\pi, 6)$ |

In Problems 7 through 12, find the rectangular coordinates of the points with the given spherical coordinates (ρ, ϕ, θ) .

- | | |
|---|---|
| 7. $(2, 0, \pi)$ | 8. $(3, \pi, 0)$ |
| 9. $(3, \frac{1}{2}\pi, \pi)$ | 10. $(4, \frac{1}{6}\pi, \frac{2}{3}\pi)$ |
| 11. $(2, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \frac{3}{2}\pi)$ | 12. $(6, \frac{3}{4}\pi, \frac{4}{3}\pi)$ |

In Problems 13 through 22, find both the cylindrical coordinates and the spherical coordinates of the point P with the given rectangular coordinates.

- | | |
|-------------------|---------------------|
| 13. $P(0, 0, 5)$ | 14. $P(0, 0, -3)$ |
| 15. $P(1, 1, 0)$ | 16. $P(2, -2, 0)$ |
| 17. $P(1, 1, 1)$ | 18. $P(-1, 1, -1)$ |
| 19. $P(2, 1, -2)$ | 20. $P(-2, -1, -2)$ |
| 21. $P(3, 4, 12)$ | 22. $P(-2, 4, -12)$ |

In Problems 23 through 38, describe the graph of the given equation. (It is understood that equations including r are in cylindrical coordinates and those including ρ or ϕ are in spherical coordinates.)

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 23. $r = 5$ | 24. $\theta = 3\pi/4$ |
| 25. $\theta = \pi/4$ | 26. $\rho = 5$ |
| 27. $\phi = \pi/6$ | 28. $\phi = 5\pi/6$ |
| 29. $\phi = \pi/2$ | 30. $\phi = \pi$ |

- | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| 31. $z^2 + 2r^2 = 4$ | 32. $z^2 - 2r^2 = 4$ |
| 33. $r = 4 \cos \theta$ | 34. $\rho = 4 \cos \phi$ |
| 35. $r^2 - 4r + 3 = 0$ | 36. $\rho^2 - 4\rho + 3 = 0$ |
| 37. $z^2 = r^4$ | 38. $\rho^3 + 4\rho = 0$ |

In Problems 39 through 44, convert the given equation both to cylindrical and to spherical coordinates.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------|
| 39. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 25$ | 40. $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$ |
| 41. $x + y + z = 1$ | 42. $x + y = 4$ |
| 43. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = x + y + z$ | |
| 44. $z = x^2 - y^2$ | |

In Problems 45 through 52, describe and sketch the surface or solid described by the given equations and/or inequalities.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 45. $r = 3, -1 \leq z \leq 1$ | 46. $\rho = 2, 0 \leq \phi \leq \pi/2$ |
| 47. $\rho = 2, \pi/3 \leq \phi \leq 2\pi/3$ | |
| 48. $0 \leq r \leq 3, -2 \leq z \leq 2$ | |
| 49. $1 \leq r \leq 3, -2 \leq z \leq 2$ | |
| 50. $0 \leq \rho \leq 2, 0 \leq \phi \leq \pi/2$ | |
| 51. $3 \leq \rho \leq 5$ | |
| 52. $0 \leq \phi \leq \pi/6, 0 \leq \rho \leq 10$ | |
| 53. The parabola $z = x^2, y = 0$ is rotated around the z -axis. Write a cylindrical equation for the surface thereby generated. | |
| 54. The hyperbola $y^2 - z^2 = 1, x = 0$ is rotated around the z -axis. Write a cylindrical equation for the surface thereby generated. | |
| 55. A sphere of radius 2 is centered at the origin. A hole of radius 1 is drilled through the sphere, with the axis of the | |

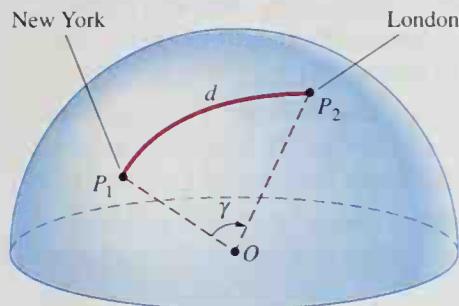


Fig. 12.8.14 The great-circle arc between New York and London (Example 8)

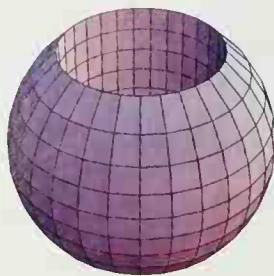


Fig. 12.8.15 The sphere-with-hole of Problem 55

hole lying on the z -axis. Describe the solid region that remains (Fig. 12.8.15) in (a) cylindrical coordinates; (b) spherical coordinates.

56. Find the great-circle distance in miles and in kilometers from Atlanta (latitude 33.75° north, longitude 84.40° west) to San Francisco (latitude 37.78° north, longitude 122.42° west).
57. Find the great-circle distance in miles and in kilometers from Fairbanks (latitude 64.80° north, longitude 147.85°

west) to St. Petersburg, Russia (latitude 59.91° north, longitude 30.43° east of Greenwich—alternatively, longitude 329.57° west).

58. Because Fairbanks and St. Petersburg, Russia (see Problem 57) are at almost the same latitude, a plane could fly from one to the other roughly along the 62nd parallel of latitude. Accurately estimate the length of such a trip both in kilometers and in miles.
59. In flying the great-circle route from Fairbanks to St. Petersburg, Russia (see Problem 57), how close in kilometers and in miles to the North Pole would a plane fly?
60. The vertex of a right circular cone of radius R and height H is located at the origin and its axis lies on the nonnegative z -axis. Describe the solid cone in cylindrical coordinates.
61. Describe the cone of Problem 60 in spherical coordinates.
62. In flying the great-circle route from New York to London (Example 8), an airplane initially flies generally east-northeast. Does the plane ever fly at a latitude *higher* than that of London? (*Suggestion:* Express the z -coordinate of the plane's route as a function of x , then maximize z .)

12.8 PROJECT: PERSONAL CYLINDRICAL AND SPHERICAL PLOTS

As remarked in this section, the parametric plotting facilities of computing systems such as *Maple* and *Mathematica* can be used to plot cylindrical and spherical coordinate surfaces. Your task in this project is to use a computer to produce some personal plots that are worth keeping. You might warm up by plotting some cylinders and spheres of different sizes, then some specified parts like upper and lower hemispheres.

For practice in combining two or more surfaces in a single figure, try to reproduce the sphere-with-hole of Fig. 12.8.15. You'll need to plan the figure carefully, deciding in advance what the radii of the sphere and cylinder should be, and what should be the z -range of the cylindrical part and the ϕ -range of the spherical part. Once you have constructed two (or more) surfaces with commands of the general form

```
surface1 := plot( ... ); surface2 := plot( ... );
```

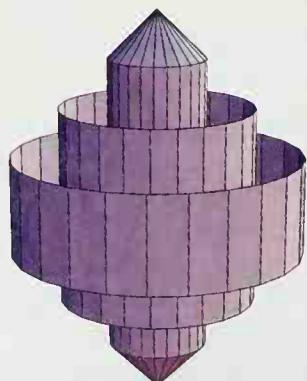


Fig. 12.8.16 Nested cylinders

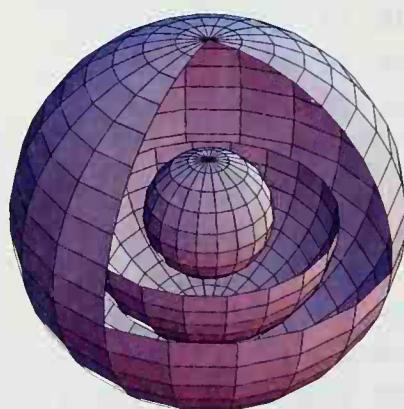


Fig. 12.8.17 Nested spheres

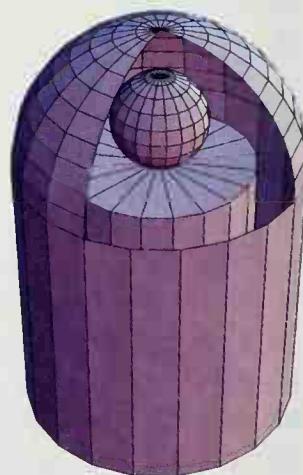


Fig. 12.8.18 An observatory?

you can use syntax such as the *Maple* command `display({surface1, surface2})` or the *Mathematica* command `Show[surface1, surface2]` to exhibit them simultaneously.

Many years ago every engineering student was required to go into a machine shop and construct personally a simple object like a lamp with several parts to be machined and assembled. This project is a computer-graphic version of that experience. You are to produce one or more multi-surface “mechanisms” of your own design, using both cylindrical and spherical coordinates for various parts. The nested cylinders of Fig. 12.8.16, the nested spheres of Fig. 12.8.17, and the observatory of Fig. 12.8.18 may provide some ideas, but incorporate some innovations of your own.

CHAPTER 12 REVIEW: Concepts, Definitions, Results

Use the following list as a guide to concepts that you may need to review.

1. Vectors: their definition, length, equality, addition, multiplication by scalars, and dot product
2. The dot (scalar) product of vectors—definition and geometric interpretation
3. Use of the dot product to test perpendicularity of vectors and, more generally, finding the angle between two vectors
4. The cross (vector) product of two vectors—definition and geometric interpretation
5. The scalar triple product of three vectors—definition and geometric interpretation
6. The parametric and symmetric equations of the straight line that passes through a given point and is parallel to a given vector
7. The equation of the plane through a given point normal to a given vector
8. Vector-valued functions, velocity vectors, and acceleration vectors
9. Componentwise differentiation and integration of vector-valued functions
10. The equations of motion of a projectile
11. The velocity and acceleration vectors of a particle moving along a parametric space curve
12. Arc length of a parametric space curve
13. The curvature, unit tangent vector, and principal unit normal vector of a parametric curve in the plane or in space
14. Tangential and normal components of the acceleration vector of a parametric curve
15. Kepler’s three laws of planetary motion
16. The radial and transverse unit vectors
17. Polar decomposition of velocity and acceleration vectors
18. Outline of the derivation of Kepler’s laws from Newton’s law of gravitation
19. Equations of cylinders and of surfaces of revolution
20. The standard examples of quadric surfaces
21. Definition of the cylindrical-coordinate and spherical-coordinate systems, and the equations relating cylindrical and spherical coordinates to rectangular coordinates

CHAPTER 12 Miscellaneous Problems

1. Suppose that M is the midpoint of the segment PQ in space and that A is another point. Show that

$$\overrightarrow{AM} = \frac{1}{2}(\overrightarrow{AP} + \overrightarrow{AQ}).$$

2. Let \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} be nonzero vectors. Define

$$\mathbf{a}_{\parallel} = (\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{a}) \frac{\mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{b}|} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{a}_{\perp} = \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{a}_{\parallel}.$$

Prove that \mathbf{a}_{\perp} is perpendicular to \mathbf{b} .

3. Let P and Q be different points in space. Show that the point R lies on the line through P and Q if and only if there exist numbers a and b such that $a + b = 1$ and $\overrightarrow{OR} = a\overrightarrow{OP} + b\overrightarrow{OQ}$. Conclude that

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\overrightarrow{OP} + (1-t)\overrightarrow{OQ}$$

is a parametric equation of this line.

4. Conclude from the result of Problem 3 that the points P , Q , and R are collinear if and only if there exist numbers a , b , and c , not all zero, such that $a + b + c = 0$ and $a\overrightarrow{OP} + b\overrightarrow{OQ} + c\overrightarrow{OR} = \mathbf{0}$.

5. Let $P(x_0, y_0)$, $Q(x_1, y_1)$, and $R(x_2, y_2)$ be points in the xy -plane. Use the cross product to show that the area of the triangle PQR is

$$A = \frac{1}{2} |(x_1 - x_0)(y_2 - y_0) - (x_2 - x_0)(y_1 - y_0)|.$$

6. Write both symmetric and parametric equations of the line that passes through $P_1(1, -1, 0)$ and is parallel to $\mathbf{v} = \langle 2, -1, 3 \rangle$.
7. Write both symmetric and parametric equations of the line that passes through $P_1(1, -1, 2)$ and $P_2(3, 2, -1)$.
8. Write an equation of the plane through $P(3, -5, 1)$ with normal vector $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$.
9. Show that the lines with symmetric equations

$$x - 1 = 2(y + 1) = 3(z - 2)$$

and

$$x - 3 = 2(y - 1) = 3(z + 1)$$

are parallel. Then write an equation of the plane containing these two lines.

10. Let the lines L_1 and L_2 have symmetric equations

$$\frac{x - x_i}{a_i} = \frac{y - y_i}{b_i} = \frac{z - z_i}{c_i}$$

for $i = 1, 2$. Show that L_1 and L_2 are skew lines if and only if

$$\begin{vmatrix} x_1 - x_2 & y_1 - y_2 & z_1 - z_2 \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix} \neq 0.$$

11. Given the four points $A(2, 3, 2)$, $B(4, 1, 0)$, $C(-1, 2, 0)$, and $D(5, 4, -2)$, find an equation of the plane that passes through A and B and is parallel to the line through C and D .
12. Given the points A , B , C , and D of Problem 11, find points P on the line AB and Q on the line CD such that the line PQ is perpendicular to both AB and CD . What is the perpendicular distance d between the lines AB and CD ?
13. Let $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ be a point of the plane with equation

$$ax + by + cz + d = 0.$$

By projecting $\overrightarrow{OP_0}$ onto the normal vector $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$, show that the distance D from the origin to this plane is

$$D = \frac{|d|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}.$$

14. Show that the distance D from the point $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ to the plane $ax + by + cz + d = 0$ is equal to the distance from the origin to the plane with equation

$$a(x + x_1) + b(y + y_1) + c(z + z_1) + d = 0.$$

Hence conclude from the result of Problem 13 that

$$D = \frac{|ax_1 + by_1 + cz_1 + d|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}.$$

15. Find the perpendicular distance between the parallel planes $2x - y + 2z = 4$ and $2x - y + 2z = 13$.
16. Write an equation of the plane through the point $(1, 1, 1)$ that is normal to the twisted cubic $x = t$, $y = t^2$, $z = t^3$ at this point.
17. Let ABC be an isosceles triangle with $|AB| = |AC|$. Let M be the midpoint of BC . Use the dot product to show that AM and BC are perpendicular.
18. Use the dot product to show that the diagonals of a rhombus (a parallelogram with all four sides of equal length) are perpendicular to each other.
19. The acceleration of a certain particle is

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

Assume that the particle begins at time $t = 0$ at the point $(0, 1)$ and has initial velocity $\mathbf{v}_0 = -\mathbf{i}$. Show that its path is a circle.

20. A particle moves in an attracting central force field with force proportional to the distance from the origin. This implies that the particle's acceleration vector is $\mathbf{a} = -\omega^2 \mathbf{r}$, where \mathbf{r} is the position vector of the particle. Assume that the particle's initial position is $\mathbf{r}_0 = p\mathbf{i}$ and that its initial velocity is $\mathbf{v}_0 = q\omega\mathbf{j}$. Show that the trajectory of the particle is the ellipse with equation $x^2/p^2 + y^2/q^2 = 1$. (Suggestion: If $x''(t) = -k^2x(t)$ (where k is constant), then $x(t) = A \cos kt + B \sin kt$ for some constants A and B .)
21. At time $t = 0$, a ground target is 160 ft from a gun and is moving directly away from it with a constant speed of 80 ft/s. If the muzzle velocity of the gun is 320 ft/s, at what angle of elevation α should it be fired in order to strike the moving target?
22. Suppose that a gun with muzzle velocity v_0 is located at the foot of a hill with a 30° slope. At what angle of elevation (from the horizontal) should the gun be fired in order to maximize its range, as measured up the hill?
23. A particle moves in space with parametric equations $x = t$, $y = t^2$, $z = \frac{4}{3}t^{3/2}$. Find the curvature of its trajectory and the tangential and normal components of its acceleration when $t = 1$.
24. The **osculating plane** to a space curve at a point P of that curve is the plane through P that is parallel to the curve's unit tangent and principal unit normal vectors at P . Write an equation of the osculating plane to the curve of Problem 23 at the point $(1, 1, \frac{4}{3})$.
25. Show that the equation of the plane that passes through the point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and is parallel to the vectors $\mathbf{v}_1 = \langle a_1, b_1, c_1 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = \langle a_2, b_2, c_2 \rangle$ can be written in the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} x - x_0 & y - y_0 & z - z_0 \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

26. Deduce from Problem 25 that the equation of the osculating plane (Problem 24) to the parametric curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at the point $\mathbf{r}(t_0)$ can be written in the form

$$[\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{r}(t_0)] \cdot [\mathbf{r}'(t_0) \times \mathbf{r}''(t_0)] = 0,$$

where $\mathbf{R} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$. Note first that the vectors \mathbf{T} and \mathbf{N} are coplanar with $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}''(t)$.

27. Use the result of Problem 26 to write an equation of the osculating plane to the twisted cubic $x = t, y = t^2, z = t^3$ at the point $(1, 1, 1)$.
28. Let a parametric curve in space be described by equations $r = r(t), \theta = \theta(t), z = z(t)$ that give the cylindrical coordinates of a moving point on the curve for $a \leq t \leq b$. Use the equations relating rectangular and cylindrical coordinates to show that the arc length of the curve is

$$s = \int_a^b \left[\left(\frac{dr}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(r \frac{d\theta}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} dt.$$

29. A point moves on the *unit sphere* $\rho = 1$ with its spherical angular coordinates at time t given by $\phi = \phi(t), \theta = \theta(t), a \leq t \leq b$. Use the equations relating rectangular and spherical coordinates to show that the arc length of its path is

$$s = \int_a^b \left[\left(\frac{d\phi}{dt} \right)^2 + (\sin^2 \phi) \left(\frac{d\theta}{dt} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} dt.$$

30. The vector product $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}$ of the unit tangent vector and the principal unit normal vector is the **unit binormal vector** \mathbf{B} of a curve. (a) Differentiate $\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{T} = 0$ to show that \mathbf{T} is perpendicular to $d\mathbf{B}/ds$. (b) Differentiate $\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 1$ to show that \mathbf{B} is perpendicular to $d\mathbf{B}/ds$. (c) Conclude from parts (a) and (b) that $d\mathbf{B}/ds = -\tau \mathbf{N}$ for some number τ . Called the **torsion** of the curve, τ measures the amount that the curve twists at each point in space.

31. Show that the torsion of the helix of Example 7 of Section 12.5 is constant by showing that its value is

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

32. Deduce from the definition of torsion (Problem 30) that $\tau \equiv 0$ for any curve such that $\mathbf{r}(t)$ lies in a fixed plane.
33. Write an equation in spherical coordinates for the spherical surface with radius 1 and center $x = 0 = y, z = 1$.
34. Let C be the circle in the yz -plane with radius 1 and center $y = 1, z = 0$. Write equations in both rectangular and

cylindrical coordinates of the surface obtained by revolving C around the z -axis.

35. Let C be the curve in the yz -plane with equation $(y^2 + z^2)^2 = 2(z^2 - y^2)$. Write an equation in spherical coordinates of the surface obtained by revolving this curve around the z -axis. Then sketch this surface. (*Suggestion:* Remember that $r^2 = 2 \cos 2\theta$ is the polar equation of a figure eight curve.)
36. Let A be the area of the parallelogram in space determined by the vectors $\mathbf{a} = \overrightarrow{PQ}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \overrightarrow{RS}$. Let A' be the area of the perpendicular projection of $PQRS$ into a plane that makes an acute angle γ with the plane of $PQRS$. Assuming that $A' = A \cos \gamma$ in such a situation (this is true), prove that the areas of the perpendicular projections of the parallelogram $PQRS$ into the three coordinate planes are
- $$|\mathbf{i} \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b})|, \quad |\mathbf{j} \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b})|, \quad \text{and} \quad |\mathbf{k} \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b})|.$$
- Conclude that the square of the area of a parallelogram in space is equal to the sum of the squares of the areas of its perpendicular projections into the three coordinate planes.
37. Take $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$ in Problem 36. Show that
- $$A^2 = \left| \begin{matrix} a_2 & a_3 \\ b_2 & b_3 \end{matrix} \right|^2 + \left| \begin{matrix} a_3 & a_1 \\ b_3 & b_1 \end{matrix} \right|^2 + \left| \begin{matrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{matrix} \right|^2.$$
38. Let C be a curve in a plane \mathcal{P} that is not parallel to the z -axis. Suppose that the projection of C into the xy -plane is an ellipse. Introduce uv -coordinates into the plane \mathcal{P} to prove that the curve C is itself an ellipse.
39. Conclude from Problem 38 that the intersection of a nonvertical plane and an elliptic cylinder with vertical sides is an ellipse.
40. Use the result of Problem 38 to prove that the intersection of the plane $z = Ax + By$ and the paraboloid $z = a^2x^2 + b^2y^2$ is either empty, a single point, or an ellipse.
41. Use the result of Problem 38 to prove that the intersection of the plane $z = Ax + By$ and the ellipsoid $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 + z^2/c^2 = 1$ is either empty, a single point, or an ellipse.
42. Suppose that $y = f(x)$ is the graph of a function for which f'' is continuous, and suppose also that the graph has an inflection point at $(a, f(a))$. Prove that the curvature of the graph at $x = a$ is zero.
43. Find the points on the curve $y = \sin x$ where the curvature is maximal and those where it is minimal.
44. The right branch of the hyperbola $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ may be parametrized by $x(t) = \cosh t, y(t) = \sinh t$. Find the point where its curvature is minimal.
45. Find the vectors \mathbf{N} and \mathbf{T} at the point of the curve $x(t) = t \cos t, y(t) = t \sin t$ that corresponds to $t = \pi/2$.

46. Find the points on the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$ (with $a > b > 0$) where the curvature is maximal and those where it is minimal.

47. Suppose that the plane curve $r = f(\theta)$ is given in polar coordinates. Write r' for $f'(\theta)$ and r'' for $f''(\theta)$. Show that its curvature is given by

$$\kappa = \frac{|r^2 + 2(r')^2 - rr''|}{[r^2 + (r')^2]^{3/2}}.$$

48. Use the formula in Problem 47 to calculate the curvature $\kappa(\theta)$ at the point (r, θ) of the spiral of Archimedes with equation $r = \theta$. Then show that $\kappa(\theta) \rightarrow 0$ as $\theta \rightarrow +\infty$.
49. A railway curve must join two straight tracks, one extending due west from $(-1, -1)$ and the other extending due east from $(1, 1)$. Determine A , B , and C so that the curve $y = Ax + Bx^3 + Cx^5$ joins $(-1, -1)$ and $(1, 1)$ and so

that the slope and curvature of this connecting curve are zero at both its endpoints.

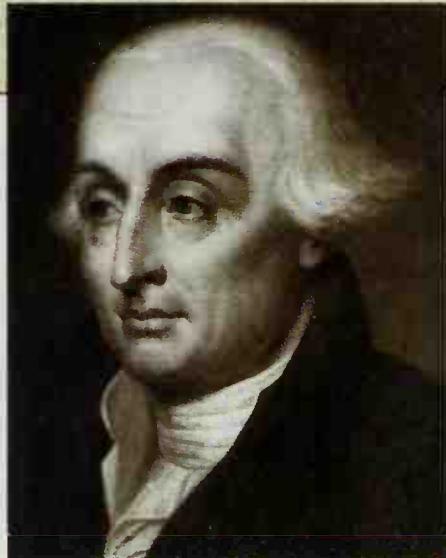
50. A plane passing through the origin and not parallel to any coordinate plane has an equation of the form $Ax + By + Cz = 0$ and intersects the spherical surface $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = R^2$ in a great circle. Find the highest point on this great circle; that is, find the coordinates of the point with the largest z -coordinate.

51. Suppose that a tetrahedron in space has a solid right angle at one vertex (like a corner of a cube). Suppose that A is the area of the side opposite the solid right angle and that B , C , and D are the areas of the other three sides.
- (a) Prove that

$$A^2 = B^2 + C^2 + D^2.$$

- (b) Of what famous theorem is this a three-dimensional version?

PARTIAL DIFFERENTIATION



Joseph Louis Lagrange (1736–1813)

Joseph Louis Lagrange is remembered for his great treatises on analytical mechanics and on the theory of functions that summarized much of eighteenth-century pure and applied mathematics. These treatises—*Mécanique analytique* (1788), *Théorie des fonctions analytiques* (1797), and *Leçons sur le calcul des fonctions* (1806)—systematically developed and applied widely the differential and integral calculus of multivariable functions expressed in terms of the rectangular coordinates x , y , z in three-dimensional space. They were written and published in Paris during the last quarter-century of Lagrange's career. But he grew up and spent his first 30 years in Turin, Italy. His father pointed Lagrange toward the law, but by age 17 Lagrange had decided on a career in science and mathematics. Based

on his early work in celestial mechanics (the mathematical analysis of the motions of the planets and satellites in our solar system), Lagrange in 1766 succeeded Leonhard Euler as director of the Berlin Academy in Germany.

Lagrange regarded his far-reaching work on maximum-minimum problems as his best work in mathematics. This work, which continued throughout his long career, dated back to a letter to Euler that Lagrange wrote from Turin when he was only 19. This letter outlined a new approach to a certain class of optimization problems that comprise the calculus of variations. A typical example is the *isoperimetric problem*, which asks what curve of a given arc length encloses a plane region with the greatest area. (The answer: a circle.) In the *Mécanique analytique*, Lagrange applied his “method of multipliers” to investigate the motion of a particle in space that is constrained to move on a surface defined by an equation of the form $g(x, y, z) = 0$. Section 13.9 applies the Lagrange multiplier method to the problem of maximizing or minimizing a function $f(x, y, z)$ subject to a “constraint” of the form

$$g(x, y, z) = 0.$$

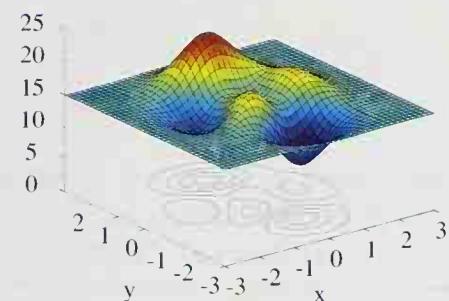
Today this method has applications that range from minimizing

the fuel required for a spacecraft to achieve its desired trajectory to maximizing the productivity of a commercial enterprise limited by the availability of financial, natural, and personnel resources.

Modern scientific visualization often employs computer graphic techniques to present different interpretations of the same data simultaneously in a single figure. This *MATLAB* color graphic shows both a graph of a surface

$$z = f(x, y)$$

and a contour map showing “level curves” of the surface. In Section 13.5 we learn how to locate multivariable maximum-minimum points like those visible on this surface.



13.1 INTRODUCTION

We turn our attention here and in Chapters 14 and 15 to the calculus of functions of more than one variable. Many real-world functions depend on two or more variables. For example:

- ▼ In physical chemistry the ideal gas law $pV = nRT$ (where n and R are constants) is used to express any one of the variables p (pressure), V (volume), and T (temperature) as a function of the other two.
- ▼ The altitude above sea level at a particular location on the earth's surface depends on the latitude and longitude of the location.
- ▼ A manufacturer's profit depends on sales, overhead costs, the cost of each raw material used, and in many cases, additional variables.
- ▼ The amount of usable energy a solar panel can gather depends on its efficiency, its angle of inclination to the sun's rays, the angle of elevation of the sun above the horizon, and other factors.

A typical application may call for us to find an extreme value of a function of several variables. For example, suppose that we want to minimize the cost of making a rectangular box with a volume of 48 ft^3 , given that its front and back cost $\$1/\text{ft}^2$, its top and bottom cost $\$2/\text{ft}^2$, and its two ends cost $\$3/\text{ft}^2$. Figure 13.1.1 shows such a box of length x , width y , and height z . Under the conditions given, its total cost will be

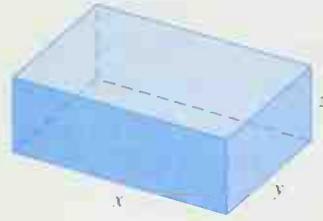


Fig. 13.1.1 A box whose total cost we want to minimize

$$C = 2xz + 4xy + 6yz \quad (\text{dollars}).$$

But x , y , and z are not independent variables, because the box has fixed volume

$$V = xyz = 48.$$

We eliminate z , for instance, from the first formula by using the second; because $z = 48/(xy)$, the cost we want to minimize is given by

$$C = 4xy + \frac{288}{x} + \frac{96}{y}.$$

Because neither of the variables x and y can be expressed in terms of the other, the single-variable maximum-minimum techniques of Chapter 3 cannot be applied here. We need new optimization techniques applicable to functions of two or more independent variables. In Section 13.5 we shall return to this problem.

The problem of optimization is merely one example. We shall see in this chapter that all the main ingredients of single-variable differential calculus—limits, derivatives and rates of change, chain rule computations, and maximum-minimum techniques—can be generalized to functions of two or more variables.

13.2 FUNCTIONS OF SEVERAL VARIABLES

Recall from Section 1.1 that a real-valued function is a rule or correspondence f that associates a unique real number with each element of a set D . The domain D has always been a subset of the real line for the functions of a single variable that we have studied up to this point. If D is a subset of the plane, then f is a function of two variables—for, given a point P of D , we naturally associate with P its rectangular coordinates (x, y) .

Definition Functions of Two or Three Variables

A **function of two variables**, defined on the **domain D** in the plane, is a rule f that associates with each point (x, y) in D a unique real number, denoted by $f(x, y)$. A **function of three variables**, defined on the **domain D** in space, is a rule f that associates with each point (x, y, z) in D a unique real number $f(x, y, z)$.

We can typically define a function f of two (or three) variables by giving a formula that specifies $f(x, y)$ in terms of x and y (or $f(x, y, z)$ in terms of x , y , and z). In case the domain D of f is not explicitly specified, we take D to consist of all points for which the given formula is meaningful.

EXAMPLE 1 The domain of the function f with formula

$$f(x, y) = \sqrt{25 - x^2 - y^2}$$

is the set of all (x, y) such that $25 - x^2 - y^2 \geq 0$ —that is, the circular disk $x^2 + y^2 \leq 25$ of radius 5 centered at the origin. Similarly, the function g defined as

$$g(x, y, z) = \frac{x + y + z}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$$

is defined at all points in space where $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 > 0$. Thus its domain consists of all points in three-dimensional space \mathbf{R}^3 other than the origin $(0, 0, 0)$. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Find the domain of definition of the function with formula

$$f(x, y) = \frac{y}{\sqrt{x - y^2}}. \quad (1)$$

Find also the points (x, y) at which $f(x, y) = \pm 1$.

Solution For $f(x, y)$ to be defined, the radicand $x - y^2$ must be positive—that is, $y^2 < x$. Hence the domain of f is the set of points lying strictly to the right of the parabola $x = y^2$. This domain is shaded in Fig. 13.2.1. The parabola in the figure is dotted to indicate that it is not included in the domain of f ; any point for which $x = y^2$ would entail division by zero in Eq. (1).

The function $f(x, y)$ has the value ± 1 whenever

$$\frac{y}{\sqrt{x - y^2}} = \pm 1;$$

that is, when $y^2 = x - y^2$, so $x = 2y^2$. Thus $f(x, y) = \pm 1$ at each point of the parabola $x = 2y^2$ [other than its vertex $(0, 0)$, which is not included in the domain of f]. This parabola is shown as a solid curve in Fig. 13.2.1. ■

In a geometric, physical, or economic situation, a function typically results from expressing one descriptive variable in terms of others. As we saw in Section 13.1, the cost C of the box discussed there is given by the formula

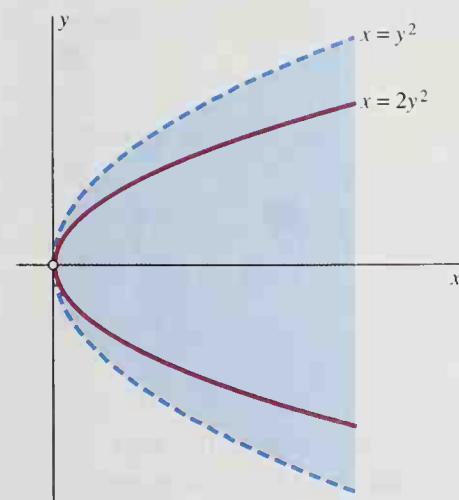


Fig. 13.2.1 The domain of

$$f(x, y) = \frac{y}{\sqrt{x - y^2}} \text{ (Example 2)}$$

$$C = 4xy + \frac{288}{x} + \frac{96}{y}$$

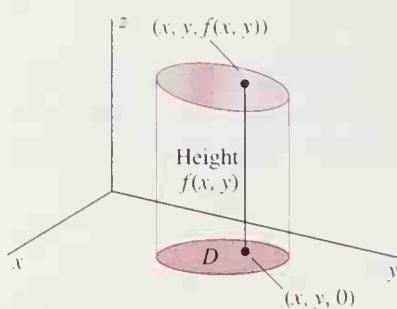


Fig. 13.2.2 The graph of a function of two variables is typically a surface “over” the domain of the function.

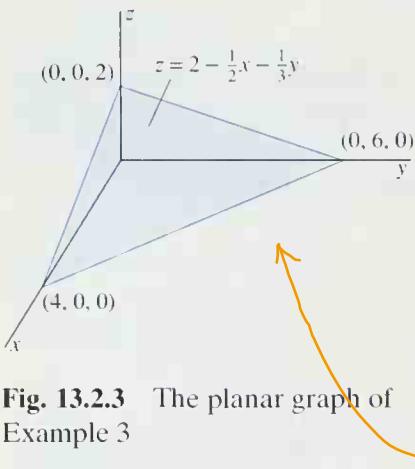


Fig. 13.2.3 The planar graph of Example 3

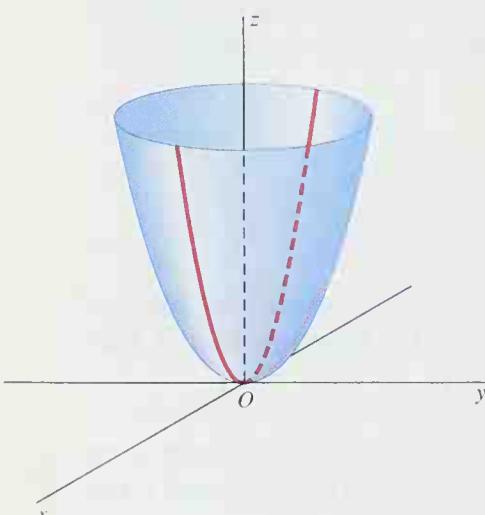


Fig. 13.2.4 The paraboloid is the graph of the function $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$.

in terms of the length x and width y of the box. The value C of this function is a variable that depends on the values of x and y . Hence we call C a **dependent variable**, whereas x and y are **independent variables**. And if the temperature T at the point (x, y, z) in space is given by some formula $T = h(x, y, z)$, then the dependent variable T is a function of the three independent variables x , y , and z .

We can define a function of four or more variables by giving a formula that includes the appropriate number of independent variables. For example, if an amount A of heat is released at the origin in space at time $t = 0$ in a medium with thermal diffusivity k , then—under appropriate conditions—the temperature T at the point (x, y, z) at time $t > 0$ is given by

$$T(x, y, z, t) = \frac{A}{(4\pi kt)^{3/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{4kt}\right).$$

This formula gives the temperature T as a function of the four independent variables x , y , z , and t .

We shall see that the main differences between single-variable and multivariable calculus show up when only two independent variables are involved. Hence most of our results will be stated in terms of functions of two variables. Many of these results readily generalize by analogy to the case of three or more independent variables.

Graphs and Level Curves

We can visualize how a function f of two variables “works” in terms of its graph. The **graph** of f is the graph of the equation $z = f(x, y)$. Thus the graph of f is the set of all points in space with coordinates (x, y, z) that satisfy the equation $z = f(x, y)$ (Fig. 13.2.2). The planes and quadric surfaces of Section 12.4 and 12.7 provide some simple examples of graphs of functions of two variables.

EXAMPLE 3 Sketch the graph of the function $f(x, y) = 2 - \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{3}y$.

Why its a plane? Read Section 12.4. Now I'm back

Solution We know from Section 12.4 that the graph of the equation $z = 2 - \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{3}y$ is a plane, and we can visualize it by using its intercepts with the coordinate axes to plot the portion in the first octant of space. Clearly $z = 2$ if $x = y = 0$. Also the equation gives $y = 6$ if $x = z = 0$ and $x = 4$ if $y = z = 0$. Hence the graph looks as pictured in Fig. 13.2.3.

EXAMPLE 4 The graph of the function $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ is the familiar circular paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ (Section 12.7) shown in Fig. 13.2.4.

EXAMPLE 5 Find the domain of definition of the function

$$g(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{4 - 4x^2 - y^2} \quad (2)$$

and sketch its graph.

Solution The function g is defined wherever $4 - 4x^2 - y^2 \geq 0$ —that is, $x^2 + \frac{1}{4}y^2 \leq 1$ —so that Eq. (2) does not involve the square root of a negative number. Thus the domain of g is the set of points in the xy -plane that lie on and within the ellipse $x^2 + \frac{1}{4}y^2 = 1$ (Fig. 13.2.5). If we square both sides of the equation $z = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{4 - 4x^2 - y^2}$ and simplify the result, we get the equation

$$x^2 + \frac{1}{4}y^2 + z^2 = 1$$

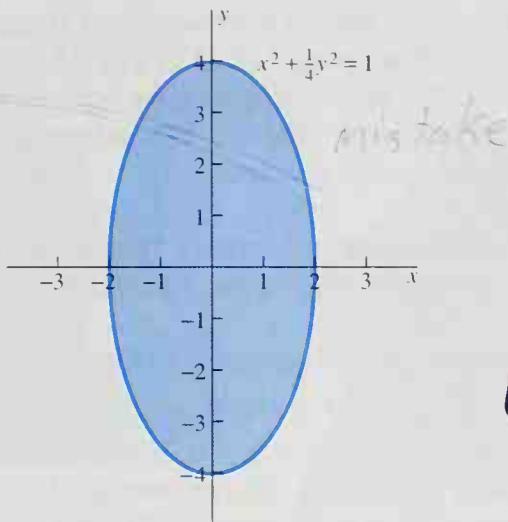


Fig. 13.2.5 The domain of the function $g(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{4 - 4x^2 - y^2}$

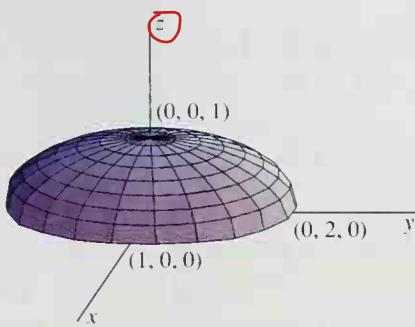


Fig. 13.2.6 The graph of the function g is the upper half of an ellipsoid.

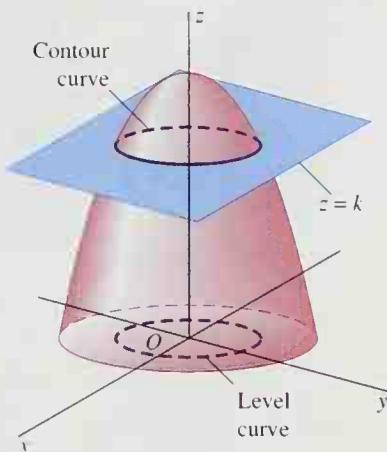


Fig. 13.2.7 A contour curve and the corresponding level curve

of an ellipsoid with semiaxes $a = 1$, $b = 2$, and $c = 1$ (Section 12.7). But $g(x, y)$ as defined in Eq. (2) is nonnegative wherever it is defined, so the graph of g is the upper half of the ellipsoid (Fig. 13.2.6). ■

The intersection of the horizontal plane $z = k$ with the surface $z = f(x, y)$ is called the contour curve of height k on the surface (Fig. 13.2.7). The vertical projection of this contour curve into the xy -plane is the level curve $f(x, y) = k$ of the function f . Thus a level curve of f is simply a set in the xy -plane on which the value $f(x, y)$ is constant. On a topographic map, such as the one in Fig. 13.2.8, the level curves are curves of constant height above sea level.

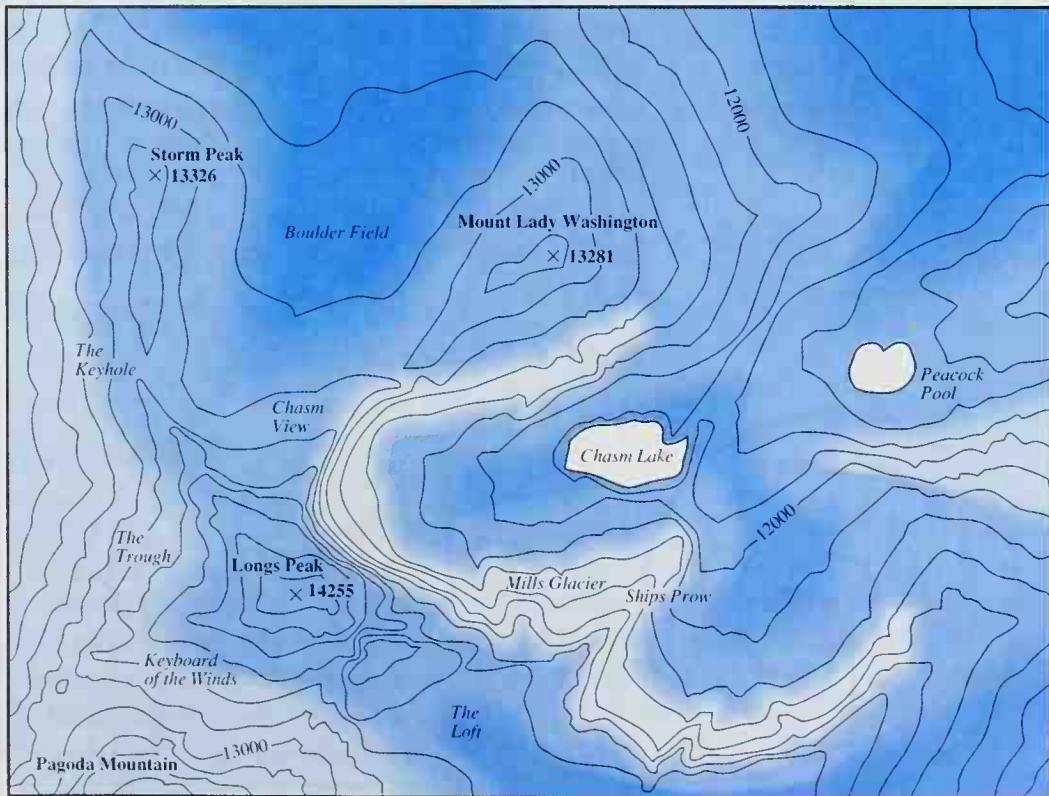


Fig. 13.2.8 The region near Longs Peak, Rocky Mountain National Park, Colorado, showing contour lines at intervals of 200 feet

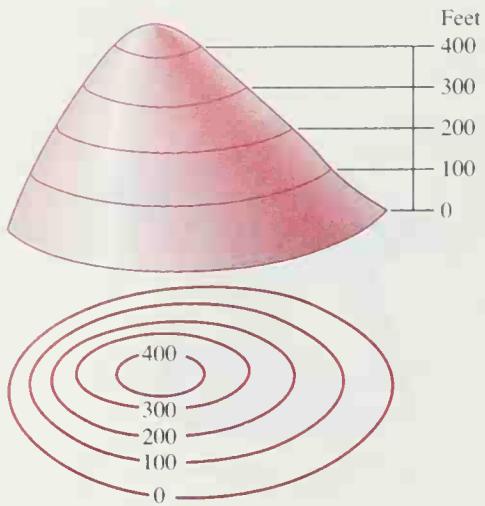


Fig. 13.2.9 Contour curves and level curves for a hill

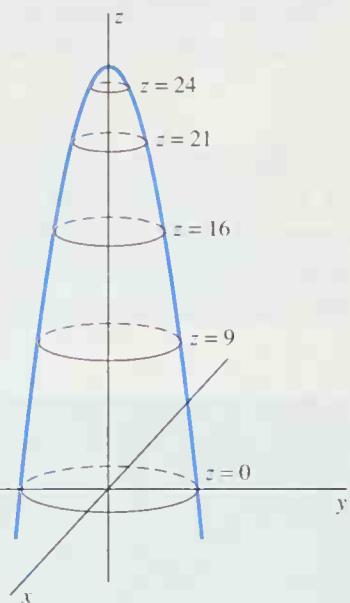


Fig. 13.2.10 Contour curves on $z = 25 - x^2 - y^2$ (Example 6)

Level curves give a two-dimensional way of representing a three-dimensional surface $z = f(x, y)$, just as the two-dimensional map in Fig. 13.2.8 represents a three-dimensional mountain range. We do this by drawing typical level curves of $z = f(x, y)$ in the xy -plane, labeling each with the corresponding (constant) value of z . Figure 13.2.9 illustrates this process for a simple hill.

EXAMPLE 6 Figure 13.2.10 shows some typical contour curves on the **paraboloid** $z = 25 - x^2 - y^2$. Figure 13.2.11 shows the corresponding level curves.

EXAMPLE 7 Sketch some typical level curves for the function $f(x, y) = y^2 - x^2$.

Solution If $k \neq 0$, then the curve $y^2 - x^2 = k$ is a **hyperbola** (Section 10.8). It opens along the y -axis if $k > 0$, along the x -axis if $k < 0$. If $k = 0$, then we have the equation $y^2 - x^2 = 0$, whose graph consists of the **two straight lines** $y = +x$ and $y = -x$. Figure 13.2.12 shows some of these level curves, each labeled with the corresponding constant value of z . Figure 13.2.13 shows contour curves on the hyperbolic paraboloid $z = y^2 - x^2$ (Section 12.7). Note that the saddle point at the origin on the paraboloid corresponds to the intersection point of the two level curves $y = +x$ and $y = -x$ in Fig. 13.2.12.

The graph of a function $f(x, y, z)$ of three variables cannot be drawn in three dimensions, but we can readily visualize its **level surfaces** of the form $f(x, y, z) = k$. For example, the level surfaces of the function $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ are spheres (spherical surfaces) centered at the origin. Thus the level surfaces of f are the sets in space on which the value $f(x, y, z)$ is constant.

If the function f gives the temperature at the location (x, y) or (x, y, z) , then its level curves or surfaces are called **isotherms**. A weather map typically includes level curves of the ground-level atmospheric pressure; these are called **isobars**. Even though you may be able to construct the graph of a function of two variables, that graph might be so complicated that information about the function (or the situation it describes) is obscure. Frequently the level curves themselves give more information, as in weather maps. For example, Fig. 13.2.14 shows level curves for the annual numbers of days of *high* air pollution forecast at different localities in the United States. The scale of this figure does not show local variations caused by individual cities. But a glance indicates that western Colorado, south Georgia, and central Illinois all expect the same number (10, in this case) of high-pollution days each year.

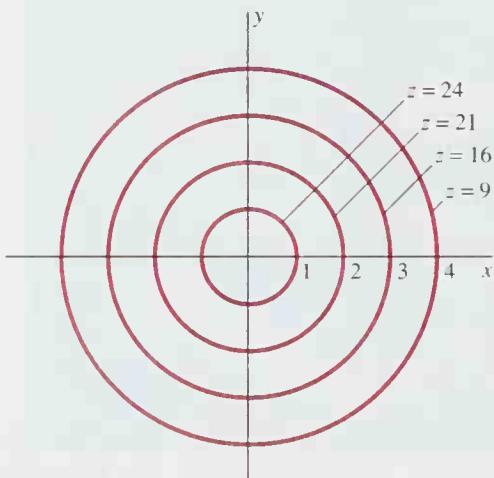


Fig. 13.2.11 Level curves of $f(x, y) = 25 - x^2 - y^2$ (Example 6)

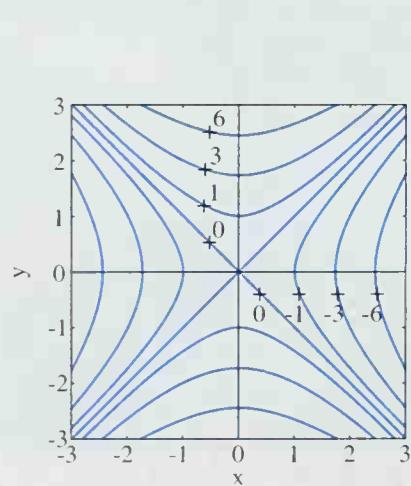


Fig. 13.2.12 Contour curves for the function $f(x, y) = y^2 - x^2$

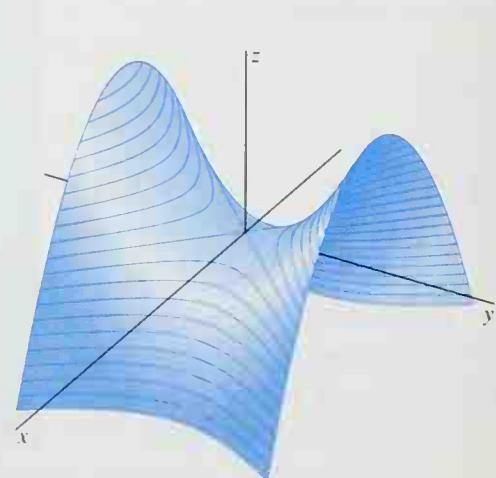


Fig. 13.2.13 Contour curves on $z = y^2 - x^2$ (Example 7)

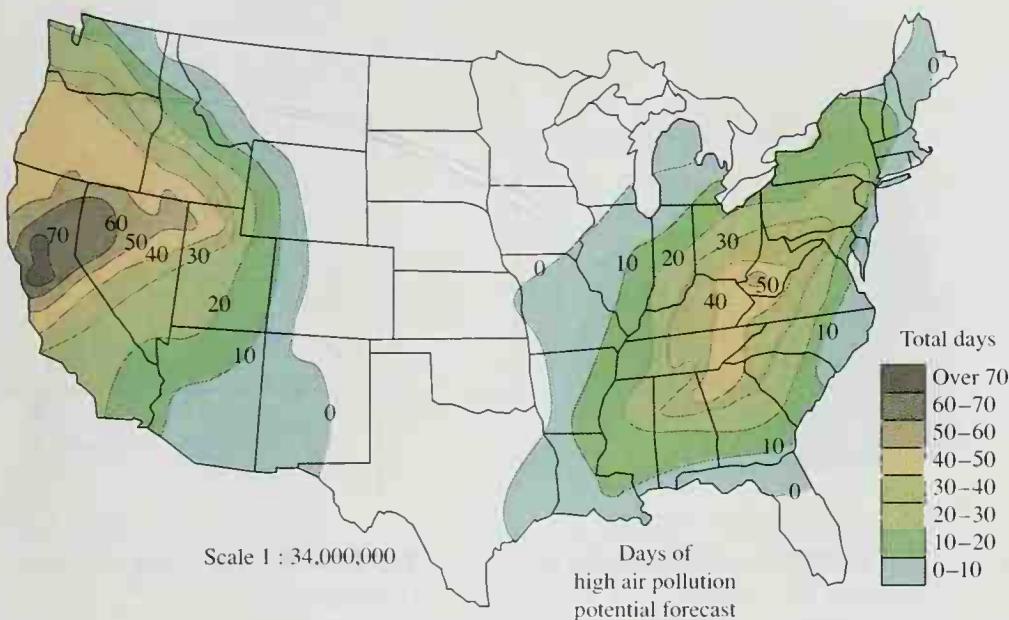


Fig. 13.2.14 Days of high air pollution forecast in the United States (from National Atlas of the United States, U.S. Department of the Interior, 1970)

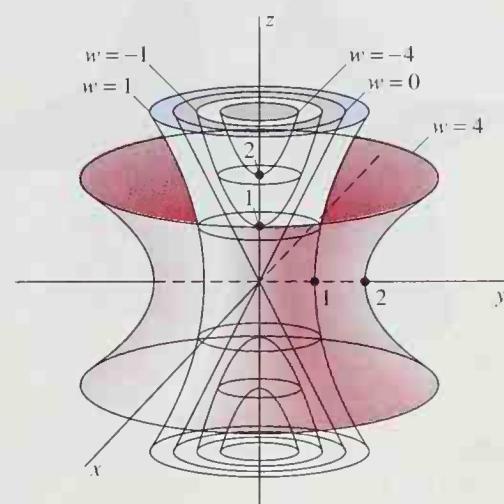


Fig. 13.2.15 Some level surfaces of the function $w = f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 - z^2$ (Example 8)

EXAMPLE 8 Figure 13.2.15 shows some level surfaces of the function

$$f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 - z^2.$$

If $k > 0$, then the graph of $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = k$ is a hyperboloid of one sheet, whereas if $k < 0$, it is a hyperboloid of two sheets. The cone $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 0$ lies between these two types of hyperboloids. ■

Computer Plots

Many computer systems have surface and contour plotting routines like the *Maple* commands

```
plot3d(y^2 - x^2, x = -3..3, y = -3..3 );
with(plots): contourplot(y^2 - x^2, x = -3..3, y = -3..3 );
```

and the *Mathematica* commands

```
Plot3d[ y^2 - x^2, {x,-3,3}, {y,-3,3} ]
ContourPlot[ y^2 - x^2, {x,-3,3}, {y,-3,3} ]
```

for the function $f(x, y) = y^2 - x^2$ of Example 7.

EXAMPLE 9 Figure 13.2.16 shows both the graph and some projected contour curves of the function $f(x, y) = (x^2 - y^2)\exp(-x^2 - y^2)$. Observe the characteristic pattern of “nested level curves” that indicate a local maximum or local minimum. It appears that the function $f(x, y)$ attains local minimum values at two points on or near the y -axis and local maximum values at two points on or near the x -axis. The two-dimensional level curve plot in Fig. 13.2.17 suggests that these four extreme value points may well be the points $(0, \pm 1)$ and $(\pm 1, 0)$. ■

REMARK In Section 13.5 we will study analytic methods for locating maximum and minimum points of function of two variables *exactly*. But Example 9 indicates that level curve plots provide a valuable tool for locating them *approximately*.

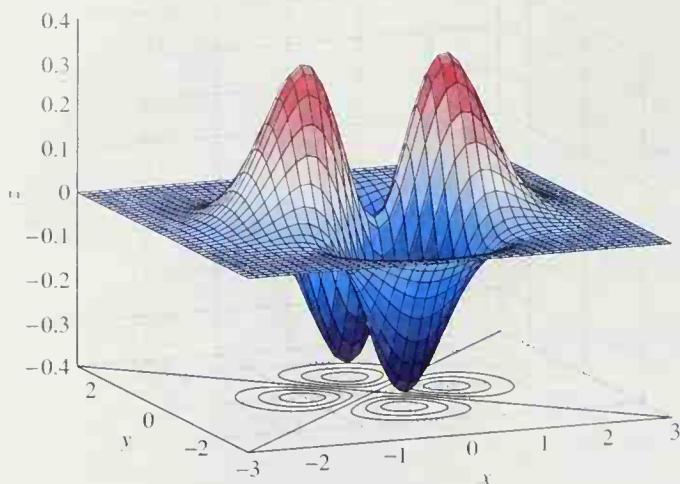


Fig. 13.2.16 The graph and projected contour curves of the function $f(x, y) = (x^2 - y^2)e^{-(x^2+y^2)}$

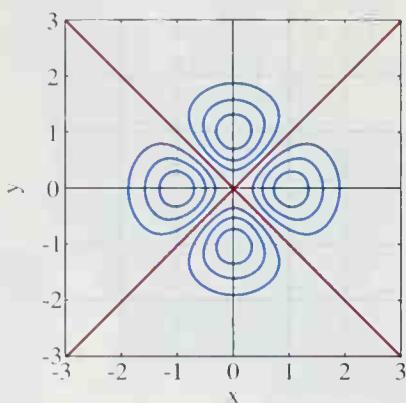


Fig. 13.2.17 Level curves for the function $f(x, y) = (x^2 - y^2)e^{-(x^2+y^2)}$

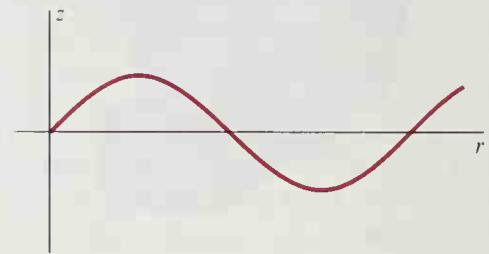


Fig. 13.2.18 The curve $z = \sin r$ (Example 10)

EXAMPLE 10 The surface

$$z = \sin \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \quad (3)$$

is symmetrical with respect to the z -axis, because Eq. (3) reduces to the equation $z = \sin r$ (Fig. 13.2.18) in terms of the radial coordinate $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ that measures perpendicular distance from the z -axis. The *surface* $z = \sin r$ is generated by revolving the curve $z = \sin r$ around the z -axis. Hence its level curves are circles centered at the origin in the xy -plane. For instance, $z = 0$ if r is an integral multiple of π , whereas $z = \pm 1$ if r is any odd integral multiple of $\pi/2$. Figure 13.2.19 shows traces of this surface in planes parallel to the yz -plane. The “hat effect” was achieved by plotting (x, y, z) for those points (x, y) that lie within a certain ellipse in the xy -plane.

Given an arbitrary function $f(x, y)$, it can be quite a challenge to construct by hand a picture of the surface $z = f(x, y)$. Example 11 illustrates some special techniques that may be useful. Additional surface-sketching techniques will appear in the remainder of this chapter.

EXAMPLE 11 Investigate the graph of the function

$$f(x, y) = \frac{3}{4}y^2 + \frac{1}{24}y^3 - \frac{1}{32}y^4 - x^2. \quad (4)$$

Solution The key feature in Eq. (4) is that the right-hand side is the *sum* of a function of x and a function of y . If we set $x = 0$, we get the curve

$$z = \frac{3}{4}y^2 + \frac{1}{24}y^3 - \frac{1}{32}y^4 \quad (5)$$

in which the surface $z = f(x, y)$ intersects the yz -plane. But if we set $y = y_0$ in Eq. (4), we get

$$z = \left(\frac{3}{4}y_0^2 + \frac{1}{24}y_0^3 - \frac{1}{32}y_0^4 \right) - x^2;$$

that is,

$$z = k - x^2, \quad (6)$$

which is the equation of a parabola in the xz -plane. Hence the trace of $z = f(x, y)$ in each plane $y = y_0$ is a parabola of the form in Eq. (6) (Fig. 13.2.20).

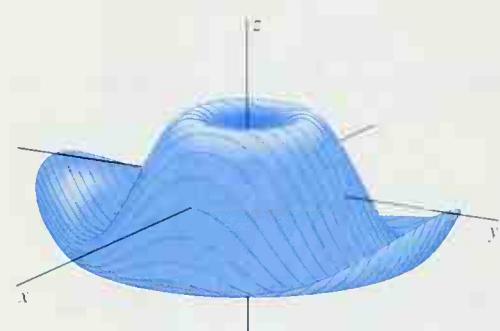


Fig. 13.2.19 The hat surface $z = \sin \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ (Example 10)

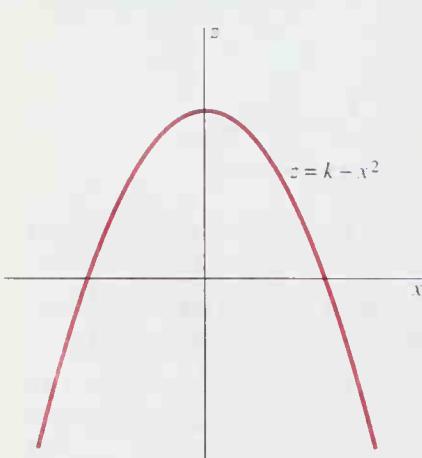


Fig. 13.2.20 The intersection of $z = f(x, y)$ and the plane $y = y_0$ (Example 11)

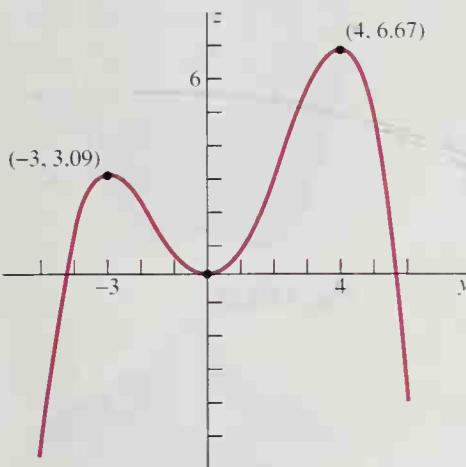


Fig. 13.2.21 The curve $z = \frac{3}{4}y^2 + \frac{1}{24}y^3 - \frac{1}{32}y^4$ (Example 11)

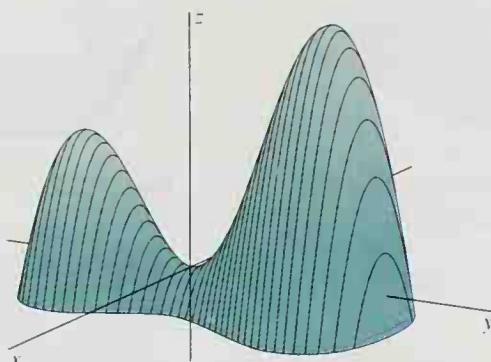


Fig. 13.2.22 Trace parabolas of $z = f(x, y)$ (Example 11)

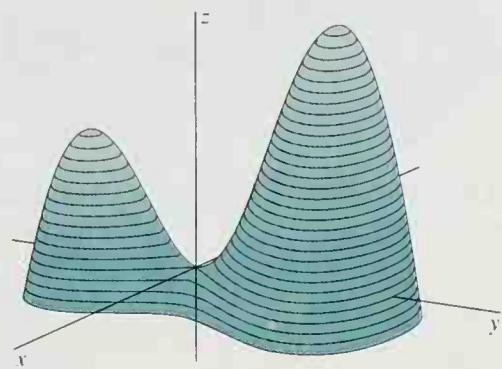


Fig. 13.2.23 Contour curves on $z = f(x, y)$ (Example 11)

We can use the techniques of Section 4.5 to sketch the curve in Eq. (5). Calculating the derivative of z with respect to y , we get

$$\frac{dz}{dy} = \frac{3}{2}y + \frac{1}{8}y^2 - \frac{1}{8}y^3 = -\frac{1}{8}y(y^2 - y - 12) = -\frac{1}{8}y(y + 3)(y - 4).$$

Hence the critical points are $y = -3$, $y = 0$, and $y = 4$. The corresponding values of z are $f(0, -3) \approx 3.09$, $f(0, 0) = 0$, and $f(0, 4) \approx 6.67$. Because $z \rightarrow -\infty$ as $y \rightarrow \pm\infty$, it follows readily that the graph of Eq. (5) looks like that in Fig. 13.2.21.

Now we can see what the surface $z = f(x, y)$ looks like. Each vertical plane $y = y_0$ intersects the curve in Eq. (5) at a single point, and this point is the vertex of a parabola that opens downward like that in Eq. (6); this parabola is the intersection of the plane and the surface. Thus the surface $z = f(x, y)$ is generated by translating the vertex of such a parabola along the curve

$$z = \frac{3}{4}y^2 + \frac{1}{24}y^3 - \frac{1}{32}y^4,$$

as indicated in Fig. 13.2.22.

Figure 13.2.23 shows some typical contour curves on this surface. They indicate that the surface resembles two peaks separated by a mountain pass. To check this figure, we programmed a microcomputer to plot typical level curves of the function $f(x, y)$. The result is shown in Fig. 13.2.24. The nested level curves around the point $(0, -3)$ and $(0, 4)$ indicate the local maxima of $z = f(x, y)$. The level figure eight curve through $(0, 0)$ marks the *saddle point* we see in Figs. 13.2.22 and 13.2.23. Local extrema and saddle points of functions of two variables are discussed in Sections 13.5 and 13.10. ■

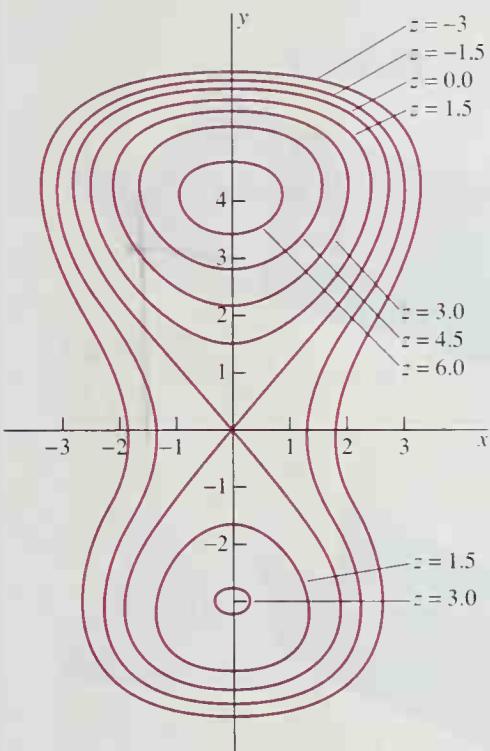


Fig. 13.2.24 Level curves of the function $f(x, y) = \frac{3}{4}y^2 + \frac{1}{24}y^3 - \frac{1}{32}y^4 - x^2$ (Example 11)

13.2 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 20, state the largest possible domain of definition of the given function f .

1. $f(x, y) = 4 - 3x - 2y$

2. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + 2y^2}$

3. $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}$

4. $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{x - y}$

5. $f(x, y) = \sqrt[3]{y - x^2}$

6. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{2x} + \sqrt[3]{3y}$

7. $f(x, y) = \sin^{-1}(x^2 + y^2)$

8. $f(x, y) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$

9. $f(x, y) = \exp(-x^2 - y^2)$ (Fig. 13.2.25)

10. $f(x, y) = \ln(x^2 - y^2 - 1)$

11. $f(x, y) = \ln(y - x)$

12. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}$

13. $f(x, y) = \frac{1 + \sin xy}{xy}$

14. $f(x, y) = \frac{1 + \sin xy}{x^2 + y^2}$ (Fig. 13.2.26)

15. $f(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 - y^2}$

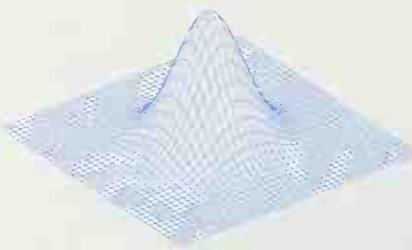


Fig. 13.2.25 The graph of the function of Problem 9



Fig. 13.2.26 The graph of the function of Problem 14



Fig. 13.2.27

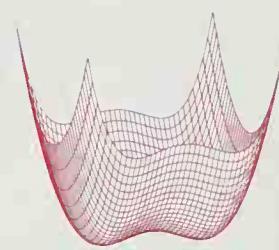


Fig. 13.2.28

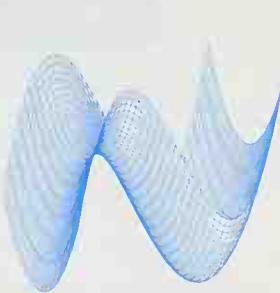


Fig. 13.2.29

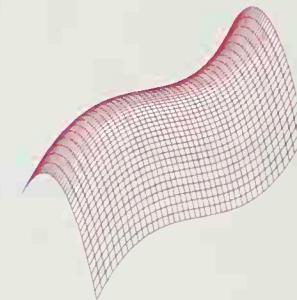


Fig. 13.2.30

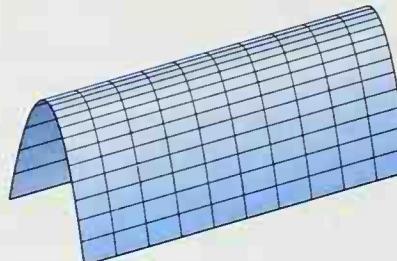


Fig. 13.2.31

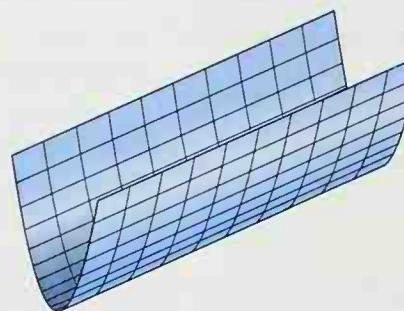


Fig. 13.2.32

16. $f(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{z - x^2 - y^2}}$

17. $f(x, y, z) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}\right)$

18. $f(x, y, z) = \ln(xyz)$

19. $f(x, y, z) = \ln(z - x^2 - y^2)$

20. $f(x, y, z) = \sin^{-1}(3 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2)$

In Problems 21 through 30, describe the graph of the function f .

21. $f(x, y) = 10$

22. $f(x, y) = x$

23. $f(x, y) = x + y$

24. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

25. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$

26. $f(x, y) = 4 - x^2 - y^2$

27. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}$

28. $f(x, y) = 16 - y^2$

29. $f(x, y) = 10 - \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

30. $f(x, y) = -\sqrt{36 - 4x^2 - 9y^2}$

In Problems 31 through 40, sketch some typical level curves of the function f .

31. $f(x, y) = x - y$

32. $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$

33. $f(x, y) = x^2 + 4y^2$

34. $f(x, y) = y - x^2$

35. $f(x, y) = y - x^3$

36. $f(x, y) = y - \cos x$

37. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 4x$

38. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 6x + 4y + 7$

39. $f(x, y) = \exp(-x^2 - y^2)$

40. $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{1 + x^2 + y^2}$

In Problems 41 through 46, describe the level surfaces of the function f .

41. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 - z$

42. $f(x, y, z) = z + \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

43. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 4x - 2y - 6z$

44. $f(x, y, z) = z^2 - x^2 - y^2$

45. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + 4y^2 - 4x - 8y + 17$

46. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + 25$

In Problems 47 through 52, the function $f(x, y)$ is the sum of a function of x and a function of y . Hence you can use the method of Example 11 to construct a sketch of the surface $z = f(x, y)$. Match each function with its graph among Figs. 13.2.27 through 13.2.32.

47. $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2y$

48. $f(x, y) = y - x^2$

49. $f(x, y) = y^3 - x^2$

50. $f(x, y) = y^4 + x^2$

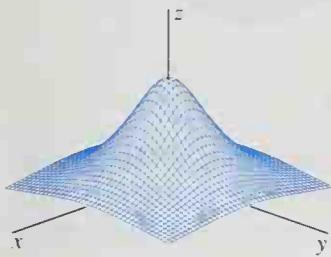
51. $f(x, y) = y^4 - 2y^2 + x^2$

52. $f(x, y) = 2y^3 - 3y^2 - 12y + x^2$

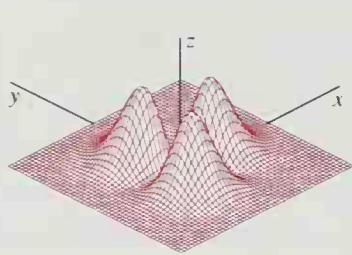
Problems 53 through 58 show the graphs of six functions $z = f(x, y)$ (Figs. 13.2.33–13.2.38). Figures 13.2.39 through 13.2.44 show level curve plots for the same functions but in another order; the level curves in each figure correspond to contours at equally spaced heights on the surface $z = f(x, y)$. Match each surface with its level curves.

53. Fig. 13.2.33

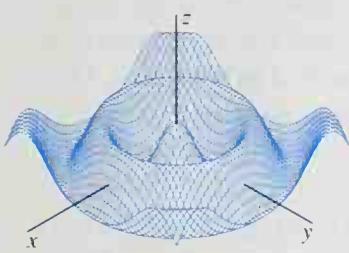
- 54.** Fig. 13.2.34
55. Fig. 13.2.35
56. Fig. 13.2.36
57. Fig. 13.2.37
58. Fig. 13.2.38

**Fig. 13.2.33**

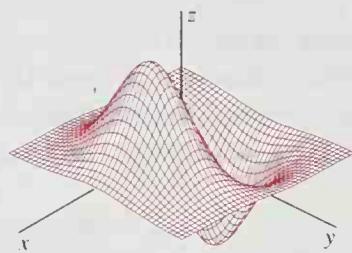
$$z = \frac{1}{1 + x^2 + y^2}, |x| \leq 2, |y| \leq 2$$

**Fig. 13.2.34**

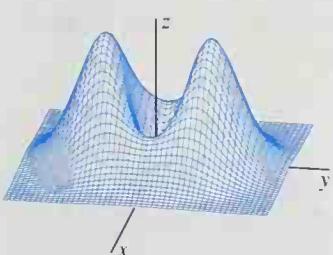
$$z = r^2 \exp(-r^2) \cos^2\left(\frac{3}{2}\theta\right), |x| \leq 3, |y| \leq 3$$

**Fig. 13.2.35**

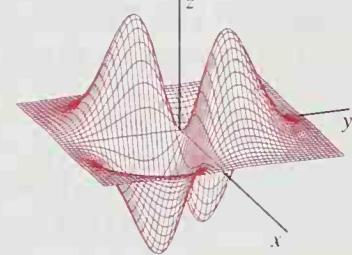
$$z = \cos \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, |x| \leq 10, |y| \leq 10$$

**Fig. 13.2.36**

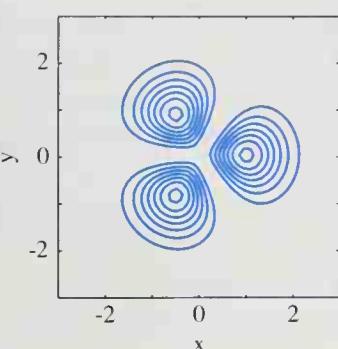
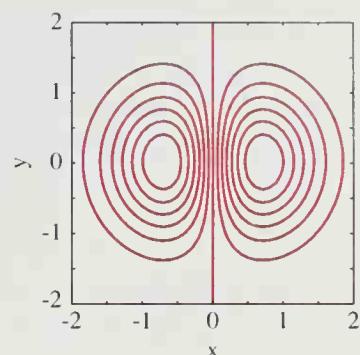
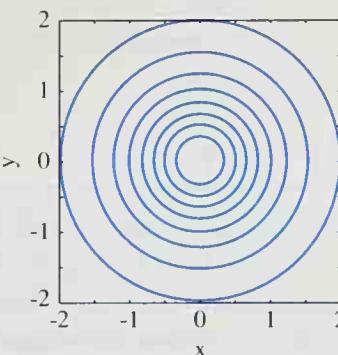
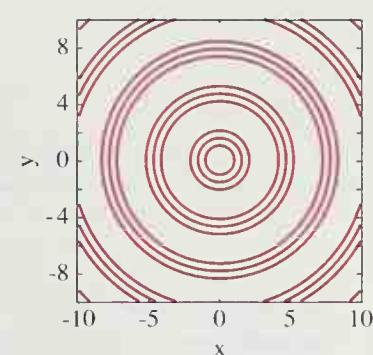
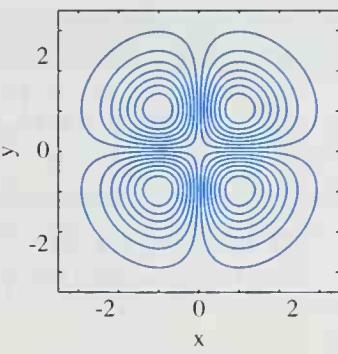
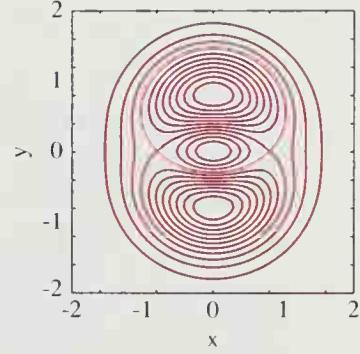
$$z = x \exp(-x^2 - y^2), |x| \leq 2, |y| \leq 2$$

**Fig. 13.2.37**

$$z = 3(x^2 + 3y^2) \exp(-x^2 - y^2), |x| \leq 2.5, |y| \leq 2.5$$

**Fig. 13.2.38**

$$z = xy \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2)\right), |x| \leq 3.5, |y| \leq 3.5$$

**Fig. 13.2.39****Fig. 13.2.40****Fig. 13.2.41****Fig. 13.2.42****Fig. 13.2.43****Fig. 13.2.44**

13.2 PROJECT: YOUR PERSONAL PORTFOLIO OF SURFACES

Plotting a variety of surfaces with a computer graphing program can help you develop your intuition about graphs of functions of two variables. To get started, graph some of the following functions over rectangular domains $a \leq x \leq b$, $c \leq y \leq d$ of various sizes to see how the scale affects the picture.

$$f(x, y) = p \cos qx$$

$$f(x, y) = p \cos qy$$

$$f(x, y) = \sin px \sin qy$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} f(x, y) = p + qx^2 \\ f(x, y) = p + qy^2 \\ f(x, y) = px^2 + qy^2 \end{array} \right\}$$

(Use negative *and* positive values of p and q in these three examples.)

$$f(x, y) = px^2 + qxy + ry^2$$

$$f(x, y) = \exp(-px^2 - qy^2)$$

$$f(x, y) = (px^2 + qxy + ry^2) \exp(-x^2 - y^2)$$

Similarly, vary the numerical parameters p , q , and r and note the resulting changes in the graph. Then make up some functions of your own for experimentation. If you have a computer connected to a printer, assemble a portfolio of your most interesting examples.

13.3 LIMITS AND CONTINUITY

We need limits of functions of several variables for the same reasons that we needed limits of functions of a single variable—so that we can discuss continuity, slopes, and rate of change. Both the definition and the basic properties of limits of functions of several variables are essentially the same as those that we stated in Section 2.2 for functions of a single variable. For simplicity, we shall state them here only for functions of two variables x and y ; for a function of three variables, the pair (x, y) should be replaced with the triple (x, y, z) .

For a function f of two variables, we ask what number (if any) the values $f(x, y)$ approach as (x, y) approaches the fixed point (a, b) in the coordinate plane. For a function f of three variables, we ask what number (if any) the values $f(x, y, z)$ approach as (x, y, z) approaches the fixed point (a, b, c) in space.

EXAMPLE 1 The numerical data in the table of Fig. 13.3.1 suggest that the values of the function $f(x, y) = xy$ approach 6 as $x \rightarrow 2$ and $y \rightarrow 3$ simultaneously—that is, as (x, y) approaches the point $(2, 3)$. It therefore is natural to write

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (2, 3)} xy = 6.$$

Our intuitive idea of the limit of a function of two variables is this. We say that the number L is the *limit* of the function $f(x, y)$ as (x, y) approaches the point (a, b) , and we write

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)} f(x, y) = L, \quad (1)$$

provided that the number $f(x, y)$ can be made as close as we please to L merely by choosing the point (x, y) sufficiently close to—but not equal to—the point (a, b) .

To make this intuitive idea precise, we must specify how close to L —within the distance $\epsilon > 0$, say—we want $f(x, y)$ to be, and then how close to (a, b) the point (x, y) must be to accomplish this. We think of the point (x, y) as being close to (a, b) provided that it lies within a small circular disk (Fig. 13.3.2) with center (a, b) and radius δ , where δ is a small positive number. The point (x, y) lies within this disk if and only if

$$\sqrt{(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2} < \delta. \quad (2)$$

This observation serves as motivation for the formal definition, with two additional conditions. First, we define the limit of $f(x, y)$ as $(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)$ *only* under the condition that the domain of definition of f contains points $(x, y) \neq (a, b)$ that lie arbitrarily

x	y	$f(x, y) = xy$ (rounded)
2.2	2.5	5.50000
1.98	3.05	6.03900
2.002	2.995	5.99599
1.9998	3.0005	6.00040
2.00002	2.99995	5.99996
1.999998	3.000005	6.00000
↓	↓	↓
2	3	6

Fig. 13.3.1 The numerical data of Example 1

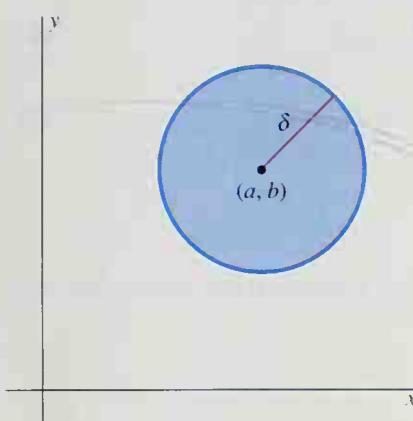


Fig. 13.3.2 The circular disk with center (a, b) and radius δ

close to (a, b) —that is, within *every* disk of the sort shown in Fig. 13.3.2 and thus within any and every preassigned positive distance of (a, b) . Hence we do not speak of the limit of f at an isolated point of its domain D . Finally, we do *not* require that f be defined at the point (a, b) itself. Thus we deliberately exclude the possibility that $(x, y) = (a, b)$.

Definition *The Limit of $f(x, y)$*

We say that the **limit of $f(x, y)$ as (x, y) approaches (a, b) is L** provided that, for every number $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a number $\delta > 0$ with the following property: If (x, y) is a point of the domain of f such that

$$0 < \sqrt{(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2} < \delta, \quad (2')$$

then it follows that

$$|f(x, y) - L| < \epsilon. \quad (3)$$

REMARK The “extra” inequality $0 < \sqrt{(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2}$ in Eq. (2') serves to ensure that $(x, y) \neq (a, b)$.

We ordinarily shall rely on continuity rather than the formal definition of the limit to evaluate limits of functions of several variables. We say that f is **continuous at the point (a, b)** provided that $f(a, b)$ exists and $f(x, y)$ approaches $f(a, b)$ as (x, y) approaches (a, b) . That is,

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)} f(x, y) = f(a, b).$$

Thus f is continuous at (a, b) if it is defined there and its limit there is equal to its value there, precisely as in the case of a function of a single variable. The function f is said to be **continuous on the set D** if it is continuous at each point of D , again exactly as in the single-variable case.

EXAMPLE 2 Let D be the circular disk consisting of the points (x, y) such that $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$, and let $f(x, y) = 1$ at each point of D (Fig. 13.3.3). Then the limit of $f(x, y)$ at each point of D is 1, so f is continuous on D . But let the new function $g(x, y)$ be defined on the entire plane \mathbf{R}^2 as follows:

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} f(x, y) & \text{if } (x, y) \text{ is in } D, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then g is *not* continuous on \mathbf{R}^2 . For instance, the limit of $g(x, y)$ as $(x, y) \rightarrow (1, 0)$ does not exist, because there exist both points within D arbitrarily close to $(1, 0)$ at which g has the value 1 and points outside of D arbitrarily close to $(1, 0)$ at which g has the value 0. Thus $g(x, y)$ cannot approach any single value as $(x, y) \rightarrow (1, 0)$. Because g has no limit at $(1, 0)$, it cannot be continuous there. ■

The limit laws of Section 2.2 have natural analogues for functions of several variables. If

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)} f(x, y) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)} g(x, y) = M, \quad (4)$$

then the sum, product, and quotient laws for limits are these:

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)} [f(x, y) + g(x, y)] = L + M, \quad (5)$$

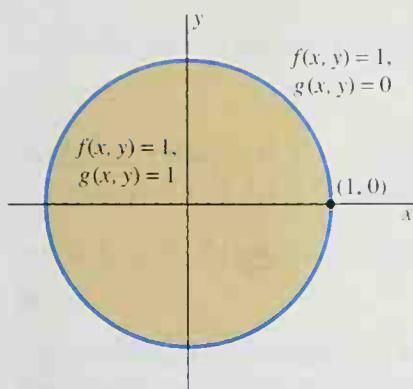


Fig. 13.3.3 The circular disk of Example 2

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} [f(x,y) \cdot g(x,y)] = L \cdot M, \text{ and} \quad (6)$$

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} \frac{f(x,y)}{g(x,y)} = \frac{L}{M} \quad \text{if } M \neq 0. \quad (7)$$

EXAMPLE 3 Show that $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} xy = ab$.

Solution We take $f(x,y) = x$ and $g(x,y) = y$. Then it follows from the definition of limit that

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x,y) = a \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} g(x,y) = b.$$

Hence the product law gives

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} xy &= \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x,y)g(x,y) \\ &= \left[\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x,y) \right] \left[\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} g(x,y) \right] = ab. \end{aligned}$$

More generally, suppose that $P(x,y)$ is a polynomial in the two variables x and y . That is, $P(x,y)$ is a sum of constant multiples of the form $x^i y^j$ where the exponents i and j are nonnegative integers. Thus $P(x,y)$ can be written in the form

$$P(x,y) = \sum c_{ij} x^i y^j.$$

The sum and product laws for limits then imply that

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} P(x,y) &= \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} \sum c_{ij} x^i y^j \\ &= \sum \left(\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} c_{ij} x^i y^j \right) \\ &= \sum c_{ij} \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x^i \right) \left(\lim_{y \rightarrow b} y^j \right) \\ &= \sum c_{ij} a^i b^j = P(a,b). \end{aligned}$$

It follows that *every polynomial in two (or more) variables is an everywhere continuous function*.

EXAMPLE 4 The function $f(x,y) = 2x^4y^2 - 7xy + 4x^2y^3 - 5$ is a polynomial, so we can find its limit at any point (a,b) simply by evaluating $f(a,b)$. For instance,

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (-1,2)} f(x,y) = f(-1,2) = 2 \cdot (-1)^4 (2)^2 - 7 \cdot (-1)(2) + 4 \cdot (-1)^2 (2)^3 - 5 = 49.$$

Just as in the single-variable case, any composition of continuous multivariable functions is also a continuous function. For example, suppose that the functions f and g are both continuous at (a,b) and that h is continuous at the point $(f(a,b), g(a,b))$. Then the composite function

$$H(x,y) = h(f(x,y), g(x,y))$$

is also continuous at (a,b) . As a consequence, any finite combination involving sums, products, quotients, and compositions of the familiar elementary functions is continuous, except possibly at points where a denominator is zero or where the formula for the function is otherwise meaningless. This general rule suffices for the evaluation of most limits that we shall encounter.

EXAMPLE 5 If

$$f(x, y) = e^{xy} \sin \frac{\pi y}{4} + xy \ln \sqrt{y - x},$$

then e^{xy} is the composition of continuous functions, thus continuous; $\sin \frac{1}{4}\pi y$ is continuous for the same reason; their product is continuous because each is continuous. Also $y - x$, a polynomial, is continuous everywhere; $\sqrt{y - x}$ is therefore continuous if $y \geq x$; $\ln \sqrt{y - x}$ is continuous provided that $y > x$; $xy \ln \sqrt{y - x}$ is the product of functions continuous if $y > x$. And thus the sum

$$f(x, y) = e^{xy} \sin \frac{\pi y}{4} + xy \ln \sqrt{y - x}$$

of functions continuous if $y > x$ is itself continuous if $y > x$. Because $f(x, y)$ is continuous if $y > x$, it follows that

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (1, 2)} \left[e^{xy} \sin \frac{\pi y}{4} + xy \ln \sqrt{y - x} \right] = f(1, 2) = e^2 \cdot 1 + 2 \ln 1 = e^2. \quad \blacksquare$$

Examples 6 and 7 illustrate techniques that sometimes are successful in handling cases with denominators that approach zero; in such cases the techniques of Examples 4 and 5 cannot be applied.

EXAMPLE 6 Show that $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = 0$.

Solution Let (r, θ) be the polar coordinates of the point (x, y) . Then $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$, so

$$\frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = \frac{(r \cos \theta)(r \sin \theta)}{\sqrt{r^2(\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)}} = r \cos \theta \sin \theta \quad \text{for } r > 0.$$

Because $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, it is clear that $r \rightarrow 0$ as both x and y approach zero. It therefore follows that

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} r \cos \theta \sin \theta = 0,$$

because $|\cos \theta \sin \theta| \leq |\cos \theta| |\sin \theta| \leq 1$ for all θ . So if the function f is defined as

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0), \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y = 0, \end{cases}$$

then it follows that f is continuous at the origin $(0, 0)$. Figure 13.3.4 shows the graph of $z = f(x, y)$. It corroborates the zero limit that we found at $(0, 0)$. Near the origin the graph appears to resemble the saddle point on a hyperbolic paraboloid (Fig. 13.2.13), but this doesn't look like a smooth and comfortable saddle. \blacksquare

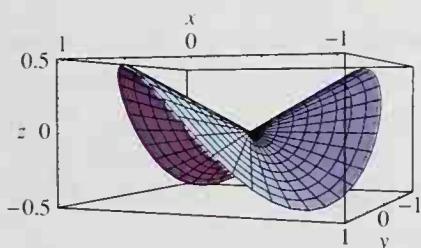


Fig. 13.3.4 The graph
 $z = \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$ (Example 6)

EXAMPLE 7 Show that

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$$

does not exist.

Solution Our plan is to show that $f(x, y) = xy/(x^2 + y^2)$ approaches different values as (x, y) approaches $(0, 0)$ from different directions. Suppose that (x, y) approaches $(0, 0)$ along the straight line of slope m through the origin. On this line we have $y = mx$. So, on this line,

$$f(x, y) = f(x, mx) = \frac{x \cdot mx}{x^2 + m^2 x^2} = \frac{m}{1 + m^2}$$

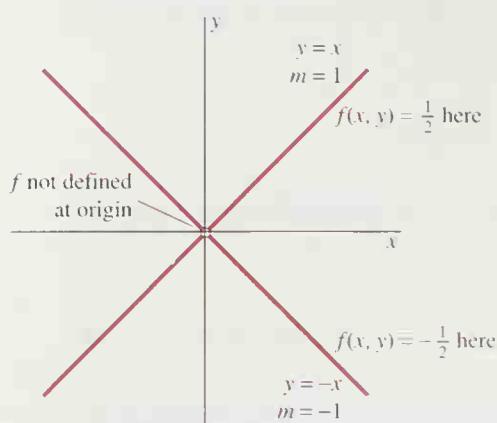


Fig. 13.3.5 The function f of Example 7 takes on both values $\pm\frac{1}{2}$ at points arbitrarily close to the origin.

if $x \neq 0$. If we take $m = 1$, we see that $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}$ at every point of the line $y = x$ other than $(0, 0)$. If we take $m = -1$, then $f(x, y) = -\frac{1}{2}$ at every point of the line $y = -x$ other than $(0, 0)$. Thus $f(x, y)$ approaches two different values as (x, y) approaches $(0, 0)$ along these two lines (Fig. 13.3.5). Hence $f(x, y)$ cannot approach any single value as (x, y) approaches $(0, 0)$, and this implies that the limit in question cannot exist.

Figure 13.3.6 shows a computer-generated graph of the function $f(x, y) = xy/(x^2 + y^2)$. It consists of linear rays along each of which the polar angular coordinate θ is constant. For each number z between $-\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ (inclusive), there are rays along which $f(x, y)$ has the constant value z . Hence we can make $f(x, y)$ approach any number we please in $[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$ by letting (x, y) approach $(0, 0)$ from the appropriate direction. There are also paths along which (x, y) approaches $(0, 0)$ but the limit of $f(x, y)$ does not exist (Problem 53).

REMARK For

$$L = \lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (a, b)} f(x, y)$$

to exist, $f(x, y)$ must approach L for any and every mode of approach of (x, y) to (a, b) . In Problem 51 we give an example of a function f such that $f(x, y) \rightarrow 0$ as $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$ along any straight line through the origin, but $f(x, y) \rightarrow 1$ as $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$ along the parabola $y = x^2$. Thus the method of Example 7 cannot be used to show that a limit exists, only that it does not. Fortunately, many important applications, including those we discuss in the remainder of this chapter, involve only functions that exhibit no such exotic behavior as the functions of Problems 51 and 53.

EXAMPLE 8 The function g given by

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy^2}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0), \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y = 0 \end{cases}$$

differs from the function $f(x, y) = xy/(x^2 + y^2)$ of Example 7 only in the presence of additional factor y in the numerator, so $g(x, y) = y \cdot f(x, y)$. Because $g(x, y)$ is a quotient of polynomials, the function g is continuous except possibly at the origin $(0, 0)$ —the only point where its denominator is zero.

To investigate the limit of $g(x, y)$ at $(0, 0)$, we recall from the solution of Example 7 that $f(x, y) = m/(1 + m^2)$ on every straight line $y = mx$ of slope m through the origin in the xy -plane. (The only points of the plane not on such a line are on the y -axis, where $f(0, y) = 0/y^2 \equiv 0$ if $y \neq 0$.) We therefore conclude from the graph of $h(m) = m/(1 + m^2)$ in Fig. 13.3.7 that $|f(x, y)| < 1$ for every point $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$. It follows that

$$|g(x, y)| = |y \cdot f(x, y)| = |y| \cdot |f(x, y)| \leq |y|,$$

and hence that

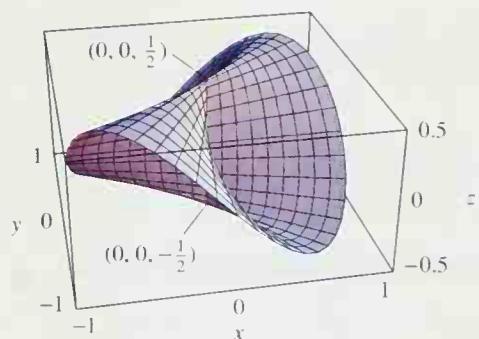


Fig. 13.3.6 The graph of $f(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$ (Example 7)

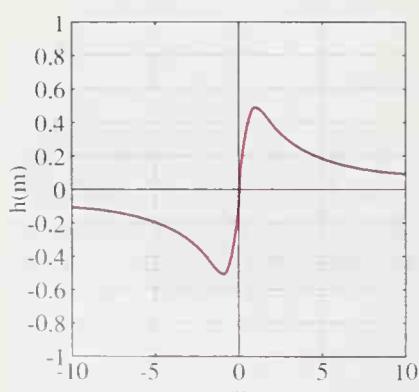


Fig. 13.3.7 $\left| \frac{m}{1 + m^2} \right| < 1$ for all m

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} g(x,y) = 0 = g(0,0),$$

because certainly $y \rightarrow 0$ as $(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)$. Thus we see that the function g is continuous at the origin as well. Figure 13.3.8 shows a computer-generated graph $z = g(x,y)$. It appears to exhibit some kind of saddle point behavior near the origin. ■

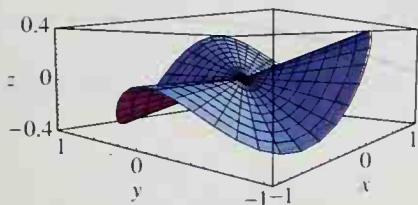


Fig. 13.3.8 The graph of $g(x,y) = \frac{xy^2}{x^2 + y^2}$

In this section we have discussed explicitly only functions of two variables, but the concepts of limits and continuity generalize in a straightforward manner to functions of three or more variables. Suppose that $f: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is a function of n variables and we use vector notation $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ for points in n -dimensional space \mathbf{R}^n . Then the limit concept takes the precise form of the statement that

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) = L \quad (8)$$

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

$$|f(\mathbf{x}) - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}| < \delta. \quad (9)$$

Then the function f is continuous at the point $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ provided that

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{a}). \quad (10)$$

An attractive feature of vector notation is that the multidimensional statements in (8) and (9) take precisely the same forms as in the case of functions of a single variable.

13.3 PROBLEMS

Use the limit laws and consequences of continuity to evaluate the limits in Problems 1 through 16.

$$1. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} (7 - x^2 + 5xy)$$

$$2. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,-2)} (3x^2 - 4xy + 5y^2)$$

$$3. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,-1)} e^{-xy}$$

$$4. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x+y}{1+xy}$$

$$5. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{5-x^2}{3+x+y}$$

$$6. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (2,3)} \frac{9-x^2}{1+xy}$$

$$7. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \ln \sqrt{1-x^2-y^2}$$

$$8. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (2,-1)} \ln \frac{1+x+2y}{3y^2-x}$$

$$9. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{e^{xy} \sin xy}{xy}$$

$$10. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2+y^2}\right)$$

$$11. \lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (1,1,1)} \frac{x^2+y^2+z^2}{1-x-y-z}$$

$$12. \lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (1,1,1)} (x+y+z) \ln xyz$$

$$13. \lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (1,1,0)} \frac{xy-z}{\cos xyz}$$

$$14. \lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (2,-1,3)} \frac{x+y+z}{x^2+y^2+z^2}$$

$$15. \lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (2,8,1)} \sqrt{xy} \tan \frac{3\pi z}{4}$$

$$16. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,-1)} \arcsin \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}$$

In Problems 17 through 20, evaluate the limits

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h,y) - f(x,y)}{h} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x,y+k) - f(x,y)}{k}.$$

$$17. f(x,y) = xy$$

$$18. f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$$

$$19. f(x,y) = xy^2 - 2$$

$$20. f(x,y) = x^2y^3 - 10$$

In Problems 21 through 30, find the limit or show that it does not exist.

$$21. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,1)} \frac{1-xy}{1+xy}$$

$$22. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (2,-2)} \frac{4-xy}{4+xy}$$

$$23. \lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (1,1,1)} \frac{xyz}{yz+xz+xy}$$

$$24. \lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (-1,-1,1)} \frac{yz+xz+xy}{1+xyz}$$

$$25. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \ln(1+x^2+y^2)$$

$$26. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (1,1)} \ln(2-x^2-y^2)$$

$$27. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{\sin xy}{xy}$$

$$28. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \sin(\ln(1+x+y))$$

$$29. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{x^2+y^2}\right)$$

$$30. \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \arctan\left(-\frac{1}{x^2+y^2}\right)$$

In Problems 31 through 36, determine the largest set of points in the xy -plane on which the given formula defines a continuous function.

31. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x + y}$

32. $f(x, y) = \sin^{-1}(x^2 + y^2)$

33. $f(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + y^2 - 1)$

34. $f(x, y) = \ln(2x - y)$

35. $f(x, y) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}\right)$

36. $f(x, y) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{x + y}\right)$

In Problems 37 through 40, evaluate the limit by making the polar coordinates substitution $(x, y) = (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$ and using the fact that $r \rightarrow 0$ as $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$.

37. $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 - y^2}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = 0$

38. $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^3 - y^3}{x^2 + y^2} = 0$

39. $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^4 + y^4}{(x^2 + y^2)^{3/2}} = 0$

40. $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{\sin \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$

41. Determine whether or not

$$\lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (0,0,0)} \frac{xyz}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

exists; evaluate it in the former case. (Suggestion: Substitute spherical coordinates $x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta$, $y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta$, $z = \rho \cos \phi$.)

42. Determine whether or not

$$\lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (0,0,0)} \arctan \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

exists; evaluate it in the former case. (See the Suggestion for Problem 41.)

In Problems 43 and 44, investigate the existence of the given limit by making the substitution $y = mx$.

43. $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2}$

44. $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^3 + y^3}{x^2 + y^2}$

In Problems 45 and 46, show that the given limit does not exist by considering points of the form $(x, 0, 0)$ or $(0, y, 0)$ or $(0, 0, z)$ that approach the origin along one of the coordinate axes.

45. $\lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (0,0,0)} \frac{x + y + z}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

46. $\lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (0,0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2 - z^2}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

In Problems 47 through 50, use a computer-plotted graph to explain why the given limit does not exist.

47. $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 - 2y^2}{x^2 + y^2}$

48. $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 y^2}{x^4 + y^4}$

49. $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{xy}{2x^2 + 3y^2}$

50. $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + 4xy + y^2}{x^2 + xy + y^2}$

51. Let

$$f(x, y) = \frac{2x^2 y}{x^4 + y^2}.$$

(a) Show that $f(x, y) \rightarrow 0$ as $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$ along any and every straight line through the origin. (b) Show that $f(x, y) \rightarrow 1$ as $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$ along the parabola $y = x^2$. Conclude that the limit of $f(x, y)$ as $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$ does not exist. The graph of f is shown in Fig. 13.3.9.

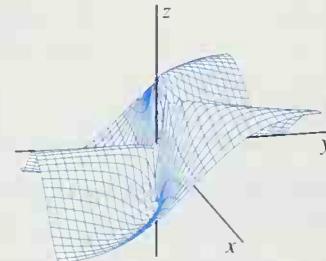


Fig. 13.3.9 The graph of the function f of Problem 51

52. Suppose that $f(x, y) = (x - y)/(x^3 - y)$ except at points of the curve $y = x^3$, where we define $f(x, y)$ to be 1. Show that f is not continuous at the point $(1, 1)$. Evaluate the limits of $f(x, y)$ as $(x, y) \rightarrow (1, 1)$ along the vertical line $x = 1$ and along the horizontal line $y = 1$. (Suggestion: Recall that $a^3 - b^3 = (a - b)(a^2 + ab + b^2)$.)

53. Let

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$$

be the limit of Example 7. Show that as $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$ along the hyperbolic spiral $r\theta = 1$, the limit of $f(x, y)$ does not exist.

13.4 PARTIAL DERIVATIVES

Recall that the derivative of a single-variable function $u = g(x)$ is defined as

$$\frac{du}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta u}{\Delta x},$$

where $\Delta u = g(x + h) - g(x)$ is the change in u resulting from the change $h = \Delta x$ in x . This derivative is interpreted as the instantaneous rate of change of u with respect

to x . For a function $z = f(x, y)$ of two variables, we need a similar understanding of the rate at which z changes as x and y vary (either singly or simultaneously).

We take a divide-and-conquer approach to this concept. If x is changed by $h = \Delta x$ but y is not changed, then the resulting change in z is

$$\Delta z = f(x + h, y) - f(x, y),$$

and the corresponding instantaneous rate of change of z is

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta x}. \quad (1)$$

On the other hand, if x is not changed but y is changed by the amount $k = \Delta y$, then the resulting change in z is

$$\Delta z = f(x, y + k) - f(x, y),$$

and the corresponding instantaneous rate of change of z is

$$\frac{dz}{dy} = \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta y}. \quad (2)$$

The limits in Eqs. (1) and (2) are the *two partial derivatives* of the function $f(x, y)$ with respect to its two independent variables x and y , respectively.

Definition Partial Derivatives

The **partial derivatives (with respect to x and with respect to y)** of the function $f(x, y)$ are the two functions defined by

$$f_x(x, y) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + h, y) - f(x, y)}{h}, \quad (3)$$

$$f_y(x, y) = \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x, y + k) - f(x, y)}{k} \quad (4)$$

wherever these limits exist.

Note that Eqs. (3) and (4) are simply restatements of Eqs. (1) and (2). Just as with single-variable derivatives, there are several alternative ways of writing partial derivatives.

Notation for Partial Derivatives

If $z = f(x, y)$, then we may express its partial derivatives with respect to x and y , respectively, in these forms:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = f_x(x, y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x, y) = D_x[f(x, y)] = D_1[f(x, y)], \quad (5)$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = f_y(x, y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(x, y) = D_y[f(x, y)] = D_2[f(x, y)]. \quad (6)$$

Computer algebra systems generally employ variants of the “operator notation” for partial derivatives, such as

`diff(f(x,y), x)` and `D[f[x,y], x]`

in *Maple* and *Mathematica*, respectively.

Note that if we delete the symbol y throughout Eq. (3), the result is the limit that defines the single-variable derivative $f'(x)$. This means that we can calculate $\partial z / \partial x$ as an “ordinary” derivative with respect to x simply by regarding y as a constant during the process of differentiation. Similarly, we can compute $\partial z / \partial y$ as an ordinary derivative by thinking of y as the *only* variable and treating x as a constant during the computation.

Consequently, we seldom need to evaluate directly the limits in Eqs. (3) and (4) in order to calculate partial derivatives. Ordinarily we simply apply familiar differentiation results to differentiate $f(x, y)$ with respect to either independent variable (x or y) while holding the other variable constant. In short,

- ▼ To calculate $\partial f / \partial x$, regard y as a constant and differentiate with respect to x .
- ▼ To calculate $\partial f / \partial y$ regard x as a constant and differentiate with respect to y .

EXAMPLE 1 Compute the partial derivatives $\partial f / \partial x$ and $\partial f / \partial y$ of the function $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2xy^2 - y^3$.

Solution To compute the partial of f with respect to x , we regard y as a constant. Then we differentiate normally and find that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x + 2y^2.$$

When we regard x as a constant and differentiate with respect to y , we find that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 4xy - 3y^2.$$

EXAMPLE 2 Find $\partial z / \partial x$ and $\partial z / \partial y$ if $z = (x^2 + y^2)e^{-xy}$.

Solution Because $\partial z / \partial x$ is calculated as if it were an ordinary derivative with respect to x , with y held constant, we use the product rule. This gives

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = (2x)(e^{-xy}) + (x^2 + y^2)(-ye^{-xy}) = (2x - x^2y - y^3)e^{-xy}.$$

Because x and y appear symmetrically in the expression for z , we get $\partial z / \partial y$ when we interchange x and y in the expression for $\partial z / \partial x$:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = (2y - xy^2 - x^3)e^{-xy}.$$

You should check this result by differentiating with respect to y directly in order to find $\partial z / \partial y$.

Instantaneous Rates of Change

To get an intuitive feel for the meaning of partial derivatives, we can think of $f(x, y)$ as the temperature at the point (x, y) of the plane. Then $f_x(x, y)$ is the instantaneous rate of change of temperature at (x, y) per unit increase in x (with y held constant). Similarly, $f_y(x, y)$ is the instantaneous rate of change of temperature per unit increase in y (with x held constant).

EXAMPLE 3 Suppose that the xy -plane is somehow heated and that its temperature at the point (x, y) is given by the function $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2xy^2 - y^3$, whose partial derivatives $f_x(x, y) = 2x + 2y^2$ and $f_y(x, y) = 4xy - 3y^2$ were calculated in Example 1. Suppose also that distance is measured in miles and temperature in degrees Celsius ($^{\circ}\text{C}$). Then at the point $(1, -1)$, one mile east and one mile south of the origin, the rate of change of temperature (in degrees per mile) in the (eastward) positive x -direction is

$$f_x(1, -1) = 2 \cdot (1) + 2 \cdot (-1)^2 = 4 \text{ (deg/mi)},$$

and the rate of change in the (northward) positive y -direction is

$$f_y(1, -1) = 4 \cdot 1 \cdot (-1) - 3 \cdot (-1)^2 = -7 \text{ (deg/mi)}.$$

Thus, if we start at the point $(1, -1)$ and walk $\frac{1}{10}$ mi east, we expect to experience a temperature increase of about $4 \cdot (0.1) = 0.4^{\circ}\text{C}$. If instead we started at $(1, -1)$ and walked 0.2 mi north, we would expect to experience a temperature change of about $(-7) \cdot (0.2) = -1.4^{\circ}\text{C}$; that is, a temperature decrease of about 1.4°C . ■

EXAMPLE 4 The volume V (in cubic centimeters) of 1 mole (mol) of an ideal gas is given by

$$V = \frac{(82.06)T}{p},$$

where p is the pressure (in atmospheres) and T is the absolute temperature (in kelvins (K), where $K = ^{\circ}\text{C} + 273$). Find the rates of change of the volume of 1 mol of an ideal gas with respect to pressure and with respect to temperature when $T = 300$ K and $p = 5$ atm.

Solution The partial derivatives of V with respect to its two variables are

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial p} = -\frac{(82.06)T}{p^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial V}{\partial T} = \frac{82.06}{p}.$$

With $T = 300$ and $p = 5$, we have the values $\partial V / \partial p = -984.72$ (cm^3/atm) and $\partial V / \partial T = 16.41$ (cm^3/K). These partial derivatives allow us to estimate the effect of a small change in temperature or in pressure on the volume V of the gas, as follows. We are given $T = 300$ and $p = 5$, so the volume of gas with which we are dealing is

$$V = \frac{(82.06)(300)}{5} = 4923.60 \text{ (cm}^3\text{)}.$$

We would expect an increase in pressure of 1 atm (with T held constant) to decrease the volume of gas by approximately 1 L (1000 cm^3), because $-984.72 \approx -1000$. An increase in temperature of 1 K (or 1°C) would, with p held constant, increase the volume by about 16 cm^3 , because $16.41 \approx 16$. ■

Geometric Interpretation of Partial Derivatives

The partial derivatives f_x and f_y are the slopes of lines tangent to certain curves on the surface $z = f(x, y)$. Figure 13.4.1 illustrates the intersection of this surface with a vertical plane $y = b$ that is parallel to the xz -coordinate plane. Along the intersection

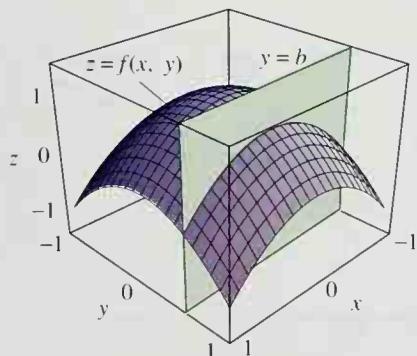


Fig. 13.4.1 A vertical plane parallel to the xz -plane intersects the surface $z = f(x, y)$ in an x -curve.

curve, the x -coordinate varies but the y -coordinate is constant: $y = b$ at each point, because the curve lies in the vertical plane $y = b$. A curve of intersection of $z = f(x, y)$ with a vertical plane parallel to the xz -plane is therefore called an **x -curve** on the surface.

Figure 13.4.2 shows a point $P(a, b, c)$ in the surface $z = f(x, y)$, the x -curve through P , and the line tangent to this x -curve at P . Figure 13.4.3 shows the parallel projection of the vertical plane $y = b$ onto the xz -plane itself. We can now “ignore” the presence of $y = b$ and regard $z = f(x, b)$ as a function of the *single* variable x . The slope of the line tangent to the original x -curve through P (see Fig. 13.4.2) is equal to the slope of the tangent line in Fig. 13.4.3. But by familiar single-variable calculus, this latter slope is given by

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta x} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h, b) - f(a, b)}{h} = f_x(a, b).$$

Thus we see that the geometric meaning of f_x is this:

The value $\partial z / \partial y = f_y(a, b)$ is the slope of the line tangent at $P(a, b, c)$ to the x -curve through P on the surface $z = f(x, y)$.

We proceed in much the same way to investigate the geometric meaning of partial differentiation with respect to y . Figure 13.4.4 illustrates the intersection with the surface $z = f(x, y)$ of a vertical plane $x = a$ that is parallel to the yz -coordinate plane. Now the curve of intersection is a **y -curve** along which y varies but $x = a$ is constant. Figure 13.4.5 shows this y -curve $z = f(a, y)$ and its tangent line at P . The projection of the tangent line in the yz -plane (in Fig. 13.4.6) has slope $\partial z / \partial y = f_y(a, b)$. Thus we see that the geometric meaning of f_y is this:

The value $\partial z / \partial x = f_y(a, b)$ is the slope of the line tangent at $P(a, b, c)$ to the y -curve through P on the surface $z = f(x, y)$.

EXAMPLE 5 Suppose that the graph $z = 5xy \exp(-x^2 - 2y^2)$ in Fig. 13.4.7 represents a terrain featuring two peaks (hills, actually) and two pits. With all distances measured in miles, z is the altitude above the point (x, y) at sea level in the xy -plane. For instance, the height of the pictured point P is $z(-1, -1) = 5e^{-3} \approx 0.2489$ (mi),

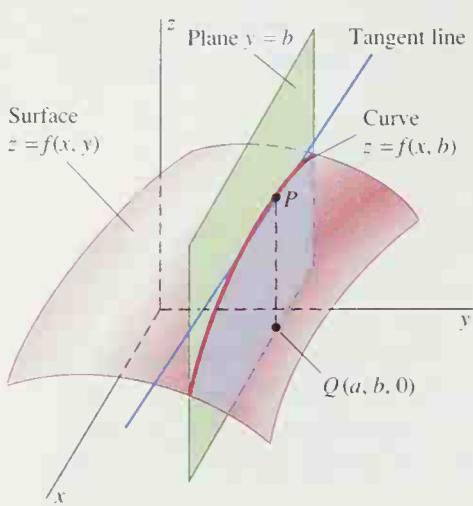


Fig. 13.4.2 An x -curve and its tangent line

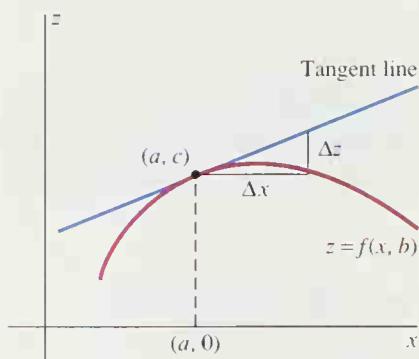


Fig. 13.4.3 Projection into the xz -plane of the x -curve through $P(a, b, c)$ and its tangent line

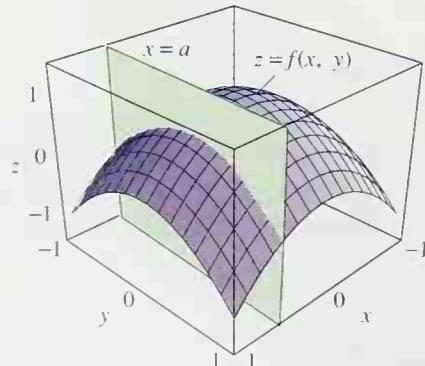


Fig. 13.4.4 A vertical plane parallel to the yz -plane intersects the surface $z = f(x, y)$ in a y -curve.

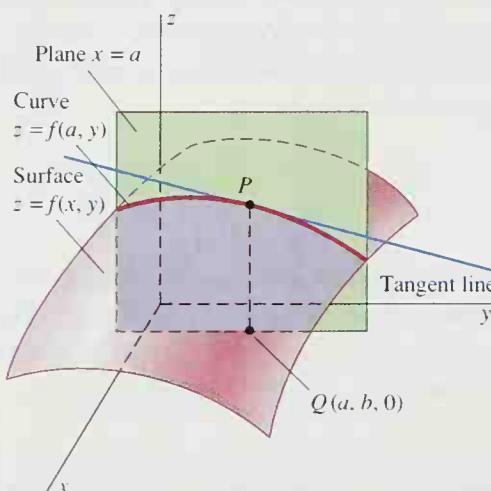


Fig. 13.4.5 A y -curve and its tangent line

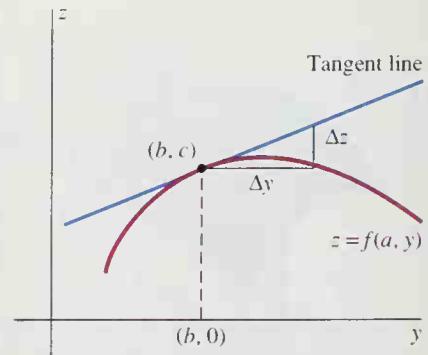


Fig. 13.4.6 Projection into the yz -plane of the y -curve through $P(a, b, c)$ and its tangent line

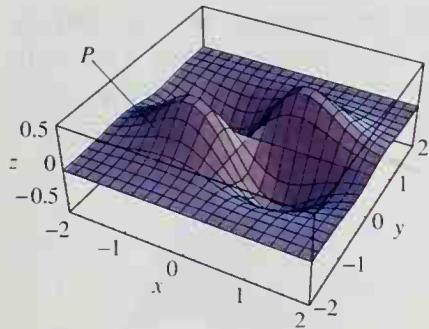


Fig. 13.4.7 The graph
 $z = 5xy \exp(-x^2 - 2y^2)$

about 1314 ft above sea level. We ask at what rate we climb if, starting at the point $P(-1, -1, 0.2489)$, we head either due east (the positive x -direction) or due north (the positive y -direction). If we calculate the two partial derivatives of $z(x, y)$, we get

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = 5y(1 - 2x^2) \exp(-x^2 - 2y^2) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 5x(1 - 4y^2) \exp(-x^2 - 2y^2).$$

(You should check this!) Substitution of $x = y = -1$ now gives

$$\left. \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right|_{(-1, -1)} = 5e^{-3} \approx 0.2489 \quad \text{and} \quad \left. \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \right|_{(-1, -1)} = 15e^{-3} \approx 0.7468.$$

The units here are in miles per mile—that is, the ratio of rise to run in vertical miles per horizontal mile. So if we head east, we start climbing at an angle of

$$\alpha = \tan^{-1}(0.2489) \approx 0.2439 \text{ (rad)},$$

about 13.97° (see Fig. 13.4.8). But if we head north, then we start climbing at an angle of

$$\beta = \tan^{-1}(0.7468) \approx 0.6414 \text{ (rad)},$$

approximately 36.75° (see Fig. 13.4.9). Do these result appear consistent with Fig. 13.4.7? ■

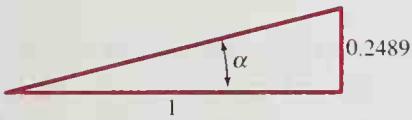


Fig. 13.4.8 The angle of climb in the x -direction

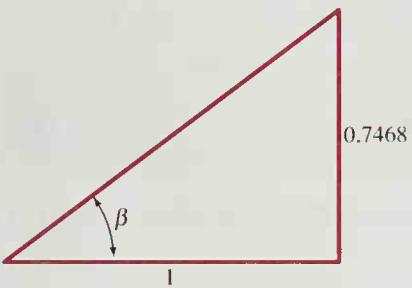


Fig. 13.4.9 The angle of climb in the y -direction

Planes Tangent to Surfaces

The two tangent lines illustrated in Figs. 13.4.2 and 13.4.5 determine a unique plane through the point $P(a, b, f(a, b))$. We will see in Section 13.7 that if the partial derivatives f_x and f_y are continuous functions of x and y , then this plane contains the line tangent at P to every smooth curve on the surface $z = f(x, y)$ that passes through P . This plane is therefore (by definition) the plane tangent to the surface at P .

Definition *Plane Tangent to $z = f(x, y)$*

Suppose that the function $f(x, y)$ has continuous partial derivatives on a rectangle in the xy -plane containing (a, b) in its interior. Then the **plane tangent** to the surface $z = f(x, y)$ at the point $P(a, b, f(a, b))$ is the plane through P that contains the lines tangent to the two curves

$$z = f(x, b), \quad y = b \quad (\text{x-curve}) \tag{7}$$

and

$$z = f(a, y), \quad x = a \quad (\text{y-curve}). \tag{8}$$

To find an equation of this tangent plane at the point $P(a, b, c)$ where $c = f(a, b)$, recall from Section 12.4 that a typical nonvertical plane in space that passes through the point P has an equation of the form

$$A(x - a) + B(y - b) + C(z - c) = 0 \tag{9}$$

where $C \neq 0$. If we solve for $z - c$, we get the equation

$$z - c = p(x - a) + q(y - b) \tag{10}$$

where $p = -A/C$ and $q = -B/C$. This plane will be tangent to the surface $z = f(x, y)$ at the point $P(a, b, c)$ provided that the line defined in Eq. (10) with $y = b$ is tangent to the x -curve in Eq. (7), and the line defined in (10) with $x = a$ is tangent to the y -curve in Eq. (8). But the substitution $y = b$ reduces Eq. (10) to

$$z - c = p(x - a), \text{ so } \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = p,$$

and the substitution $x = a$ reduces Eq. (10) to

$$z - c = q(y - b), \text{ so } \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = q.$$

But our discussion of the geometric interpretation of partial derivatives gave

$$\left. \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right|_{(a, b)} = f_x(a, b) \text{ and } \left. \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \right|_{(a, b)} = f_y(a, b)$$

for the slopes of the lines through P that are tangent there to the x -curve and y -curve, respectively. Hence we must have $p = f_x(a, b)$ and $q = f_y(a, b)$ in order for the plane in Eq. (10) to be tangent to the surface $z = f(x, y)$ at the point P . Substitution of these values in Eq. (10) yields the following result.

The Plane Tangent to a Surface

The plane tangent to the surface $z = f(x, y)$ at the point $P(a, b, f(a, b))$ has equation

$$z - f(a, b) = f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b). \quad (11)$$

If for variety we write (x_0, y_0, z_0) for the coordinates of P , we can rewrite Eq. (11) in the form

$$f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) + (-1)(z - z_0) = 0, \quad (12)$$

from which we see (by consulting Eq. (8) in Section 12.4) that the plane tangent to the surface $z = f(x, y)$ at the point $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ has **normal vector**

$$\mathbf{n} = f_x(x_0, y_0)\mathbf{i} + f_y(x_0, y_0)\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k} = \left\langle \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}, -1 \right\rangle. \quad (13)$$

Note that \mathbf{n} is a downward-pointing vector (Why?); its negative $-\mathbf{n}$ is the upward-pointing vector shown in Fig. 13.4.10.

EXAMPLE 6 Write an equation of the plane tangent to the paraboloid $z = 5 - 2x^2 - y^2$ at the point $P(1, 1, 2)$.

Solution If $f(x, y) = 5 - 2x^2 - y^2$, then

$$\begin{aligned} f_x(x, y) &= -4x, & f_y(x, y) &= -2y; \\ f_x(1, 1) &= -4, & f_y(1, 1) &= -2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence Eq. (11) gives

$$z - 2 = -4(x - 1) - 2(y - 1)$$

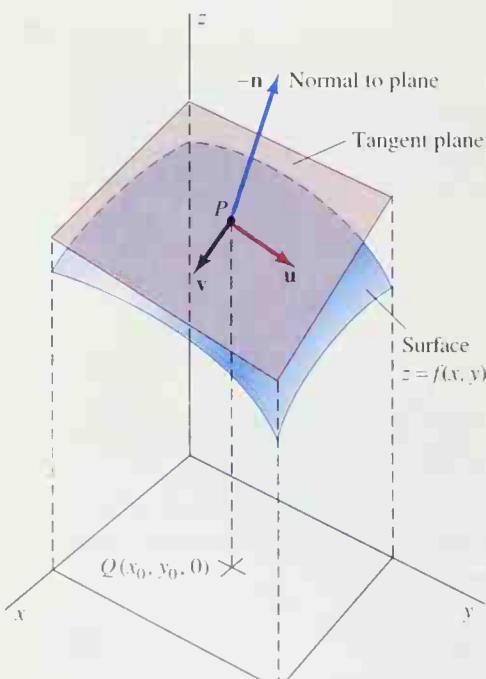


Fig. 13.4.10 The surface $z = f(x, y)$, its tangent plane at $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$, and the vector $-\mathbf{n}$ normal to both at P

(when simplified, $z = 8 - 4x - 2y$) as an equation of the plane tangent to the paraboloid at P . The computer plot in Fig. 13.4.11 corroborates this result. ■

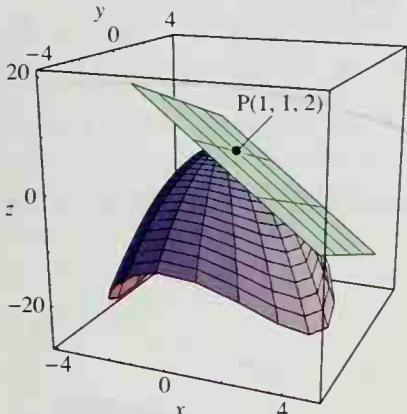


Fig. 13.4.11 The paraboloid and tangent plane of Example 6

Higher-Order Partial Derivatives

The **first-order partial derivatives** f_x and f_y are themselves functions of x and y , so they may be differentiated with respect to x or to y . The partial derivatives of $f_x(x, y)$ and $f_y(x, y)$ are called the **second-order partial derivatives** of f . There are four of them because there are four possibilities in the order of differentiation:

$$(f_x)_x = f_{xx} = \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2},$$

$$(f_x)_y = f_{xy} = \frac{\partial f_x}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x},$$

$$(f_y)_x = f_{yx} = \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y},$$

$$(f_y)_y = f_{yy} = \frac{\partial f_y}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}.$$

If we write $z = f(x, y)$, then we can replace each occurrence of the symbol f here with z .

Note The function f_{xy} is the second-order partial derivative of f with respect to x first and then to y ; f_{yx} is the result of differentiating with respect to y first and x second. Although f_{xy} and f_{yx} are not necessarily equal, it is proved in advanced calculus that these two “mixed” second-order partial derivatives are equal if both are continuous. More precisely, if f_{xy} and f_{yx} are continuous on a circular disk centered at the point (a, b) , then

$$f_{xy}(a, b) = f_{yx}(a, b). \quad (14)$$

[If both f_{xy} and f_{yx} are continuous merely at (a, b) , they may well be unequal there.] Because most functions of interest to us have second-order partial derivatives that are continuous everywhere they are defined, we will ordinarily need to deal with only three distinct second-order partial derivatives rather than with four. Similarly, if $f(x, y, z)$ is a function of three variables with continuous second-order partial derivatives, then

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial z} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z \partial x}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial z} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z \partial y}.$$

Third-order and higher-order partial derivatives are defined similarly, and the order in which the differentiations are performed is unimportant as long as all derivatives involved are continuous. In such a case, for example, the distinct third-order partial derivatives of the function $z = f(x, y)$ are

$$f_{xxx} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right) = \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial x^3},$$

$$f_{xxy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right) = \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial y \partial x^2},$$

$$f_{xyy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \right) = \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial y^2 \partial x}, \text{ and}$$

$$f_{yyy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \right) = \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial y^3}.$$

EXAMPLE 7 Show that the partial derivatives of third and higher orders of the function $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2xy^2 - y^3$ are constant.

Solution We find that

$$f_x(x, y) = 2x + 2y^2 \quad \text{and} \quad f_y(x, y) = 4xy - 3y^2.$$

So

$$f_{xx}(x, y) = 2, \quad f_{xy}(x, y) = 4y, \quad \text{and} \quad f_{yy}(x, y) = 4x - 6y.$$

Finally,

$$f_{xxx}(x, y) = 0, \quad f_{xxy}(x, y) = 0, \quad f_{xyy}(x, y) = 4, \quad \text{and} \quad f_{yyy}(x, y) = -6.$$

The function f is a polynomial, so all its partial derivative are polynomials and are therefore continuous everywhere. Hence we need not compute any other third-order partial derivatives; each is equal to one of these four. Moreover, because all the third-order partial derivatives are constant, all higher-order partial derivatives of f are zero. ■

13.4 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 20, compute the first-order partial derivatives of each function.

1. $f(x, y) = x^4 - x^3y + x^2y^2 - xy^3 + y^4$
2. $f(x, y) = x \sin y$
3. $f(x, y) = e^x(\cos y - \sin y)$
4. $f(x, y) = x^2e^{xy}$
5. $f(x, y) = \frac{x+y}{x-y}$
6. $f(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$
7. $f(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + y^2)$
8. $f(x, y) = (x - y)^{14}$
9. $f(x, y) = x^y$
10. $f(x, y) = \tan^{-1}xy$
11. $f(x, y, z) = x^2y^3z^4$
12. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^3 + z^4$
13. $f(x, y, z) = e^{xyz}$
14. $f(x, y, z) = x^4 - 16yz$
15. $f(x, y, z) = x^2e^y \ln z$
16. $f(u, v) = (2u^2 + 3v^2)\exp(-u^2 - v^2)$
17. $f(r, s) = \frac{r^2 - s^2}{r^2 + s^2}$
18. $f(u, v) = e^{uv}(\cos uv + \sin uv)$
19. $f(u, v, w) = ue^v + ve^w + we^u$
20. $f(r, s, t) = (1 - r^2 - s^2 - t^2)e^{-rst}$

In Problems 21 through 30, verify that $z_{xy} = z_{yx}$.

21. $z = x^2 - 4xy + 3y^2$
22. $z = 2x^3 + 5x^2y - 6y^2 + xy^4$
23. $z = x^2 \exp(-y^2)$
24. $z = xye^{-xy}$

25. $z = \ln(x + y)$
26. $z = (x^3 + y^3)^{10}$
27. $z = e^{-3x} \cos y$
28. $z = (x + y) \sec xy$
29. $z = x^2 \cosh(1/y^2)$
30. $z = \sin xy + \tan^{-1}xy$

In Problems 31 through 40, find an equation of the plane tangent to the given surface $z = f(x, y)$ at the indicated point P .

31. $z = x^2 + y^2; P = (3, 4, 25)$
32. $z = \sqrt{25 - x^2 - y^2}; P = (4, -3, 0)$
33. $z = \sin \frac{\pi xy}{2}; P = (3, 5, -1)$
34. $z = \frac{4}{\pi} \tan^{-1}xy; P = (1, 1, 1)$
35. $z = x^3 - y^3; P = (3, 2, 19)$
36. $z = 3x + 4y; P = (1, 1, 7)$
37. $z = xy; P = (1, -1, -1)$
38. $z = \exp(-x^2 - y^2); P = (0, 0, 1)$
39. $z = x^2 - 4y^2; P = (5, 2, 9)$
40. $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}; P = (3, -4, 5)$

Recall that $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$ for a function $f(x, y)$ with continuous second-order partial derivatives. In Problems 41 through 44, apply this criterion to determine whether there exists a function $f(x, y)$ having the given first-order partial derivatives. If so, try to determine a formula for such a function $f(x, y)$.

41. $f_x(x, y) = 2xy^3, f_y(x, y) = 3x^2y^2$

42. $f_x(x, y) = 5xy + y^2$, $f_y(x, y) = 3x^2 + 2xy$

43. $f_x(x, y) = \cos^2(xy)$, $f_y(x, y) = \sin^2(xy)$

44. $f_x(x, y) = \cos x \sin y$, $f_y(x, y) = \sin x \cos y$

Figures 13.4.12 through 13.4.17 show the graphs of a certain function $f(x, y)$ and its first- and second-order partial derivatives. In Problems 45 through 50, match that function or partial derivative with its graph.

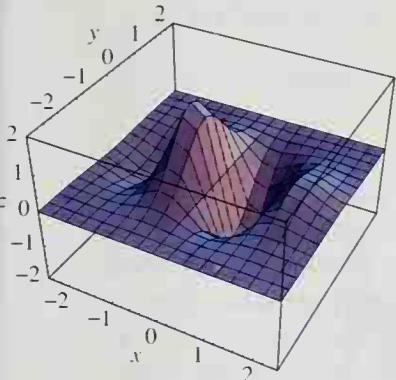


Fig. 13.4.12

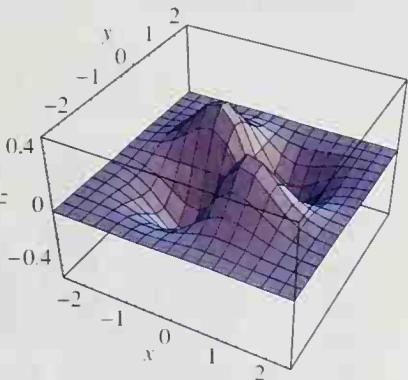


Fig. 13.4.13

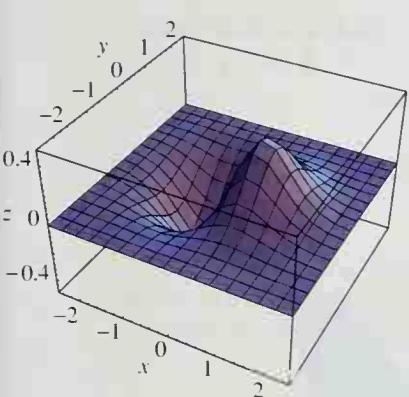


Fig. 13.4.14

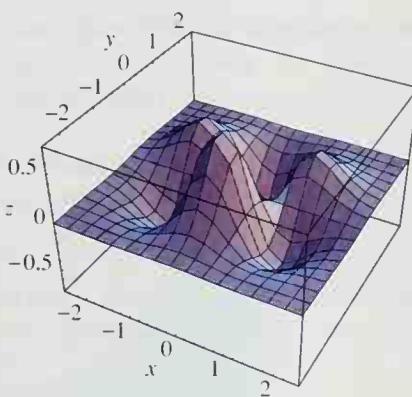


Fig. 13.4.15

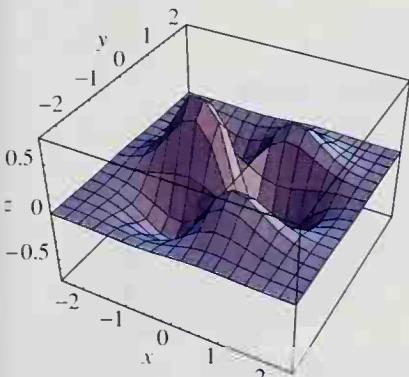


Fig. 13.4.16

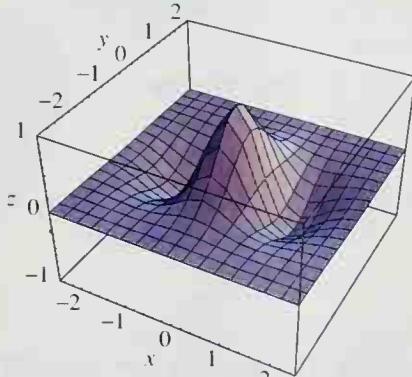


Fig. 13.4.17

45. $f(x, y)$

47. $f_y(x, y)$

49. $f_{xy}(x, y)$

46. $f_x(x, y)$

48. $f_{xx}(x, y)$

50. $f_{yy}(x, y)$

51. Verify that the mixed second-order partial derivatives f_{xy} and f_{yx} are equal if $f(x, y) = x^m y^n$, where m and n are positive integers.

52. Suppose that $z = e^{x+y}$. Show that e^{x+y} is the result of differentiating z first m times with respect to x , then n times with respect to y .

53. Let $f(x, y, z) = e^{xyz}$. Calculate the distinct second-order partial derivatives of f and the third-order partial derivative f_{xyz} .

54. Suppose that $g(x, y) = \sin xy$. Verify that $g_{xy} = g_{yx}$ and that $g_{xxy} = g_{xyx} = g_{yxx}$.

55. It is shown in physics that the temperature $u(x, t)$ at time t at the point x of a long, insulated rod that lies along the x -axis satisfies the *one-dimensional heat equation*

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = k \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \quad (k \text{ is a constant}).$$

Show that the function

$$u = u(x, t) = \exp(-n^2 kt) \sin nx$$

satisfies the one-dimensional heat equation for any choice of the constant n .

56. The *two-dimensional heat equation* for an insulated plane is

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = k \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right).$$

Show that the function

$$u = u(x, y, t) = \exp(-[m^2 + n^2]kt) \sin mx \cos ny$$

satisfies this equation for any choice of the constants m and n .

57. A string is stretched along the x -axis, fixed at each end, and then set into vibration. It is shown in physics that the displacement $y = y(x, t)$ of the point of the string at location x at time t satisfies the *one-dimensional wave equation*

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} = a^2 \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2},$$

where the constant a depends on the density and tension of the string. Show that the following functions satisfy the one-dimensional wave equation: (a) $y = \sin(x + at)$; (b) $y = \cosh(3[x - at])$; (c) $y = \sin kx \cos kat$ (k is a constant).

58. A steady-state temperature function $u = u(x, y)$ for a thin, flat plate satisfies *Laplace's equation*

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0.$$

Determine which of the following functions satisfy Laplace's equation:

- (a) $u = \ln(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2})$;
 (b) $u = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$;
 (c) $u = \arctan(y/x)$;
 (d) $u = e^{-x} \sin y$.

59. Suppose that f and g are twice-differentiable functions of a single variable. Show that $y(x, t) = f(x + at) + g(x - at)$ satisfies the one-dimensional wave equation of Problem 57.
60. The electric potential field of a point charge q is defined (in appropriate units) by $\phi(x, y, z) = q/r$ where $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$. Show that ϕ satisfies the three-dimensional Laplace equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2} = 0.$$

61. Let $u(x, t)$ denote the underground temperature at depth x and time t at a location where the seasonal variation of surface ($x = 0$) temperature is described by

$$u(0, t) = T_0 + a_0 \cos \omega t,$$

where T_0 is the annual average surface temperature and the constant ω is so chosen that the period of $u(0, t)$ is one year. Show that the function

$$u(x, t) = T_0 + a_0 \exp(-x\sqrt{\omega/2k}) \cos(\omega t - x\sqrt{\omega/2k})$$

satisfies both the "surface condition" and the one-dimensional heat equation of Problem 55.

62. The aggregate electrical resistance R of three resistances R_1 , R_2 , and R_3 connected in parallel satisfies the equation

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}.$$

Show that

$$\frac{\partial R}{\partial R_1} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial R_2} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial R_3} = \left(\frac{1}{R_1^2} + \frac{1}{R_2^2} + \frac{1}{R_3^2} \right) \div \left(\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} \right)^2.$$

63. The **ideal gas law** $pV = nRT$ (n is the number of moles of the gas, R is a constant) determines each of the three variables p (pressure), V (volume), and T (temperature) as functions of the other two. Show that

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial V} \cdot \frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \cdot \frac{\partial T}{\partial p} = -1.$$

64. It is geometrically evident that every plane tangent to the cone $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ passes through the origin. Show this by methods of calculus.
65. There is only one point at which the plane tangent to the surface

$$z = x^2 + 2xy + 2y^2 - 6x + 8y$$

is horizontal. Find it.

66. Show that the plane tangent to the paraboloid with equation $z = x^2 + y^2$ at the point (a, b, c) intersects the xy -plane in the line with equation $2ax + 2by = a^2 + b^2$. Then show that this line is tangent to the circle with equation $4x^2 + 4y^2 = a^2 + b^2$.
67. According to van der Waals' equation, 1 mol of a gas satisfies the equation

$$\left(p + \frac{a}{V^2} \right) (V - b) = (82.06)T$$

where p , V , and T are as in Example 4. For carbon dioxide, $a = 3.59 \times 10^6$ and $b = 42.7$, and V is 25600 cm^3 when p is 1 atm and $T = 313 \text{ K}$. (a) Compute $\partial V/\partial p$ by differentiating van der Waals' equation with T held constant. Then estimate the change in volume that would result from an increase of 0.1 atm of pressure with T held at 313 K. (b) Compute $\partial V/\partial T$ by differentiating van der Waals' equation with p held constant. Then estimate the change in volume that would result from an increase of 1 K in temperature with p held at 1 atm.

68. A *minimal surface* has the least surface area of all surfaces with the same boundary. Figure 13.4.18 shows Scherk's minimal surface. It has the equation

$$z = \ln(\cos x) - \ln(\cos y).$$

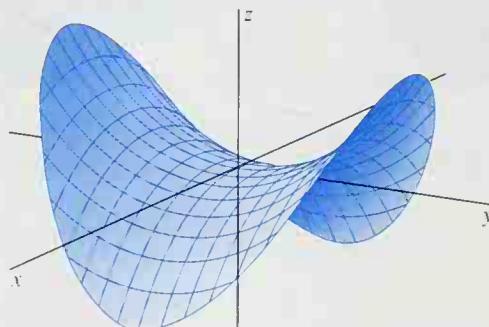


Fig. 13.4.18 Scherk's minimal surface (Problem 68)

A minimal surface $z = f(x, y)$ is known to satisfy the partial differential equation

$$(1 + z_y^2)z_{xx} - z z_x z_y z_{yy} + (1 + z_x^2)z_{yy} = 0.$$

Verify this in the case of Scherk's minimal surface.

69. We say that the function $z = f(x, y)$ is **harmonic** if it satisfies Laplace's equation $z_{xx} + z_{yy} = 0$ (see Problem 58). Show that each of these four functions is harmonic:
- (a) $f_1(x, y) = \sin x \sinh(\pi - y)$;
 (b) $f_2(x, y) = \sinh 2x \sin 2y$;

- (c) $f_3(x, y) = \sin 3x \sinh 3y$;
 (d) $f_4(x, y) = \sinh 4(\pi - x) \sin 4y$.

70. Figure 13.4.19 shows the graph of the sum

$$z(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^4 f_i(x, y)$$

of the four functions defined in Problem 69. Explain why $z(x, y)$ is a harmonic function.

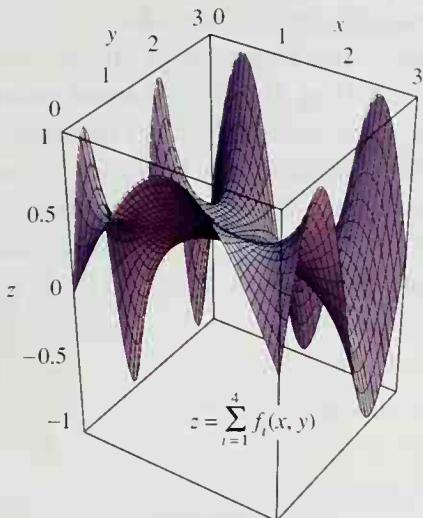


Fig. 13.4.19 The surface $z = f(x, y)$ of Problem 70

71. You are standing at the point where $x = y = 100$ (ft) on a hillside whose height (in feet above sea level) is given by

$$z = 100 + \frac{1}{100} (x^2 - 3xy + 2y^2).$$

with the positive x -axis to the east and the positive y -axis to the north. (a) If you head due east, will you initially be ascending or descending? At what angle (in degrees) from the horizontal? (b) If you head due north, will you initially be ascending or descending? At what angle (in degrees) from the horizontal?

72. Answer questions (a) and (b) in Problem 71, except that now you are standing at the point where $x = 150$ and $y = 250$ (ft) on a hillside whose height (in feet above sea level) is given by

$$z = 1000 + \frac{1}{1000} (3x^2 - 5xy + y^2).$$

73. Figure 13.3.4 shows the graph of the function f defined by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} & \text{except at } (0, 0), \\ 0 & \text{if } x = y = 0. \end{cases}$$

In Example 6 of Section 13.3 we saw that f is continuous at $(0, 0)$. Show that the two partial derivatives f_x and f_y exist everywhere and are defined by

$$f_x(x, y) = \frac{y^3}{(x^2 + y^2)^{3/2}} \quad \text{and} \quad f_y(x, y) = \frac{x^3}{(x^2 + y^2)^{3/2}}$$

except at $(0, 0)$, where $f_x(0, 0) = f_y(0, 0) = 0$. Finally, substitute $y = mx$ in these two derivative formulas and conclude that the partial derivatives f_x and f_y are *not* continuous at $(0, 0)$.

13.5 MAXIMA AND MINIMA OF FUNCTIONS OF SEVERAL VARIABLES

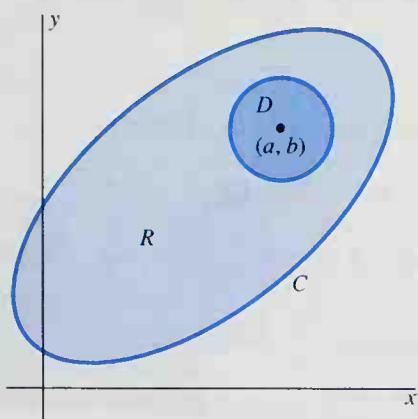


Fig. 13.5.1 A plane region R bounded by the simple closed curve C and a disk D in R centered at the interior point (a, b) of R

The single-variable maximum-minimum techniques of Section 3.5 generalize readily to functions of several variables. We consider first a function f of two variables. Suppose that we are interested in the extreme values attained by $f(x, y)$ on a plane region R that consists of the points on and within a simple closed curve C (Fig. 13.5.1). We say that the function f attains its **absolute, or global, maximum value M** on R at the point (a, b) of R provided that

$$f(x, y) \leq M = f(a, b)$$

for all points (x, y) of R . Similarly, f attains its **absolute, or global, minimum value m** at the point (c, d) of R provided that $f(x, y) \geq m = f(c, d)$ for all points (x, y) of R . In plain words, the absolute maximum M and the absolute minimum m are the largest and smallest values (respectively) attained by $f(x, y)$ at points of the domain R of f .

Theorem 1, proved in advanced calculus courses, guarantees the existence of absolute maximum minimum values in many situations of practical interest.

Theorem 1 Existence of Extreme Values

Suppose that the function f is continuous on the region R that consists of the points on and within a simple closed curve C in the plane. Then f attains an absolute maximum value at some point (a, b) of R and attains an absolute minimum value at some point (c, d) of R .

We are interested mainly in the case in which the function f attains its absolute maximum (or minimum) value at an interior point of R . The point (a, b) of R is called an **interior point** of R provided that some circular disk centered at (a, b) lies wholly within R (Fig. 13.5.1). The interior points of a region R of the sort described in Theorem 1 are precisely those that do *not* lie on the boundary curve C .

An absolute extreme value attained by the function at an *interior* point of R is necessarily a local extreme value. We say that $f(a, b)$ is a **local maximum value** of $f(x, y)$ provided that it is the absolute maximum value of f on some disk D that is centered at (a, b) and lies wholly within the domain R . Similarly, a **local minimum value** is an absolute minimum value on some such disk. Thus a local maximum (or minimum) value $f(a, b)$ is not necessarily an absolute maximum (or minimum) value, but is the largest (or smallest) value attained by $f(x, y)$ at points near (a, b) .

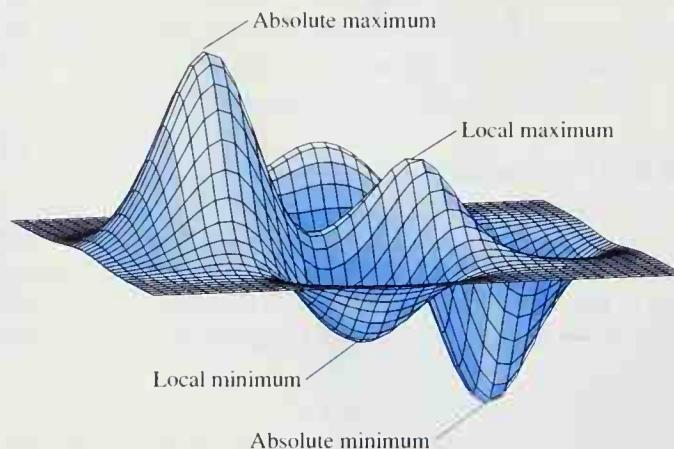


Fig. 13.5.2 Local extrema contrasted with global extrema

EXAMPLE 1 Figure 13.5.2 shows a computer-generated graph of the function

$$f(x, y) = 3(x - 1)^2 e^{-(x^2 + y^2)} - 10\left(\frac{1}{5}x - x^3 - y^5\right)e^{-x^2 - y^2} - \frac{1}{3}e^{-(x+1)^2 - y^2}$$

plotted on the rectangle R for which $-3 \leq x \leq 3$ and $-3 \leq y \leq 3$. Looking at the labeled extreme values of $f(x, y)$, we see

- ▼ A local maximum that is not an absolute maximum,
- ▼ A local maximum that is also an absolute maximum,
- ▼ A local minimum that is not an absolute minimum, and
- ▼ A local minimum that is also an absolute minimum.

We can think of the local maxima on the graph as mountaintops or “peaks” and the local minima as valley bottoms or “pits.” ■

Finding Local Extrema

We need a criterion that will provide a practical way to find local extrema of functions of two (or more) variables. The desired result—stated in Theorem 2—is analogous to the single-variable criterion of Section 3.5: If $f(c)$ is a local extreme value of the differentiable single-variable function f , then $x = c$ must be a *critical point* where $f'(c) = 0$.

Suppose, for instance, that $f(a, b)$ is a local maximum value of $f(x, y)$ attained at a point (a, b) where both partial derivatives f_x and f_y exist. We consider vertical plane cross-sectional curves on the graph $z = f(x, y)$, just as when we explored the geometrical interpretation of partial derivatives in Section 13.4. The cross-sectional curves parallel to the xz - and yz -planes are the graphs (in these planes) of the single-variable functions

$$G(x) = f(x, b) \quad \text{and} \quad H(y) = f(a, y)$$

whose derivatives are the partial derivatives of f :

$$f_x(a, b) = G'(a) \quad \text{and} \quad f_y(a, b) = H'(b). \quad (1)$$

Because $f(a, b)$ is a local maximum value of $f(x, y)$, it follows readily that $G(a)$ and $H(b)$ are local maximum values of $G(x)$ and $H(y)$, respectively. Therefore the single-variable maximum-minimum criterion of Section 3.5 implies that

$$G'(a) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad H'(b) = 0. \quad (2)$$

Combining (1) and (2), we conclude that

$$f_x(a, b) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f_y(a, b) = 0. \quad (3)$$

Essentially the same argument yields the same conclusion if $f(a, b)$ is a local minimum value of $f(x, y)$. This discussion establishes Theorem 2.

Theorem 2 Necessary Conditions for Local Extrema

Suppose that $f(x, y)$ attains a local maximum value or a local minimum value at the point (a, b) and that both the partial derivatives $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$ exist. Then

$$f_x(a, b) = 0 = f_y(a, b). \quad (3)$$

The equations in (3) imply that the plane tangent to the surface $z = f(x, y)$ must be horizontal at any local maximum or local minimum point $(a, b, f(a, b))$, in perfect analogy to the single-variable case (in which the tangent line is horizontal at any local maximum or minimum point on the graph of a differentiable function).

EXAMPLE 2 Consider the three familiar surfaces

$$z = f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2,$$

$$z = g(x, y) = -x^2 - y^2, \quad \text{and}$$

$$z = h(x, y) = y^2 - x^2$$

shown in Fig. 13.5.3. In each case $\partial z / \partial x = \pm 2x$ and $\partial z / \partial y = \pm 2y$. Thus both partial derivatives are zero at the origin $(0, 0)$ (and only there). It is clear from the figure that

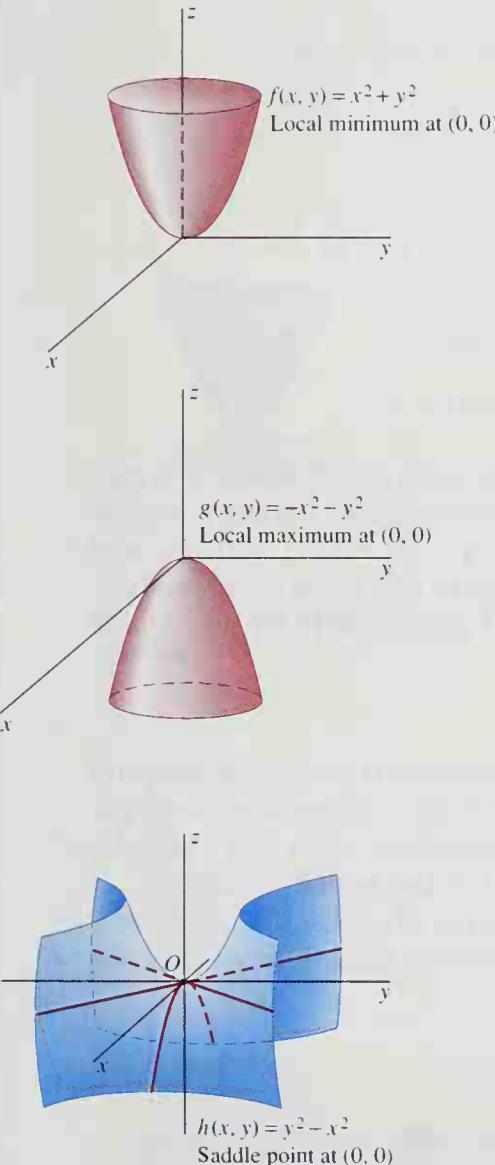


Fig. 13.5.3 When both partial derivatives are zero, there may be (a) a minimum, (b) a maximum, or (c) neither (Example 2)

$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ has a local minimum at $(0, 0)$. In fact, because a square cannot be negative, $z = x^2 + y^2$ has the global minimum value 0 at $(0, 0)$. Similarly, $g(x, y)$ has a local (indeed, global) maximum value at $(0, 0)$, whereas $h(x, y)$ has neither a local minimum nor a local maximum there—the origin is a *saddle point* of h . This example shows that a point (a, b) where

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = 0 = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}$$

may correspond to either a local minimum, a local maximum, or neither. Thus the necessary condition in Eq. (3) is *not* a sufficient condition for a local extremum. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Find all points on the surface

$$z = \frac{3}{4}y^2 + \frac{1}{24}y^3 - \frac{1}{32}y^4 - x^2$$

at which the tangent plane is horizontal.

Solution We first calculate the partial derivatives $\partial z / \partial x$ and $\partial z / \partial y$:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -2x,$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = \frac{3}{2}y + \frac{1}{8}y^2 - \frac{1}{8}y^3 = -\frac{1}{8}y(y^2 - y - 12) = -\frac{1}{8}y(y + 3)(y - 4).$$

We next equate both $\partial z / \partial x$ and $\partial z / \partial y$ to zero. This yields

$$-2x = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad -\frac{1}{8}y(y + 3)(y - 4) = 0.$$

Simultaneous solution of these equations yields exactly three points where both partial derivatives are zero: $(0, -3)$, $(0, 0)$, and $(0, 4)$. The three corresponding points on the surface where the tangent plane is horizontal are $(0, -3, \frac{99}{32})$, $(0, 0, 0)$, and $(0, 4, \frac{20}{3})$. These three points are indicated on the graph in Fig. 13.5.4 of the surface. (Recall that we constructed this surface in Example 11 of Section 13.2.) ■

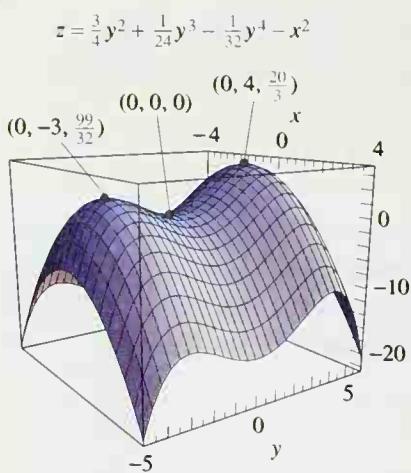


Fig. 13.5.4 The surface of Example 3

Finding Global Extrema

Theorem 2 is a very useful tool for finding the absolute maximum and absolute minimum values attained by a continuous function f on a region R of the type described in Theorem 1. If $f(a, b)$ is the absolute maximum value, for example, then (a, b) is either an interior point of R or a point of the boundary curve C . If (a, b) is an interior point and both the partial derivatives $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$ exist, then Theorem 2 implies that both these partial derivatives must be zero. Thus we have the following result.

Theorem 3 Types of Absolute Extrema

Suppose that f is continuous on the plane region R consisting of the points on and within a simple closed curve C . If $f(a, b)$ is either the absolute maximum or the absolute minimum value of $f(x, y)$ on R , then (a, b) is either

1. An interior point of R at which

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 0,$$

2. An interior point R where not both partial derivatives exist, or
3. A point of the boundary curve C of R .

A point (a, b) where either condition (1) or condition (2) holds is called a **critical point** of the function f . Thus Theorem 3 says that *any extreme value of the continuous function f on the plane region R must occur at an interior critical point or at a boundary point*. Note the analogy with Theorem 3 of Section 3.5, which implies that an extreme value of a single-variable function $f(x)$ on a closed and bounded interval I must occur either at an interior critical point of I or at an endpoint (boundary point) of I .

As a consequence of Theorem 3, we can find the absolute maximum and minimum values of $f(x, y)$ on R as follows:

1. First, locate the interior critical points.
2. Next, find the possible extreme values of f on the boundary curve C .
3. Finally, compare the values of f at the points found in steps 1 and 2.

The technique to be used in the second step will depend on the nature of the boundary curve C , as illustrated in Examples 4 and 5.

EXAMPLE 4 Let $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ on the region R consisting of the points on and within the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ in the xy -plane. The graph of f is shown in Fig. 13.5.5. We see that the minimum value 0 of f occurs at the origin $(0, 0)$, where both the partial derivatives f_x and f_y fail to exist (Why?), whereas the maximum value 1 of f on R occurs at *each and every* point of the boundary circle. ■

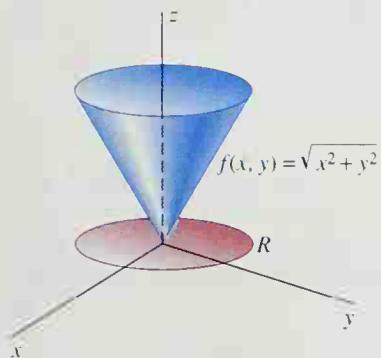


Fig. 13.5.5 The graph of the function of Example 4

EXAMPLE 5 Find the maximum and minimum values attained by the function

$$f(x, y) = xy - x - y + 3$$

at points of the triangular region R in the xy -plane with vertices at $(0, 0)$, $(2, 0)$, and $(0, 4)$.

Solution The region R is shown in Fig. 13.5.6. Its boundary “curve” C consists of the segment $0 \leq x \leq 2$ on the x -axis, the segment $0 \leq y \leq 4$ on the y -axis, and the part of the line $2x + y = 4$ that lies in the first quadrant. Any interior extremum must occur at a point where both

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = y - 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x - 1$$

are zero. Hence the only interior critical point is $(1, 1)$.

Along the edge where $y = 0$: The function $f(x, y)$ takes the form

$$\alpha(x) = f(x, 0) = 3 - x, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 2.$$

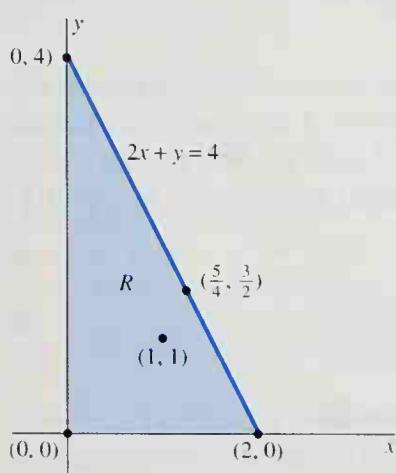


Fig. 13.5.6 The triangular region of Example 5

Because $\alpha(x)$ is a decreasing function, its extrema for $0 \leq x \leq 2$ occur at the endpoints $x = 0$ and $x = 2$. This gives the two possibilities $(0, 0)$ and $(2, 0)$ for locations of extrema of $f(x, y)$.

Along the edge where $x = 0$: The function $f(x, y)$ takes the form

$$\beta(y) = f(0, y) = 3 - y, \quad 0 \leq y \leq 4.$$

The endpoints of this interval yield the points $(0, 0)$ and $(0, 4)$ as possibilities for locations of extrema of $f(x, y)$.

On the edge of R where $y = 4 - 2x$: We may substitute $4 - 2x$ for y into the formula for $f(x, y)$, and thus express f as a function of a single variable:

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma(x) &= x(4 - 2x) - x - (4 - 2x) + 3 \\ &= -2x^2 + 5x - 1, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 2.\end{aligned}$$

To find the extreme values of $\gamma(x)$, we first calculate

$$\gamma'(x) = -4x + 5;$$

$\gamma'(x) = 0$ where $x = \frac{5}{4}$. Thus each extreme value of $\gamma(x)$ on $[0, 2]$ must occur either at the interior point $x = \frac{5}{4}$ of the interval $[0, 2]$ or at one of the endpoints $x = 0$ and $x = 2$. This gives the possibilities $(0, 4)$, $(\frac{5}{4}, \frac{3}{2})$, and $(2, 0)$ for locations of extrema of $f(x, y)$.

We conclude by evaluating f at each of the points we have found:

$$f(0, 0) = 3, \quad \leftarrow \text{maximum}$$

$$f\left(\frac{5}{4}, \frac{3}{2}\right) = 2.125$$

$$f(1, 1) = 2,$$

$$f(2, 0) = 1,$$

$$f(0, 4) = -1. \quad \leftarrow \text{minimum}$$

Thus the maximum value of $f(x, y)$ on the region R is $f(0, 0) = 3$ and the minimum value is $f(0, 4) = -1$. ■

Note the terminology used in this section. In Example 5, the maximum *value* of f is 3, the maximum *occurs at* the point $(0, 0)$ in the domain of f , and the highest *point* on the graph of f is $(0, 0, 3)$.

Highest and Lowest Points of Surfaces

In applied problems we frequently know in advance that the absolute maximum (or minimum) value of $f(x, y)$ on R occurs at an *interior* point of R where both partial derivatives of f exist. In this important case, Theorem 3 tells us that we can locate every possible point at which the maximum (or minimum) might occur by simultaneously solving the two equations

$$f_x(x, y) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f_y(x, y) = 0. \tag{4}$$

If we are lucky, these equations will have only one simultaneous solution (x, y) interior to R . If so, then *that* solution must be the location of the desired maximum (or minimum). If we find that the equations in (4) have several simultaneous solutions interior to R , then we simply evaluate f at each solution to determine the largest (or smallest) value of $f(x, y)$.

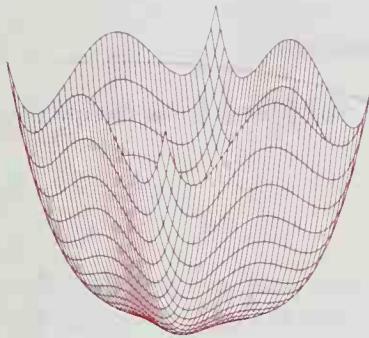


Fig. 13.5.7 The surface $z = x^4 + y^4 - x^2y^2$ opens upward.

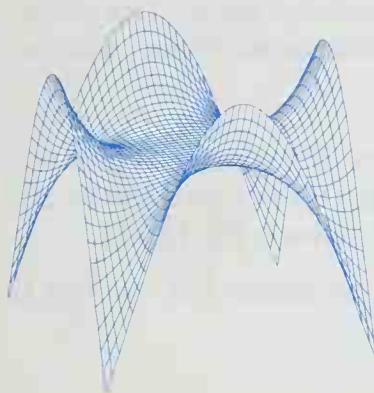


Fig. 13.5.8 The surface $z = x^4 + y^4 - 4x^2y^2$ opens both upward and downward.

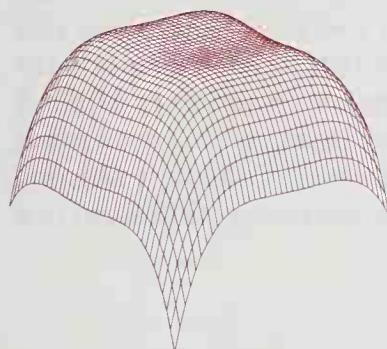


Fig. 13.5.9 The surface $z = \frac{8}{3}x^3 + 4y^3 - x^4 - y^4$ opens downward (Example 6).

We can use this method to find the lowest point on a surface $z = f(x, y)$ that opens upward, as in Fig. 13.5.7. If R is a sufficiently large rectangle, then $f(x, y)$ attains large positive values everywhere on the boundary of R but smaller values at interior points. It follows that the minimum value of $f(x, y)$ must be attained at an interior point of R .

The question of a highest or lowest point is not pertinent for a surface that opens both upward and downward, as in Fig. 13.5.8.

EXAMPLE 6 Find the highest point on the surface

$$z = \frac{8}{3}x^3 + 4y^3 - x^4 - y^4. \quad (5)$$

Solution Because of the negative fourth-degree terms in Eq. (5) that predominate when $|x|$ and/or $|y|$ is large, this surface opens downward (Fig. 13.5.9). We can verify this observation by writing

$$z = (x^4 + y^4) \left(-1 + \frac{\frac{8}{3}x^3 + 4y^3}{x^4 + y^4} \right)$$

and then substituting $x = r \cos \theta$, $y = r \sin \theta$:

$$z = (x^4 + y^4) \left(-1 + \frac{\frac{8}{3}\cos^3 \theta + 4\sin^3 \theta}{r(\cos^4 \theta + \sin^4 \theta)} \right).$$

It is now clear that the fraction approaches zero as $r \rightarrow \infty$ and hence that $z < 0$ if either $|x|$ or $|y|$ is large.

But $z = z(x, y)$ does attain positive values, such as $z(1, 1) = \frac{14}{3}$. So let us find the maximum value of z .

Because the partial derivatives of z with respect to x and y exist everywhere, Theorem 3 implies that we need only solve the equations $\partial z / \partial x = 0$ and $\partial z / \partial y = 0$ in Eq. (2)—that is,

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = 8x^2 - 4x^3 = 4x^2(2 - x) = 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 12y^2 - 4y^3 = 4y^2(3 - y) = 0.$$

If these two equations are satisfied, then

Either $x = 0$ or $x = 2$	and	either $y = 0$ or $y = 3$.
---------------------------	-----	-----------------------------

It follows that either

$x = 0$ and $y = 0$	or	$x = 0$ and $y = 3$	or	$x = 2$ and $y = 0$	or	$x = 2$ and $y = 3$.
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Consequently, we need only inspect the values

$$z(0, 0) = 0,$$

$$z(2, 0) = \frac{16}{3} = 5.333333333 \dots,$$

$$z(0, 3) = 27,$$

$$z(2, 3) = \frac{97}{3} = 32.333333333\dots \leftarrow \text{maximum}$$

Thus the highest point on the surface is the point $(2, 3, \frac{97}{3})$. The four critical points on the surface are indicated in Fig. 13.5.10.

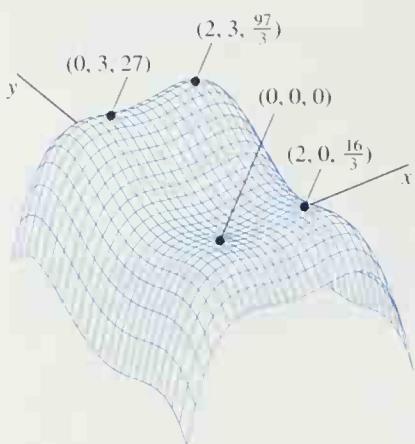


Fig. 13.5.10 The critical points of Example 6

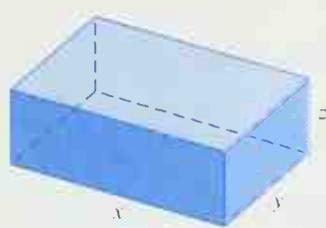


Fig. 13.5.11 A box whose total cost we want to minimize (Example 7)

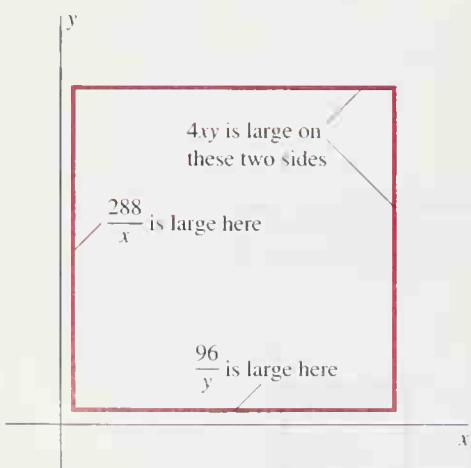


Fig. 13.5.12 The cost function $C(x, y)$ of Example 7 takes on large positive values on the boundary of the square.

Applied Maximum-Minimum Problems

The analysis of a multivariable applied maximum-minimum problem involves the same general steps that we listed at the beginning of Section 3.6. Here, however, we will express the dependent variable—the quantity to be maximized or minimized—as a function $f(x, y)$ of *two* independent variables. Once we have identified the appropriate region in the xy -plane as the domain of f , the methods of this section are applicable. We often find that a preliminary step is required: If the meaningful domain of definition of f is an unbounded region, then we first restrict f to a *bounded* plane region R on which we know the desired extreme value occurs. This procedure is similar to the one we used with open-interval maximum-minimum problems in Section 4.4.

EXAMPLE 7 Find the minimum cost of a rectangular box with volume 48 ft^3 if the front and back cost $\$1/\text{ft}^2$, the top and bottom cost $\$2/\text{ft}^2$, and the two ends cost $\$3/\text{ft}^2$. (We first discussed such a box in Section 13.1.) This box is shown in Fig. 13.5.11.

Solution We found in Section 13.1 that the cost C (in dollars) of this box is given by

$$C(x, y) = 4xy + \frac{288}{x} + \frac{96}{y}$$

in terms of its length x and width y . Let R be a square such as the one shown in Fig. 13.5.12. Two sides of R are so close to the coordinate axes that $288/x > 1000$ on the side nearest the y -axis and $96/y > 1000$ on the side nearest the x -axis. Also, the square is so large that $4xy > 1000$ on both of the other two sides. This means that $C(x, y) > 1000$ at every point (x, y) of the first quadrant that lies on or outside the boundary of the square R . Because $C(x, y)$ attains reasonably small values within R (for instance, $C(1, 1) = 388$), it is clear that the absolute minimum of C must occur at an interior point of R . Thus, although the natural domain of the cost function $C(x, y)$ is the entire first quadrant, we have succeeded in restricting its domain to a region R of the sort to which Theorem 3 applies.

We therefore solve the equations

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = 4y - \frac{288}{x^2} = 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial y} = 4x - \frac{96}{y^2} = 0.$$

We multiply the first equation by x and the second by y . (Ad hoc methods are frequently required in the solution of simultaneous nonlinear equations.) This procedure gives

$$\frac{288}{x} = 4xy = \frac{96}{y},$$

so that $x = 288y/96 = 3y$. We substitute $x = 3y$ into the equation $\partial C/\partial y = 0$ and find that

$$12y - \frac{96}{y^2} = 0, \quad \text{so} \quad 12y^3 = 96.$$

Hence $y = \sqrt[3]{8} = 2$, so $x = 6$. Therefore the minimum cost of this box is $C(6, 2) = 144$ (dollars). Because the volume of the box is $V = xyz = 48$, its height is $z = 48/(6 \cdot 2) = 4$ when $x = 6$ and $y = 2$. Thus the optimal box is 6 ft wide, 2 ft deep, and 4 ft high. ■

REMARK As a check, note that the cheapest surfaces (front and back) are the largest, whereas the most expensive surfaces (the ends) are the smallest.

We have seen that if $f_x(a, b) = 0 = f_y(a, b)$, then $f(a, b)$ may be either a maximum value, a minimum value, or neither. In Section 13.10 we will discuss sufficient conditions for $f(a, b)$ to be either a local maximum or a local minimum. These conditions involve the second-order partial derivatives of f at (a, b) .

The methods of this section generalize readily to functions of three or more variables. For example, if the function $f(x, y, z)$ has a local extremum at the point (a, b, c) where its three first-order partial derivatives exist, then all three must be zero there. That is,

$$f_x(a, b, c) = f_y(a, b, c) = f_z(a, b, c) = 0. \quad (6)$$

Example 8 illustrates a “line-through-the-point” method that we can sometimes use to show that a point (a, b, c) where the conditions in (6) hold is neither a local maximum nor a local minimum point. (The method is also applicable to functions of two or of more than three variables.)

EXAMPLE 8 Determine whether the function $f(x, y, z) = xy + yz - xz$ has any local extrema.

Solution The necessary conditions in Eq. (6) give the equations

$$f_x(x, y, z) = y - z = 0,$$

$$f_y(x, y, z) = x + z = 0,$$

$$f_z(x, y, z) = y - x = 0.$$

We easily find that the simultaneous solution of these equations is $x = y = z = 0$. On the line $x = y = z$ through $(0, 0, 0)$, the function $f(x, y, z)$ reduces to x^2 , which is minimal at $x = 0$. But on the line $x = -y = z$, it reduces to $-3x^2$, which is maximal when $x = 0$. Hence f can have neither a local maximum nor a local minimum at $(0, 0, 0)$. Therefore it has no extrema, local or global.

13.5 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 12, find every point on the given surface $z = f(x, y)$ at which the tangent plane is horizontal.

1. $z = x - 3y + 5$

2. $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$

3. $z = xy + 5$

4. $z = x^2 + y^2 + 2x$

5. $z = x^2 + y^2 - 6x + 2y + 5$

6. $z = 10 + 8x - 6y - x^2 - y^2$

7. $z = x^2 + 4x + y^3$

8. $z = x^4 + y^3 - 3y$

9. $z = 3x^2 + 12x + 4y^3 - 6y^2 + 5$ (Fig. 13.5.13)

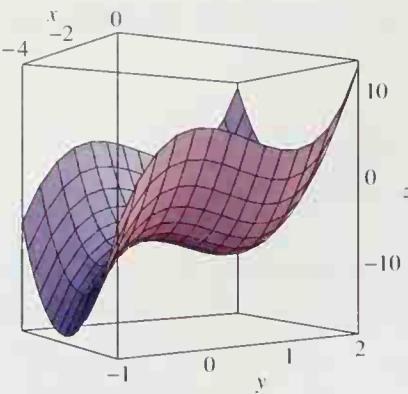


Fig. 13.5.13 The surface of Problem 9

10. $z = \frac{1}{1 - 2x + 2y + x^2 + y^2}$

11. $z = (2x^2 + 3y^2)\exp(-x^2 - y^2)$ (Fig. 13.5.14)

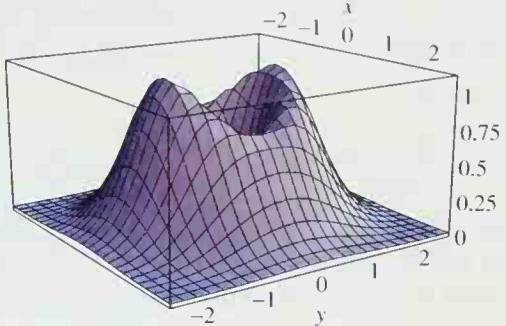


Fig. 13.5.14 The surface of Problem 11

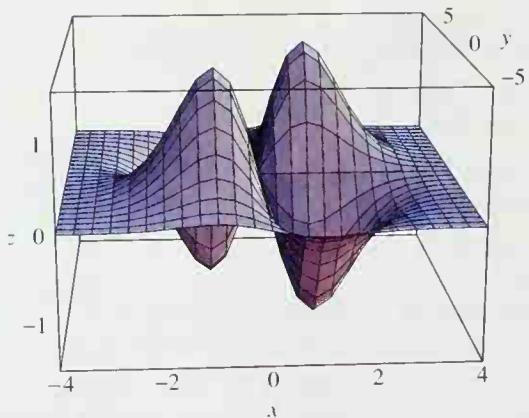


Fig. 13.5.15 The surface of Problem 12

12. $z = 2xy\exp\left(-\frac{1}{8}(4x^2 + y^2)\right)$ (Fig. 13.5.15)

Each of the surfaces defined in Problems 13 through 22 either opens downward and has a highest point or opens upward and has a lowest point. Find this highest or lowest point on the surface $z = f(x, y)$.

13. $z = x^2 - 2x + y^2 - 2y + 3$

14. $z = 6x - 8y - x^2 - y^2$ 15. $z = 2x - x^2 + 2y^2 - y^4$

16. $z = 4xy - x^4 - y^4$

17. $z = 3x^4 - 4x^3 - 12x^2 + 2y^2 - 12y$

18. $z = 3x^4 + 4x^3 + 6y^4 - 16y^3 + 12y^2$

19. $z = 2x^2 + 8xy + y^4$

20. $z = \frac{1}{10 - 2x + 4y + x^2 + y^4}$

21. $z = \exp(2x - 4y - x^2 - y^2)$

22. $z = (1 + x^2)\exp(-x^2 - y^2)$

In Problems 23 through 28, find the maximum and minimum values attained by the given function $f(x, y)$ on the given plane region R .

23. $f(x, y) = x + 2y$; R is the square with vertices at $(\pm 1, \pm 1)$.

24. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - x$; R is the square of Problem 23.

25. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 2x$; R is the triangular region with vertices at $(0, 0)$, $(2, 0)$, and $(0, 2)$.

26. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - x - y$; R is the region of Problem 25.

27. $f(x, y) = 2xy$; R is the circular disk $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$.

28. $f(x, y) = xy^2$; R is the circular disk $x^2 + y^2 \leq 3$.

In Problems 29 through 34, the equation of a plane or surface is given. Find the first-octant point $P(x, y, z)$ on the surface closest to the given fixed point $Q(x_0, y_0, z_0)$. (Suggestion: Minimize the squared distance $|PQ|^2$ as a function of x and y .)

29. The plane $12x + 4y + 3z = 169$ and the fixed point $Q(0, 0, 0)$

30. The plane $2x + 2y + z = 27$ and the fixed point $Q(9, 9, 9)$

31. The plane $2x + 3y + z = 49$ and the fixed point $Q(7, -7, 0)$

32. The surface $xyz = 8$ and the fixed point $Q(0, 0, 0)$

33. The surface $x^2y^2z = 4$ and the fixed point $Q(0, 0, 0)$

34. The surface $x^4y^8z^2 = 8$ and the fixed point $Q(0, 0, 0)$

35. Find the maximum possible product of three positive numbers whose sum is 120.

36. Find the maximum possible volume of a rectangular box if the sum of the lengths of its 12 edges is 6 meters.

37. Find the dimensions of the box with volume 1000 in.³ that has minimal total surface area.

38. Find the dimensions of the open-topped box with volume 4000 cm³ whose bottom and four sides have minimal total surface area.

In Problems 39 through 42, you are to find the dimensions that minimize the total cost of the material needed to construct the rectangular box that is described. It is either *closed* (top, bottom, and four sides) or *open-topped* (four sides and a bottom).

39. The box is to be open-topped with a volume of 600 in.³. The material for its bottom costs 6¢/in.², and the material for its four sides costs 5¢/in.².

40. The box is to be closed with a volume of 48 ft³. The material for its top and bottom costs \$3/ft², and the material for its four sides costs \$4/ft².

41. The box is to be closed with a volume of 750 in.³ The material for its top and bottom costs 3¢/in.², the material for its front and back costs 6¢/in.², and the material for its two ends costs 9¢/in.²
42. The box is to be a closed shipping crate with a volume of 12 m³. The material for its bottom costs twice as much (per square meter) as the material for its top and four sides.
43. A rectangular building is to have a volume of 8000 ft³. Annual heating and cooling costs will amount to \$2/ft² for its top, front, and back, and \$4/ft² for the two end walls. What dimensions of the building would minimize these annual costs?
44. You want to build a rectangular aquarium with a bottom made of slate costing 28¢/in.². Its sides will be glass, which costs 5¢/in.², and its top will be stainless steel, which costs 2¢/in.². The volume of this aquarium is to be 24000 in.³. What are the dimensions of the least expensive such aquarium?
45. A rectangular box is inscribed in the first octant with three of its sides in the coordinate planes, their common vertex at the origin, and the opposite vertex on the plane with equation $x + 3y + 7z = 11$. What is the maximum possible volume of such a box?
46. Three sides of a rectangular box lie in the coordinate planes, their common vertex at the origin; the opposite vertex is on the plane with equation

$$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{z}{c} = 1$$

(a , b , and c are positive constants). In terms of a , b , and c , what is the maximum possible volume of such a box?

47. Find the maximum volume of a rectangular box that a post office will accept for delivery if the sum of its *length* and *girth* cannot exceed 108 in.
48. Repeat Problem 47 for the case of a cylindrical box—one shaped like a hatbox or a fat mailing tube.
49. A rectangular box with its base in the xy -plane is inscribed under the graph of the paraboloid $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$, $z \geq 0$. Find the maximum possible volume of the box. (*Suggestion:* You may assume that the sides of the box are parallel to the vertical coordinate planes, and it follows that the box is symmetrically placed around these planes.)
50. What is the maximum possible volume of a rectangular box inscribed in a hemisphere of radius R ? Assume that one face of the box lies in the planar base of the hemisphere.
51. A buoy is to have the shape of a right circular cylinder capped at each end by identical right circular cones with the same radius as the cylinder. Find the minimum possible surface area of the buoy, given that it has fixed volume V .
52. A pentagonal window is to have the shape of a rectangle surmounted by an isosceles triangle (with horizontal base), so the window is symmetric around its vertical axis), and

the perimeter of the window is to be 24 ft. What are the dimensions of such a window that will admit the most light (because its area is the greatest)?

53. Find the point (x, y) in the plane for which the sum of the squares of its distances from $(0, 1)$, $(0, 0)$, and $(2, 0)$ is a minimum.
54. Find the point (x, y) in the plane for which the sum of the squares of its distances from (a_1, b_1) , (a_2, b_2) , and (a_3, b_3) is a minimum.
55. An A-frame house is to have fixed volume V . Its front and rear walls are in the shape of equal, parallel isosceles triangles with horizontal bases. The roof consists of two rectangles that connect pairs of upper sides of the triangles. To minimize heating and cooling costs, the total area of the A-frame (excluding the floor) is to be minimized. Describe the shape of the A-frame of minimal area.
56. What is the maximum possible volume of a rectangular box whose longest diagonal has fixed length L ?
57. A wire 120 cm long is cut into three or fewer pieces, and each piece is bent into the shape of a square. How should this be done to minimize the total area of these squares? to maximize it?
58. You must divide a lump of putty of fixed volume V into three or fewer pieces and form the pieces into cubes. How should you do this to maximize the total surface area of the cubes? to minimize it?
59. A very long rectangle of sheet metal has width L and is to be folded to make a rain gutter (Fig. 13.5.16). Maximize its volume by maximizing the cross-sectional area shown in the figure.



Fig. 13.5.16 Cross section of the rain gutter of Problem 59

60. Consider the function $f(x, y) = (y - x^2)(y - 3x^2)$.
 (a) Show that $f_x(0, 0) = 0 = f_y(0, 0)$. (b) Show that for every straight line $y = mx$ through $(0, 0)$, the function $f(x, mx)$ has a local minimum at $x = 0$. (c) Examine the values of f at points of the parabola $y = 2x^2$ to show that f does not have a local minimum at $(0, 0)$. This tells us that we cannot use the line-through-the-point method of Example 8 to show that a point is a local extremum.
61. Suppose that Alpha, Inc. and Beta, Ltd. manufacture competitive (but not identical) products, with the weekly sales of each product determined by the selling price of that product and the price of its competition. Suppose that Alpha sets a sales price of x dollars per unit for its product, while Beta sets a sales price of y dollars per unit

for its product. Market research shows that the weekly profit made by Alpha is then

$$P(x) = -2x^2 + 12x + xy - y - 10$$

and that the weekly profit made by Beta is

$$Q(y) = -3y^2 + 18y + 2xy - 2x - 15$$

(both in thousands of dollars). The peculiar notation arises from the fact that x is the only variable under the control of Alpha and y is the only variable under the control of Beta. (If this disturbs you, feel free to write $P(x, y)$ in place of $P(x)$ and $Q(x, y)$ in place of $Q(y)$.) (a) Assume that both company managers know calculus, and that each knows that the other knows calculus and has some common sense. What price will each manager set to maximize his company's weekly profit? (b) Now suppose that the two managers enter into an agreement (legal or otherwise), by which they plan to maximize their *total* weekly profit. Now what should be the selling price of each product? (We suppose that they will divide the resulting profit in an equitable way, but the details of this intriguing problem are not the issue.)

62. Three firms—Ajax Products (AP), Behemoth Quicksilver (BQ), and Conglomerate Resources (CR)—produce

products in quantities A , B , and C , respectively. The weekly profits that accrue to each, in thousands of dollars, obey the following equations:

$$\text{AP: } P = 1000A - A^2 - 2AB,$$

$$\text{BQ: } Q = 2000B - 2B^2 - 4BC,$$

$$\text{CR: } R = 1500C - 3C^2 - 6AC.$$

(a) If each firm acts independently to maximize its weekly profit, what will those profits be? (b) If firms AP and CR join to maximize their total profit while BQ continues to act alone, what effects will this have? Give a *complete* answer to this problem. Assume that the fact of the merger of AP and CR is known to the management of BQ.

63. A farmer can raise sheep, hogs, and cattle. She has space for 80 sheep or 120 hogs or 60 cattle or any combination using the same amount of space; that is, 8 sheep use as much space as 12 hogs or 6 cattle. The anticipated profits per animal are \$10 per sheep, \$8 per hog, and \$20 for each head of cattle. State law requires that a farmer raise at least as many hogs as sheep and cattle combined. How does the farmer maximize her profit?

13.5 PROJECT: EXOTIC CRITICAL POINTS

In Section 13.10 we discuss a systematic “second derivative test” for local extrema of functions of two variables. This project explores a more direct approach that works well for certain functions. A **homogeneous** polynomial is one such as

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + 4xy + y^2 \quad \text{or} \quad F(x, y) = 2x^4 - 7x^2y^2 + y^4 \quad (1)$$

in which each term has the same (total) degree. We see readily that any such polynomial of degree at least 2 has the origin $(0, 0)$ as a critical point. The question is whether this critical point is a local maximum, a local minimum, or neither.

To answer this question, you can substitute polar coordinates $x = r \cos \theta$, $y = r \sin \theta$. For example, with the fourth-degree polynomial $F(x, y)$ in (1) for which $F(0, 0) = 0$, show first that this substitution yields

$$F(x, y) = r^4 g(\theta) \quad (2)$$

where

$$g(\theta) = 2 \cos^4 \theta - 7 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \theta + \sin^4 \theta. \quad (3)$$

Then explain carefully why it follows from Eq. (2) that $F(x, y)$ has

- ▼ A local maximum at $(0, 0)$ if $g(\theta) > 0$ for $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$,
- ▼ A local minimum at $(0, 0)$ if $g(\theta) < 0$ for $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$,
- ▼ Neither a maximum nor a minimum at $(0, 0)$ if $g(\theta)$ attains both positive and negative values for $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$.

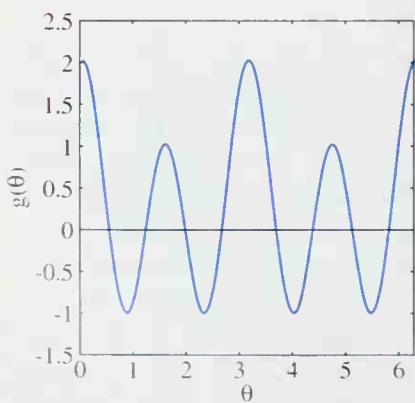


Fig. 13.5.17 The graph of $g(\theta) = 2 \cos^4 \theta - 7 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \theta + \sin^4 \theta$ exhibits both positive and negative values.

But the pertinent behavior of $g(\theta)$ is immediately visible in a graph. For instance, Fig. 13.5.17 shows the graph of $g(\theta)$ as defined in Eq. (3), and we see that $g(\theta)$ attains both positive and negative values. Therefore the function $F(x, y)$

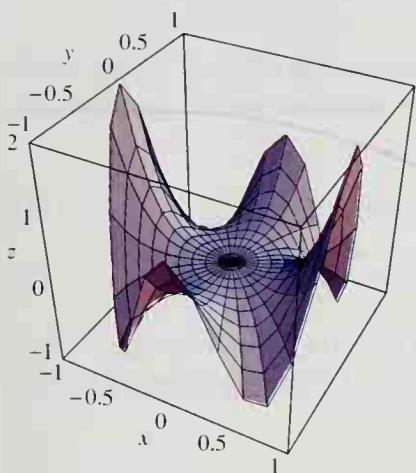


Fig. 13.5.18 A dog-saddle critical point

defined in (1) has neither a local maximum nor a local minimum at the critical point $(0, 0)$. The graph $z = F(x, y)$ shown in Fig. 13.5.18 was plotted by writing

$$x = r \cos t, \quad y = r \sin t, \quad z = 2x^4 - 7x^2y^2 + y^4$$

and using a parametric plot command for $0 \leq r \leq 1, 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$. What we see might well be termed a “dog saddle,” because four rather than only two legs can be accommodated.

For your own exotic critical points to investigate, try homogeneous polynomials such as

$$f(x, y) = px^2 + qxy + ry^2 \quad \text{or} \quad F(x, y) = px^4 - qx^2y^2 + ry^4$$

or a similar sixth-degree polynomial. Let p , q , and r be selected integers, such as the last three nonzero digits of your student I.D. number. Assemble a portfolio of pictures illustrating local maxima and minima as well as different varieties of saddle points.

13.6 INCREMENTS AND DIFFERENTIALS

In Section 4.2 we used the *differential*

$$df = f'(x) \Delta x \quad (1)$$

to approximate the *increment*, or actual change,

$$\Delta f = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x) \quad (2)$$

in the value of a single-variable function that results from the change Δx in the independent variable. Thus

$$\Delta f = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x) \approx f'(x) \Delta x = df. \quad (3)$$

We now describe the use of the partial derivatives $\partial f / \partial x$ and $\partial f / \partial y$ to approximate the **increment**

$$\Delta f = f(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) - f(x, y) \quad (4)$$

in the value of a two-variable function that results when its independent variables are changed simultaneously. If only x were changed and y were held constant, we could temporarily regard $f(x, y)$ as a function of x alone. Then, with $f_x(x, y)$ playing the role of $f'(x)$, the linear approximation in Eq. (3) would give

$$f(x + \Delta x, y) - f(x, y) \approx f_x(x, y) \Delta x \quad (5)$$

for the change in f corresponding to the change Δx in x . Similarly, if only y were changed and x were held constant, then—temporarily regarding $f(x, y)$ as a function of y alone—we would get

$$f(x, y + \Delta y) - f(x, y) \approx f_y(x, y) \Delta y \quad (6)$$

for the change in f corresponding to the change Δy in y .

If both x and y are changed simultaneously, we expect the *sum* of the approximations in (5) and (6) to be a good estimate of the resulting increment in the value of f . On this basis we define the **differential**

$$df = f_x(x, y) \Delta x + f_y(x, y) \Delta y \quad (7)$$

of a function $f(x, y)$ of two independent variables.

According to Theorem 1 of this section, the approximation $\Delta f \approx df$ of the actual increment in Eq. (4) by the differential in Eq. (7) is accurate under appropriate conditions. We therefore write

$$f(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) = f(x, y) + \Delta f \quad (\text{exact}), \quad (8)$$

$$f(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) \approx f(x, y) + df \quad (\text{approximation}). \quad (9)$$

EXAMPLE 1 Find the differential df of the function $f(x, y) = x^2 + 3xy - 2y^2$. Then compare df and the actual increment Δf when (x, y) changes from $P(3, 5)$ to $Q(3.2, 4.9)$.

Solution The differential of f , as given in Eq. (7), is

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Delta x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Delta y = (2x + 3y) \Delta x + (3x - 4y) \Delta y.$$

At the point $P(3, 5)$ this differential is

$$df = (2 \cdot 3 + 3 \cdot 5) \Delta x + (3 \cdot 3 - 4 \cdot 5) \Delta y = 21 \Delta x - 11 \Delta y.$$

With $\Delta x = 0.2$ and $\Delta y = -0.1$, corresponding to change from $P(3, 5)$ to $Q(3.2, 4.9)$, we get

$$df = 21 \cdot (0.2) - 11 \cdot (-0.1) = 5.3.$$

The actual change in the value of f from P to Q is the increment

$$\Delta f = f(3.2, 4.9) - f(3, 5) = 9.26 - 4 = 5.26,$$

so in this example the differential seems to be a good approximation to the increment. ■

At the fixed point $P(a, b)$, the differential

$$df = f_x(a, b) \Delta x + f_y(a, b) \Delta y \quad (10)$$

is a *linear* function of Δx and Δy ; the coefficients $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$ in this linear function depend on a and b . Thus the differential df is a **linear approximation** to the actual increment Δf . Theorem 1, stated later in this section, implies that if the function f has continuous partial derivatives, then df is a *very good approximation* to Δf when the changes Δx and Δy in x and y are sufficiently small. The approximation

$$f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) \approx f(a, b) + f_x(a, b) \Delta x + f_y(a, b) \Delta y \quad (11)$$

may then be used to estimate the value of $f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y)$ when Δx and Δy are small and the values $f(a, b)$, $f_x(a, b)$, and $f_y(a, b)$ are all known.

EXAMPLE 2 Use the differential to estimate $\sqrt{2 \cdot (2.03)^3 + (2.97)^2}$.

Solution We begin by letting $f(x, y) = \sqrt{2x^3 + y^2}$, $a = 2$, and $b = 3$. It is then easy to compute the exact value $f(2, 3) = \sqrt{2 \cdot 8 + 9} = \sqrt{25} = 5$. Next,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{3x^2}{\sqrt{2x^3 + y^2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{y}{\sqrt{2x^3 + y^2}},$$

so

$$f_x(2, 3) = \frac{12}{5} \quad \text{and} \quad f_y(2, 3) = \frac{3}{5}.$$

Hence Eq. (11) gives

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{2 \cdot (2.02)^3 + (2.97)^2} &= f(2.02, 2.97) \\ &\approx f(2, 3) + f_x(2, 3) \cdot (0.02) + f_y(2, 3) \cdot (-0.03) \\ &= 5 + \frac{12}{5}(0.02) + \frac{3}{5}(-0.03) = 5.03.\end{aligned}$$

The actual value to four decimal places is 5.0305. ■

If $z = f(x, y)$, we often write dz in place of df . So the differential of the dependent variable z at the point (a, b) is $dz = f_x(a, b)\Delta x + f_y(a, b)\Delta y$. At the arbitrary point (x, y) the differential of z takes the form

$$dz = f_x(x, y)\Delta x + f_y(x, y)\Delta y.$$

More simply, we can write

$$dz = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \Delta x + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \Delta y. \quad (12)$$

It is customary to write dx for Δx and dy for Δy in this formula. When this is done, Eq. (12) takes the form

$$dz = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} dy. \quad (13)$$

When we use this notation, we must realize that dx and dy have *no* connotation of being “infinitesimal” or even small. The differential dz is still simply a linear function of the ordinary real variables dx and dy , a function that gives a linear approximation to the change in z when x and y are changed by the amounts dx and dy , respectively.

EXAMPLE 3 In Example 4 of Section 13.4, we considered 1 mol of an ideal gas—its volume V in cubic centimeters given in terms of its pressure p in atmospheres and temperature T in kelvins by the formula $V = (82.06)T/p$. Approximate the change in V when p is increased from 5 atm to 5.2 atm and T is increased from 300 K to 310 K.

Solution The differential of $V = V(p, T)$ is

$$dV = \frac{\partial V}{\partial p} dp + \frac{\partial V}{\partial T} dT = -\frac{82.06 \cdot T}{p^2} dp + \frac{82.06}{p} dT.$$

With $p = 5$, $T = 300$, $dp = 0.2$, and $dT = 10$, we compute

$$dV = -\frac{82.06 \cdot 300}{5^2} \cdot 0.2 + \frac{82.06}{5} \cdot 10 = -32.8 \text{ (cm}^3\text{)}.$$

This indicates that the gas will decrease in volume by about 33 cm^3 . The actual change is the increment

$$\Delta V = \frac{82.06 \cdot 310}{5.2} - \frac{82.06 \cdot 300}{5} = 4892.0 - 4923.6 = -31.6 \text{ (cm}^3\text{)}. ■$$

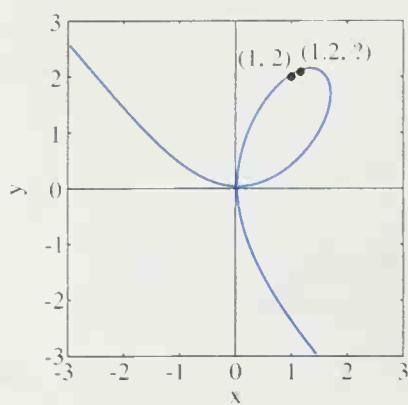


Fig. 13.6.1 The curve of Example 4

EXAMPLE 4 The point $(1, 2)$ lies on the curve (Fig. 13.6.1) with equation

$$f(x, y) = 2x^3 + y^3 - 5xy = 0. \quad (14)$$

Approximate the y -coordinate of the nearby point $(1.2, y)$.

Solution When we compute the differentials in Eq. (14), we get

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy = (6x^2 - 5y) dx + (3y^2 - 5x) dy = 0.$$

Now when we substitute $x = 1$, $y = 2$, and $dx = 0.2$, we obtain the equation $(-4)(0.2) + (7)dy = 0$. It then follows that $dy = (0.8)/7 \approx 0.114 \approx 0.1$. This yields $(1.2, 2.1)$ for the approximate coordinates of the nearby point. As a check on the accuracy of this approximation, we can substitute $x = 1.2$ into Eq. (14). This gives the equation

$$2 \cdot (1.2)^3 + y^3 - 5 \cdot (1.2)y = y^3 - 6y + 3.456 = 0.$$

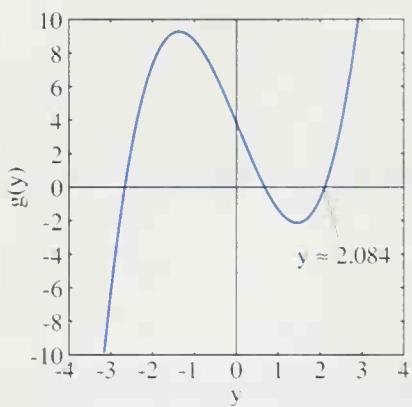


Fig. 13.6.2 The graph of $g(y) = y^3 - 6y + 3.456$

The roots of this equation are the x -intercepts of the curve in Fig. 13.6.2. A calculator or computer with an equation solver (or Newton's method) then yields $y \approx 2.084 \approx 2.1$ for the solution near $y = 2$. ■

Increments and differentials of functions of more than two variables are defined similarly. A function $w = f(x, y, z)$ has **increment**

$$\Delta w = \Delta f = f(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y, z + \Delta z) - f(x, y, z)$$

and **differential**

$$dw = df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Delta x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Delta y + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \Delta z;$$

that is,

$$dw = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} dz,$$

if, as in Eq. (12), we write dx for Δx , dy for Δy , and dz for Δz .

EXAMPLE 5 You have constructed a metal cube that is supposed to have edge length 100 mm, but each of its three measured dimensions x , y , and z may be in error by as much as a millimeter. Use differentials to estimate the maximum resulting error in its calculated volume $V = xyz$.

Solution We need to approximate the increment

$$\Delta V = V(100 + dx, 100 + dy, 100 + dz) - V(100, 100, 100)$$

when the errors dx , dy , and dz in x , y , and z are maximal. The differential of $V = xyz$ is

$$dV = yz dx + xz dy + xy dz.$$

When we substitute $x = y = z = 100$ and $dx = \pm 1$, $dy = \pm 1$, and $dz = \pm 1$, we get

$$dV = 100 \cdot 100 \cdot (\pm 1) + 100 \cdot 100 \cdot (\pm 1) + 100 \cdot 100 \cdot (\pm 1) = \pm 30000.$$

It may surprise you to find that an error of only a millimeter in each dimension of a cube can result in an error of 30000 mm³ in its volume. (For a cube made of precious metal, an error of 30 cm³ in its volume could correspond to a difference of hundreds or thousands of dollars in its cost.)

The Linear Approximation Theorem

The differential $df = f_x dx + f_y dy$ is defined provided that both partial derivatives f_x and f_y exist. Theorem 1 gives sufficient conditions for df to be a good approximation to the increment Δf when Δx and Δy are small.

Theorem 1 *Linear Approximation*

Suppose that $f(x, y)$ has continuous first-order partial derivatives in a rectangular region that has horizontal and vertical sides and contains the points

$$P(a, b) \quad \text{and} \quad Q(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y)$$

in its interior. Let

$$\Delta f = f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) - f(a, b)$$

be the corresponding increment in the value of f . Then

$$\Delta f = f_x(a, b)\Delta x + f_y(a, b)\Delta y + \epsilon_1\Delta x + \epsilon_2\Delta y, \quad (15)$$

where ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 are functions of Δx and Δy that approach zero as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ and $\Delta y \rightarrow 0$.

PROOF: If R is the point $(a + \Delta x, b)$ indicated in Fig. 13.6.3, then

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta f &= f(Q) - f(P) = [f(R) - f(P)] + [f(Q) - f(R)] \\ &= [f(a + \Delta x, b) - f(a, b)] + [f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) - f(a + \Delta x, b)].\end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

We consider separately the last two terms in Eq. (16). For the first such term, we define the single-variable function

$$g(x) = f(x, b) \quad \text{for } x \text{ in } [a, a + \Delta x].$$

Then the mean value theorem gives

$$f(a + \Delta x, b) - f(a, b) = g(a + \Delta x) - g(a) = g'(X) \Delta x = f_x(X, b) \Delta x$$

for some number X in the open interval $(a, a + \Delta x)$.

For the last term in Eq. (16), we define the single-variable function

$$h(y) = f(a + \Delta x, y) \quad \text{for } y \text{ in } [b, b + \Delta y].$$

The mean value theorem now yields

$$\begin{aligned}f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) - f(a + \Delta x, b) &= h(b + \Delta y) - h(b) \\ &= h'(Y) \Delta y = f_y(a + \Delta x, Y) \Delta y\end{aligned}$$

for some number Y in the open interval $(b, b + \Delta y)$.

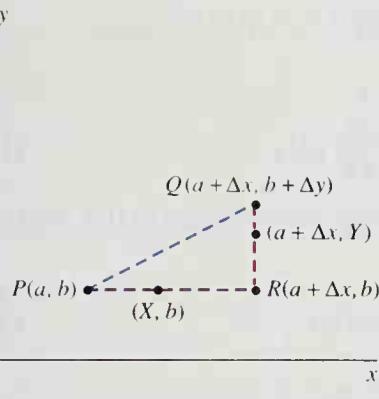


Fig. 13.6.3 Illustration of the proof of the linear approximation theorem

When we substitute these two results into Eq. (16), we find that

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta f &= f_x(X, b) \Delta x + f_y(a + \Delta x, Y) \Delta y \\ &= [f_x(a, b) + f_x(X, b) - f_x(a, b)] \Delta x + [f_y(a, b) + f_y(a + \Delta x, Y) - f_y(a, b)] \Delta y.\end{aligned}$$

So

$$\Delta f = f_x(a, b) \Delta x + f_y(a, b) \Delta y + \epsilon_1 \Delta x + \epsilon_2 \Delta y,$$

where

$$\epsilon_1 = f_x(X, b) - f_x(a, b) \quad \text{and} \quad \epsilon_2 = f_y(a + \Delta x, Y) - f_y(a, b).$$

Finally, because both the points (X, b) and $(a + \Delta x, Y)$ approach (a, b) as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ and $\Delta y \rightarrow 0$, it follows from the continuity of f_x and f_y that both ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 approach zero as Δx and Δy approach zero. This completes the proof. ■

Differentiability of Multivariable Functions

Under the hypotheses of Theorem 1 it follows from Eq. (15) (see Problem 44) that

$$\lim_{(\Delta x, \Delta y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} \frac{\Delta f - L(\Delta x, \Delta y)}{|(\Delta x, \Delta y)|} = 0 \quad (17)$$

where $|(\Delta x, \Delta y)| = \sqrt{(\Delta x)^2 + (\Delta y)^2}$ and L is the *linear* function of $\Delta x = x - a$ and $\Delta y = y - b$ defined by

$$L(\Delta x, \Delta y) = f_x(a, b) \Delta x + f_y(a, b) \Delta y. \quad (18)$$

Because

$$\Delta f - L(\Delta x, \Delta y) = f(x, y) - f(a, b) - f_x(a, b) \Delta x - f_y(a, b) \Delta y,$$

Eq. (17) implies that the linear approximation

$$f(x, y) \approx f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b) \quad (19)$$

is so accurate near (a, b) that the difference between the height of the surface $z = f(x, y)$ and its tangent plane

$$z = f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b) \quad (20)$$

is small even in comparison with $\Delta x = x - a$ and $\Delta y = y - b$.

We know from Theorem 2 in Section 3.4 that a single-variable function is continuous wherever it is differentiable. In contrast, the simple function defined in Problem 43 illustrates the fact that a function $f(x, y)$ of two variables can have partial derivatives at a point without even being continuous there! Thus the mere existence of partial derivatives appears to imply much less for a function of two (or more) variables than it does for a single-variable function.

For this reason, a different definition of differentiability itself is used for multivariable functions. The function $f(x, y)$ is said to be **differentiable** at the point (a, b) provided that there exists a *linear* function L of $\Delta x = x - a$ and $\Delta y = y - b$ such that Eq. (17) holds. Thus the function f is differentiable at (a, b) if it can be approximated sufficiently closely near (a, b) by a *linear* function [as in (19)]. In this case it follows (see Problem 45) that the partial derivatives $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$ must exist and, moreover, are the coefficients of the linear function L (as in Eq. (18)).

The linear approximation theorem (Theorem 1 of this section) implies that the function $f(x, y)$ is differentiable at the point (a, b) if it is **continuously differentiable** near (a, b) —meaning that the partial derivatives f_x and f_y exist and are continuous near (a, b) . On the other hand, the function $f(x, y)$ is continuous wherever it is differentiable—see Problem 46. In brief, it may be said that the linear approximation concept of differentiability lies “between” the concepts of continuity and continuous differentiability.

Polynomials and rational functions of several variables are differentiable wherever defined because their partial derivatives are continuous. Indeed, we will have little explicit need for the linear approximation concept of differentiability, because we deal mainly with functions having continuous partial derivatives wherever they are defined.

REMARK The linear approximation theorem generalizes in a natural way to functions of three or more variables. For example, if $w = f(x, y, z)$, then the analogue of Eq. (15) is

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta f &= f_x(a, b, c)\Delta x + f_y(a, b, c)\Delta y + f_z(a, b, c)\Delta z \\ &\quad + \epsilon_1\Delta x + \epsilon_2\Delta y + \epsilon_3\Delta z,\end{aligned}$$

where ϵ_1 , ϵ_2 , and ϵ_3 all approach zero as Δx , Δy , and Δz approach zero. The proof for the three-variable case is like the one given here for two variables.

13.6 PROBLEMS

Find the differential dw in Problems 1 through 16.

1. $w = 3x^2 + 4xy - 2y^3$
2. $w = \exp(-x^2 - y^2)$
3. $w = \sqrt{1 + x^2 + y^2}$
4. $w = xye^{x+y}$
5. $w = \arctan\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$
6. $w = xz^2 - yx^2 + zy^2$
7. $w = \ln(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$
8. $w = \sin xyz$
9. $w = x \tan yz$
10. $w = xye^{uw}$
11. $w = e^{-xyz}$
12. $w = \ln(1 + rs)$
13. $w = u^2 \exp(-v^2)$
14. $w = \frac{s+t}{s-t}$
15. $w = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$
16. $w = pqr \exp(-p^2 - q^2 - r^2)$

In Problems 17 through 24, use the exact value $f(P)$ and the differential df to approximate the value $f(Q)$.

17. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$; $P(3, 4)$, $Q(2.97, 4.04)$
18. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 - y^2}$; $P(13, 5)$, $Q(13.2, 4.9)$
19. $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{1+x+y}$; $P(3, 6)$, $Q(3.02, 6.05)$
20. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{xyz}$; $P(1, 3, 3)$, $Q(0.9, 2.9, 3.1)$
21. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$; $P(3, 4, 12)$, $Q(3.03, 3.96, 12.05)$
22. $f(x, y, z) = \frac{xyz}{x+y+z}$; $P(2, 3, 5)$, $Q(1.98, 3.03, 4.97)$
23. $f(x, y, z) = e^{-xyz}$; $P(1, 0, -2)$, $Q(1.02, 0.03, -2.02)$
24. $f(x, y) = (x-y) \cos 2\pi xy$; $P(1, \frac{1}{2})$, $Q(1.1, 0.4)$

In Problems 25 through 32, use differentials to approximate the indicated number.

25. $(\sqrt{15} + \sqrt{99})^2$
26. $(\sqrt{26})(\sqrt[3]{28})(\sqrt[4]{17})$
27. $e^{0.4} = \exp(1.1^2 - 0.9^2)$
28. $\frac{\sqrt[3]{25}}{\sqrt[5]{30}}$
29. $\sqrt{(3.1)^2 + (4.2)^2 + (11.7)^2}$
30. $\sqrt[3]{(5.1)^2 + 2 \cdot (5.2)^2 + 2 \cdot (5.3)^2}$

31. The y -coordinate of the point P near $(1, 2)$ on the curve $2x^3 + 2y^3 = 9xy$, if the x -coordinate of P is 1.1
32. The x -coordinate of the point P near $(2, 4)$ on the curve $4x^4 + 4y^4 = 17x^2y^2$, if the y -coordinate of P is 3.9
33. The base and height of a rectangle are measured as 10 cm and 15 cm, respectively, with a possible error of as much as 0.1 cm in each measurement. Use differentials to estimate the maximum resulting error in computing the area of the rectangle.
34. The base radius r and the height h of a right circular cylinder are measured as 3 cm and 9 cm, respectively. There is a possible error of 1 mm in each measurement. Use differentials to estimate the maximum possible error in computing: (a) the volume of the cylinder; (b) the total surface area of the cylinder.
35. The base radius r and height h of a right circular cone are measured as 5 in. and 10 in., respectively. There is a possible error of as much as $\frac{1}{16}$ in. in each measurement. Use differentials to estimate the maximum resulting error that might occur in computing the volume of the cone.

36. The dimensions of a closed rectangular box are found by measurement to be 10 cm by 15 cm by 20 cm, but there is a possible error of 0.1 cm in each. Use differentials to estimate the maximum resulting error in computing the total surface area of the box.
37. A surveyor wants to find the area in acres of a certain field (1 acre is 43560 ft²). She measures two different sides, finding them to be $a = 500$ ft and $b = 700$ ft, with a possible error of as much as 1 ft in each measurement. She finds the angle between these two sides to be $\theta = 30^\circ$, with a possible error of as much as 0.25° . The field is triangular, so its area is given by $A = \frac{1}{2}ab \sin \theta$. Use differentials to estimate the maximum resulting error, in acres, in computing the area of the field by this formula.
38. Use differentials to estimate the change in the volume of the gas of Example 3 if its pressure is decreased from 5 atm to 4.9 atm and its temperature is decreased from 300 K to 280 K.
39. The period of oscillation of a simple pendulum of length L is given (approximately) by the formula $T = 2\pi\sqrt{L/g}$. Estimate the change in the period of a pendulum if its length is increased from 2 ft to 2 ft 1 in. and it is simultaneously moved from a location where g is exactly 32 ft/s² to one where $g = 32.2$ ft/s².
40. Given the pendulum of Problem 39, show that the relative error in the determination of T is half the difference of the relative errors in measuring L and g —that is, that

$$\frac{dT}{T} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{dL}{L} - \frac{dg}{g} \right).$$

41. The range of a projectile fired (in a vacuum) with initial velocity v_0 and inclination angle α from the horizontal is $R = \frac{1}{32}v_0^2 \sin 2\alpha$. Use differentials to approximate the change in range if v_0 is increased from 400 to 410 ft/s and α is increased from 30° to 31° .
42. A horizontal beam is supported at both ends and supports a uniform load. The deflection, or sag, at its midpoint is given by

$$S = \frac{k}{wh^3}, \quad (20)$$

where w and h are the width and height, respectively, of the beam and k is a constant that depends on the length and composition of the beam and the amount of the load. Show that

$$dS = -S \left(\frac{1}{w} dw + \frac{3}{h} dh \right).$$

If $S = 1$ in. when $w = 2$ in. and $h = 4$ in., approximate the sag when $w = 2.1$ in. and $h = 4.1$ in. Compare your approximation with the actual value you compute from Eq. (20).

43. Let the function f be defined on the whole xy -plane by $f(x, y) = 1$ if $x = y \neq 0$, whereas $f(x, y) = 0$ otherwise. (a) Show that f is not continuous at $(0, 0)$. (b) Show that both partial derivatives f_x and f_y exist at $(0, 0)$.
44. Show that the linear approximation theorem implies that the function $f(x, y)$ is differentiable at the point (a, b) if it is continuously differentiable near (a, b) . (Suggestion: Show that Eq. (17) in the text follows from Eq. (15).)
45. Show that if the function $f(x, y)$ is differentiable at (a, b) , then the partial derivatives $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$ both exist and, moreover, are the coefficients of the linear function L in Eq. (17). (Suggestion: Let one of the differences Δx and Δy approach zero while the other is zero.)
46. Show that a function $f(x, y)$ of two variables is continuous wherever it is differentiable.
47. Show that the function $f(x, y) = (\sqrt[3]{x} + \sqrt[3]{y})^3$ is continuous and has partial derivatives at the origin $(0, 0)$ but is not differentiable there.
48. Show that the function f defined by $f(x, y) = y^2 + x^2 \sin(1/x)$ for $x \neq 0$, and $f(0, y) = y^2$, is differentiable at $(0, 0)$, but is not continuously differentiable there because $f_x(x, y)$ is not continuous at $(0, 0)$.

13.7 THE CHAIN RULE

The single-variable chain rule expresses the derivative of a composite function $f(g(t))$ in terms of the derivatives of f and g :

$$D_t f(g(t)) = f'(g(t)) \cdot g'(t). \quad (1)$$

With $w = f(x)$ and $x = g(t)$, the chain rule says that

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{dw}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt}. \quad (2)$$

The simplest multivariable chain rule situation involves a function $w = f(x, y)$ where both x and y are functions of the same single variable t : $x = g(t)$ and $y = h(t)$. The composite function $f(g(t), h(t))$ is then a single-variable function of t , and Theorem 1 expresses its derivative in terms of the partial derivatives of f and the ordinary derivatives of g and h . We assume that the stated hypotheses hold on suitable domains such that the composite function is defined.

Theorem 1 The Chain Rule

Suppose that $w = f(x, y)$ has continuous first-order partial derivatives and that $x = g(t)$ and $y = h(t)$ are differentiable functions. Then w is a differentiable function of t , and

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}. \quad (3)$$

The variable notation of Eq. (3) ordinarily will be more useful than function notation. Remember, in any case, that the partial derivatives in Eq. (3) are to be evaluated at the point $(g(t), h(t))$, so in function notation Eq. (3) is

$$D_t[f(g(t), h(t))] = f_x(g(t), h(t)) \cdot g'(t) + f_y(g(t), h(t)) \cdot h'(t). \quad (4)$$

A proof of the chain rule is included at the end of this section. In outline, it consists of beginning with the linear approximation

$$\Delta w \approx \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \Delta x + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \Delta y$$

of Section 13.6 and dividing by Δt :

$$\frac{\Delta w}{\Delta t} \approx \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t}.$$

Then we take the limit as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ to obtain

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}.$$

EXAMPLE 1 Suppose that $w = e^{xy}$, $x = t^2$, and $y = t^3$. Then

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial x} = ye^{xy}, \quad \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} = xe^{xy}, \quad \frac{dx}{dt} = 2t, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = 3t^2.$$

So Eq. (3) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dw}{dt} &= \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt} = (ye^{xy})(2t) + (xe^{xy})(3t^2) \\ &= (t^3 e^{t^5})(2t) + (t^2 e^{t^5})(3t^2) = 5t^4 e^{t^5}. \end{aligned}$$

REMARK Had our purpose not been to illustrate the multivariable chain rule, we could have obtained the same result $dw/dt = 5t^4 \exp(t^5)$ more simply by writing

$$w = e^{xy} = e^{(t^2)(t^3)} = e^{t^5}$$

and then differentiating w as a single-variable function of t . But this single-variable approach is available only if the functions $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ are known explicitly. Sometimes, however, we know only the *numerical values* of x and y and/or their rates of change at a given instant. In such cases the multivariable chain rule in (3) can then be used to find the numerical rate of change of w at that instant.

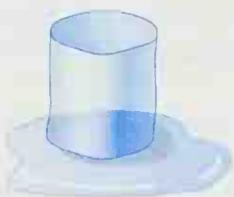


Fig. 13.7.1 Warm sun melting a cylindrical block of ice

EXAMPLE 2 Figure 13.7.1 shows a melting cylindrical block of ice. Because of the sun's heat beating down from above, its height h is decreasing more rapidly than its radius r . If its height is decreasing at 3 cm/h and its radius is decreasing at 1 cm/h when $r = 15$ cm and $h = 40$ cm, what is the rate of change of the volume V of the block at that instant?

Solution With $V = \pi r^2 h$, the chain rule gives

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = \frac{\partial V}{\partial r} \frac{dr}{dt} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial h} \frac{dh}{dt} = 2\pi rh \frac{dr}{dt} + \pi r^2 \frac{dh}{dt}.$$

Substituting the given numerical values $r = 15$, $h = 40$, $dr/dt = -1$, and $dh/dt = -3$, we find that

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = 2\pi(15)(40)(-1) + \pi(15)^2(-3) = -1875\pi \approx -5890.49 \text{ (cm}^3/\text{h}).$$

Thus the volume of the cylindrical block is decreasing at slightly less than 6 liters per hour at the given instant. ■

In the context of Theorem 1, we may refer to w as the **dependent variable**, x and y as **intermediate variables**, and t as the **independent variable**. Then note that the right-hand side of Eq. (3) has two terms, one for each intermediate variable, both terms like the right-hand side of the single-variable chain rule in Eq. (2). If there are more than two intermediate variables, then there is still one term on the right-hand side for each intermediate variable. For example, if $w = f(x, y, z)$ with x , y , and z each a function of t , then the chain rule takes the form

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{dz}{dt}. \quad (5)$$

The derivation of Eq. (5) is essentially the same as the derivation of Eq. (3); it requires the linear approximation theorem for three variables rather than for two variables.

You may find it useful to envision the three types of variables—dependent, intermediate, and independent—as though they were lying at three different levels, as in Fig. 13.7.2, with the dependent variable at the top and the independent variable at the bottom. Each variable then depends (either directly or indirectly) on those that lie below it.

EXAMPLE 3 Find dw/dt if $w = x^2 + ze^y + \sin xz$ and $x = t$, $y = t^2$, $z = t^3$.

Solution Equation (5) gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dw}{dt} &= \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{dz}{dt} \\ &= (2x + z \cos xz)(1) + (ze^y)(2t) + (e^y + x \cos xz)(3t^2) \\ &= 2t + (3t^2 + 2t^4)e^{t^2} + 4t^3 \cos t^4. \end{aligned}$$

In Example 3 we could check the result given by the chain rule by first writing w as an explicit function of t and then computing the ordinary single-variable derivative of w with respect to t .

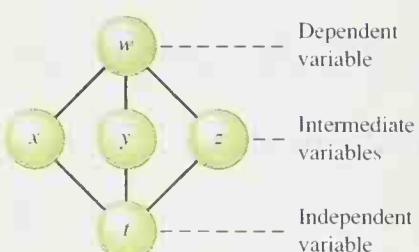


Fig. 13.7.2 Levels of chain rule variables

Several Independent Variables

There may be several independent variables as well as several intermediate variables. For example, if $w = f(x, y, z)$ where $x = g(u, v)$, $y = h(u, v)$, and $z = k(u, v)$, so that

$$w = f(x, y, z) = f(g(u, v), h(u, v), k(u, v)),$$

then we have the three intermediate variables x , y , and z and the two independent variables u and v . In this case we would need to compute the *partial* derivatives $\partial w / \partial u$ and $\partial w / \partial v$ of the composite function. The general chain rule in Theorem 2 implies that each partial derivative of the dependent variable w is given by a chain rule formula such as Eq. (3) or (5). The only difference is that the derivatives with respect to the independent variables are partial derivatives. For instance,

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial u}.$$

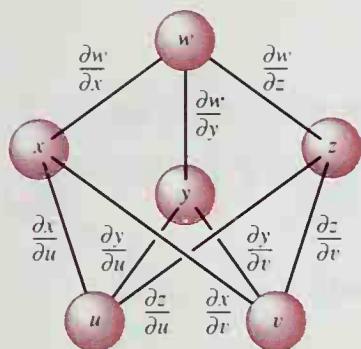


Fig. 13.7.3 Diagram for $w = w(x, y, z)$, where $x = x(u, v)$, $y = y(u, v)$, and $z = z(u, v)$

The “molecular model” in Fig. 13.7.3 illustrates this formula. The “atom” at the top represents the dependent variable w . The atoms at the next level represent the intermediate variables x , y , and z . The atoms at the bottom represent the independent variables u and v . Each “bond” in the model represents a partial derivative involving the two variables (the atoms joined by that bond). Finally, note that the preceding formula expresses $\partial w / \partial u$ as the sum of the products of the partial derivatives taken along all paths from w to u . Similarly, the sum of the products of the partial derivatives along all paths from w to v yields the correct formula

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial v}.$$

Theorem 2 describes the most general such situation.

Theorem 2 *The General Chain Rule*

Suppose that w is a function of the variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m and that each of these variables is a function of the variables t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n . If all these functions have continuous first-order partial derivatives, then

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial t_i} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x_1} \cdot \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t_i} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial x_2} \cdot \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t_i} + \cdots + \frac{\partial w}{\partial x_m} \cdot \frac{\partial x_m}{\partial t_i} \quad (6)$$

for each i , $1 \leq i \leq n$.

Thus there is a formula in Eq. (6) for *each* of the independent variables t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n , and the right-hand side of each such formula contains one typical chain rule term for each of the intermediate variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m .

EXAMPLE 4 Suppose that

$$z = f(u, v), \quad u = 2x + y, \quad v = 3x - 2y.$$

Given the values $\partial z / \partial u = 3$ and $\partial z / \partial v = -2$ at the point $(u, v) = (3, 1)$, find the values $\partial z / \partial x$ and $\partial z / \partial y$ at the corresponding point $(x, y) = (1, 1)$.

Solution The relationships among the variables are shown in Fig. 13.7.4. The chain rule gives

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 3 \cdot 2 + (-2) \cdot 3 = 0$$

and

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 3 \cdot 1 + (-2) \cdot (-2) = 7$$

at the indicated point $(x, y) = (1, 1)$. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Let $w = f(x, y)$ where x and y are given in polar coordinates by the equations $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$. Calculate

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial r}, \quad \frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial r^2}$$

in terms of r , θ , and the partial derivatives of w with respect to x and y (Fig. 13.7.5).

Solution Here x and y are intermediate variables; the independent variables are r and θ . First note that

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} = \cos \theta, \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} = \sin \theta, \quad \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} = -r \sin \theta, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} = r \cos \theta.$$

Then

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cos \theta + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \sin \theta \quad (7a)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} = -r \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \sin \theta + r \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cos \theta. \quad (7b)$$

Next,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial r^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial r} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cos \theta + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \sin \theta \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial w_x}{\partial r} \cos \theta + \frac{\partial w_y}{\partial r} \sin \theta, \end{aligned}$$

where $w_x = \partial w / \partial x$ and $w_y = \partial w / \partial y$. We apply Eq. (7a) to calculate $\partial w_x / \partial r$ and $\partial w_y / \partial r$, and we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial r^2} &= \left(\frac{\partial w_x}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial w_x}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} \right) \cos \theta + \left(\frac{\partial w_y}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial w_y}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} \right) \sin \theta \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} \cos \theta + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y \partial x} \sin \theta \right) \cos \theta + \left(\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x \partial y} \cos \theta + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} \sin \theta \right) \sin \theta. \end{aligned}$$

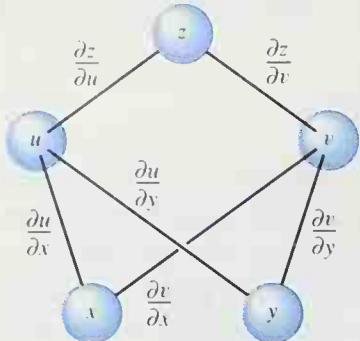


Fig. 13.7.4 Diagram for $z = z(u, v)$, where $u = u(x, y)$ and $v = v(x, y)$ (Example 4)

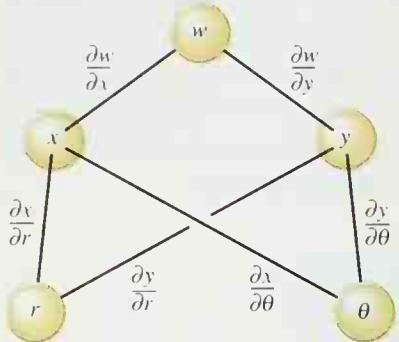


Fig. 13.7.5 Diagram for $w = w(x, y)$, where $x = x(r, \theta)$ and $y = y(r, \theta)$ (Example 5)

Finally, because $w_{yx} = w_{xy}$, we get

$$\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial r^2} = \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} \cos^2 \theta + 2 \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x \partial y} \cos \theta \sin \theta + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} \sin^2 \theta. \quad (8)$$

EXAMPLE 6 Suppose that $w = f(u, v, x, y)$, where u and v are functions of x and y . Here x and y play dual roles as intermediate and independent variables. The chain rule yields

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial w}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x},\end{aligned}$$

because $\partial x / \partial x = 1$ and $\partial y / \partial x = 0$. Similarly,

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}.$$

These results are consistent with the paths from w to x and from w to y in the molecular model shown in Fig. 13.7.6.

EXAMPLE 7 Consider a parametric curve $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$, $z = z(t)$ that lies on the surface $z = f(x, y)$ in space. Recall that if

$$\mathbf{T} = \left\langle \frac{dx}{dt}, \frac{dy}{dt}, \frac{dz}{dt} \right\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{N} = \left\langle \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}, -1 \right\rangle,$$

then \mathbf{T} is tangent to the curve and \mathbf{N} is normal to the surface. Show that \mathbf{T} and \mathbf{N} are everywhere perpendicular.

Solution The chain rule in Eq. (3) tells us that

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}.$$

But this equation is equivalent to the vector equation

$$\left\langle \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}, -1 \right\rangle \cdot \left\langle \frac{dx}{dt}, \frac{dy}{dt}, \frac{dz}{dt} \right\rangle = 0.$$

Thus $\mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{T} = 0$, so \mathbf{N} and \mathbf{T} are perpendicular.

Theorem 3 *Implicit Partial Differentiation*

Suppose that the function $F(x, y, z)$ has continuous first-order partial derivatives and that the equation $F(x, y, z) = 0$ implicitly defines a function $z = f(x, y)$ that has continuous first-order partial derivatives. Then

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -\frac{F_x}{F_z} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -\frac{F_y}{F_z} \quad (9)$$

wherever $F_z = \partial F / \partial z \neq 0$.

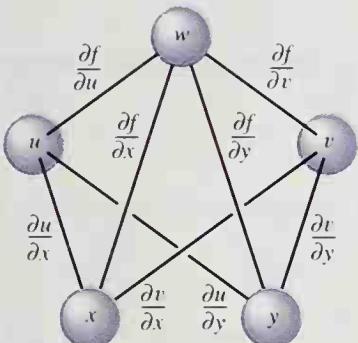


Fig. 13.7.6 Diagram for $w = f(u, v, x, y)$, where $u = u(x, y)$ and $v = v(x, y)$ (Example 6)

PROOF Because $w = F(x, y, f(x, y))$ is identically zero, differentiation with respect to x yields

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \\ &= 1 \cdot F_x + 0 \cdot F_y + \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \cdot F_z, \end{aligned}$$

so

$$F_x + \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \cdot F_z = 0.$$

The first formula in (9) now follows. The second is obtained similarly by differentiating w with respect to y . ■

REMARK In a specific example it is usually simpler to differentiate the equation

$$F(x, y, f(x, y)) = 0$$

implicitly than to apply the formulas in (9).

EXAMPLE 8 Find the plane tangent at the point $(1, 3, 2)$ to the surface with equation

$$z^3 + xz - y^2 = 1.$$

Solution Implicit partial differentiation of the given equation with respect to x and with respect to y yields the equations

$$3z^2 \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + z + x \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad 3z^2 \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} + x \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} - 2y = 0.$$

When we substitute $x = 1$, $y = 3$, and $z = 2$, we find that $\partial z / \partial x = -\frac{2}{13}$ and $\partial z / \partial y = \frac{6}{13}$. Hence an equation of the tangent plane in question is

$$z - 2 = -\frac{2}{13}(x - 1) + \frac{6}{13}(y - 3); \text{ that is, } 2x - 6y + 13z = 10. ■$$

Matrix Form of the Chain Rule

The case $m = n = 2$ of the chain rule corresponds to the case of two intermediate variables (x and y , say) that are functions of two independent variables (u and v , say),

$$x = f(u, v), \quad y = g(u, v). \tag{10}$$

These functions describe a **transformation** $T: R_{uv}^2 \rightarrow R_{xy}^2$ from the coordinate plane R_{uv}^2 of (u, v) -pairs to the coordinate plane R_{xy}^2 of (x, y) -pairs. The **image** of the point (u, v) of R_{uv}^2 is the point $T(u, v) = (f(u, v), g(u, v)) = (x, y)$ of R_{xy}^2 . The **derivative matrix** of the transformation T at the point (u, v) is then the 2×2 array

$$T'(u, v) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} \tag{11}$$

of partial derivatives of the component functions in (10) of the transformation T (all evaluated at the point (u, v)).

EXAMPLE 9 The polar coordinate transformation $T : R_{r\theta}^2 \rightarrow R_{xy}^2$ is defined by the familiar equations

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta. \quad (12)$$

Its derivative matrix is given by

$$T'(r, \theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}. \quad (13)$$

Now suppose that the dependent variable w is a function $F(x, y)$ of the intermediate variables x and y , and thereby is the composite function

$$G(u, v) = F(T(u, v)) = F(x(u, v), y(u, v)) \quad (14)$$

of the independent variables u and v (Fig. 13.7.7). The derivative matrices

$$F'(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } G'(u, v) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial w}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} \quad (15)$$

of F and G are defined in analogy with (11)—there being a single row in each matrix, corresponding to the single dependent variable w . Those who are familiar with matrix multiplication will recognize that the two chain rule formulas

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}, \quad \frac{\partial w}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}$$

are the “components” of the single matrix equation

$$G'(u, v) = F'(x, y) T'(u, v); \quad (16a)$$

that is,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial w}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} \quad (16b)$$

Thus the chain rule for the situation indicated in Fig. 13.7.7 implies that *the derivative matrix of the composite function $G = F \circ T$ is the matrix product $G' = F'T'$.*

EXAMPLE 10 With the polar-coordinate derivative matrix $T'(r, \theta)$ in (13), the matrix multiplication in Eq. (16b) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial w}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \left[\frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cos \theta + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \sin \theta \quad -r \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \sin \theta + r \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cos \theta \right]. \end{aligned}$$

The components of this matrix equation are the scalar chain rule formulas

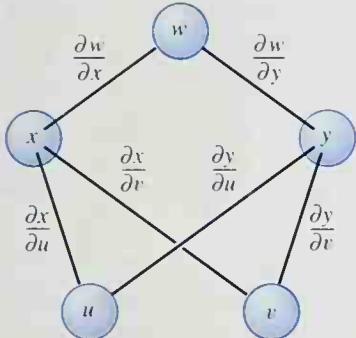


Fig. 13.7.7 Diagram for $w = F(x, y)$ where $(x, y) = (x(u, v), y(u, v)) = T(u, v)$

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cos \theta + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \sin \theta, \quad \frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta} = -r \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \sin \theta + r \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cos \theta$$

that we saw previously in Example 5.

We have discussed here the 2×2 case of a general $m \times n$ matrix formulation of the multivariable chain rule. The 3×3 case and its application to spherical coordinates are discussed in Problems 58 through 61.

Proof of the Chain Rule

Given that $w = f(x, y)$ satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 1, we choose a point t_0 at which we wish to compute dw/dt and write

$$a = g(t_0), \quad b = h(t_0).$$

Let

$$\Delta x = g(t_0 + \Delta t) - g(t_0), \quad \Delta y = h(t_0 + \Delta t) - h(t_0).$$

Then

$$g(t_0 + \Delta t) = a + \Delta x \quad \text{and} \quad h(t_0 + \Delta t) = b + \Delta y.$$

If

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta w &= f(g(t_0 + \Delta t), h(t_0 + \Delta t)) - f(g(t_0), h(t_0)) \\ &= f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) - f(a, b), \end{aligned}$$

then what we need to compute is

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta t}.$$

The linear approximation theorem of Section 13.6 gives

$$\Delta w = f_x(a, b)\Delta x + f_y(a, b)\Delta y + \epsilon_1 \Delta x + \epsilon_2 \Delta y,$$

where ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 approach zero as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ and $\Delta y \rightarrow 0$. We note that both Δx and Δy approach zero as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, because both the derivatives

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t}$$

exist. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dw}{dt} &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta t} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left[f_x(a, b) \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} + f_y(a, b) \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} + \epsilon_1 \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} + \epsilon_2 \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} \right] \\ &= f_x(a, b) \frac{dx}{dt} + f_y(a, b) \frac{dy}{dt} + 0 \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + 0 \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}.$$

Thus we have established Eq. (3), writing $\partial w / \partial x$ and $\partial w / \partial y$ for the partial derivatives $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$ in the final step. ■

13.7 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 4, find dw/dt both by using the chain rule and by expressing w explicitly as a function of t before differentiating.

1. $w = \exp(-x^2 - y^2)$; $x = t, y = \sqrt{t}$

2. $w = \frac{1}{u^2 + v^2}$; $u = \cos 2t, v = \sin 2t$

3. $w = \sin xyz$; $x = t, y = t^2, z = t^3$

4. $w = \ln(u + v + z)$; $u = \cos^2 t, v = \sin^2 t, z = t^2$

In Problems 5 through 8, find $\partial w/\partial s$ and $\partial w/\partial t$.

5. $w = \ln(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$; $x = s - t, y = s + t, z = 2\sqrt{st}$

6. $w = pq \sin r$; $p = 2s + t, q = s - t, r = st$

7. $w = \sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + z^2}$; $u = 3e^t \sin s, v = 3e^t \cos s, z = 4e^t$

8. $w = yz + zx + xy$; $x = s^2 - t^2, y = s^2 + t^2, z = s^2 t^2$

In Problems 9 through 12, find $\partial r/\partial x$, $\partial r/\partial y$, and $\partial r/\partial z$.

9. $r = e^{u+v+w}$; $u = yz, v = xz, w = xy$

10. $r = uvw - u^2 - v^2 - w^2$; $u = y + z, v = x + z, w = x + y$

11. $r = \sin(p/q)$; $p = \sqrt{xy^2 z^3}, q = \sqrt{x + 2y + 3z}$

12. $r = \frac{p}{q} + \frac{q}{s} + \frac{s}{p}$; $p = e^{yz}, q = e^{xz}, s = e^{xy}$

In Problems 13 through 18, write chain rule formulas giving the partial derivative of the dependent variable p with respect to each independent variable.

13. $p = f(x, y)$; $x = x(u, v, w), y = y(u, v, w)$

14. $p = f(x, y, z)$; $x = x(u, v), y = y(u, v), z = z(u, v)$

15. $p = f(u, v, w)$; $u = u(x, y, z), v = v(x, y, z), w = w(x, y, z)$

16. $p = f(v, w)$; $v = v(x, y, z, t), w = w(x, y, z, t)$

17. $p = f(w)$; $w = w(x, y, z, u, v)$

18. $p = f(x, y, u, v)$; $x = x(s, t), y = y(s, t), u = u(s, t), v = v(s, t)$

In Problems 19 through 24, find $\partial z/\partial x$ and $\partial z/\partial y$ as functions of x, y , and z , assuming that $z = f(x, y)$ satisfies the given equation.

19. $x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} + z^{2/3} = 1$

20. $x^3 + y^3 + z^3 = xyz$

21. $xe^{xy} + ye^{zx} + ze^{xy} = 3$

22. $x^5 + xy^2 + yz = 5$

23. $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$

24. $xyz = \sin(x + y + z)$

In Problems 25 through 28, use the method of Example 6 to find $\partial w/\partial x$ and $\partial w/\partial y$ as functions of x and y .

25. $w = u^2 + v^2 + x^2 + y^2$; $u = x - y, v = x + y$

26. $w = \sqrt{uvxy}$; $u = \sqrt{x - y}, v = \sqrt{x + y}$

27. $w = xy \ln(u + v)$; $u = (x^2 + y^2)^{1/3}, v = (x^3 + y^3)^{1/2}$

28. $w = uv - xy$; $u = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2}, v = \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}$

In Problems 29 through 32, write an equation for the plane tangent at the point P to the surface with the given equation.

29. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$; $P(1, 2, 2)$

30. $x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2 = 14$; $P(2, 1, -2)$

31. $x^3 + y^3 + z^3 = 5xyz$; $P(2, 1, 1)$

32. $z^3 + (x + y)z^2 + x^2 + y^2 = 13$; $P(2, 2, 1)$

33. The sun is melting a rectangular block of ice. When the block's height is 1 ft and the edge of its square base is 2 ft, its height is decreasing at 2 in./h and its base edge is decreasing at 3 in./h. What is the block's rate of change of volume V at that instant?

34. A rectangular box has a square base. Find the rate at which its volume and surface area are changing if its base edge is increasing at 2 cm/min and its height is decreasing at 3 cm/min at the instant when each dimension is 1 meter.

35. Falling sand forms a conical sandpile. When the sandpile has a height of 5 ft and its base radius is 2 ft, its height is increasing at 0.4 ft/min and its base radius is increasing at 0.7 ft/min. At what rate is the volume of the sandpile increasing at that moment?

36. A rectangular block has dimensions $x = 3$ m, $y = 2$ m, and $z = 1$ m. If x and y are increasing at 1 cm/min and 2 cm/min, respectively, while z is decreasing at 2 cm/min, are the block's volume and total surface area increasing or are they decreasing? At what rates?

37. The volume V (in cubic centimeters) and pressure p (in atmospheres) of n moles of an ideal gas satisfy the equation $pV = nRT$, where T is its temperature (in degrees Kelvin) and $R = 82.06$. Suppose that a sample of the gas has a volume of 10 L when the pressure is 2 atm and the temperature is 300°K. If the pressure is increasing at 1 atm/min and the temperature is increasing at 10°K/min, is the volume of the gas sample increasing or is it decreasing? At what rate?

38. The aggregate resistance R of three variable resistances R_1, R_2 , and R_3 connected in parallel satisfies the *harmonic equation*

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}.$$

Suppose that R_1 and R_2 are 100 Ω and are increasing at 1 Ω/s, while R_3 is 200 Ω and is decreasing at 2 Ω/s. Is R increasing or decreasing at that instant? At what rate?

39. Suppose that $x = h(y, z)$ satisfies the equation $F(x, y, z) = 0$ and that $F_x \neq 0$. Show that

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial F/\partial y}{\partial F/\partial x}.$$

40. Suppose that $w = f(x, y)$, $x = r \cos \theta$, and $y = r \sin \theta$. Show that

$$\left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial y}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial r}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{r^2} \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta}\right)^2.$$

41. Suppose that $w = f(u)$ and that $u = x + y$. Show that $\frac{\partial w}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial y}$.
42. Suppose that $w = f(u)$ and that $u = x - y$. Show that $\frac{\partial w}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial w}{\partial y}$ and that

$$\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} = -\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x \partial y}.$$

43. Suppose that $w = f(x, y)$ where $x = u + v$ and $y = u - v$. Show that

$$\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} - \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial u \partial v}.$$

44. Assume that $w = f(x, y)$ where $x = 2u + v$ and $y = u - v$. Show that

$$5 \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} + 2 \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x \partial y} + 2 \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial u^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial v^2}.$$

45. Suppose that $w = f(x, y)$, $x = r \cos \theta$, and $y = r \sin \theta$. Show that

$$\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial w}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial \theta^2}.$$

(*Suggestion:* First find $\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial \theta^2}$ by the method of Example 5. Then combine the result with Eqs. (7) and (8).)

46. Suppose that

$$w = \frac{1}{r} f\left(t - \frac{r}{a}\right)$$

and that $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$. Show that

$$\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial z^2} = \frac{1}{a^2} \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial t^2}.$$

47. Suppose that $w = f(r)$ and that $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$. Show that

$$\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial z^2} = \frac{d^2 w}{dr^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{dw}{dr}.$$

48. Suppose that $w = f(u) + g(v)$, that $u = x - at$, and that $v = x + at$. Show that

$$\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial t^2} = a^2 \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2}.$$

49. Assume that $w = f(u, v)$ where $u = x + y$ and $v = x - y$. Show that

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} = \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial u}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial v}\right)^2.$$

50. Given: $w = f(x, y)$, $x = e^u \cos v$, and $y = e^u \sin v$. Show that

$$\left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial y}\right)^2 = e^{-2u} \left[\left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial u}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial v}\right)^2 \right].$$

51. Assume that $w = f(x, y)$ and that there is a constant α such that

$$x = u \cos \alpha - v \sin \alpha \quad \text{and} \quad y = u \sin \alpha + v \cos \alpha.$$

Show that

$$\left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial u}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial v}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial y}\right)^2.$$

52. Suppose that $w = f(u)$, where

$$u = \frac{x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2}.$$

Show that $xw_x + yw_y = 0$.

Suppose that the equation $F(x, y, z) = 0$ defines implicitly the three functions $z = f(x, y)$, $y = g(x, z)$, and $x = h(y, z)$. To keep track of the various partial derivatives, we use the notation

$$\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \quad \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \quad (17a)$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z = \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}, \quad \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x = \frac{\partial g}{\partial z}, \quad (17b)$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z = \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}, \quad \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y = \frac{\partial h}{\partial z}, \quad (17c)$$

In short, the general symbol $(\partial w / \partial u)_v$ denotes the derivative of w with respect to u , where w is regarded as a function of the independent variables u and v .

53. Using the notation in the equations in (17), show that

$$\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y = -1$$

(*Suggestion:* Find the three partial derivatives on the right-hand side in (17) in terms of F_x , F_y , and F_z .)

54. Verify the result of Problem 53 for the equation

$$F(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 1 = 0.$$

55. Verify the result of Problem 53 (with p , V , and T in place of x , y , and z) for the equation

$$F(p, V, T) = pV - nRT = 0$$

(n and R are constants), which expresses the ideal gas law.

56. Consider a given quantity of liquid whose pressure p , volume V , and temperature T satisfy a given "state equation" of the form $F(p, V, T) = 0$. The **thermal expansivity**

α and **isothermal compressivity β** of the liquid are defined by

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{V} \frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = -\frac{1}{V} \frac{\partial V}{\partial p}.$$

Apply Theorem 3 first to calculate $\partial V/\partial p$ and $\partial V/\partial T$, and then to calculate $\partial p/\partial V$ and $\partial p/\partial T$. Deduce from the results that $\partial p/\partial T = \alpha/\beta$.

57. The thermal expansivity and isothermal compressivity of liquid mercury are $\alpha = 1.8 \times 10^{-4}$ and $\beta = 3.9 \times 10^{-6}$, respectively, in L-atm-°C units. Suppose that a thermometer bulb is exactly filled with mercury at 50°C. If the bulb can withstand an internal pressure of no more than 200 atm, can it be heated to 55°C without breaking? (Suggestion: Apply the result of Problem 56 to calculate the increase in pressure with each increase of one degree in temperature.)
58. Suppose that the transformation $T: R_{uvw}^3 \rightarrow R_{xyz}^3$ is defined by the functions $x = x(u, v, w)$, $y = y(u, v, w)$, $z = z(u, v, w)$. Then its derivative matrix is defined by

$$T'(u, v, w) = \begin{bmatrix} x_u & x_v & x_w \\ y_u & y_v & y_w \\ z_u & z_v & z_w \end{bmatrix}.$$

Calculate the derivative matrix of the linear transformation defined by $x = a_1u + b_1v + c_1w$, $y = a_2u + b_2v + c_2w$, $z = a_3u + b_3v + c_3w$.

59. Calculate the derivative matrix of the spherical coordinate transformation T defined by $x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta$, $y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta$, $z = \rho \cos \phi$.
60. Suppose that $q = F(x, y, z)$ with 1×3 derivative matrix $F' = [F_x \ F_y \ F_z]$ and that $(x, y, z) = T(u, v, w)$ as in Problem 58. If $G = F \circ T$, deduce from the chain rule in Theorem 2 that $G' = F'T'$ (matrix product).
61. If $q = F(x, y, z)$, apply the results of Problems 59 and 60 to calculate the partial derivatives of q with respect to the spherical coordinates ρ, ϕ, θ by matrix multiplication.

13.8 DIRECTIONAL DERIVATIVES AND THE GRADIENT VECTOR

The change in the value of the function $w = f(x, y, z)$ from the point $P(x, y, z)$ to the nearby point $Q(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y, z + \Delta z)$ is given by the increment

$$\Delta w = f(Q) - f(P). \quad (1)$$

The linear approximation theorem of Section 13.6 yields

$$\Delta w \approx \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Delta x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Delta y + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \Delta z. \quad (2)$$

We can express this approximation concisely in terms of the **gradient vector ∇f** (read as “del f”) of the function f , which is defined to be

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = \mathbf{i} f_x(x, y, z) + \mathbf{j} f_y(x, y, z) + \mathbf{k} f_z(x, y, z). \quad (3)$$

We also write

$$\nabla f = \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right\rangle = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \mathbf{k}.$$

Then Eq. (2) implies that the increment $\Delta w = f(Q) - f(P)$ is given approximately by

$$\Delta w \approx \nabla f(P) \cdot \mathbf{v}, \quad (4)$$

where $\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{PQ} = \langle \Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z \rangle$ is the *displacement vector* from P to Q .

EXAMPLE 1 If $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + yz - 2xy - z^2$, then the definition of the gradient vector in Eq. (3) yields

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \mathbf{k} = (2x - 2y)\mathbf{i} + (z - 2x)\mathbf{j} + (y - 2z)\mathbf{k}.$$

For instance, the value of ∇f at the point $P(2, 1, 3)$ is

$$\nabla f(P) = \nabla f(2, 1, 3) = 2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} - 5\mathbf{k}.$$

To apply Eq. (4), we first calculate

$$f(P) = f(2, 1, 3) = 2^2 + 1 \cdot 3 - 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 - 3^2 = -6.$$

If Q is the nearby point $Q(1.9, 1.2, 3.1)$, then $\overrightarrow{PQ} = \mathbf{v} = \langle -0.1, 0.2, 0.1 \rangle$, so the approximation in (4) gives

$$f(Q) - f(P) \approx \nabla f(P) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \langle 2, -1, -5 \rangle \cdot \langle -0.1, 0.2, 0.1 \rangle = -0.9.$$

Hence $f(Q) \approx -6 + (-0.9) = -6.9$. In this case we can also readily calculate, for comparison, the exact value $f(Q) = -6.84$. ■

Directional Derivatives

We know that the partial derivatives $f_x(x, y, z)$, $f_y(x, y, z)$, and $f_z(x, y, z)$ give the rates of change of $w = f(x, y, z)$ at the point $P(x, y, z)$ in the x -, y -, and z -directions, respectively. We can now use the gradient vector ∇f to calculate the rate of change of w at P in an *arbitrary* direction. Recall that a “direction” is prescribed by a *unit* vector \mathbf{u} .

Let Q be a point on the ray in the direction of \mathbf{u} from the point P (Fig. 13.8.1). The **average rate of change of w with respect to distance between P and Q** is

$$\frac{f(Q) - f(P)}{|\overrightarrow{PQ}|} = \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta s},$$

where $\Delta s = |\overrightarrow{PQ}| = |\mathbf{v}|$ is the distance from P to Q . Then the approximation in (4) yields

$$\frac{\Delta w}{\Delta s} \approx \frac{\nabla f(P) \cdot \mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} = \nabla f(P) \cdot \mathbf{u}, \quad (5)$$

where $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}/|\mathbf{v}|$ is the *unit* vector in the direction from P to Q . When we take the limit of the average rate of change $\Delta w/\Delta s$ as $\Delta s \rightarrow 0$, we get the *instantaneous* rate of change

$$\frac{dw}{ds} = \lim_{\Delta s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta w}{\Delta s} = \nabla f(P) \cdot \mathbf{u}. \quad (6)$$

This computation motivates the *definition*

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(P) = \nabla f(P) \cdot \mathbf{u} \quad (7)$$

of the **directional derivative of f at $P(x, y, z)$ in the direction \mathbf{u}** . Physics and engineering texts may use the notation

$$\left. \frac{df}{ds} \right|_P = D_{\mathbf{u}} f(P),$$

or simply dw/ds as in Eq. (6), for the rate of change of the function $w = f(x, y, z)$ with *respect to distance s* in the direction of the unit vector \mathbf{u} .

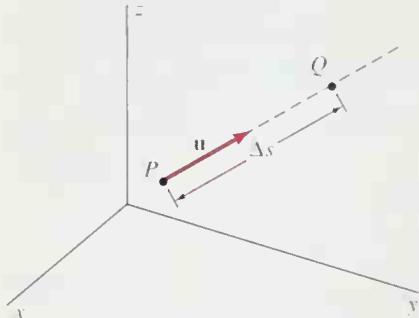


Fig. 13.8.1 The first step in computing the rate of change of $f(x, y, z)$ in the direction of the unit vector \mathbf{u}

REMARK Remember that the vector \mathbf{u} in Eq. (7) is a *unit* vector: $|\mathbf{u}| = 1$. If $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$, then Eq. (7) implies simply that

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f = a \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + b \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} + c \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}. \quad (8)$$

EXAMPLE 2 Suppose that the temperature at the point (x, y, z) , with distance measured in kilometers, is given by

$$w = f(x, y, z) = 10 + xy + xz + yz$$

(in degrees Celsius). Find the rate of change (in degrees per kilometer) of temperature at the point $P(1, 2, 3)$ in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$.

Solution Because \mathbf{v} is not a unit vector, we must replace it with a unit vector with the same direction before we can use the formulas of this section. So we take

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} = \left\langle \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{2}{3} \right\rangle.$$

The gradient vector of f is

$$\nabla f = (y + z)\mathbf{i} + (x + z)\mathbf{j} + (x + y)\mathbf{k},$$

so $\nabla f(1, 2, 3) = 5\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$. Hence Eq. (7) gives

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f(P) = \langle 5, 4, 3 \rangle \cdot \left\langle \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{2}{3} \right\rangle = \frac{7}{3}$$

(degrees per kilometer) for the desired range of change of temperature with respect to distance. ■

The Vector Chain Rule

The directional derivative $D_{\mathbf{u}}f$ is closely related to a version of the multivariable chain rule. Suppose that the first-order partial derivatives of f are continuous and that

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$$

is a differentiable vector-valued function. Then

$$f(\mathbf{r}(t)) = f(x(t), y(t), z(t))$$

is a differentiable function of t , and its (ordinary) derivative with respect to t is

$$D_t f(\mathbf{r}(t)) = D_t [f(x(t), y(t), z(t))] = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{dz}{dt}. \quad (9)$$

Hence

$$D_t f(\mathbf{r}(t)) = \nabla f(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t), \quad (10)$$

where $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle x'(t), y'(t), z'(t) \rangle$ is the velocity vector of the parametric curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$. Equation (10) is the **vector chain rule**. The operation on the right-hand side of Eq. (10) is the *dot* product, because both the gradient of f and the derivative of \mathbf{r} are *vector-valued* functions.

If the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$, then $\mathbf{v} = v\mathbf{u}$, where $v = |\mathbf{v}|$ is the speed and $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}/v$ is the unit vector tangent to the curve. Then Eq. (10) implies that

$$D_t f(\mathbf{r}(t)) = v D_{\mathbf{u}} f(\mathbf{r}(t)). \quad (11)$$

With $w = f(\mathbf{r}(t))$, $D_{\mathbf{u}} f = dw/ds$, and $v = ds/dt$, Eq. (11) takes the simple chain rule form

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{dw}{ds} \cdot \frac{ds}{dt}. \quad (12)$$

EXAMPLE 3 If the function

$$w = f(x, y, z) = 10 + xy + xz + yz$$

of Example 2 gives the temperature at the point (x, y, z) of space, what time rate of change (degrees per minute) will a hawk observe as it flies through $P(1, 2, 3)$ at a speed of 2 km/min, heading directly toward the point $Q(3, 4, 4)$?

Solution In Example 2 we calculated $\nabla f(P) = \langle 5, 4, 3 \rangle$, and the unit vector in the direction from P to Q is

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{\overrightarrow{PQ}}{|PQ|} = \left\langle \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3} \right\rangle.$$

Then

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(P) = \nabla f(P) \cdot \mathbf{u} = \langle 5, 4, 3 \rangle \cdot \left\langle \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3} \right\rangle = 7$$

(degrees per kilometer). Hence Eq. (12) yields

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = \frac{dw}{ds} \cdot \frac{ds}{dt} = \left(7 \frac{\text{deg}}{\text{km}} \right) \left(2 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{min}} \right) = 14 \frac{\text{deg}}{\text{min}}$$

as the hawk's rate of change of temperature at P . ■

REMARK In Section 13.7 we interpreted the chain rule in terms of products of derivative matrices. Recall that a derivative matrix has one row for each dependent variable and one column for each independent variable. Hence the derivative matrix of the real-valued function $w = f(x, y, z)$ is the 1×3 *row matrix*

$$f'(x, y, z) = [f_x(x, y, z) \ f_y(x, y, z) \ f_z(x, y, z)] = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \end{bmatrix} \quad (13)$$

whose entries are the partial derivatives of f (and thus are the components of the gradient vector ∇f). The derivative matrix of the vector-valued function $\alpha(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$ is the 3×1 *column matrix*

$$\alpha'(t) = \begin{vmatrix} x'(t) \\ y'(t) \\ z'(t) \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} dx/dt \\ dy/dt \\ dz/dt \end{vmatrix} \quad (14)$$

whose entries are the derivatives of the component functions of α (and thus are the components of the velocity vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle x'(t), y'(t), z'(t) \rangle$). In terms of these derivative matrices, Eq. (9) means that the derivative of the composition $g(t) = f(\alpha(t))$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 g'(t) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \frac{dz}{dt} \\
 &= \nabla f \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{dx}{dt} \\ \frac{dy}{dt} \\ \frac{dz}{dt} \end{pmatrix} = f'(\alpha(t))\alpha'(t). \tag{15}
 \end{aligned}$$

So here again the derivative matrix of the composition $g = f \circ \alpha$ is equal to the matrix product $g' = f' \alpha'$.

Interpretation of the Gradient Vector

As yet we have discussed directional derivatives only for functions of three variables. The formulas for a function of two (or more than three) variables are analogous:

$$\nabla f(x, y) = \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right\rangle = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} \tag{16}$$

and

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y) = \nabla f(x, y) \cdot \mathbf{u} = a \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + b \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \tag{17}$$

if $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b \rangle$ is a unit vector. If α is the angle of inclination of \mathbf{u} (measured counter-clockwise from the positive x -axis, as in Fig. 13.8.2), then $a = \cos \alpha$ and $b = \sin \alpha$, so Eq. (17) takes the form

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cos \alpha + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \sin \alpha. \tag{18}$$

The gradient vector ∇f has an important interpretation that involves the *maximal* directional derivative of f . If ϕ is the angle between ∇f at the point P and the unit vector \mathbf{u} (Fig. 13.8.3), then the formula in Eq. (7) gives

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(P) = \nabla f(P) \cdot \mathbf{u} = |\nabla f(P)| \cos \phi,$$

because $|\mathbf{u}| = 1$. The maximum value of $\cos \phi$ is 1, and this occurs when $\phi = 0$. This is so when \mathbf{u} is the particular unit vector $\nabla f(P)/|\nabla f(P)|$ that points in the direction of the gradient vector itself. In this case the previous formula yields

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(P) = |\nabla f(P)|, \tag{19}$$

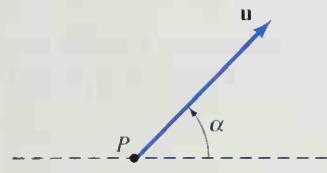


Fig. 13.8.2 The unit vector \mathbf{u} of Eq. (17)

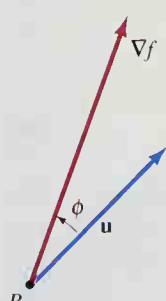


Fig. 13.8.3 The angle ϕ between ∇f and the unit vector \mathbf{u}

Theorem 1 Significance of the Gradient Vector

The maximum value of the directional derivative $D_{\mathbf{u}} f(P)$ is obtained when \mathbf{u} is the vector in the direction of the gradient vector $\nabla f(P)$; that is, when $\mathbf{u} = \nabla f(P)/|\nabla f(P)|$. The value of the maximum directional derivative is $|\nabla f(P)|$, the length of the gradient vector.

Thus the gradient vector ∇f points in the direction in which the function f increases the most rapidly, and its length is the rate of increase of f (with respect to distance).

in that direction. For instance, if the function f gives the temperature in space, then the gradient vector $\nabla f(P)$ points in the direction in which a bumblebee at P should initially fly to get warmer the fastest.

EXAMPLE 4 Suppose that the temperature w (in degrees Celsius) at the point (x, y) is given by

$$w = f(x, y) = 10 + (0.003)x^2 - (0.004)y^2.$$

In what direction \mathbf{u} should a bumblebee at the point $(40, 30)$ initially fly in order to get warmer fastest? Find the directional derivative $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(40, 30)$ in this optimal direction \mathbf{u} .

Solution The gradient vector is

$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} = (0.006)x \mathbf{i} - (0.008)y \mathbf{j},$$

so

$$\nabla f(40, 30) = (0.24)\mathbf{i} - (0.24)\mathbf{j} = (0.24\sqrt{2})\mathbf{u}.$$

The unit vector

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{\nabla f(40, 30)}{|\nabla f(40, 30)|} = \frac{\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}}{\sqrt{2}}$$

points southeast (Fig. 13.8.4); this is the direction in which the bumblebee should initially fly. And, according to Theorem 1, the directional derivative of f in this optimal direction is

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f(40, 30) = |\nabla f(40, 30)| = (0.24)\sqrt{2} \approx 0.34$$

degrees per unit of distance. ■

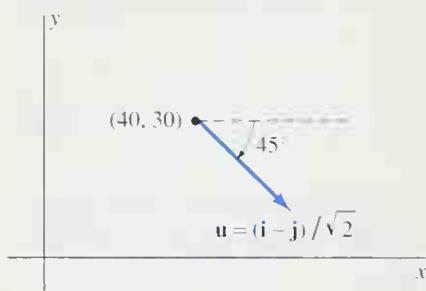


Fig. 13.8.4 The unit vector $\mathbf{u} = \frac{\nabla f}{|\nabla f|}$ of Example 4

The Gradient Vector as a Normal Vector

Consider the graph of the equation

$$F(x, y, z) = 0. \quad (20)$$

where F is a function with continuous first-order partial derivatives. According to the **implicit function theorem** of advanced calculus, near every point where $\nabla F \neq \mathbf{0}$ —that is, at least one of the partial derivatives of F is nonzero—the graph of Eq. (20) coincides with the graph of an equation of one of the forms

$$z = f(x, y), \quad y = g(x, z), \quad x = h(y, z).$$

Because of this, we are justified in general in referring to the graph of Eq. (20) as a “surface.” The gradient vector ∇F is normal to this surface, in the sense of Theorem 2.

Theorem 2 Gradient Vector as Normal Vector

Suppose that $F(x, y, z)$ has continuous first-order partial derivatives, and let $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ be a point of the graph of the equation $F(x, y, z) = 0$ at which $\nabla F(P_0) \neq \mathbf{0}$. If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is a differentiable curve on this surface with $\mathbf{r}(t_0) = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$, then

$$\nabla F(P_0) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0) = 0. \quad (21)$$

Thus $\nabla F(P_0)$ is perpendicular to the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t_0)$, as indicated in Fig. 13.8.5.

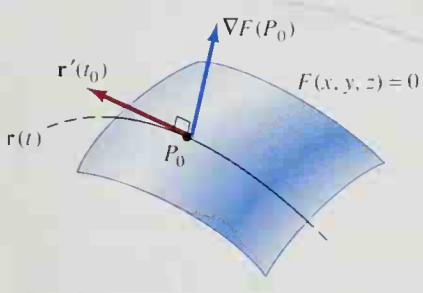


Fig. 13.8.5 The gradient vector ∇F is normal to every curve in the surface $F(x, y, z) = 0$.

PROOF The statement that $\mathbf{r}(t)$ lies on the surface $F(x, y, z) = 0$ means that $F(\mathbf{r}(t)) = 0$ for all t . Hence

$$0 = D_t F(\mathbf{r}(t_0)) = \nabla F(\mathbf{r}(t_0)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0) = \nabla F(P_0) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0)$$

by the chain rule in the form of Eq. (10). Therefore the vectors $\nabla F(P_0)$ and $\mathbf{r}'(t_0)$ are perpendicular. ■

Because $\nabla F(P_0)$ is perpendicular to every curve on the surface $F(x, y, z)$ through P_0 , it is a *normal vector* to the surface at P_0 .

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} \mathbf{k}. \quad (22)$$

If we rewrite the equation $z = f(x, y)$ in the form $F(x, y, z) = f(x, y) - z = 0$, then

$$\left\langle \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} \right\rangle = \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, -1 \right\rangle.$$

Thus Eq. (22) agrees with the definition of normal vector that we gave in Section 13.4 (Eq. (13) there).

The **tangent plane** to the surface $F(x, y, z) = 0$ at the point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ is the plane through P_0 that is perpendicular to the normal vector \mathbf{n} of Eq. (22). Its equation is

$$F_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)(x - x_0) + F_y(x_0, y_0, z_0)(y - y_0) + F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)(z - z_0) = 0. \quad (23)$$

EXAMPLE 5 Write an equation of the plane tangent to the ellipsoid $2x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 = 45$ at the point $(2, -3, -1)$.

Solution If we write $F(x, y, z) = 2x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 - 45$, then $F(x, y, z) = 0$ is the equation of the ellipsoid. Hence a normal vector is $\nabla F(x, y, z) = (4x, 8y, 2z)$, so

$$\nabla F(2, -3, -1) = 8\mathbf{i} - 24\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$$

is normal to the ellipsoid at $(2, -3, -1)$. Equation (18) then gives the answer in the form

$$8(x - 2) - 24(y + 3) - 2(z + 1) = 0;$$

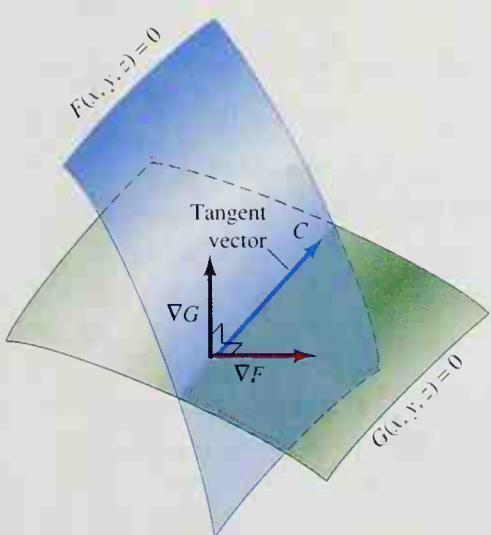
that is,

$$4x - 12y - z = 45. \quad \blacksquare$$

The intersection of the two surfaces $F(x, y, z) = 0$ and $G(x, y, z) = 0$ will generally be some sort of curve in space. By the implicit function theorem, we can represent this curve in parametric fashion near every point where the gradient vectors ∇F and ∇G are *not* parallel. This curve C is perpendicular to both normal vectors ∇F and ∇G . That is, if P is a point of C , then the vector tangent to C at P is perpendicular to both vectors $\nabla F(P)$ and $\nabla G(P)$ (Fig. 13.8.6). It follows that the vector

$$\mathbf{T} = \nabla F \times \nabla G \quad (24)$$

Fig. 13.8.6 $\nabla F \times \nabla G$ is tangent to the curve C of intersection.



is tangent to the curve of intersection of the surfaces $F(x, y, z) = 0$ and $G(x, y, z) = 0$.

EXAMPLE 6 The point $P(1, -1, 2)$ lies on both the paraboloid

$$F(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 - z = 0$$

and the ellipsoid

$$G(x, y, z) = 2x^2 + 3y^2 + z^2 - 9 = 0.$$

Write an equation of the plane through P that is normal to the curve of intersection of these two surfaces (Fig. 13.8.7).

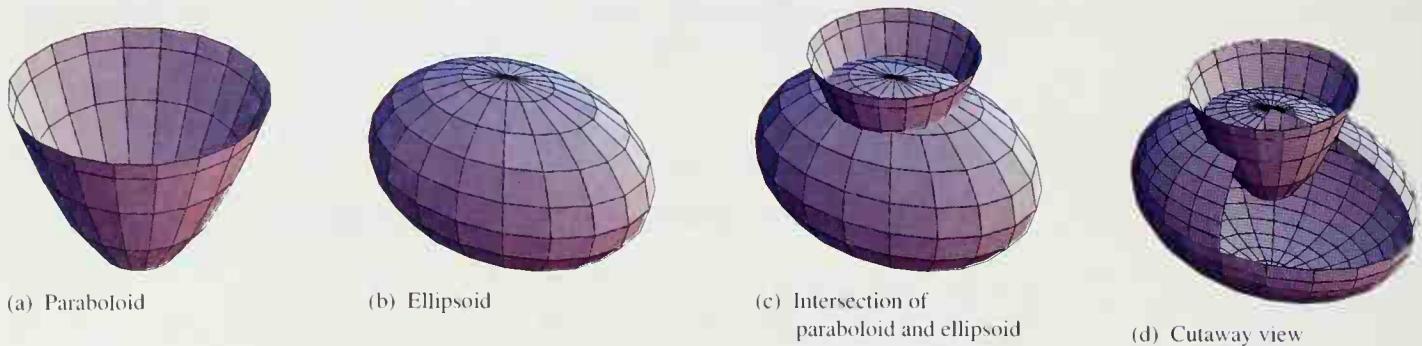


Fig. 13.8.7 Example 6

Solution First we compute

$$\nabla F = \langle 2x, 2y, -1 \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla G = \langle 4x, 6y, 2z \rangle.$$

At $P(1, -1, 2)$ these two vectors are

$$\nabla F(1, -1, 2) = \langle 2, -2, -1 \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla G(1, -1, 2) = \langle 4, -6, 4 \rangle.$$

Hence a vector tangent to the curve of intersection of the paraboloid and the ellipsoid is

$$\mathbf{T} = \nabla F \times \nabla G = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 2 & -2 & -1 \\ 4 & -6 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = \langle -14, -12, -4 \rangle.$$

A slightly simpler vector parallel to \mathbf{T} is $\mathbf{n} = \langle 7, 6, 2 \rangle$, and \mathbf{n} is also normal to the desired plane through $(1, -1, 2)$. Therefore, an equation of the plane is

$$7(x - 1) + 6(y + 1) + 2(z - 2) = 0;$$

that is, $7x + 6y + 2z = 5$. ■

A result analogous to Theorem 2 holds in two dimensions (and in higher dimensions). The graph of the equation $F(x, y) = 0$ looks like a *curve* near each point at which $\nabla F \neq \mathbf{0}$, and ∇F is normal to the curve in such cases.

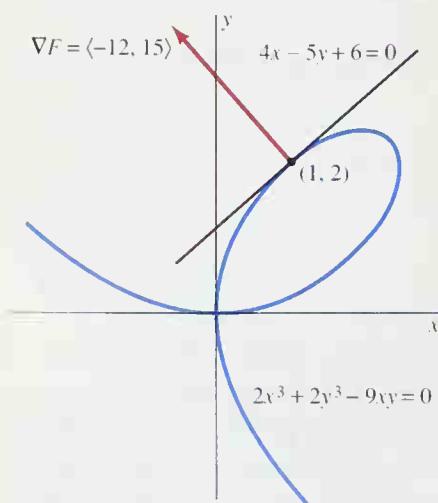


Fig. 13.8.8 The folium and its tangent (Example 7)

EXAMPLE 7 Write an equation of the line tangent at the point $(1, 2)$ to the folium of Descartes with equation $F(x, y) = 2x^3 + 2y^3 - 9xy = 0$ (Fig. 13.8.8).

Solution The gradient of F is

$$\nabla F(x, y) = (6x^2 - 9y)\mathbf{i} + (6y^2 - 9x)\mathbf{j}.$$

So a vector normal to the folium at $(1, 2)$ is $\nabla F(1, 2) = -12\mathbf{i} + 15\mathbf{j}$. Hence the tangent line has equation $-12(x - 1) + 15(y - 2) = 0$. Simplified, this is $4x - 5y + 6 = 0$.

13.8 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 10, find the gradient vector ∇f at the indicated point P .

1. $f(x, y) = 3x - 7y; P(17, 39)$
2. $f(x, y) = 3x^2 - 5y^2; P(2, -3)$
3. $f(x, y) = \exp(-x^2 - y^2); P(0, 0)$
4. $f(x, y) = \sin \frac{1}{4}\pi xy; P(3, -1)$
5. $f(x, y, z) = y^2 - z^2; P(17, 3, 2)$
6. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}; P(12, 3, 4)$
7. $f(x, y, z) = e^x \sin y + e^y \sin z + e^z \sin x; P(0, 0, 0)$
8. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 - 3yz + z^3; P(2, 1, 0)$
9. $f(x, y, z) = 2\sqrt{xyz}; P(3, -4, -3)$
10. $f(x, y, z) = (2x - 3y + 5z)^5; P(-5, 1, 3)$

In Problems 11 through 20, find the directional derivative of f at P in the direction of \mathbf{v} ; that is, find

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f(P), \text{ where } \mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}.$$

11. $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2xy + 3y^2; P(2, 1), \mathbf{v} = \langle 1, 1 \rangle$
12. $f(x, y) = e^x \sin y; P(0, \pi/4), \mathbf{v} = \langle 1, -1 \rangle$
13. $f(x, y) = x^3 - x^2y + xy^2 + y^3; P(1, -1), \mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$
14. $f(x, y) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right); P(-3, 3), \mathbf{v} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$
15. $f(x, y) = \sin x \cos y; P(\pi/3, -2\pi/3), \mathbf{v} = \langle 4, -3 \rangle$
16. $f(x, y, z) = xy + yz + zx; P(1, -1, 2), \mathbf{v} = \langle 1, 1, 1 \rangle$
17. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{xyz}; P(2, -1, -2), \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$
18. $f(x, y, z) = \ln(1 + x^2 + y^2 - z^2); P(1, -1, 1), \mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$
19. $f(x, y, z) = e^{xyz}; P(4, 0, -3), \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$
20. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{10 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2}; P(1, 1, -2), \mathbf{v} = \langle 3, 4, -12 \rangle$

In Problems 21 through 28, find the maximum directional derivative of f at P and the direction in which it occurs.

21. $f(x, y) = 2x^2 + 3xy + 4y^2; P(1, 1)$
22. $f(x, y) = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right); P(1, -2)$
23. $f(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + y^2); P(3, 4)$
24. $f(x, y) = \sin(3x - 4y); P(\pi/3, \pi/4)$
25. $f(x, y, z) = 3x^2 + y^2 + 4z^2; P(1, 5, -2)$
26. $f(x, y, z) = \exp(x - y - z); P(5, 2, 3)$
27. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{xy^2z^3}; P(2, 2, 2)$
28. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{2x + 4y + 6z}; P(7, 5, 5)$

In Problems 29 through 34, use the normal gradient vector to write an equation of the line (or plane) tangent to the given curve (or surface) at the given point P .

29. $\exp(25 - x^2 - y^2) = 1; P(3, 4)$
30. $2x^2 + 3y^2 = 35; P(2, 3)$
31. $x^4 + xy + y^2 = 19; P(2, -3)$
32. $3x^2 + 4y^2 + 5z^2 = 73; P(2, 2, 3)$
33. $x^{1/3} + y^{1/3} + z^{1/3} = 1; P(1, -1, 1)$
34. $xyz + x^2 - 2y^2 + z^3 = 14; P(5, -2, 3)$

The properties of gradient vectors listed in Problems 35 through 38 exhibit the close analogy between the gradient operator ∇ and the single-variable derivative operator D . Verify each, assuming that a and b are constants and that u and v are differentiable functions of x and y .

35. $\nabla(au + bv) = a\nabla u + b\nabla v$.
36. $\nabla(uv) = u\nabla v + v\nabla u$.
37. $\nabla\left(\frac{u}{v}\right) = \frac{v\nabla u - u\nabla v}{v^2} \text{ if } v \neq 0$.
38. If n is a positive integer, then $\nabla u^n = nu^{n-1}\nabla u$.
39. Show that the value of a differentiable function f decreases the most rapidly at P in the direction of the vector $-\nabla f(P)$, directly opposite to the gradient vector.
40. Suppose that f is a function of three independent variables x , y , and z . Show that $D_{\mathbf{i}}f = f_x$, $D_{\mathbf{j}}f = f_y$, and $D_{\mathbf{k}}f = f_z$.
41. Show that the equation of the line tangent to the conic section $Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 = D$ at the point (x_0, y_0) is

$$(Ax_0)x + \frac{1}{2}B(y_0x + x_0y) + (Cy_0)y = D.$$

42. Show that the equation of the plane tangent to the quadric surface $Ax^2 + By^2 + Cz^2 = D$ at the point (x_0, y_0, z_0) is

$$(Ax_0)x + (By_0)y + (Cz_0)z = D.$$

43. Suppose that the temperature W (in degrees Celsius) at the point (x, y, z) in space is given by

$$W = 50 + xyz.$$

- (a) Find the rate of change of temperature with respect to distance at the point $P(3, 4, 1)$ in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle 1, 2, 2 \rangle$. (The units of distance in space are feet.)
- (b) Find the maximal directional derivative $D_u W$ at the

point $P(3, 4, 1)$ and the direction \mathbf{u} in which that maximum occurs.

44. Suppose that the temperature at the point (x, y, z) in space (in degrees Celsius) is given by the formula

$$W = 100 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2.$$

The units in space are meters. (a) Find the rate of change of temperature at the point $P(3, -4, 5)$ in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{v} = 3\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j} + 12\mathbf{k}$. (b) In what direction does W increase most rapidly at P ? What is the value of the maximal directional derivative at P ?

45. Suppose that the altitude z (in miles above sea level) of a certain hill is described by the equation $z = f(x, y)$, where

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{10}(x^2 - xy + 2y^2).$$

(a) Write an equation (in the form $z = ax + by + c$) of the plane tangent to the hillside at the point $P(2, 1, 0.4)$. (b) Use $\nabla f(2, 1)$ to approximate the altitude of the hill above the point $(2.2, 0.9)$ in the xy -plane. Compare your result with the actual altitude at this point.

46. Find an equation for the plane tangent to the paraboloid $z = 2x^2 + 3y^2$ and, simultaneously, parallel to the plane $4x - 3y - z = 10$.
47. The cone with equation $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ and the plane with equation $2x + 3y + 4z + 2 = 0$ intersect in an ellipse. Write an equation of the plane normal to this ellipse at the point $P(3, 4, -5)$ (Fig. 13.8.9).
48. It is apparent from geometry that the highest and lowest points of the ellipse of Problem 47 are those points where its tangent line is horizontal. Find those points.

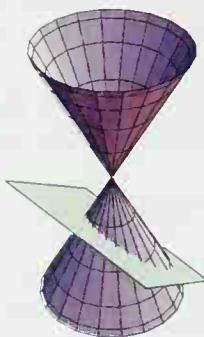


Fig. 13.8.9 The cone and plane of Problems 47 and 48

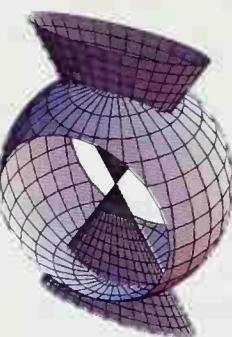


Fig. 13.8.10 A cut-away view of the cone and sphere of Problem 49

49. Show that the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = r^2$ and the cone $z^2 = a^2x^2 + b^2y^2$ are orthogonal (that is, have perpendicular tangent planes) at every point of their intersection (Fig. 13.8.10).

In Problems 50 through 55, the function $z = f(x, y)$ describes the shape of a hill; $f(P)$ is the altitude of the hill above the point $P(x, y)$ in the xy -plane. If you start at the point $(P, f(P))$ of this hill, then $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(P)$ is your rate of climb (rise per unit of horizontal distance) as you proceed in the *horizontal* direction $\mathbf{u} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j}$. And the angle at which you climb while you walk in this direction is $\gamma = \tan^{-1}(D_{\mathbf{u}}f(P))$, as shown in Fig. 13.8.11.

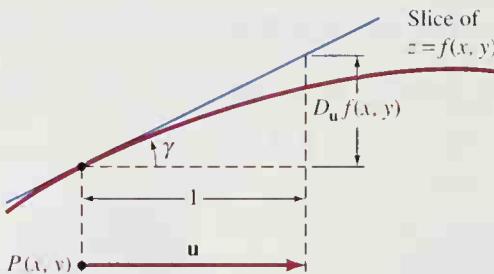


Fig. 13.8.11 The cross section of the part of the graph above \mathbf{u} (Problems 50 through 55)

50. You are standing at the point $(-100, -100, 430)$ on a hill that has the shape of the graph of

$$z = 500 - (0.003)x^2 - (0.004)y^2,$$

with x , y , and z given in feet. (a) What will be your rate of climb (*rise over run*) if you head northwest? At what angle from the horizontal will you be climbing? (b) Repeat part (a), except now you head northeast.

51. You are standing at the point $(-100, -100, 430)$ on the hill of Problem 50. In what direction (that is, with what compass heading) should you proceed in order to climb the most steeply? At what angle from the horizontal will you initially be climbing?
52. Repeat Problem 50, but now you are standing at the point $P(100, 100, 500)$ on the hill described by

$$z = \frac{1000}{1 + (0.00003)x^2 + (0.00007)y^2}.$$

53. Repeat Problem 51, except begin at the point $P(100, 100, 500)$ of the hill of Problem 52.
54. You are standing at the point $(30, 20, 5)$ on a hill with the shape of the surface

$$z = 100 \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + 3y^2}{701}\right).$$

- (a) In what direction (with what compass heading) should you proceed in order to climb the most steeply? At what angle from the horizontal will you initially be climbing?
- (b) If, instead of climbing as in part (a), you head directly west (the negative x -direction), then at what angle will you be climbing initially?

55. (a) You are standing at the point where $x = y = 100$ (ft) on the side of a mountain whose height (in feet above sea level) is given by

$$z = \frac{1}{1000} (3x^2 - 5xy + y^2),$$

with the x -axis pointing east and the y -axis pointing north. If you head northeast, will you be ascending or descending? At what angle (in degrees) from the horizontal? (b) If you head 30° north of east, will you be ascending or descending? At what angle (in degrees) from the horizontal?

56. Suppose that the two surfaces $f(x, y, z) = 0$ and $g(x, y, z) = 0$ both pass through the point P where both gradient vectors $\nabla f(P)$ and $\nabla g(P)$ exist. (a) Show that the two surfaces are tangent at P if and only if $\nabla f(P) \times \nabla g(P) = \mathbf{0}$. (b) Show that the two surfaces are orthogonal at P if and only if $\nabla f(P) \cdot \nabla g(P) = 0$.
57. Let $T: R_{uv}^2 \rightarrow R_{xy}^2$ be a transformation from the uv -plane to the xy -plane with 2×2 derivative matrix $T'(u, v)$ as in Eq. (11) of Section 13.7. If $\alpha(t) = (u(t), v(t))$ is a parametric curve in R_{uv}^2 and the parametric curve $\beta(t) = (x(t), y(t))$ is defined by $\beta(t) = T(\alpha(t))$, apply the chain rule to show that $\beta'(t) = T'(\alpha(t))\alpha'(t)$. That is, the derivative matrix of the composition $\beta = T \circ \alpha$ is the matrix product $\beta' = T'\alpha'$.

58. Suppose that a parametric curve in the plane R_{xy}^2 is described by giving the polar coordinates $r(t)$ and $\theta(t)$ of the moving point (x, y) as functions of time t . Use the matrix chain rule of Problem 57 and the polar coordinate derivative matrix $T'(r, \theta)$ of Example 9 in Section 13.7 to write the components of the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(t) = (x'(t), y'(t))$ in terms of $r(t)$, $\theta(t)$, and their derivatives.

59. Suppose that a parametric curve in 3-space R_{xyz}^3 is described by giving the spherical coordinates $\rho(t)$, $\phi(t)$, and $\theta(t)$ of the moving point (x, y, z) as functions of time t . Use the three-dimensional analogue of the matrix chain rule of Problem 57 and the spherical coordinate derivative matrix $T'(\rho, \phi, \theta)$ of Problem 59 in Section 13.7 to write the components of the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(t) = (x'(t), y'(t), z'(t))$ in terms of $\rho(t)$, $\phi(t)$, $\theta(t)$, and their derivatives.
60. Suppose that the function $f(x, y)$ has continuous partial derivatives near the point $\mathbf{c} = (a, b)$. Apply the linear approximation theorem of Section 13.6 to show that

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{c}} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{c}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{c}) \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c})}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c}|} = 0.$$

13.9 LAGRANGE MULTIPLIERS AND CONSTRAINED MAXIMUM-MINIMUM PROBLEMS

In Section 13.5 we discussed the problem of finding the maximum and minimum values attained by a function $f(x, y)$ at points of the plane region R , in the simple case in which R consists of the points on and within the simple closed curve C . We saw that any local maximum or minimum in the *interior* of R occurs at a point where $f_x(x, y) = 0 = f_y(x, y)$ or at a point where f is not differentiable (the latter usually signaled by the failure of f_x or f_y to exist). Here we discuss the very different matter of finding the maximum and minimum values attained by f at points of the *boundary* curve C .

If the curve C is the graph of the equation $g(x, y) = 0$, then our task is to maximize or minimize the function $f(x, y)$ subject to the **constraint**, or **side condition**,

$$g(x, y) = 0. \quad (1)$$

We could in principle try to solve this constraint equation for $y = \phi(x)$ and then maximize or minimize the single-variable function $f(x, \phi(x))$ by the standard method of finding its critical points. But what if it is impractical or impossible to solve Eq. (1) explicitly for y in terms of x ? An alternative approach that does not require that we first solve this equation is the **method of Lagrange multipliers**. It is named for its discoverer, the Italian-born French mathematician Joseph Louis Lagrange (1736–1813). The method is based on Theorem 1.

Theorem 1 Lagrange Multipliers (one constraint)

Let $f(x, y)$ and $g(x, y)$ be functions with continuous first-order partial derivatives. If the maximum (or minimum) value of f subject to the condition

$$g(x, y) = 0 \quad (1)$$

occurs at a point P where $\nabla g(P) \neq \mathbf{0}$, then

$$\nabla f(P) = \lambda \nabla g(P) \quad (2)$$

for some constant λ .

PROOF By the implicit function theorem mentioned in Section 13.8, the fact that $\nabla g(P) \neq \mathbf{0}$ allows us to represent the curve $g(x, y) = 0$ near P by a parametric curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$, and in such fashion that \mathbf{r} has a nonzero tangent vector near P . Thus $\mathbf{r}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$ (Fig. 13.9.1). Let t_0 be the value of t such that $\mathbf{r}(t_0) = \overrightarrow{OP}$. If $f(x, y)$ attains its maximum value at P , then the composite function $f(\mathbf{r}(t))$ attains its maximum value at $t = t_0$, so

$$D_t f(\mathbf{r}(t)) \Big|_{t=t_0} = \nabla f(\mathbf{r}(t_0)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0) = \nabla f(P) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0) = 0. \quad (3)$$

Here we have used the vector chain rule, Eq. (10) of Section 13.8.

Because $\mathbf{r}(t)$ lies on the curve $g(x, y) = 0$, the composite function $g(\mathbf{r}(t))$ is a constant function. Therefore,

$$D_t g(\mathbf{r}(t)) \Big|_{t=t_0} = \nabla g(\mathbf{r}(t_0)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0) = \nabla g(P) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0) = 0. \quad (4)$$

Equations (3) and (4) together imply that both of the vectors $\nabla f(P)$ and $\nabla g(P)$ are perpendicular to the (nonzero) tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t_0)$. Hence $\nabla f(P)$ must be a scalar multiple of $\nabla g(P)$, and this is exactly the meaning of Eq. (2). This concludes the proof of the theorem in the case that $f(x, y)$ attains its maximum at P . The proof in the case of a minimum value is almost exactly the same. ■

The Method

Let's see what steps we should follow to solve a problem by using Theorem 1—the method of Lagrange multipliers. First we need to identify a quantity $z = f(x, y)$ to be maximized or minimized, subject to the constraint $g(x, y) = 0$. Then Eq. (1) and the two scalar components of Eq. (2) yield three equations:

$$g(x, y) = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$f_x(x, y) = \lambda g_x(x, y), \text{ and} \quad (2a)$$

$$f_y(x, y) = \lambda g_y(x, y). \quad (2b)$$

Thus we have three equations that we can attempt to solve for the three unknowns x , y , and λ . The points (x, y) that we find (assuming that our efforts are successful) are the only possible locations for the extrema of f subject to the constraint $g(x, y) = 0$. The associated values of λ , called **Lagrange multipliers**, may be revealed as well but often are not of much interest. Finally, we calculate the value $f(x, y)$ at each of the solution points (x, y) in order to spot its maximum and minimum values.

We must bear in mind the additional possibility that the maximum or minimum (or both) of f may occur at a point where $g_x(x, y) = 0 = g_y(x, y)$. The Lagrange multiplier method may fail to locate these exceptional points, but they can usually be recognized as points where the graph $g(x, y) = 0$ fails to be a smooth curve.

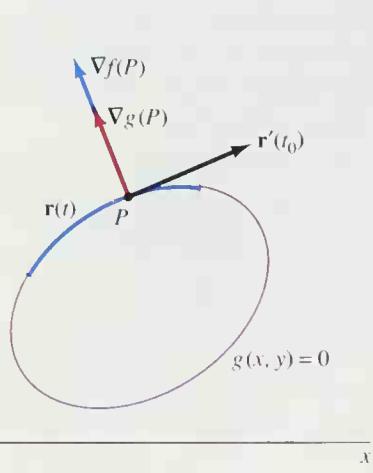


Fig. 13.9.1 The conclusion of Theorem 1 illustrated

EXAMPLE 1 Find the points of the rectangular hyperbola $xy = 1$ that are closest to the origin $(0, 0)$.

Solution We need to minimize the distance $d = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ from the origin of a point $P(x, y)$ on the curve $xy = 1$. But the algebra is simpler if instead we minimize the square

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$$

of this distance subject to the constraint

$$g(x, y) = xy - 1 = 0$$

that the point P lies on the hyperbola. Because

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} = y, \quad \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} = x,$$

the Lagrange multiplier equations (2a) and (2b) take the form

$$2x = \lambda y, \quad 2y = \lambda x.$$

If we multiply the first of these equations by y and the second by x , we can conclude that

$$2x^2 = \lambda xy = 2y^2$$

at $P(x, y)$. But the fact that $xy = 1 > 0$ implies that x and y have the same sign. Hence the fact that $x^2 = y^2$ implies that $x = y$. Substitution in $xy = 1$ then gives $x^2 = 1$, so it follows finally that either $x = y = +1$ or $x = y = -1$. The two resulting possibilities $(1, 1)$ and $(-1, -1)$ are indicated in Fig. 13.9.2. ■

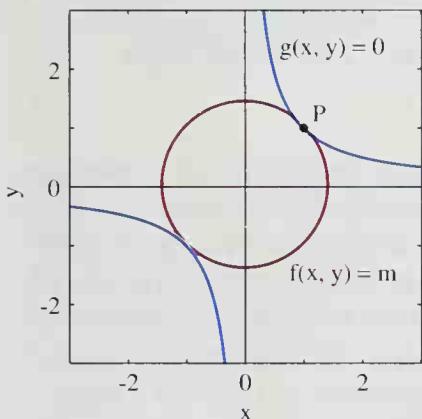


Fig. 13.9.2 The curves $f(x, y) = m$ and $g(x, y) = 0$ are tangent at a constrained maximum or minimum point P of $f(x, y)$.

REMARK Example 1 illustrates an interesting geometric interpretation of Theorem 1. Let $f(P) = m$ be a maximum or minimum value of $f(x, y)$ subject to the constraint $g(x, y) = 0$. Then Theorem 2 of Section 13.8 implies that the gradient vectors $\nabla f(P)$ and $\nabla g(P)$ are normal to the curves $f(x, y) = m$ and $g(x, y) = 0$. The fact that the two normal vectors are collinear then means that *the two curves are tangent at P* . Thus we see in Fig. 13.9.2 that the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 2$ and the hyperbola $xy = 1$ are, indeed, tangent at the two points $(1, 1)$ and $(-1, -1)$ where the squared distance $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ is minimal subject to the constraint $g(x, y) = xy - 1 = 0$.

EXAMPLE 2 In the sawmill problem of Example 5 in Section 3.6, we maximized the cross-sectional area of a rectangular beam cut from a circular log. Now we consider the elliptical log of Fig. 13.9.3, with semiaxes of lengths $a = 2$ ft and $b = 1$ ft. What is the maximal cross-sectional area of a rectangular beam cut as indicated from this elliptical log?

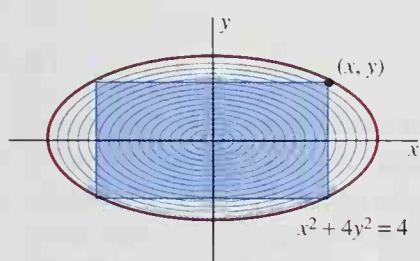
Solution The log is bounded by the ellipse $(x/2)^2 + y^2 = 1$; that is, $x^2 + 4y^2 = 4$. So with the coordinate system indicated in Fig. 13.9.3, we want to maximize the cross-sectional area

$$A = f(x, y) = 4xy \tag{5}$$

of the beam subject to the constraint

$$g(x, y) = x^2 + 4y^2 - 4 = 0. \tag{6}$$

Fig. 13.9.3 Cutting a rectangular beam from an elliptical log (Example 2)



Because

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 4y, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 4x \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} = 2x, \quad \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} = 8y,$$

Eqs. (2a) and (2b) give

$$4y = 2\lambda x, \quad 4x = 8\lambda y.$$

It's clear that neither $x = 0$ nor $y = 0$ gives the maximum area, so we can solve these two multiplier equations for

$$\frac{2y}{x} = \lambda = \frac{x}{2y}.$$

Thus $x^2 = 4y^2$ at the desired maximum. Because $x^2 + 4y^2 = 4$, it follows that $x^2 = 4y^2 = 2$. Because we seek (as in Fig. 13.9.3) a first-quadrant solution point (x, y) , we conclude that $x = \sqrt{2}$, $y = 1/\sqrt{2}$ gives the maximum possible cross-sectional area $A_{\max} = 4(\sqrt{2})(1/\sqrt{2}) = 4 \text{ ft}^2$ of a rectangular beam cut from the elliptical log. Note that this maximum area of 4 ft^2 is about 64% of the total cross-sectional area $A = \pi ab = 2\pi \text{ ft}^2$ of the original log. ■

REMARK If we consider all four quadrants, then the condition $x^2 = 4y^2 = 2$ yields the *four* points $(\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2})$, $(-\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2})$, $(-\sqrt{2}, -1/\sqrt{2})$, and $(\sqrt{2}, -1/\sqrt{2})$. The function $f(x, y) = 4xy$ in Eq. (5) attains its maximum value $+4$ on the ellipse $x^2 + 4y^2 = 4$ at the first and third of these points and its minimum value -4 at the second and fourth points. The Lagrange multiplier methods thus locates all of the global extrema of $f(x, y)$ on the ellipse.

REMARK In the applied maximum-minimum problems of Section 3.6, we typically started with a *formula* such as Eq. (5) of this section, expressing the quantity to be maximized in terms of *two* variables x and y , for example. We then used some available *relation* such as Eq. (6) between the variables x and y to eliminate one of them, such as y . Thus we finally obtained a single-variable *function* by substituting for y in terms of x in the original formula. As in Example 2, the Lagrange multiplier method frees us from the necessity of formulating the problem in terms of a single-variable function and generally leads to a solution process that is algebraically simpler and easier.

Lagrange Multipliers in Three Dimensions

Now suppose that $f(x, y, z)$ and $g(x, y, z)$ have continuous first-order partial derivatives and that we want to find the points of the *surface*

$$g(x, y, z) = 0 \tag{7}$$

at which the function $f(x, y, z)$ attains its maximum and minimum values. With functions of three rather than two variables, Theorem 1 holds precisely as we stated it, with the z -direction taken into account. We leave the details to Problem 45, but an argument similar to the proof of Theorem 1 shows that at a maximum or minimum point P of $f(x, y, z)$ on the surface in Eq. (7), both gradient vectors $\nabla f(P)$ and $\nabla g(P)$ are normal to the surface (Fig. 13.9.4). It follows that

$$\nabla f(P) = \lambda \nabla g(P) \tag{8}$$

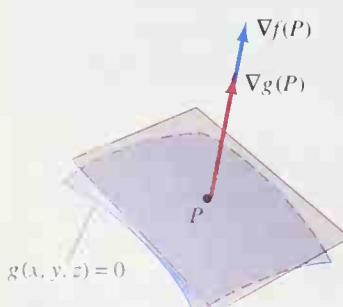


Fig. 13.9.4 The natural generalization of Theorem 1 holds for functions of three variables.

for some scalar λ . This vector equation corresponds to three scalar equations. To find the possible locations of the extrema of f subject to the constraint g , we can attempt to solve simultaneously the four equations

$$g(x, y, z) = 0, \quad (7)$$

$$f_x(x, y, z) = \lambda g_x(x, y, z), \quad (8a)$$

$$f_y(x, y, z) = \lambda g_y(x, y, z), \quad (8b)$$

$$f_z(x, y, z) = \lambda g_z(x, y, z) \quad (8c)$$

for the four unknowns x, y, z , and λ . If successful, we then evaluate $f(x, y, z)$ at each of the solution points (x, y, z) to see at which it attains its maximum and minimum values. In analogy to the two-dimensional case, we also check points at which the surface $g(x, y, z) = 0$ fails to be smooth. Thus the Lagrange multiplier method with one constraint is essentially the same in dimension three as in dimension two.

EXAMPLE 3 Find the maximum volume of a rectangular box inscribed in the ellipsoid $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 + z^2/c^2 = 1$ with its faces parallel to the coordinate planes (Fig. 13.9.5).

Solution Let $P(x, y, z)$ be the vertex of the box that lies in the first octant (where x, y , and z are all positive). We want to maximize the volume $V(x, y, z) = 8xyz$ subject to the constraint

$$g(x, y, z) = \frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} - 1 = 0.$$

Equations (8a), (8b), and (8c) give

$$8yz = \frac{2\lambda x}{a^2}, \quad 8xz = \frac{2\lambda y}{b^2}, \quad 8xy = \frac{2\lambda z}{c^2}.$$

Part of the art of mathematics lies in pausing for a moment to find an elegant way to solve a problem rather than rushing in headlong with brute force methods. Here, if we multiply the first equation by x , the second by y , and the third by z , we find that

$$2\lambda \frac{x^2}{a^2} = 2\lambda \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 2\lambda \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 8xyz.$$

Now $\lambda \neq 0$ because (at maximum volume) x, y , and z are nonzero. We conclude that

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} = \frac{y^2}{b^2} = \frac{z^2}{c^2}.$$

The sum of the last three expressions is 1, because that is precisely the constraint condition in this problem. Thus each of these three expressions is equal to $\frac{1}{3}$. All three of x, y , and z are positive, and therefore

$$x = \frac{a}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad y = \frac{b}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad \text{and} \quad z = \frac{c}{\sqrt{3}}.$$

Therefore the box of maximum volume has volume

$$V = V_{\max} = \frac{8}{3\sqrt{3}} abc.$$

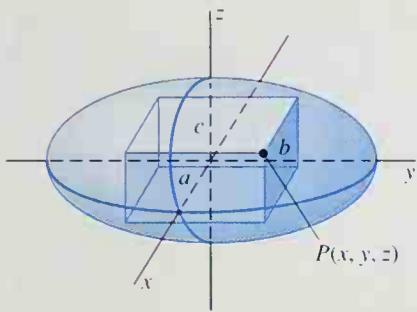


Fig. 13.9.5 A rectangular $2x \times 2y \times 2z$ box inscribed in an ellipsoid with semiaxes a, b , and c . The whole box is determined by its first-octant vertex $P(x, y, z)$.

Note that this answer is dimensionally correct—the product of the three *lengths* a , b , and c yields a *volume*. But because the volume of the ellipsoid is $V = \frac{4}{3}\pi abc$, and $[8/(3\sqrt{3})]/(4\pi/3) = 2/(\pi\sqrt{3}) \approx 0.37$, it follows that the maximal box occupies only about 37% of the volume of the circumscribed ellipsoid. Considering the 64% result in Example 2, would you consider this result plausible, or surprising? ■

Problems That Have Two Constraints

Suppose that we want to find the maximum and minimum values of the function $f(x, y, z)$ at points of the curve of intersection of the two surfaces

$$g(x, y, z) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad h(x, y, z) = 0. \quad (9)$$

This is a maximum-minimum problem with *two* constraints. The Lagrange multiplier method for such situations is based on Theorem 2.

Theorem 2 Lagrange Multipliers (two constraints)

Let $f(x, y, z)$, $g(x, y, z)$, and $h(x, y, z)$ be functions with continuous first-order partial derivatives. If the maximum (or minimum) value of f subject to the two conditions

$$g(x, y, z) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad h(x, y, z) = 0 \quad (9)$$

occurs at a point P where the vectors $\nabla g(P)$ and $\nabla h(P)$ are nonzero and nonparallel, then

$$\nabla f(P) = \lambda_1 \nabla g(P) + \lambda_2 \nabla h(P) \quad (10)$$

for some two constants λ_1 and λ_2 .

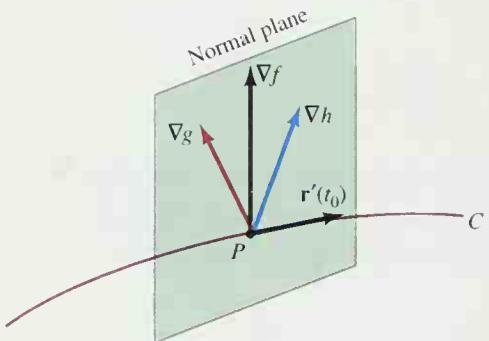


Fig. 13.9.6 The relation between the gradient vectors in the proof of Theorem 2

OUTLINE OF PROOF: By an appropriate version of the implicit function theorem, the curve C of intersection of the two surfaces (Fig. 13.9.6) may be represented near P by a parametric curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ with nonzero tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$. Let t_0 be the value of t such that $\mathbf{r}(t_0) = \overrightarrow{OP}$. We compute the derivatives at t_0 of the composite functions $f(\mathbf{r}(t))$, $g(\mathbf{r}(t))$, and $h(\mathbf{r}(t))$. We find—exactly as in the proof of Theorem 1—that

$$\nabla f(P) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0) = 0, \quad \nabla g(P) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0) = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla h(P) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0) = 0.$$

These three equations imply that all three gradient vectors are perpendicular to the curve C at P and thus that they all lie in a single plane, the plane normal to the curve C at the point P .

Now $\nabla g(P)$ and $\nabla h(P)$ are nonzero and nonparallel, so $\nabla f(P)$ is the sum of its projections onto $\nabla g(P)$ and $\nabla h(P)$ (see Problem 65 of Section 12.2). As illustrated in Fig. 13.9.7, this fact implies Eq. (8).

In examples we prefer to avoid subscripts by writing λ and μ for the Lagrange multipliers λ_1 and λ_2 in the statement of Theorem 2. The equations in (9) and the three scalar components of the vector equation in (10) then give rise to the five simultaneous equations

$$g(x, y, z) = 0, \quad (9a)$$

$$h(x, y, z) = 0, \quad (9b)$$

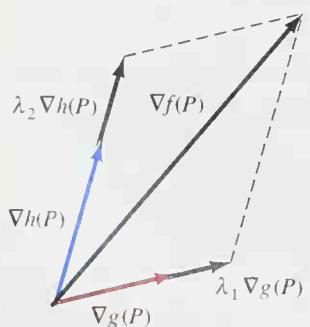


Fig. 13.9.7 Geometry of the equation $\nabla f(P) = \lambda_1 \nabla g(P) + \lambda_2 \nabla h(P)$

$$f_x(x, y, z) = \lambda g_x(x, y, z) + \mu h_x(x, y, z), \quad (10a)$$

$$f_y(x, y, z) = \lambda g_y(x, y, z) + \mu h_y(x, y, z), \quad (10b)$$

$$f_z(x, y, z) = \lambda g_z(x, y, z) + \mu h_z(x, y, z) \quad (10c)$$

in the five unknowns x , y , z , λ , and μ .

EXAMPLE 4 The plane $x + y + z = 12$ intersects the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ in an ellipse (Fig. 13.9.8). Find the highest and lowest points on this ellipse.

Solution The height of the point (x, y, z) is z , so we want to find the maximum and minimum values of

$$f(x, y, z) = z \quad (11)$$

subject to the two conditions

$$g(x, y, z) = x + y + z = 0 \quad (12)$$

and

$$h(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 - z = 0. \quad (13)$$

The conditions in (10a) through (10c) yield

$$0 = \lambda + 2\mu x, \quad (14a)$$

$$0 = \lambda + 2\mu y, \quad \text{and} \quad (14b)$$

$$1 = \lambda - \mu. \quad (14c)$$

If μ were zero, then Eq. (14a) would imply that $\lambda = 0$, which contradicts Eq. (14c). Hence $\mu \neq 0$, and therefore the equations

$$2\mu x = -\lambda = 2\mu y$$

imply that $x = y$. Substitution of $x = y$ into Eq. (13) gives $z = 2x^2$, and then Eq. (12) yields

$$2x^2 + 2x - 12 = 0;$$

$$x^2 + x - 6 = 0;$$

$$(x + 3)(x - 2) = 0.$$

Thus we obtain the two solutions $x = -3$ and $x = 2$. Because $y = x$ and $z = 2x^2$, the corresponding points of the ellipse are $P_1(2, 2, 8)$ and $P_2(-3, -3, 18)$. It's clear which is the lowest and which is the highest. ■

REMARK The Lagrange multiplier problems in Examples 1 through 4 are somewhat unusual in that the equations in these examples can be solved exactly with little difficulty. Frequently a Lagrange multiplier problem leads to a system of equations that can be solved only numerically and approximately—for instance, using a computer algebra system. Thus the *Mathematica* commands

equations =

{ $x + y + z == 12$, $z == x^2 + y^2$, $\lambda + 2 x \mu == 0$, $\lambda + 2 y \mu == 0$, $\lambda - \mu == 1$ }

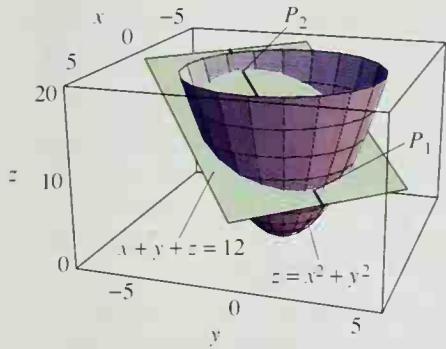


Fig. 13.9.8 The plane and paraboloid intersecting in the ellipse of Example 4

```

unknowns = {x,y,z,λ,μ}
NSolve[ equations, unknowns ]
{{λ→0.8, μ→-0.2, x→2., y→2., z→8.}, . . .
{λ→1.2, μ→0.2, x→-3., y→-3., z→18.}}

```

define and solve (read **NSolve** as “numerically solve”) the system in (12)–(14) of equations in Example 4. After entering similarly the equations and unknowns, the *Maple* command

```
fsolve( equations, unknowns )
```

is analogous (read **fsolve** as “floating point solve”).

13.9 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 18, find the maximum and minimum values—if any—of the given function f subject to the given constraint or constraints.

1. $f(x, y) = 2x + y; \quad x^2 + y^2 = 1$
2. $f(x, y) = x + y; \quad x^2 + 4y^2 = 1$
3. $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2; \quad x^2 + y^2 = 4$
4. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2; \quad 2x + 3y = 6$
5. $f(x, y) = xy; \quad 4x^2 + 9y^2 = 36$
6. $f(x, y) = 4x^2 + 9y^2; \quad x^2 + y^2 = 1$
7. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2; \quad 3x + 2y + z = 6$
8. $f(x, y, z) = 3x + 2y + z; \quad x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$
9. $f(x, y, z) = x + y + z; \quad x^2 + 4y^2 + 9z^2 = 36$
10. $f(x, y, z) = xyz; \quad x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$
11. $f(x, y, z) = xy + 2z; \quad x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 36$
12. $f(x, y, z) = x - y + z; \quad z = x^2 - 6xy + y^2$
13. $f(x, y, z) = x^2y^2z^2; \quad x^2 + 4y^2 + 9z^2 = 27$
14. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2; \quad x^4 + y^4 + z^4 = 3$
15. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2; \quad x + y + z = 1 \text{ and } x + 2y + 3z = 6$
16. $f(x, y, z) = z; \quad x^2 + y^2 = 1 \text{ and } 2x + 2y + z = 5$
17. $f(x, y, z) = z; \quad x + y + z = 1 \text{ and } x^2 + y^2 = 1$
18. $f(x, y, z) = x; \quad x + y + z = 12 \text{ and } 4y^2 + 9z^2 = 36$
19. Find the point on the line $3x + 4y = 100$ that is closest to the origin. Use Lagrange multipliers to minimize the square of the distance.
20. A rectangular open-topped box is to have volume 700 in.³. The material for its bottom costs 7¢/in.², and the material for its four vertical sides costs 5¢/in.². Use the method of Lagrange multipliers to find what dimensions will minimize the cost of the material used in constructing this box.

In Problems 21 through 34, use the method of Lagrange multipliers to solve the indicated problem from Section 13.5.

- | | |
|----------------|----------------|
| 21. Problem 29 | 22. Problem 30 |
| 23. Problem 31 | 24. Problem 32 |
| 25. Problem 33 | 26. Problem 34 |
| 27. Problem 35 | 28. Problem 36 |

- | | |
|--|----------------|
| 29. Problem 37 | 30. Problem 38 |
| 31. Problem 39 | 32. Problem 40 |
| 33. Problem 41 | 34. Problem 42 |
| 35. Find the point or points of the surface $z = xy + 5$ closest to the origin. (Suggestion: Minimize the square of the distance.) | |
| 36. A triangle with sides x , y , and z has fixed perimeter $2s = x + y + z$. Its area A is given by Heron's formula: | |

$$A = \sqrt{s(s-x)(s-y)(s-z)}.$$

Use the method of Lagrange multipliers to show that, among all triangles with the given perimeter, the one of largest area is equilateral. (Suggestion: Consider maximizing A^2 rather than A .)

37. Use the method of Lagrange multipliers to show that, of all triangles inscribed in the unit circle, the one of greatest area is equilateral. (Suggestion: Use Fig. 13.9.9 and the fact that the area of a triangle with sides a and b and included angle θ is given by the formula $A = \frac{1}{2}ab \sin \theta$.)

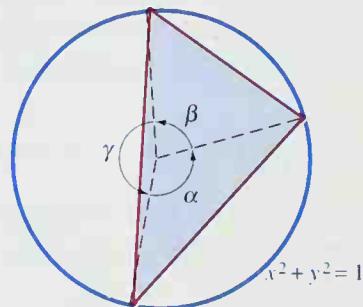


Fig. 13.9.9 A triangle inscribed in a circle (Problem 37)

38. Find the points on the rotated ellipse $x^2 + xy + y^2 = 3$ that are closest to and farthest from the origin. (Suggestion: Write the Lagrange multiplier equations in the form

$$ax + by = 0,$$

$$cx + dy = 0.$$

These equations have a nontrivial solution *only if* $ad - bc = 0$. Use this fact to solve first for λ .)

39. Use the method of Problem 38 to find the points of the rotated hyperbola $x^2 + 12xy + 6y^2 = 130$ that are closest to the origin.
40. Find the points of the ellipse $4x^2 + 9y^2 = 36$ that are closest to the point $(1, 1)$ as well as the point or points farthest from it.
41. Find the highest and lowest points on the ellipse formed by the intersection of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the plane $2x + y - z = 4$.
42. Apply the method of Example 4 to find the highest and lowest points on the ellipse formed by the intersection of the cone $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ and the plane $x + 2y + 3z = 3$.
43. Find the points on the ellipse of Problem 42 that are nearest the origin and those that are farthest from it.
44. The ice tray shown in Fig. 13.9.10 is to be made from material that costs $1\text{¢}/\text{in}^2$. Minimize the cost function $f(x, y, z) = xy + 3xz + 7yz$ subject to the constraints that each of the 12 compartments is to have a square horizontal cross section and that the total volume (ignoring the partitions) is to be 12 in^3 .

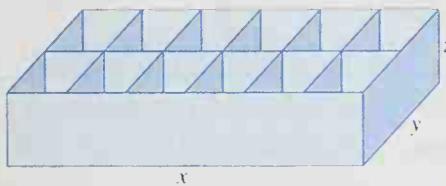


Fig. 13.9.10 The ice tray of Problem 44

45. Prove Theorem 1 for functions of three variables by showing that both of the vectors $\nabla f(P)$ and $\nabla g(P)$ are perpendicular at P to every curve on the surface $g(x, y, z) = 0$.
46. Find the lengths of the semiaxes of the ellipse of Example 4.
47. Figure 13.9.11 shows a right triangle with sides x , y , and z and fixed perimeter P . Maximize its area $A = \frac{1}{2}xy$ subject to the constraints $x + y + z = P$ and $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$. In particular, show that the optimal such triangle is isosceles (by showing that $x = y$).
48. Figure 13.9.12 shows a general triangle with sides x , y , and z and fixed perimeter P . Maximize its area

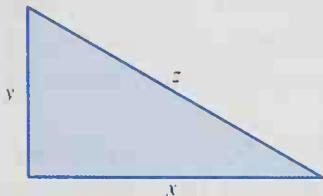


Fig. 13.9.11 A right triangle with fixed perimeter P (Problem 47)

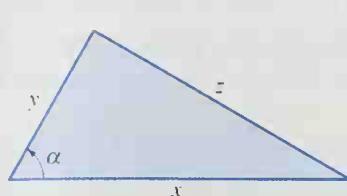


Fig. 13.9.12 A general triangle with fixed perimeter P (Problem 48)

$$A = f(x, y, z, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2}xy \sin \alpha$$

subject to the constraints $x + y + z = P$ and

$$z^2 = x^2 + y^2 - 2xy \cos \alpha$$

(the law of cosines). In particular, show that the optimal such triangle is equilateral (by showing that $x = y = z$). [Note: The Lagrange multiplier equations for optimizing $f(x, y, z, w)$ subject to the constraint $g(x, y, z, w) = 0$ take the form

$$f_x = \lambda g_x, \quad f_y = \lambda g_y, \quad f_z = \lambda g_z, \quad f_w = \lambda g_w;$$

that is, $\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g$ in terms of the gradient vectors with four components.]

49. Figure 13.9.13 shows a hexagon with vertices $(0, \pm 1)$ and $(\pm x, \pm y)$ inscribed in the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Show that its area is maximal when it is a *regular* hexagon with equal sides and angles.
50. When the hexagon of Fig. 13.9.13 is rotated around the y -axis, it generates a solid of revolution consisting of a cylinder and two cones (Fig. 13.9.14). What radius and cylinder height maximize the volume of this solid?

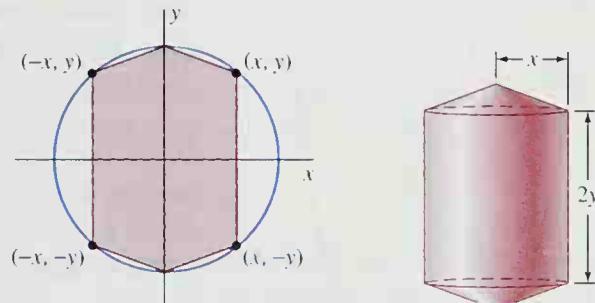


Fig. 13.9.13 The inscribed hexagon of Problem 49

Fig. 13.9.14 The solid of Problem 50

In Problems 51 through 58, consider the *square* of the distance to be maximized or minimized. Use the numerical solution command in a computer algebra system as needed to solve the appropriate Lagrange multiplier equations.

51. Find the points of the parabola $y = (x - 1)^2$ that are closest to the origin.
52. Find the points of the ellipse $4x^2 + 9y^2 = 36$ that are closest to and farthest from the points $(3, 2)$.
53. Find the first-quadrant point of the curve $xy = 24$ that is closest to the point $(1, 4)$.
54. Find the point of the surface $xyz = 1$ that is closest to the point $(1, 2, 3)$.
55. Find the points on the sphere with center $(1, 2, 3)$ and radius 6 that are closest to and farthest from the origin.

56. Find the points of the ellipsoid $4x^2 + 9y^2 + z^2 = 36$ that are closest to and farthest from the origin.
57. Find the points of the ellipse $4x^2 + 9y^2 = 36$ that are closest to and farthest from the straight line $x + y = 10$.
58. Find the points on the ellipsoid $4x^2 + 9y^2 + z^2 = 36$ that are closest to and farthest from the plane $2x + 3y + z = 10$.

59. Find the maximum possible volume of a rectangular box that has its base in the xy -plane and its upper vertices on the elliptic paraboloid $z = 9 - x^2 - 2y^2$.
60. The plane $4x + 9y + z = 0$ intersects the elliptic paraboloid $z = 2x^2 + 3y^2$ in an ellipse. Find the highest and lowest points on this ellipse.

13.9 PROJECT: NUMERICAL INVESTIGATION OF LAGRANGE MULTIPLIER PROBLEMS

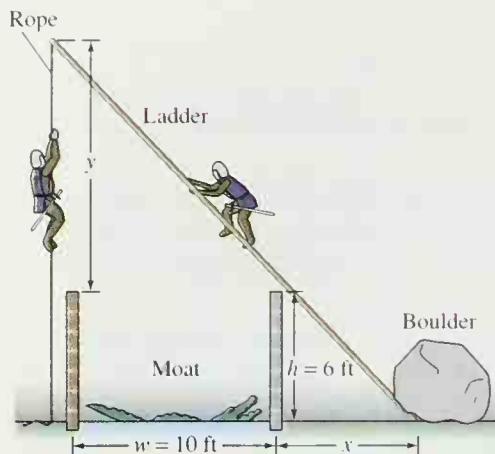


Fig. 13.9.15 The alligator-filled moat of Investigation A

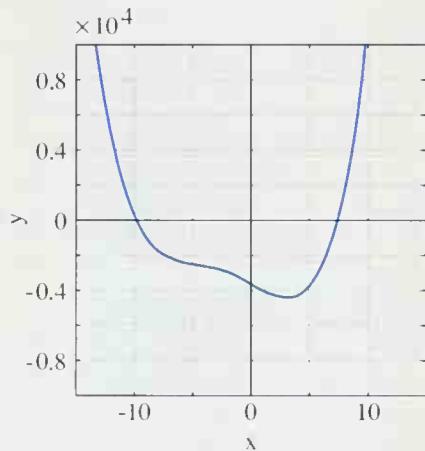


Fig. 13.9.16
 $y = x^4 + 10x^3 - 360x - 3600$
 (Investigation A)

INVESTIGATION A Figure 13.9.15 shows an alligator-filled moat of width $w = 10$ ft, bounded on each side by a wall of height $h = 6$ ft. Soldiers plan to bridge this moat by scaling a ladder that is placed across the wall as indicated and anchored at the ground by a handy boulder, with the upper end directly above the wall on the opposite side of the moat. What is the minimal length L of a ladder that will suffice for this purpose? We outline two approaches.

WITH A SINGLE CONSTRAINT Apply the Pythagorean theorem and the proportionality theorem for similar triangles to show that you need to minimize the (ladder-length-squared) function $f(x, y) = (x + 10)^2 + (y + 6)^2$ subject to the constraint $g(x, y) = xy - 60 = 0$. Then apply the Lagrange multiplier method to derive the fourth-degree equation

$$x^4 + 10x^3 - 360x - 3600 = 0. \quad (1)$$

You can approximate the pertinent solution of this equation graphically (Fig. 13.9.16). You may even be able to solve this equation manually—if you can first spot an integer solution (which must be an integral factor of the constant term 3600).

WITH TWO CONSTRAINTS You can avoid the manual algebra involved in deriving and solving the quartic equation in (1) if a computer algebra system is available to you. With $z = L$ for the length of the ladder, observe directly from Fig. 13.9.15 that you need to minimize the function $f(x, y, z) = z$ subject to the two constraints

$$\begin{aligned} g(x, y, z) &= xy - 60 = 0, \\ h(x, y, z) &= (x + 10)^2 + (y + 6)^2 - z^2 = 0. \end{aligned}$$

This leads to a system of five equations in five unknowns (x, y, z , and the two Lagrange multipliers).

For your own personal moat problem, you might choose w and $h < w$ as the two largest distinct digits in your student I.D. number.

INVESTIGATION B Figure 13.9.17 shows a 14-sided polygon that is almost inscribed in the unit circle. It has vertices $(0, \pm 1)$, $(\pm x, \pm y)$, $(\pm u, \pm v)$, and $(\pm u, \pm y)$. When this polygon is revolved around the y -axis, it generates the “spindle solid” of Fig. 13.9.18, which consists of a solid cylinder of radius x , two solid cylinders of radius u , and two cones. The problem is to determine x, y, u , and v to maximize the volume of this spindle.

First express the volume V of the spindle as a function $V = f(x, y, u, v)$ of four variables. The problem then is to maximize $f(x, y, u, v)$ subject to the two constraints

$$\begin{aligned} g(x, y, u, v) &= x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0, \\ h(x, y, u, v) &= u^2 + v^2 - 1 = 0. \end{aligned}$$

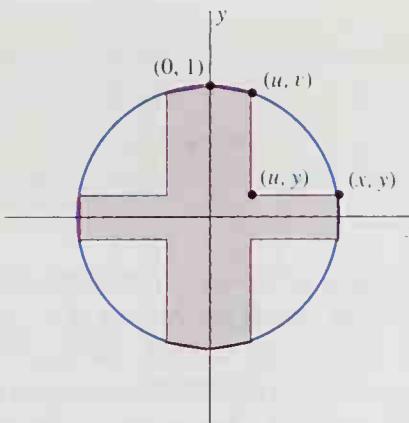


Fig. 13.9.17 The polygon of Investigation B

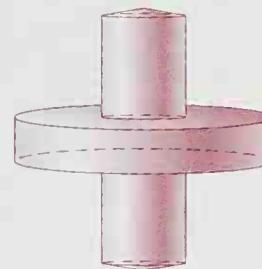


Fig. 13.9.18 The spindle of Investigation B

The corresponding Lagrange multiplier condition takes the form

$$\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g + \mu \nabla h,$$

where $\nabla f = \langle f_x, f_y, f_u, f_v \rangle$ and ∇g and ∇h are similar 4-vectors of partial derivatives.

All this results in a system of six equations in the six unknowns x , y , u , v , λ , and μ . Set up this system, but you probably should attempt to solve it only if a computer algebra system is available to you.

13.10 THE SECOND DERIVATIVE TEST FOR FUNCTIONS OF TWO VARIABLES

We saw in Section 13.5 that in order for the differentiable function $f(x, y)$ to have either a local minimum or a local maximum at an interior critical point $P(a, b)$ of its domain, it is a *necessary* condition that P be a *critical point* of f —that is, that

$$f_x(a, b) = 0 = f_y(a, b).$$

Here we give conditions *sufficient* to ensure that f has a local extremum at a critical point. The criterion stated in Theorem 1 involves the second-order partial derivatives of f at (a, b) and plays the role of the single-variable second derivative test (Section 4.6) for functions of two variables. To simplify the statement of this result, we use the following abbreviations:

$$A = f_{xx}(a, b), \quad B = f_{xy}(a, b), \quad C = f_{yy}(a, b), \quad (1)$$

and

$$\Delta = AC - B^2 = f_{xx}(a, b)f_{yy}(a, b) - [f_{xy}(a, b)]^2. \quad (2)$$

We outline a proof of Theorem 1 at the end of this section.

Theorem 1 *Sufficient Conditions for Local Extrema*

Let (a, b) be a critical point of the function $f(x, y)$, and suppose that f has continuous first- and second-order partial derivatives in some circular disk centered at (a, b) .

- If $\Delta > 0$ and $A > 0$, then f has a local minimum at (a, b) .
- If $\Delta > 0$ and $A < 0$, then f has a local maximum at (a, b) .
- If $\Delta < 0$, then f has neither a local minimum nor a local maximum at (a, b) . Instead, it has a saddle point there.

Thus f has either a local maximum or a local minimum at the critical point (a, b) provided that the **discriminant** $\Delta = AC - B^2$ is positive. In this case, $A = f_{xx}(a, b)$ plays the role of the second derivative of a single-variable function: There is a local minimum at (a, b) if $A > 0$ and a local maximum if $A < 0$.

If $\Delta < 0$, then f has neither a local maximum nor a local minimum at (a, b) . In this case we call (a, b) a **saddle point** of f , thinking of the appearance of the hyperbolic paraboloid $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$ (Fig. 13.10.1), a typical example of this case.

Theorem 1 does not answer the question of what happens when $\Delta = 0$. In this case, the two-variable second derivative test fails—it gives no information. Moreover, at such a point (a, b) , anything can happen, ranging from the local (indeed global) minimum of $f(x, y) = x^4 + y^4$ at $(0, 0)$ to the “monkey saddle” of Example 2.

In the case of a function $f(x, y)$ with several critical points, we must compute the quantities A , B , C , and Δ separately at each critical point in order to apply the test.

EXAMPLE 1 Locate and classify the critical points of

$$f(x, y) = 3x - x^3 - 3xy^2.$$

Solution This function is a polynomial, so all its partial derivatives exist and are continuous everywhere. When we equate its first partial derivatives to zero (to locate the critical points of f), we get

$$f_x(x, y) = 3 - 3x^2 - 3y^2 = 0, \quad f_y(x, y) = -6xy = 0.$$

The second of these equations implies that x or y must be zero; then the first implies that the other must be ± 1 . Thus there are four critical points: $(1, 0)$, $(-1, 0)$, $(0, 1)$, and $(0, -1)$.

The second-order partial derivatives of f are

$$A = f_{xx}(x, y) = -6x, \quad B = f_{xy}(x, y) = -6y, \quad C = f_{yy}(x, y) = -6x.$$

Hence $\Delta = 36(x^2 - y^2)$ at each of the critical points. The table in Fig. 13.10.2 summarizes the situation at each of the four critical points, which are labeled in the con-

Critical Point	A	B	C	Δ	Type of Extremum
$(1, 0)$	-6	0	-6	36	Local maximum
$(-1, 0)$	6	0	6	36	Local minimum
$(0, 1)$	0	-6	0	-36	Saddle point
$(0, -1)$	0	6	0	-36	Saddle point

Fig. 13.10.2 Critical-point analysis for the function of Example 1

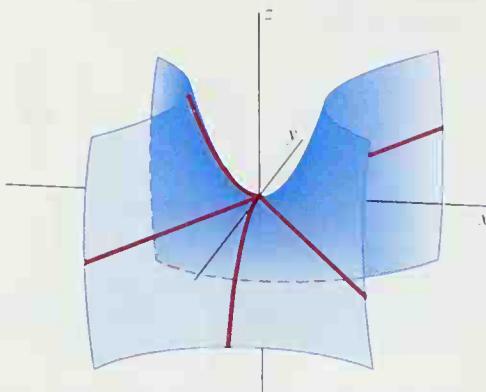


Fig. 13.10.1 The origin is a saddle point of the surface with equation $z = x^2 - y^2$.

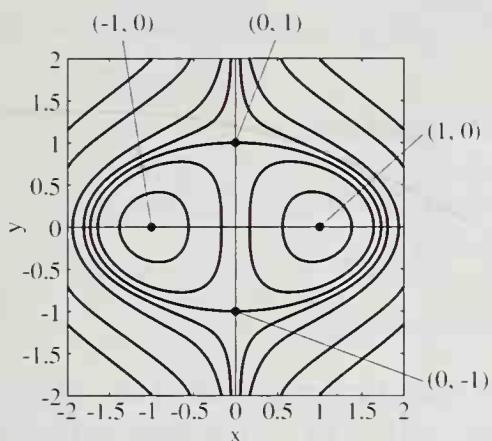


Fig. 13.10.3 Contour curves for the function of Example 1

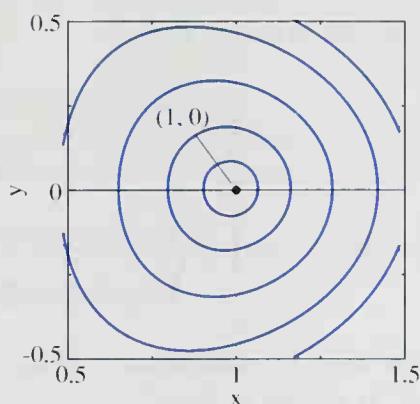


Fig. 13.10.4 Contour curves near the critical point $(1, 0)$

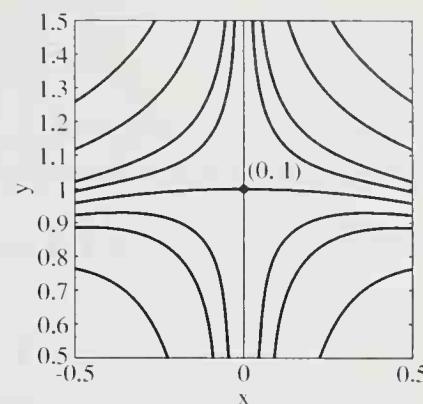


Fig. 13.10.5 Contour curves near the critical point $(0, 1)$

tour plot in Fig. 13.10.3. Near the points $(\pm 1, 0)$ we see the nested “ellipse-like” contours that signal local extrema (Fig. 13.10.4), and near the points $(0, \pm 1)$ we see “hyperbola-like” contours that signal saddle points (Fig. 13.10.5). Figure 13.10.6 shows the critical points on the two-dimensional graph $z = f(x, y)$.

EXAMPLE 2 Find and classify the critical points of the function

$$f(x, y) = 6xy^2 - 2x^3 - 3y^4.$$

Solution When we equate the first-order partial derivatives to zero, we get the equations

$$f_x(x, y) = 6y^2 - 6x^2 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f_y(x, y) = 12xy - 12y^3 = 0.$$

It follows that

$$x^2 = y^2 \quad \text{and} \quad y(x - y^2) = 0.$$

The first of these equations gives $x = \pm y$. If $x = y$, the second equation implies that $y = 0$ or $y = 1$. If $x = -y$, the second equation implies that $y = 0$ or $y = -1$. Hence there are three critical points: $(0, 0)$, $(1, 1)$, and $(1, -1)$.

The second-order partial derivatives of f are

$$A = f_{xx}(x, y) = -12x, \quad B = f_{xy}(x, y) = 12y, \quad C = f_{yy}(x, y) = 12x - 36y^2.$$

These expressions give the data shown in the table in Fig. 13.10.7. The critical point test fails at $(0, 0)$, so we must find another way to test this point.

Critical point	A	B	C	Δ	Type of Extremum
$(0, 0)$	0	0	0	0	Test fails
$(1, 1)$	-12	12	-24	144	Local maximum
$(1, -1)$	-12	-12	-24	144	Local maximum

Fig. 13.10.7 Critical-point analysis for the function of Example 2

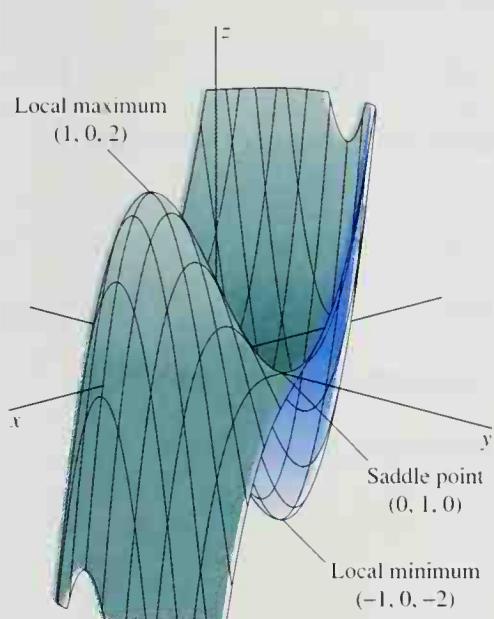


Fig. 13.10.6 Graph of the function of Example 1

We observe that $f(x, 0) = -2x^3$ and that $f(0, y) = -3y^4$. Hence, as we move away from the origin in the

Positive x -direction: f decreases;

Negative x -direction: f increases;

Positive y -direction: f decreases;

Negative y -direction: f decreases.

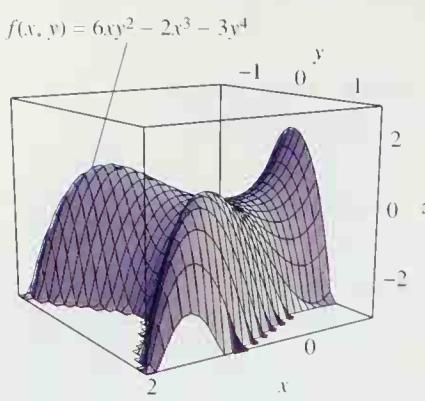


Fig. 13.10.8 The monkey saddle of Example 2

Consequently, f has neither a local maximum nor a local minimum at the origin. The graph of f is shown in Fig. 13.10.8. If a monkey were to sit with its rump at the origin and face the negative x -direction, then the directions in which $f(x, y)$ decreases would provide places for both its tail and its two legs to hang. That's why this particular surface is called a *monkey saddle* (Fig. 13.10.9). ■

EXAMPLE 3 Find and classify the critical points of the function

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{3}x^4 + \frac{1}{2}y^4 - 4xy^2 + 2x^2 + 2y^2 + 3.$$

Solution When we equate to zero the first-order partial derivatives of f , we obtain the equations

$$f_x(x, y) = \frac{4}{3}x^3 - 4y^2 + 4x = 0, \quad (3)$$

$$f_y(x, y) = 2y^3 - 8xy + 4y = 0, \quad (4)$$

which are not as easy to solve as the corresponding equations in Example 1 and 2. But if we write Eq. (4) in the form

$$2y(y^2 - 4x + 2) = 0,$$

we see that either $y = 0$ or

$$y^2 = 4x - 2. \quad (5)$$

If $y = 0$, then Eq. (3) reduces to the equation

$$\frac{4}{3}x^3 + 4x = \frac{4}{3}x(x^2 + 3) = 0,$$

whose only solution is $x = 0$. Thus one critical point of f is $(0, 0)$.

If $y \neq 0$, we substitute $y^2 = 4x - 2$ into Eq. (3) to obtain

$$\frac{4}{3}x^3 - 4(4x - 2) + 4x = 0;$$

that is,

$$\frac{4}{3}x^3 - 12x + 8 = 0.$$

Thus we need to solve the cubic equation

$$\phi(x) = x^3 - 9x + 6 = 0. \quad (6)$$

The graph of $\phi(x)$ in Fig. 13.10.10 shows that this equation has three real solutions with approximate values $x \approx -3$, $x \approx 1$, and $x \approx 3$. Using either graphical techniques or Newton's method (Section 3.9), you can obtain the values

$$x \approx -3.2899, \quad x \approx 0.7057, \quad x \approx 2.5842, \quad (7)$$

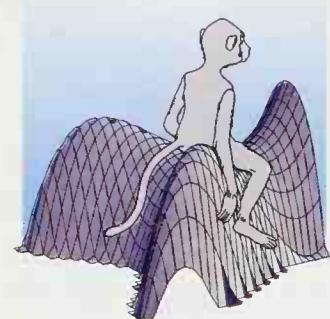


Fig. 13.10.9 The monkey in its saddle (Example 2)

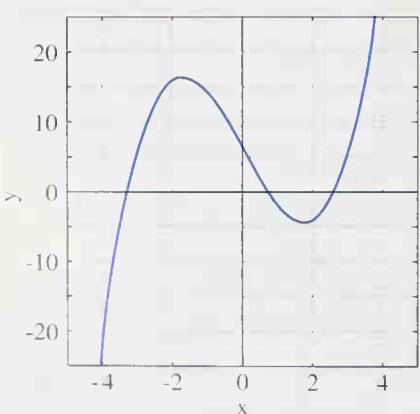


Fig. 13.10.10 The graph of $\phi(x) = x^3 - 9x + 6$ (Example 3)

accurate to four decimal places. The corresponding values of y are given from Eq. (5) by

$$y = \pm \sqrt{4x - 2}, \quad (8)$$

but the first value of x in (7) yields *no* real value at all for y . Thus the two positive values of x in (7) add *four* critical points of $f(x, y)$ to the one critical point $(0, 0)$ already found.

These five critical points are listed in the table in Fig. 13.10.11, together with the corresponding values of

$$\begin{aligned} A &= f_{xx}(x, y) = 4x^2 + 4, & B &= f_{xy}(x, y) = -8y, \\ C &= f_{yy}(x, y) = 6y^2 - 8x + 4, & \Delta &= AC - B^2 \end{aligned}$$

Critical point	1	2	3	4	5
x	0.0000	0.7057	0.7057	2.5842	2.5842
y	0.0000	0.9071	-0.9071	2.8874	2.8874
z	3.0000	3.7402	3.7402	-3.5293	-3.5293
A	4.00	5.99	5.99	30.71	30.71
B	0.00	-7.26	7.26	-23.10	23.10
C	4.00	3.29	3.29	33.35	33.35
Δ	16.00	-32.94	-32.94	490.64	490.64
Type	Local minimum	Saddle point	Saddle point	Local minimum	Local minimum

Fig. 13.10.11 Classification of the critical points in Example 3

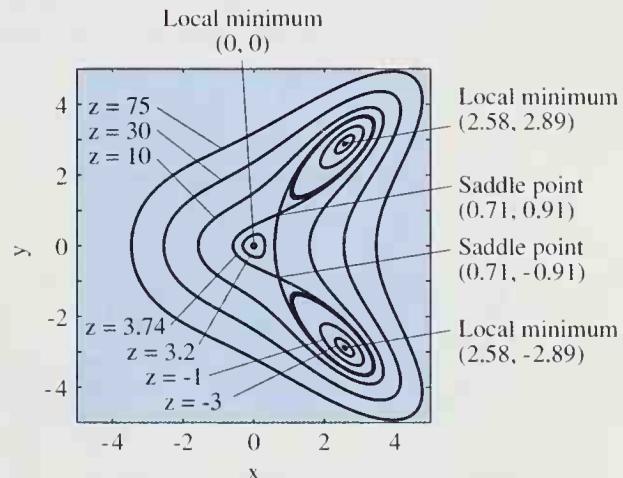


Fig. 13.10.12 Level curves for the function of Example 3

(rounded to two decimal places) at each of these critical points. We see that $\Delta > 0$ and $A > 0$ at $(0, 0)$ and at $(2.5842, \pm 2.8874)$, so these points are local minimum points. But $\Delta < 0$ at $(0.7057, \pm 0.9071)$, so these two are saddle points. The level curve diagram in Fig. 13.10.12 shows how these five critical points fit together.

Finally, we observe that the behavior of $f(x, y)$ is approximately that of $\frac{1}{3}x^4 + \frac{1}{2}y^4$ when $|x|$ or $|y|$ is large, so the surface $z = f(x, y)$ must open upward and therefore have a global low point (but no global high point). Examining the values

$$f(0, 0) = 3 \quad \text{and} \quad f(2.5842, \pm 2.8874) \approx -3.5293,$$

we see that the global minimum value of $f(x, y)$ is approximately -3.5293 . ■

Discussion of Theorem 1

A complete proof of Theorem 1 (providing sufficient conditions for local extrema of functions of two variables) is best left for advanced calculus. Here, however, we provide an outline of the main ideas. Given a function $f(x, y)$ with critical point (a, b) that we wish to investigate, the function $f(x - a, y - b)$ would have a critical point of the same type at $(0, 0)$, so let's assume that $a = b = 0$.

To analyze the behavior of $f(x, y)$ near $(0, 0)$, we fix x and y and introduce the single-variable function

$$g(t) = f(tx, ty), \quad (9)$$

whose values agree with those of f on the straight line through $(0, 0)$ and (x, y) in the xy -plane. Its second-degree Taylor formula at $t = 0$ is

$$g(t) = g(0) + g'(0) \cdot t + \frac{1}{2}g''(0) \cdot t^2 + R, \quad (10)$$

where the remainder term is of the form $R = g^{(3)}(\tau) \cdot t^3/3!$ for some τ between 0 and t . With $t = 1$ we get

$$g(1) = g(0) + g'(0) + \frac{1}{2}g''(0) + R. \quad (11)$$

But

$$g(0) = f(0, 0) \quad \text{and} \quad g(1) = f(x, y) \quad (12)$$

by Eq. (9), and the chain rule gives

$$g'(0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{d(tx)}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{d(ty)}{dt} = xf_x + yf_y \quad (13)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} g''(0) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (xf_x + yf_y) \frac{d(tx)}{dt} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (xf_x + yf_y) \frac{d(ty)}{dt} \\ &= x^2f_{xx} + 2xyf_{xy} + y^2f_{yy}, \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

where the partial derivatives of f are to be evaluated at the point $(0, 0)$.

Because $f_x(0, 0) = f_y(0, 0) = 0$, substitution of Eqs. (12), (13), and (14) into Eq. (11) yields the two-variable Taylor expansion

$$f(x, y) = f(0, 0) + \frac{1}{2}(Ax^2 + 2Bxy + Cy^2) + R, \quad (15)$$

where

$$A = f_{xx}(0, 0), \quad B = f_{xy}(0, 0), \quad C = f_{yy}(0, 0). \quad (16)$$

If $|x|$ and $|y|$ are sufficiently small, then the remainder term R in (15) is negligible, so the shape of the surface $z = f(x, y)$ resembles that of the quadric surface

$$z = q(x, y) = Ax^2 + 2Bxy + Cy^2. \quad (17)$$

But, according to Theorem 2 in Section 12.7, the shape of this quadric surface is determined by the *signs* of the roots λ_1 and λ_2 of the quadratic equation

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{vmatrix} A - \lambda & B \\ B & C - \lambda \end{vmatrix} &= (A - \lambda)(C - \lambda) - B^2 \\ &= \lambda^2 - (A + C)\lambda + (AC - B^2) = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

The quadratic formula gives

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_1, \lambda_2 &= \frac{1}{2} \left(A + C \pm \sqrt{(A + C)^2 - 4(AC - B^2)} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(A + C \pm \sqrt{(A + C)^2 - 4\Delta} \right), \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

where $\Delta = AC - B^2$ as in Theorem 1. Simplification of the first radical here yields

$$\lambda_1, \lambda_2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(A + C \pm \sqrt{(A - C)^2 + 4B^2} \right). \quad (20)$$

so it follows (Why?) that both roots λ_1 and λ_2 are real. There are three cases to consider, corresponding to the three parts of Theorem 1.

1. If $\Delta > 0$, then A and C have the same sign, and the radical in Eq. (19) is *less than* $|A + C|$. If $A > 0$ it therefore follows that the roots λ_1 and λ_2 are both *positive*. Hence Theorem 2 in Section 12.7 implies that the surface $z = q(x, y)$ is an elliptic paraboloid that opens *upward*, so the critical point $(0, 0)$ is a *local minimum point* for $q(x, y)$ and also for $f(x, y)$.
2. If $\Delta > 0$ and $A < 0$, it follows similarly that the roots λ_1 and λ_2 are both *negative*. Hence Theorem 2 in Section 12.7 implies that the surface $z = q(x, y)$ is an elliptic paraboloid that opens *downward*, so the critical point $(0, 0)$ is a *local maximum point* for $q(x, y)$ and also for $f(x, y)$.
3. If $\Delta < 0$, then the radical in Eq. (19) is *greater than* $|A + C|$, so it follows that the roots λ_1 and λ_2 have different signs. Hence Theorem 2 in Section 12.7 implies that the surface $z = q(x, y)$ is a (saddle-shaped) hyperbolic paraboloid. Consequently the critical point $(0, 0)$ is a *saddle point* for $q(x, y)$ and also for $f(x, y)$.

13.10 PROBLEMS

Find and classify the critical points of the functions in Problems 1 through 22. If a computer algebra system is available, check your results by means of contour plots like those in Figs. 13.10.3–13.10.5.

1. $f(x, y) = 2x^2 + y^2 + 4x - 4y + 5$
2. $f(x, y) = 10 + 12x - 12y - 3x^2 - 2y^2$
3. $f(x, y) = 2x^2 - 3y^2 + 2x - 3y + 7$ (Fig. 13.10.13)
4. $f(x, y) = xy + 3x - 2y + 4$
5. $f(x, y) = 2x^2 + 2xy + y^2 + 4x - 2y + 1$
6. $f(x, y) = x^2 + 4xy + 2y^2 + 4x - 8y + 3$

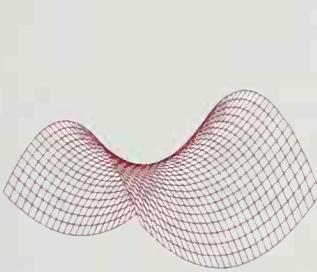


Fig. 13.10.13 Graph for Problem 3

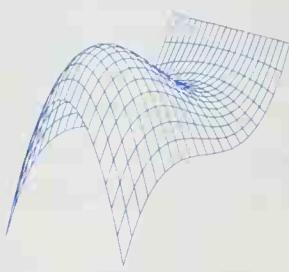


Fig. 13.10.14 Graph for Problem 7

7. $f(x, y) = x^3 + y^3 + 3xy + 3$ (Fig. 13.10.14)
8. $f(x, y) = x^2 - 2xy + y^3 - y$
9. $f(x, y) = 6x - x^3 - y^3$
10. $f(x, y) = 3xy - x^3 - y^3$
11. $f(x, y) = x^4 + y^4 - 4xy$
12. $f(x, y) = x^3 + 6xy + 3y^2$
13. $f(x, y) = x^3 + 6xy + 3y^2 - 9x$
14. $f(x, y) = x^3 + 6xy + 3y^2 + 6x$
15. $f(x, y) = 3x^2 + 6xy + 2y^3 + 12x - 24y$ (Fig. 13.10.15)
16. $f(x, y) = 3x^2 + 12xy + 2y^3 - 6x + 6y$

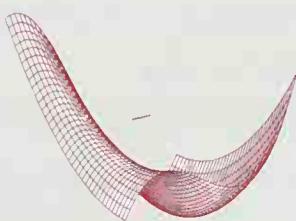


Fig. 13.10.15 Graph for Problem 15

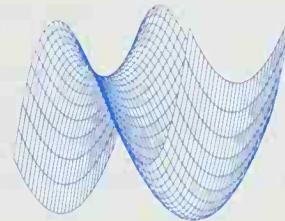


Fig. 13.10.16 Graph for Problem 19

17. $f(x, y) = 4xy - 2x^4 - y^2$
18. $f(x, y) = 8xy - 2x^2 - y^4$
19. $f(x, y) = 2x^3 - 3x^2 + y^2 - 12x + 10$ (Fig. 13.10.16)
20. $f(x, y) = 2x^3 + y^3 - 3x^2 - 12x - 3y$ (Fig. 13.10.17)

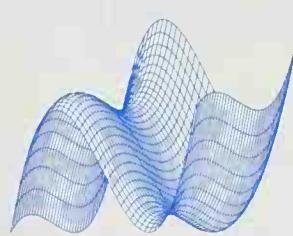


Fig. 13.10.17 Graph for Problem 20

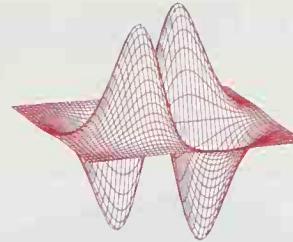


Fig. 13.10.18 Graph for Problem 21

21. $f(x, y) = xy \exp(-x^2 - y^2)$ (Fig. 13.10.18)
22. $f(x, y) = (x^2 + y^2) \exp(x^2 - y^2)$

In Problems 23 through 25, first show that $\Delta = f_{xx}f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2$ is zero at the origin. Then classify this critical point by imagining what the surface $z = f(x, y)$ looks like.

23. $f(x, y) = x^4 + y^4$
24. $f(x, y) = x^3 + y^3$

25. $f(x, y) = \exp(-x^4 - y^4)$

26. Let $f(x, t)$ denote the square of the distance between a typical point of the line $x = t, y = t + 1, z = 2t$ and a typical point of the line $x = 2s, y = s - 1, z = s + 1$. Show that the single critical point of f is a local minimum. Hence find the closest points on these two skew lines.

27. Let $f(x, y)$ denote the square of the distance from $(0, 0, 2)$ to a typical point of the surface $z = xy$. Find and classify the critical points of f .

28. Show that the surface

$$z = (x^2 + 2y^2) \exp(1 - x^2 - y^2)$$

looks like two mountain peaks joined by two ridges with a pit between them.

29. A wire 120 cm long is cut into three pieces of lengths x, y , and $120 - x - y$, and each piece is bent into the shape of a square. Let $f(x, y)$ denote the sum of the areas of these squares. Show that the single critical point of f is a local minimum. But surely it is possible to maximize the sum of the areas. Explain.

30. Show that the graph of the function

$$f(x, y) = xy \exp\left(\frac{1}{8}[x^2 + 4y^2]\right)$$

has a saddle point but no extrema.

31. Find and classify the critical points of the function

$$f(x, y) = \sin \frac{\pi x}{2} \sin \frac{\pi y}{2}.$$

32. Let $f(x, y) = x^3 - 3xy^2$. (a) Show that its only critical point is $(0, 0)$ and that $\Delta = 0$ there. (b) By examining the behavior of $x^3 - 3xy^2$ on straight lines through the origin, show that the surface $z = x^3 - 3xy^2$ qualifies as a monkey saddle (Fig. 13.10.19).

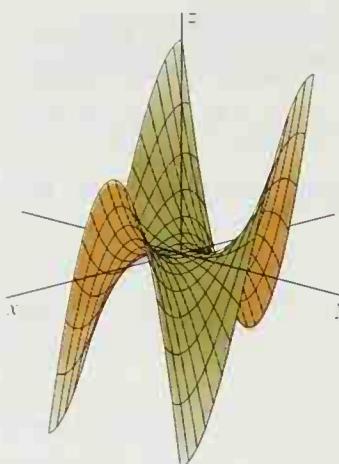


Fig. 13.10.19 The monkey saddle of Problem 32

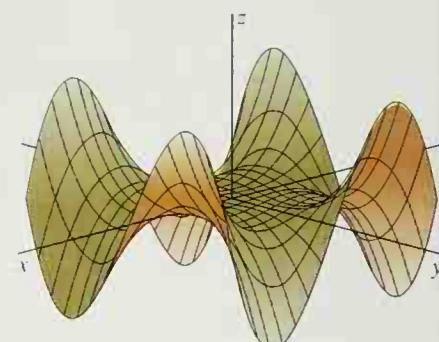


Fig. 13.10.20 The dog saddle of Problem 33

33. Repeat Problem 32 with $f(x, y) = 4xy(x^2 - y^2)$. Show that near the critical point $(0, 0)$ the surface $z = f(x, y)$ qualifies as a “dog saddle” (Fig. 13.10.20).

34. Let

$$f(x, y) = \frac{xy(x^2 - y^2)}{x^2 + y^2}.$$

Classify the behavior of f near the critical point $(0, 0)$.

In Problems 35 through 39, use graphical or numerical methods to find the critical points of f to four-place accuracy. Then classify them.

35. $f(x, y) = 2x^4 - 12x^2 + y^2 + 8x$

36. $f(x, y) = x^4 + 4x^2 - y^2 - 16x$

37. $f(x, y) = x^4 + 12xy + 6y^2 + 4x + 10$

38. $f(x, y) = x^4 + 8xy - 4y^2 - 16x + 10$

39. $f(x, y) = x^4 + 2y^4 - 12xy^2 - 20y^2$

13.10 PROJECT: CRITICAL POINT INVESTIGATIONS

INVESTIGATION A: The graph of the function

$$f(x, y) = 10 \exp(-x^2 - (0.5)xy - (0.5)y^2) \sin x \sin y \quad (1)$$

is shown in Fig. 13.10.21, and there we see two peaks, two pits, and a saddle point. The contour plot in Fig. 13.10.22 indicates that the approximate locations of the four local extrema are $(\pm 0.5, \pm 0.75)$ and $(\pm 0.75, \mp 1)$. Use these guesses to solve numerically the critical point equations $f_x(x, y) = 0 = f_y(x, y)$ with computer algebra system commands such as

`FindRoot[{fx==0, fy==0}, {x, 0.5}, {y, 0.75}]`
(Mathematica)

or

`fsolve({fx=0, fy=0}, {x,y}, {x=0.4..0.6, y=0.7..0.8})`
(Maple).

Then apply Theorem 1 of this section to classify each critical point found.

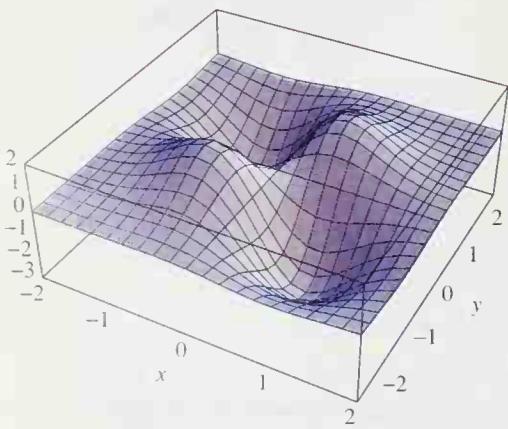


Fig. 13.10.21 The graph $z = f(x, y)$ of the function in Eq. (1)

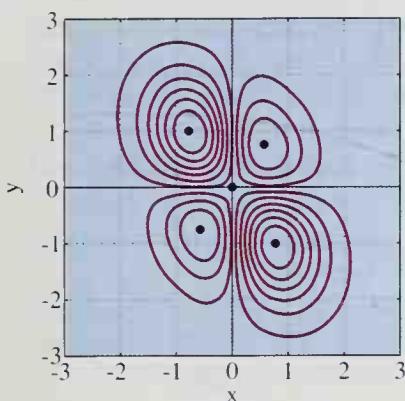


Fig. 13.10.22 Contour plot for the function in Eq. (1)

INVESTIGATION B: Let a and b be the two smallest distinct nonzero digits (in either order) of your student I.D. number. Then find the local maximum, local minimum, and saddle points on the surface

$$z = 5(ax^2 + xy + by^2)\exp(-x^2 - y^2). \quad (2)$$

First plot a graph of the surface to see where the action is. Attempt to choose the range so you can see all the critical points on the surface. Then use a contour plot to estimate the locations of the critical points. Next, use these estimates as initial values to solve numerically the critical point equations $f_x(x, y) = 0 = f_y(x, y)$. Finally, apply the two-variable second derivative test (Theorem 1 of this section) to classify the type of each of these critical points. You might verify that reality agrees with theory by constructing a contour plot of a small neighborhood of one or two selected critical points to verify that the picture looks as it should. Do your numerical results agree with your original surface plot?

INVESTIGATION C: Repeat Investigation B with the surface

$$z = 10\left(x^3 + y^5 + \frac{x}{p}\right)\exp(-x^2 - y^2) + \frac{1}{3}\exp(-(x-1)^2 - y^2),$$

where p is the largest digit in your student I.D. number.

CHAPTER 13 REVIEW: Definitions, Concepts, Results

Use the following list as a guide to concepts that you may need to review.

1. Graphs and level curves of functions of two variables
2. Limits and continuity of functions of two or three variables
3. Partial derivatives—definition and computation
4. Geometric interpretation of partial derivatives and the plane tangent to the surface $z = f(x, y)$
5. Absolute and local maxima and minima
6. Necessary conditions for a local extremum
7. Increments and differentials of functions of two or three variables
8. The linear approximation theorem

9. The chain rule for functions of several variables
10. Directional derivatives—definition and computation
11. The gradient vector and the chain rule
12. Significance of the length and direction of the gradient vector
13. The gradient vector as a normal vector; tangent plane to a surface $F(x, y, z) = 0$
14. Constrained maximum-minimum problems and the Lagrange multiplier method
15. Sufficient conditions for a local extremum of a function of two variables

CHAPTER 13 MISCELLANEOUS PROBLEMS

1. Use the method of Example 5 of Section 13.3 to show that

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2y^2}{x^2 + y^2} = 0.$$

2. Use spherical coordinates to show that

$$\lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (0,0,0)} \frac{x^3 + y^3 - z^3}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = 0.$$

3. Suppose that

$$g(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$$

if $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$; we define $g(0, 0)$ to be zero. Show that g is not continuous at $(0, 0)$.

4. Compute $g_x(0, 0)$ and $g_y(0, 0)$ for the function g of Problem 3.

5. Find a function $f(x, y)$ such that

$$f_x(x, y) = 2xy^3 + e^y \sin y$$

and

$$f_y(x, y) = 3x^2y^2 + e^y \cos y + 1.$$

6. Prove that there is no function f with continuous second-order partial derivatives such that $f_x(x, y) = 6xy^2$ and $f_y(x, y) = 8x^2y$.
7. Find the point or points on the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ at which the normal line passes through the point $(0, 0, 1)$.
8. Write an equation of the plane tangent to the surface

$$\sin xy + \sin yz + \sin xz = 1$$

at the point $(1, \pi/2, 0)$.

9. Prove that every line normal to the cone with equation $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ intersects the z -axis.
10. Show that the function

$$u(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi kt}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{4kt}\right)$$

satisfies the one-dimensional heat equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = k \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}.$$

11. Show that the function

$$u(x, y, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi kt} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{4kt}\right)$$

satisfies the two-dimensional heat equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = k \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right).$$

12. Let

$$f(x, y) = \frac{xy(x^2 - y^2)}{x^2 + y^2}$$

unless $(x, y) = (0, 0)$; we define $f(0, 0)$ to be zero. Show that the second-order partial derivatives f_{xx} , f_{xy} , f_{yy} , and f_{yy} all exist at $(0, 0)$ but that $f_{xy}(0, 0) \neq f_{yx}(0, 0)$.

13. Define the partial derivatives \mathbf{r}_x and \mathbf{r}_y of the vector-valued function $\mathbf{r}(x, y) = \mathbf{i}x + \mathbf{j}y + \mathbf{k}f(x, y)$ by componentwise partial differentiation. Then show that the vector $\mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_y$ is normal to the surface $z = f(x, y)$.
14. An open-topped rectangular box is to have total surface area 300 cm^2 . Find the dimensions that maximize its volume.

15. You must build a rectangular shipping crate with volume 60 ft^3 . Its sides cost $\$1/\text{ft}^2$, its top costs $\$2/\text{ft}^2$, and its bottom costs $\$3/\text{ft}^2$. What dimensions would minimize the total cost of the box?

16. A pyramid is bounded by the three coordinate planes and by the plane tangent to the surface $xyz = 1$ at a point in the first octant. Find the volume of this pyramid (it is independent of the point of tangency).
17. Two resistors have resistances R_1 and R_2 , respectively. When they are connected in parallel, the total resistance R of the resulting circuit satisfies the equation

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}.$$

Suppose that R_1 and R_2 are measured to be 300 and 600Ω (ohms), respectively, with a maximum error of 1% in each measurement. Use differentials to estimate the maximum error (in ohms) in the calculated value of R .

18. Consider a gas that satisfies van der Waals' equation (see Problem 67 of Section 13.4). Use differentials to approximate the change in its volume if p is increased from 1 atm to 1.1 atm and T is decreased from 313 K to 303 K .
19. Each of the semiaxes a , b , and c of an ellipsoid with volume $V = \frac{4}{3}\pi abc$ is measured with a maximum percentage error of 1% . Use differentials to estimate the maximum percentage error in the calculated value of V .
20. Two spheres have radii a and b , and the distance between their centers is $c < a + b$. Thus the spheres meet in a common circle. Let P be a point on this circle, and let \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 be the planes tangent at P to the two spheres. Find the angle between \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 in terms of a , b , and c . (Suggestion: Recall that the angle between two planes is, by definition, the angle between their normal vectors.)
21. Find every point on the surface of the ellipsoid $x^2 + 4y^2 + 9z^2 = 16$ at which the normal line at the point passes through the center $(0, 0, 0)$ of the ellipsoid.
22. Suppose that

$$F(x) = \int_{g(x)}^{h(x)} f(t) dt.$$

Show that

$$F'(x) = f(h(x))h'(x) - f(g(x))g'(x).$$

(Suggestion: Write $w = \int_u^v f(t) dt$ where $u = g(x)$ and $v = h(x)$.)

23. Suppose that \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , and \mathbf{c} are mutually perpendicular unit vectors in space and that f is a function of the three independent variables x , y , and z . Show that

$$\nabla f = \mathbf{a}(D_a f) + \mathbf{b}(D_b f) + \mathbf{c}(D_c f).$$

24. Let $\mathbf{R} = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta, 0)$ and $\Theta = (-\sin \theta, \cos \theta, 0)$ be the polar-coordinates unit vectors. Given $f(x, y, z) = w(r, \theta, z)$, show that

$$D_{\mathbf{R}} f = \frac{\partial w}{\partial r} \quad \text{and} \quad D_{\Theta} f = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta}.$$

Then conclude from Problem 23 that the gradient vector is given in cylindrical coordinates by

$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial w}{\partial r} \mathbf{R} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial w}{\partial \theta} \Theta + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \mathbf{k}.$$

25. Suppose that you are standing at the point with coordinates $(-100, -100, 430)$ on a hill that has the shape of the graph of

$$z = 500 - (0.003)x^2 - (0.004)y^2$$

(in units of meters). In what (horizontal) direction should you move in order to maintain a constant altitude—that is, to neither climb nor descend the hill?

26. Suppose that the blood concentration in the ocean at the point (x, y) is given by

$$f(x, y) = A \exp(-k[x^2 + 2y^2]),$$

where A and k are positive constants. A shark always swims in the direction of ∇f . Show that its path is a parabola $y = cx^2$. (Suggestion: Show that the condition that $(dx/dt, dy/dt)$ is a multiple of ∇f implies that

$$\frac{1}{x} \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{2y} \frac{dy}{dt}.$$

Then antidifferentiate this equation.)

27. Consider a plane tangent to the surface with equation $x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} + z^{2/3} = 1$. Find the sum of the squares of the x -, y -, and z -intercepts of this plane.
28. Find the points on the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$ (with $a \neq b$) where the normal line passes through the origin.
29. (a) Show that the origin is a critical point of the function f of Problem 12. (b) Show that f does not have a local extremum at $(0, 0)$.
30. Find the point of the surface $z = xy + 1$ that is closest to the origin.
31. Use the method of Problem 38 in Section 13.9 to find the semiaxes of the rotated ellipse

$$73x^2 + 72xy + 52y^2 = 100.$$

32. Use the Lagrange multiplier method to show that the longest chord of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ has length 2.

(Suggestion: There is no loss of generality in assuming that $(1, 0, 0)$ is one endpoint of the chord.)

33. Use the method of Lagrange multipliers, the law of cosines, and Fig. 13.9.9 to find the triangle of minimum perimeter inscribed in the unit circle.
34. When a current I enters two resistors, with resistances R_1 and R_2 , that are connected in parallel, it splits into two currents I_1 and I_2 (with $I = I_1 + I_2$) in such a way as to minimize the total power $R_1 I_1^2 + R_2 I_2^2$. Express I_1 and I_2 in terms of R_1 , R_2 , and I . Then derive the formula of Problem 17.
35. Use the method of Lagrange multipliers to find the points of the ellipse $x^2 + 2y^2 = 1$ that are closest to and farthest from the line $x + y = 2$. (Suggestion: Let $f(x, y, u, v)$ denote the square of the distance between the point (x, y) of the ellipse and the point (u, v) of the line.)
36. (a) Show that the maximum of
- $$f(x, y, z) = x + y + z$$
- at points of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ is $a\sqrt{3}$.
- (b) Conclude from the result of part (a) that
- $$(x + y + z)^2 \leq 3(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$$
- for any three numbers x , y , and z .
37. Generalize the method of Problem 36 to show that
- $$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right)^2 \leq n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$
- for any n real numbers x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .
38. Find the maximum and minimum values of $f(x, y) = xy - x - y$ at points on and within the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(0, 1)$, and $(3, 0)$.
39. Find the maximum and minimum values of $f(x, y, z) = x^2 - yz$ at points of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$.
40. Find the maximum and minimum values of $f(x, y) = x^2y^2$ at points of the ellipse $x^2 + 4y^2 = 24$.
- Locate and classify the critical points (local maxima, local minima, saddle points, and other points at which the tangent plane is horizontal) of the functions in Problems 41 through 50.
41. $f(x, y) = x^3y - 3xy + y^2$
42. $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + y^2 - 6x + 2$
43. $f(x, y) = x^3 - 6xy + y^3$
44. $f(x, y) = x^2y + xy^2 + x + y$
45. $f(x, y) = x^3y^2(1 - x - y)$
46. $f(x, y) = x^4 - 2x^2 + y^2 + 4y + 3$
47. $f(x, y) = e^{xy} - 2xy$
48. $f(x, y) = x^3 - y^3 + x^2 + y^2$
49. $f(x, y) = (x - y)(xy - 1)$

50. $f(x, y) = (2x^2 + y^2)\exp(-x^2 - y^2)$
51. Given the data points (x_i, y_i) for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, the **least-squares straight line** $y = mx + b$ is the line that best fits these data in the following sense. Let $d_i = y_i - (mx_i + b)$ be the deviation of the predicted value $mx_i + b$ from the true value y_i . Let

$$f(m, b) = d_1^2 + d_2^2 + \dots + d_n^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - (mx_i + b)]^2$$

be the sum of the squares of the deviations. The least-squares straight line is the one that minimizes this sum (Fig. 13.MP.1). Show how to choose m and b by minimizing f . (Note: The only variables in this computation are m and b .) Apply the two-variable second derivative test of Section 13.10 to verify that the single critical point of f is, indeed, a local minimum point.

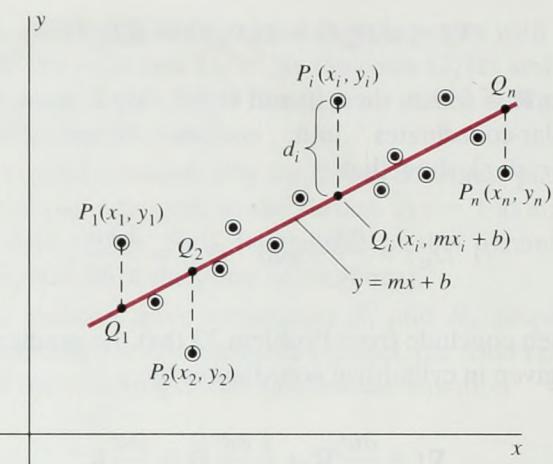


Fig. 13.MP.1 Fitting the best straight line to the data points (x_i, y_i) , $1 \leq i \leq n$ (Problem 51)

MULTIPLE INTEGRALS



Henri Lebesgue (1875–1941)

Geometric problems of *measure*—dealing with concepts of length, area, and volume—can be traced back 40 centuries to the rise of civilizations in the fertile river valleys of Africa and Asia, when such issues as areas of fields and volume of granaries became important. These problems led ultimately to the *integral*, which is used to calculate (among other things) areas and volumes of curvilinear figures. But only in the early twentieth century were certain long-standing difficulties with measure and integration finally resolved, largely as a consequence of the work of the French mathematician Henri Lebesgue.

In his 1902 thesis presented at the Sorbonne in Paris, Lebesgue presented a new definition of the integral, generalizing Riemann's definition. In essence, to define the integral of the function f from

$x = a$ to $x = b$, Lebesgue replaced Riemann's subdivision of the interval $[a, b]$ into nonoverlapping subintervals with a partition of $[a, b]$ into disjoint measurable sets $\{E_i\}$. The Riemann sum $\sum f(x_i^*) \Delta x$ was thereby replaced with a sum of the form $\sum f(x_i^*) m_i$, where m_i is the measure of the i th set E_i and x_i^* is a number in E_i . To see the advantage of the “Lebesgue integral,” consider the fact that there exist differentiable functions whose derivatives are not integrable in the sense of Riemann. For such a function, the fundamental theorem of calculus in the form

$$\int_a^b f'(x) dx = f(b) - f(a)$$

fails to hold. But with his new definition of the integral, Lebesgue showed that a derivative function f' is integrable and that the funda-

mental theorem holds. Similarly, the equality of double and iterated integrals (Section 14.1) holds only under rather drastic restrictions if the Riemann definition of multiple integrals is used, but the Lebesgue integral resolves the difficulty.

For such reasons, the Lebesgue theory of measure and integration predominates in modern mathematical research, both pure and applied. For instance, the Lebesgue integral is basic to such diverse realms as applied probability and mathematical biology, the quantum theory of atoms and nuclei, and the information theory and electric signals processing of modern computer technology.

The Section 14.5 Project illustrates the application of multiple integrals to such concrete problems as the optimal design of race car wheels.



We could use multiple integrals to determine the best design for the wheels of these soapbox derby cars.

14.1 DOUBLE INTEGRALS

This chapter is devoted to integrals of functions of two or three variables. Such integrals are called **multiple integrals**. The applications of multiple integrals include computation of area, volume, mass, and surface area in a wider variety of situations than can be handled with the single integral of Chapters 5 and 6.

The simplest sort of multiple integral is the *double integral*

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA$$

of a continuous function $f(x, y)$ over the *rectangle*

$$R = [a, b] \times [c, d] = \{(x, y) | a \leq x \leq b, c \leq y \leq d\}$$

in the xy -plane. Just as the definition of the single integral is motivated by the problem of computing areas, the definition of the double integral is motivated by the problem of computing the volume V of the solid of Fig. 14.1.1—a solid bounded above by the graph $z = f(x, y)$ of the nonnegative function f over the rectangle R in the xy -plane.

To define the *value*

$$V = \iint_R f(x, y) dA$$

of such a double integral, we begin with an approximation to V . To obtain this approximation, the first step is to construct a **partition** \mathcal{P} of R into subrectangles R_1, R_2, \dots, R_k determined by the points

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_m = b$$

of $[a, b]$ and

$$c = y_0 < y_1 < y_2 < \dots < y_n = d$$

of $[c, d]$. Such a partition of R into $k = mn$ rectangles is shown in Fig. 14.1.2. The order in which these rectangles are labeled makes no difference.

Next we choose an arbitrary point (x_i^*, y_i^*) of the i th rectangle R_i for each i (where $1 \leq i \leq k$). The collection of points $S = \{(x_i^*, y_i^*) | 1 \leq i \leq k\}$ is called a **selection** for the partition $\mathcal{P} = \{R_i | 1 \leq i \leq k\}$. As a measure of the size of the rectangles of the partition \mathcal{P} , we define its **norm** $|\mathcal{P}|$ to be the maximum of the lengths of the diagonals of the rectangles $\{R_i\}$.

Now consider a rectangular column that rises straight up from the xy -plane. Its base is the rectangle R_i and its height is the value $f(x_i^*, y_i^*)$ of f at the selected point (x_i^*, y_i^*) of R_i . One such column is shown in Fig. 14.1.3. If ΔA_i denotes the area of R_i , then the volume of the i th column is $f(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i$. The sum of the volumes of all such columns (Fig. 14.1.4) is the **Riemann sum**

$$\sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i, \quad (1)$$

an approximation to the volume V of the solid region that lies above the rectangle R and under the graph $z = f(x, y)$.

We would expect to determine the exact volume V by taking the limit of the Riemann sum in Eq. (1) as the norm $|\mathcal{P}|$ of the partition \mathcal{P} approaches zero. We therefore define the **(double) integral** of the function f over the rectangle R to be

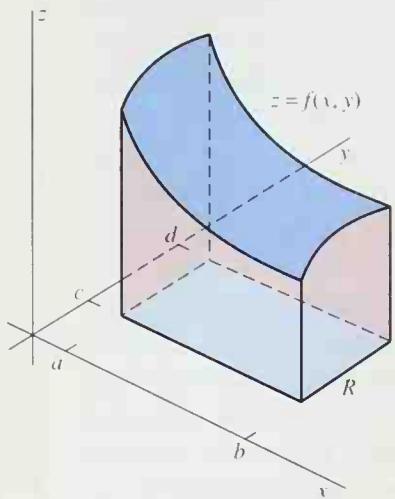


Fig. 14.1.1 We will use a double integral to compute the volume V .

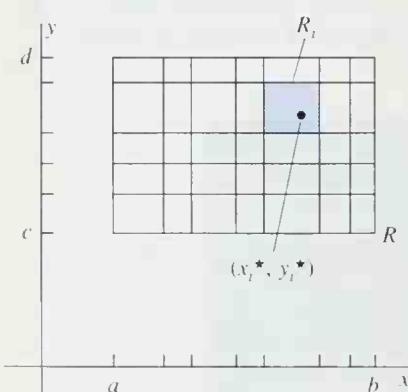


Fig. 14.1.2 A partition \mathcal{P} of the rectangle R

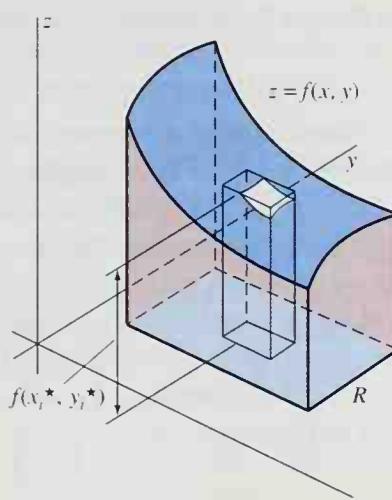


Fig. 14.1.3 Approximating the volume under the surface by summing volumes of towers with rectangular bases

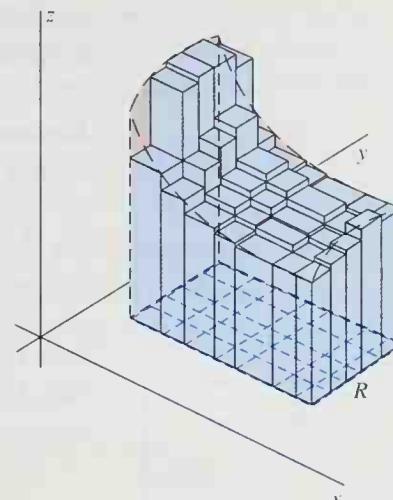


Fig. 14.1.4 Columns corresponding to a partition of the rectangle R

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \lim_{|\mathcal{P}| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i \quad (2)$$

provided that this limit exists (we will make the concept of the existence of such a limit more precise in Section 14.2). It is proved in advanced calculus that the limit in Eq. (2) *does* exist if f is continuous on R . To motivate the introduction of the Riemann sum in Eq. (1), we assumed that f was nonnegative on R , but Eq. (2) serves to define the double integral over a rectangle whether or not f is nonnegative.

EXAMPLE 1 Approximate the value of the integral

$$\iint_R (4x^3 + 6xy^2) dA$$

over the rectangle $R = [1, 3] \times [-1, 2]$, by calculating the Riemann sum in (1) for the partition illustrated in Fig. 14.1.5, with the i th point (x_i^*, y_i^*) selected as the center of the i th rectangle R_i (for each i , $1 \leq i \leq 6$).

Solution Each of the six partition rectangles shown in Fig. 14.1.5 is a unit square with area $\Delta A_i = 1$. With $f(x, y) = 4x^3 + 6xy^2$, the desired Riemann sum is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^6 f(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i &= f(x_1^*, y_1^*) \Delta A_1 + f(x_2^*, y_2^*) \Delta A_2 + f(x_3^*, y_3^*) \Delta A_3 \\ &\quad + f(x_4^*, y_4^*) \Delta A_4 + f(x_5^*, y_5^*) \Delta A_5 + f(x_6^*, y_6^*) \Delta A_6 \\ &= f\left(\frac{3}{2}, -\frac{3}{2}\right)(1) + f\left(\frac{5}{2}, -\frac{3}{2}\right)(1) + f\left(\frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\right)(1) \\ &\quad + f\left(\frac{5}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\right)(1) + f\left(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)(1) + f\left(\frac{5}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)(1) \\ &= \frac{135}{4} \cdot 1 + \frac{385}{4} \cdot 1 + \frac{63}{4} \cdot 1 + \frac{265}{4} \cdot 1 + \frac{63}{4} \cdot 1 + \frac{265}{4} \cdot 1 = 294. \end{aligned}$$

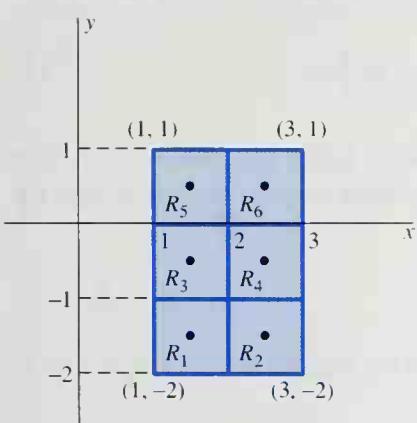


Fig. 14.1.5 The partition in Example 1

Thus we find that

$$\iint_R (4x^3 + 6xy^2) dA \approx 294.$$

but our calculation provides no information about the accuracy of this approximation.

REMARK The single-integral approximation methods of Section 5.9 all have analogues for double integrals. In Example 1 we calculated the *midpoint approximation* to the given double integral using six equal rectangles. If we divide each rectangle in Fig. 14.1.5 into four equal subrectangles, we get a partition of R into 24 rectangles. Suppose that we continue in this way, quadrupling the number of equal rectangles at each step, and use a computer to calculate each time the Riemann sum defined by selecting the center of each rectangle. Then we get the midpoint approximations listed in Fig. 14.1.6. In Example 2 we will see (much more easily) that the exact value of the integral in Example 1 is

$$\iint_R (4x^3 + 6xy^2) dA = 312.$$

Iterated Integrals

The direct evaluation of the limit in Eq. (2) is generally even less practical than the direct evaluation of the limit we used in Section 5.4 to define the single-variable integral. In practice, we shall calculate double integrals over rectangles by means of the **iterated integrals** that appear in Theorem 1.

Theorem 1 Double Integrals as Iterated Single Integrals

Suppose that $f(x, y)$ is continuous on the rectangle $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$. Then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \int_a^b \left(\int_c^d f(x, y) dy \right) dx = \int_c^d \left(\int_a^b f(x, y) dx \right) dy. \quad (3)$$

Theorem 1 tells us how to compute a double integral by means of two successive (or *iterated*) single-variable integrations, both of which we can compute by using the fundamental theorem of calculus (if the function f is sufficiently well-behaved on R).

Let us explain what we mean by the parentheses in the iterated integral

$$\int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) dy dx = \int_a^b \left(\int_c^d f(x, y) dy \right) dx. \quad (4)$$

First we hold x constant and integrate with respect to y , from $y = c$ to $y = d$. The result of this first integration is the **partial integral of f with respect to y** , denoted by

$$\int_c^d f(x, y) dy,$$

and it is a function of x alone. Then we integrate this latter function with respect to x , from $x = a$ to $x = b$.

Similarly, we calculate the iterated integral

$$\int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) dx dy = \int_c^d \left(\int_a^b f(x, y) dx \right) dy \quad (5)$$

by first integrating from a to b with respect to x (while holding y fixed) and then integrating the result from c to d with respect to y . The order of integration (either first with respect to x and then with respect to y , or the reverse) is determined by the order

Number of subrectangles	Midpoint approximation
6	294.00
24	307.50
96	310.88
384	311.72
1536	311.93
6144	311.98

Fig. 14.1.6 Midpoint approximations to the integral in Example 1

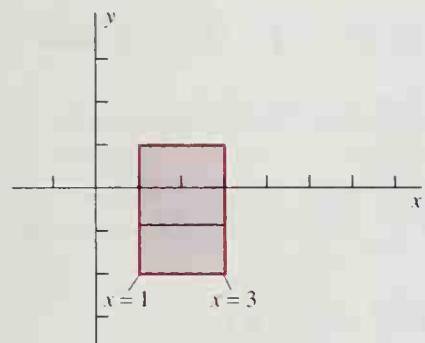
in which the differentials dx and dy appear in the iterated integrals in Eqs. (4) and (5). We almost always work “from the inside out.” Theorem 1 guarantees that the value obtained is independent of the order of integration provided that f is continuous on R .

EXAMPLE 2 Compute the iterated integrals in Eqs. (4) and (5) for the function $f(x, y) = 4x^3 + 6xy^2$ on the rectangle $R = [1, 3] \times [-2, 1]$.

Solution The rectangle R is shown in Fig. 14.1.7, where the vertical segment (on which x is constant) corresponds to the inner integral in Eq. (4). Its endpoints lie at heights $y = -2$ and $y = 1$, which are therefore the limits on the inner integral. So Eq. (4) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^3 \left(\int_{-2}^1 (4x^3 + 6xy^2) dy \right) dx &= \int_1^3 \left[4x^3 y + 2xy^3 \right]_{y=-2}^1 dx \\ &= \int_1^3 [(4x^3 + 2x) - (-8x^3 - 16x)] dx \\ &= \int_1^3 (12x^3 + 18x) dx \\ &= \left[3x^4 + 9x^2 \right]_1^3 = 312. \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 14.1.7 The inner limits of the first iterated integral (Example 2)



The horizontal segment (on which y is constant) in Fig. 14.1.8 corresponds to the inner integral in Eq. (5). Its endpoints lie at $x = 1$ and $x = 3$ (the limits of integration for x), so Eq. (5) gives

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-2}^1 \left(\int_1^3 (4x^3 + 6xy^2) dx \right) dy &= \int_{-2}^1 \left[x^4 + 3x^2 y^2 \right]_{x=1}^3 dy \\ &= \int_{-2}^1 [(81 + 27y^2) - (1 + 3y^2)] dy \\ &= \int_{-2}^1 (80 + 24y^2) dy \\ &= \left[80y + 8y^3 \right]_{-2}^1 = 312. \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 14.1.8 The inner limits of the second iterated integral (Example 2)

When we note that iterated double integrals are almost always evaluated from the inside out, it becomes clear that the parentheses appearing on the right-hand sides in Eqs. (4) and (5) are unnecessary. They are therefore generally omitted, as in Examples 3 and 4. When $dy\,dx$ appears in the integrand, we integrate first with respect to y , whereas the appearance of $dx\,dy$ tells us to integrate first with respect to x .

EXAMPLE 3 See Fig. 14.1.9.

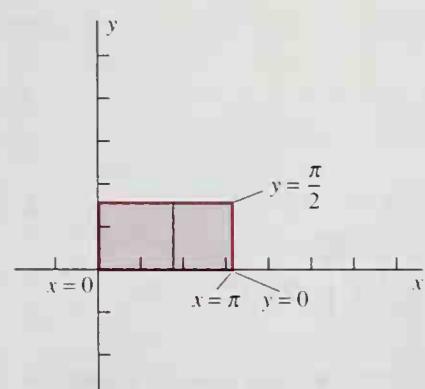


Fig. 14.1.9 Example 3

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\pi \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos x \cos y\,dy\,dx &= \int_0^\pi \left[\cos x \sin y \right]_{y=0}^{\pi/2} dx \\ &= \int_0^\pi \cos x dx = \left[\sin x \right]_0^\pi = 0. \end{aligned}$$

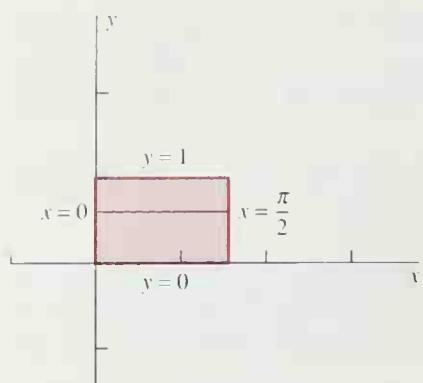


Fig. 14.1.10 Example 4

EXAMPLE 4 See Fig. 14.1.10.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^{\pi/2} (e^y + \sin x) dx dy &= \int_0^1 \left[xe^y - \cos x \right]_{x=0}^{\pi/2} dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{2}\pi e^y + 1 \right) dy \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{2}\pi e^y + y \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{2}\pi(e - 1) + 1. \end{aligned}$$

Iterated Integrals and Cross Sections

An outline of the proof of Theorem 1 illuminates the relationship between iterated integrals and the method of cross sections (for computing volumes) discussed in Section 6.2. First we partition $[a, b]$ into n equal subintervals, each of length $\Delta x = (b - a)/n$, and we also partition $[c, d]$ into n equal subintervals, each of length $\Delta y = (d - c)/n$. This gives n^2 rectangles, each of which has area $\Delta A = \Delta x \Delta y$. Choose a point x_i^* in $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ for each i , $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then the average value theorem for single integrals (Section 5.6) gives a point y_{ij}^* in $[y_{j-1}, y_j]$ such that

$$\int_{y_{j-1}}^{y_j} f(x_i^*, y) dy = f(x_i^*, y_{ij}^*) \Delta y.$$

This gives us the selected point (x_i^*, y_{ij}^*) in the rectangle $[x_{i-1}, x_i] \times [y_{j-1}, y_j]$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R f(x, y) dA &\approx \sum_{i,j=1}^n f(x_i^*, y_{ij}^*) \Delta A = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_i^*, y_{ij}^*) \Delta y \Delta x \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \int_{y_{j-1}}^{y_j} f(x_i^*, y) dy \right) \Delta x \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\int_c^d f(x_i^*, y) dy \right) \Delta x \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n A(x_i^*) \Delta x, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$A(x) = \int_c^d f(x, y) dy.$$

Moreover, the last sum is a Riemann sum for the integral

$$\int_a^b A(x) dx,$$

so the result of our computation is

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA \approx \sum_{i=1}^n A(x_i^*) \Delta x \approx \int_a^b A(x) dx = \int_a^b \left(\int_c^d f(x, y) dy \right) dx.$$

We can convert this outline into a complete proof of Theorem 1 by showing that the preceding approximations become equalities when we take limits as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.

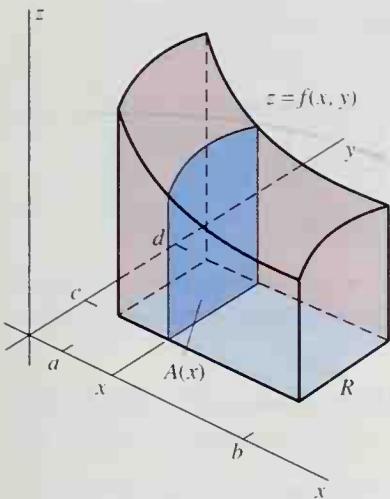


Fig. 14.1.11 The area of the cross section at x is

$$A(x) = \int_c^d f(x, y) dy.$$

14.1 PROBLEMS

1. Approximate the integral

$$\iint_R (4x^3 + 6xy^2) dA$$

of Example 1 using the partition shown in Fig. 14.1.5, but selecting each (x_i^*, y_i^*) as (a) the lower left corner of the rectangle R_i ; (b) the upper right corner of the rectangle R_i .

2. Approximate the integral

$$\iint_R (4x^3 + 6xy^2) dA$$

as in Problem 1, but selecting each (x_i^*, y_i^*) as (a) the upper left corner of the rectangle R_i ; (b) the lower right corner of the rectangle R_i .

In Problems 3 through 8, calculate the Riemann sum for

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA$$

using the given partition and selection of points (x_i^*, y_i^*) for the rectangle R_i .

3. $f(x, y) = x + y$; $R = [0, 2] \times [0, 2]$; the partition \mathcal{P} consists of four unit squares; each (x_i^*, y_i^*) is the center point of the i th rectangle R_i .
4. $f(x, y) = xy$; $R = [0, 2] \times [0, 2]$; the partition \mathcal{P} consists of four unit squares; each (x_i^*, y_i^*) is the center point of the i th rectangle R_i .
5. $f(x, y) = x^2 - 2y$; $R = [2, 6] \times [-1, 1]$; the partition \mathcal{P} consists of four equal rectangles of width $\Delta x = 2$ and height $\Delta y = 1$; each (x_i^*, y_i^*) is the lower left corner of the i th rectangle R_i .

In case the function f is nonnegative on R , the function $A(x)$ introduced here gives the area of the vertical cross section of R perpendicular to the x -axis (Fig. 14.1.11). Thus the iterated integral in Eq. (4) expresses the volume V as the integral from $x = a$ to $x = b$ of the cross-sectional area function $A(x)$. Similarly, the iterated integral in Eq. (5) expresses V as the integral from $y = c$ to $y = d$ of the function

$$A(y) = \int_a^b f(x, y) dx,$$

which gives the area of a vertical cross section in a plane perpendicular to the y -axis. [Although it seems appropriate to use the notation $A(y)$ here, note that $A(x)$ and $A(y)$ are by no means the same function!]

6. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$; $R = [0, 2] \times [0, 3]$; the partition \mathcal{P} consists of six unit squares; each (x_i^*, y_i^*) is the upper right corner of the i th rectangle R_i .
7. $f(x, y) = \sin x \sin y$; $R = [0, \pi] \times [0, \pi]$; the partition \mathcal{P} consists of four equal squares; each (x_i^*, y_i^*) is the center point of the i th rectangle R_i .
8. $f(x, y) = \sin 4xy$; $R = [0, 1] \times [0, \pi]$; the partition \mathcal{P} consists of six equal rectangles of width $\Delta x = \frac{1}{2}$ and height $\Delta y = \frac{1}{3}\pi$; each (x_i^*, y_i^*) is the center point of the i th rectangle R_i .

In Problems 9 and 10, let L , M , and U denote the Riemann sums calculated for the given function f and the indicated partition \mathcal{P} by selecting the lower left corners, midpoints, and upper right corners (respectively) of the rectangles in \mathcal{P} . Without actually calculating any of these Riemann sums, arrange them in increasing order of size.

9. $f(x, y) = x^2y^2$; $R = [1, 3] \times [2, 5]$; the partition \mathcal{P} consists of six unit squares.
10. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{100 - x^2 - y^2}$; $R = [1, 4] \times [2, 5]$; the partition \mathcal{P} consists of nine unit squares.

Evaluate the iterated integrals in Problems 11 through 30.

11. $\int_0^2 \int_0^4 (3x + 4y) dx dy$
12. $\int_0^3 \int_0^2 x^2y dx dy$
13. $\int_{-1}^2 \int_1^3 (2x - 7y) dy dx$
14. $\int_{-2}^1 \int_2^4 x^2y^3 dy dx$
15. $\int_0^3 \int_0^3 (xy + 7x + y) dx dy$
16. $\int_0^2 \int_2^4 (x^2y^2 - 17) dx dy$
17. $\int_{-1}^2 \int_{-1}^2 (2xy^2 - 3x^2y) dy dx$

18. $\int_1^3 \int_{-3}^{-1} (x^3y - xy^3) dy dx$

19. $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin x \cos y dx dy$

20. $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos x \sin y dy dx$

21. $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 xe^y dy dx$

22. $\int_0^1 \int_{-2}^2 x^2 e^y dx dy$

23. $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\pi} e^x \sin y dy dx$

24. $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 e^{x+y} dx dy$

25. $\int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (xy + \sin x) dx dy$

26. $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} (y - 1) \cos x dx dy$

27. $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_1^e \frac{\sin y}{x} dx dy$

28. $\int_1^e \int_1^e \frac{1}{xy} dy dx$

29. $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{x+1} + \frac{1}{y+1} \right) dx dy$

30. $\int_1^2 \int_1^3 \left(\frac{x}{y} + \frac{y}{x} \right) dy dx$

In Problems 31 through 34, verify that the values of

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA$$

given by the iterated integrals in Eqs. (4) and (5) are indeed equal.

31. $f(x, y) = 2xy - 3y^2; R = [-1, 1] \times [-2, 2]$

32. $f(x, y) = \sin x \cos y; R = [0, \pi] \times [-\pi/2, \pi/2]$

33. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x+y}; R = [0, 1] \times [1, 2]$

34. $f(x, y) = e^{x+y}; R = [0, \ln 2] \times [0, \ln 3]$

35. Prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^n y^n dx dy = 0.$$

36. Suppose that $f(x, y) = k$ is a constant-valued function and $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$. Use Riemann sums to prove that

$$\iint_R k dA = k(b-a)(d-c).$$

37. Use Riemann sums to show, without calculating the value of the integral, that

$$0 \leq \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sin \sqrt{xy} dx dy \leq \pi^2.$$

Problems 38 through 40 list properties of double integrals that are analogous to familiar properties of single integrals. In each case state the corresponding relation between Riemann sums associated with a given partition and selection for the rectangle R .

38. $\iint_R cf(x, y) dA = c \iint_R f(x, y) dA \quad (c \text{ is a constant}).$

39.
$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R [f(x, y) + g(x, y)] dA \\ = \iint_R f(x, y) dA + \iint_R g(x, y) dA. \end{aligned}$$

40. If $f(x, y) \leq g(x, y)$ at each point of R , then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA \leq \iint_R g(x, y) dA.$$

14.1 PROJECT: MIDPOINT APPROXIMATIONS OF DOUBLE INTEGRALS

This project explores the *midpoint approximation* to the double integral

$$I = \iint_R f(x, y) dA \tag{1}$$

of the function $f(x, y)$ over the plane rectangle $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$. To define the midpoint approximation, let $[a, b]$ be partitioned into m subintervals, all with the same length $h = \Delta x = (b-a)/m$, and let $[c, d]$ be partitioned into n subintervals, all with the same length $k = \Delta y = (d-c)/n$. For each i and j ($1 \leq i \leq m$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$), let u_i and v_j denote the *midpoints* of the i th subinterval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ and the j th subinterval $[y_{j-1}, y_j]$, respectively. Then the corresponding **midpoint approximation** to the double integral I is the sum

$$S_{mn} = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n f(u_i, v_j) hk. \tag{2}$$

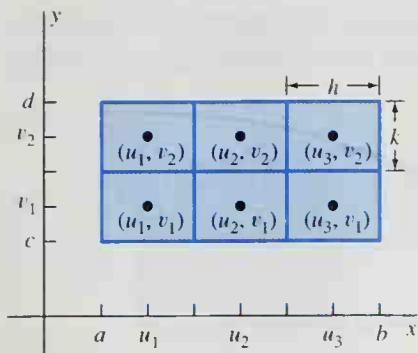


Fig. 14.1.12 The points used in the midpoint approximation

Figure 14.1.12 illustrates the case $m = 3$, $n = 2$, in which $h = (b - a)/3$, $k = (d - c)/2$, and

$$S_{32} = hk[f(u_1, v_1) + f(u_2, v_1) + f(u_3, v_1) + f(u_1, v_2) + f(u_2, v_2) + f(u_3, v_2)].$$

The midpoint sum in Eq. (2) can be calculated painlessly using computer algebra system commands such as

`sum(sum(f(a-h/2+i*h, c-k/2+j*k), i=1..m), j=1..n)*h*k`
in *Maple* or

`Sum[f[x,y], {x, a+h/2, b-h/2, h}, {y, c+k/2, d-k/2, k}]*h*k`

in *Mathematica*. For each of the double integrals in Problems 1 through 6, first calculate the midpoint approximation S_{mn} with the indicated values of m and n . Then try larger values. Compare each numerical approximation with the exact value of the integral.

1. $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) dy dx, \quad m = n = 2$
2. $\int_0^3 \int_0^2 (2x + 3y) dy dx, \quad m = 3, \quad n = 2$
3. $\int_0^2 \int_0^2 xy dy dx, \quad m = n = 2$
4. $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 y dy dx, \quad m = n = 3$
5. $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin x \sin y dy dx, \quad m = n = 2$
6. $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^1 \frac{\cos x}{1 + y^2} dy dx, \quad m = n = 2$

14.2 DOUBLE INTEGRALS OVER MORE GENERAL REGIONS

Now we want to define and compute double integrals over regions more general than rectangles. Let the function f be defined on the plane region R , and suppose that R is **bounded**—that is, that R lies within some rectangle S . To define the (double) integral of f over R , we begin with a partition \mathcal{Q} of the rectangle S into subrectangles. Some of the rectangles of \mathcal{Q} will lie wholly within R , some will be outside R , and some will lie partly within and partly outside R . We consider the collection $\mathcal{P} = \{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_k\}$ of all those rectangles in \mathcal{Q} that lie *completely within* the region R . This collection \mathcal{P} is called the **inner partition** of the region R determined by the partition \mathcal{Q} of the rectangle S (Fig. 14.2.1). By the **norm** $|\mathcal{P}|$ of the inner partition \mathcal{P} we mean the norm of the partition \mathcal{Q} that determines \mathcal{P} . Note that $|\mathcal{P}|$ depends not only on \mathcal{P} but on \mathcal{Q} as well.

Using the inner partition \mathcal{P} of the region R , we can proceed in much the same way as in Section 14.1. By choosing an arbitrary point (x_i^*, y_i^*) in the i th rectangle R_i of \mathcal{P} for $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$, we obtain a **selection** for the inner partition \mathcal{P} . Let us denote by ΔA_i the area of R_i . Then this selection gives the **Riemann sum**

$$\sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i$$

associated with the inner partition \mathcal{P} . In case f is nonnegative on R , this Riemann sum approximates the volume of the three-dimensional region that lies under the

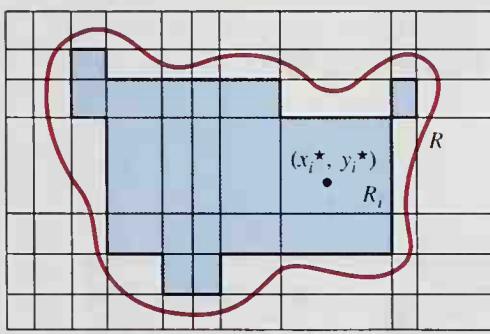


Fig. 14.2.1 The rectangular partition of S produces an associated inner partition (shown shaded) of the region R .

surface $z = f(x, y)$ and above the region R in the xy -plane. We therefore define the double integral of f over the region R by taking the limit of this Riemann sum as the norm $|\mathcal{P}|$ approaches zero. Thus

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \lim_{|\mathcal{P}| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i \quad (1)$$

provided that this limit exists in the sense of the following definition.

Definition *The Double Integral*

The **double integral** of the bounded function f over the plane region R is the number

$$I = \iint_R f(x, y) dA$$

provided that, for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\left| \sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i - I \right| < \epsilon$$

for every inner partition $\mathcal{P} = \{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_k\}$ of R that has norm $|\mathcal{P}| < \delta$ and every selection of points (x_i^*, y_i^*) in R_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, k$).

Thus the meaning of the limit in Eq. (1) is that the Riemann sum can be made arbitrarily close to the number

$$I = \iint_R f(x, y) dA$$

merely by choosing the norm of the inner partition \mathcal{P} sufficiently small. In this case we say that the function f is **integrable** on the region R .

Note If R is a rectangle and we choose $S = R$ (so that an inner partition of R is simply a partition of R), then the preceding definition reduces to our earlier definition of a double integral over a rectangle. In advanced calculus the double integral of the function f over the bounded plane region R is shown to exist provided that f is continuous on R and the *boundary* of R is reasonably well behaved. In particular, it suffices for the boundary of R to consist of a finite number of piecewise smooth simple closed curves (that is, each boundary curve consists of a finite number of smooth arcs).

Evaluation of Double Integrals

For certain common types of regions, we can evaluate double integrals by using iterated integrals in much the same way as when the region is a rectangle. The plane region R is called **vertically simple** if it can be described by means of the inequalities

$$a \leq x \leq b, \quad y_1(x) \leq y \leq y_2(x), \quad (2)$$

where $y_1(x)$ and $y_2(x)$ are continuous functions of x on $[a, b]$. Such a region appears in Fig. 14.2.2. The region R is called **horizontally simple** if it can be described by the inequalities

$$c \leq y \leq d, \quad x_1(y) \leq x \leq x_2(y), \quad (3)$$

where $x_1(y)$ and $x_2(y)$ are continuous functions of y on $[c, d]$. The region in Fig. 14.2.3 is horizontally simple.

Theorem 1 tells us how to compute by iterated integration a double integral over a region R that is either vertically simple or horizontally simple.

Theorem 1 Evaluation of Double Integrals

Suppose that $f(x, y)$ is continuous on the region R . If R is the vertically simple region given in (2), then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \int_a^b \int_{y_1(x)}^{y_2(x)} f(x, y) \, dy \, dx. \quad (4)$$

If R is the horizontally simple region given in (3), then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \int_c^d \int_{x_1(y)}^{x_2(y)} f(x, y) \, dx \, dy. \quad (5)$$

Theorem 1 here includes Theorem 1 of Section 14.1 as a special case (when R is a rectangle), and it can be proved by a generalization of the argument we outlined there.

EXAMPLE 1 Compute in two different ways the integral

$$\iint_R xy^2 \, dA,$$

where R is the first-quadrant region bounded by the two curves $y = \sqrt{x}$ and $y = x^3$.

Solution Always sketch the region R of integration before attempting to evaluate a double integral. As indicated in Figs. 14.2.4 and 14.2.5, the given region R is both vertically and horizontally simple. The vertical segment in Fig. 14.2.4 with endpoints on the curves $y = x^3$ and $y = \sqrt{x}$ corresponds to integrating first with respect to y :

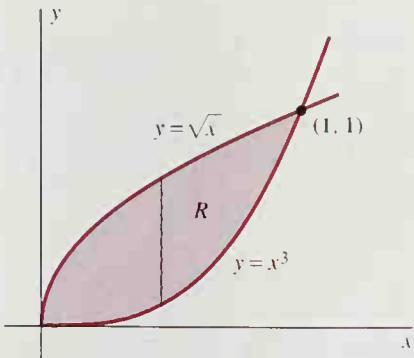


Fig. 14.2.4 The vertically simple region of Example 1

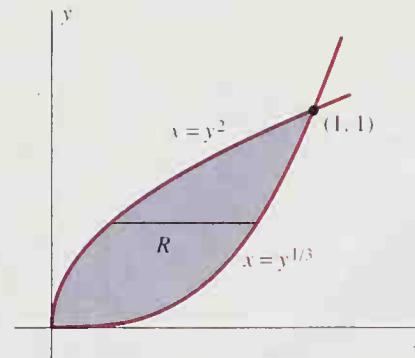


Fig. 14.2.5 The horizontally simple region of Example 1

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R xy^2 \, dA &= \int_0^1 \int_{x^3}^{\sqrt{x}} xy^2 \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 \left[\frac{1}{3} xy^3 \right]_{y=x^3}^{\sqrt{x}} \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{3} x^{5/2} - \frac{1}{3} x^{10} \right) \, dx = \frac{2}{21} - \frac{1}{33} = \frac{5}{77}.\end{aligned}$$

We get $x = y^2$ and $x = y^{1/3}$ when we solve the equations $y = \sqrt{x}$ and $y = x^3$ for x in terms of y . The horizontal segment in Fig. 14.2.5 corresponds to integrating first with respect to x :

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R xy^2 \, dA &= \int_0^1 \int_{y^2}^{y^{1/3}} xy^2 \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \left[\frac{1}{2} x^2 y^2 \right]_{x=y^2}^{y^{1/3}} \, dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{2} y^{8/3} - \frac{1}{2} y^6 \right) \, dy = \frac{3}{22} - \frac{1}{14} = \frac{5}{77}.\end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 2 Evaluate

$$\iint_R (6x + 2y^2) \, dA,$$

where R is the region bounded by the parabola $x = y^2$ and the straight line $x + y = 2$.

Solution The region R appears in Fig. 14.2.6. It is both horizontally and vertically simple. If we wished to integrate first with respect to y and then with respect to x , we would need to evaluate two integrals:

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \int_0^1 \int_{-\sqrt{x}}^{\sqrt{x}} (6x + 2y^2) \, dy \, dx + \int_1^4 \int_{-\sqrt{x}}^{2-x} (6x + 2y^2) \, dy \, dx.$$

The reason is that the formula of the function $y = y_2(x)$ describing the “top boundary curve” of R changes at the point $(1, 1)$, from $y = \sqrt{x}$ on the left to $y = 2 - x$ on the right. But as we see in Fig. 14.2.7, every *horizontal* segment in R extends from $x = y^2$ on the left to $x = 2 - y$ on the right. Therefore integration first with respect to x requires us to evaluate only *one* iterated integral:

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA &= \int_{-2}^1 \int_{y^2}^{2-y} (6x + 2y^2) \, dx \, dy \\ &= \int_{-2}^1 \left[3x^2 + 2xy^2 \right]_{x=y^2}^{2-y} \, dy \\ &= \int_{-2}^1 [3(2-y)^2 + 2(2-y)y^2 - 3(y^2)^2 - 2y^4] \, dy \\ &= \int_{-2}^1 (12 - 12y + 7y^2 - 2y^3 - 5y^4) \, dy \\ &= \left[12y - 6y^2 + \frac{7}{3}y^3 - \frac{1}{2}y^4 - y^5 \right]_{-2}^1 = \frac{99}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

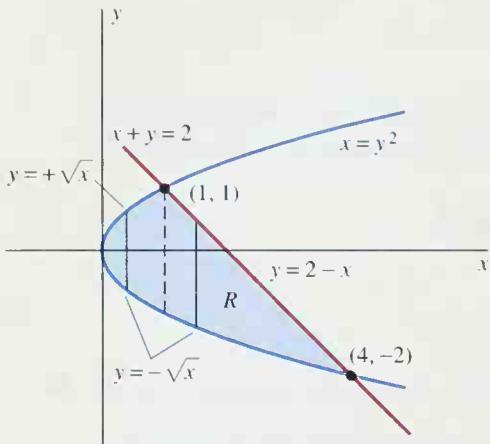


Fig. 14.2.6 The vertically simple region of Example 2

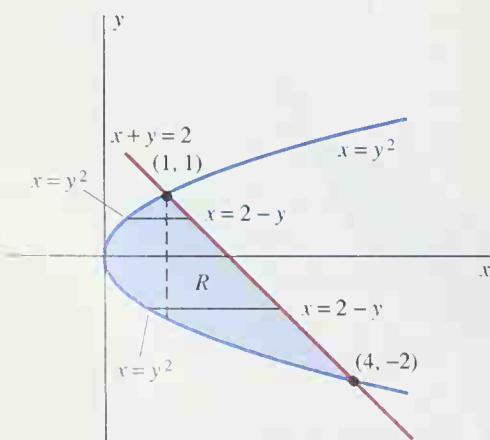


Fig. 14.2.7 The horizontally simple region of Example 2

Example 2 shows that even when the region R is both vertically and horizontally simple, it may be easier to integrate in one order rather than the other because of

the shape of R . We naturally prefer the easier route. The choice of the preferable order of integration may be influenced also by the nature of the function $f(x, y)$. It may be difficult—or even impossible—to compute a given iterated integral but easy to do so *after we reverse the order of integration*. Example 3 shows that the key to reversing the order of integration is this:

Find and sketch the region R over which the integration is to be performed.

EXAMPLE 3 Evaluate

$$\int_0^2 \int_{y/2}^1 ye^{x^3} dx dy.$$

Solution We cannot integrate first with respect to x , as indicated, because $\exp(x^3)$ is known to have no elementary antiderivative. So we try to evaluate the integral by first reversing the order of integration. To do so, we sketch the region of integration specified by the limits in the given iterated integral.

The region R is determined by the inequalities $\frac{1}{2}y \leq x \leq 1$ and $0 \leq y \leq 2$. Thus all points (x, y) of R lie between the horizontal lines $y = 0$ and $y = 2$ and between the two lines $x = y/2$ and $x = 1$. We draw the four lines $y = 0$, $y = 2$, $x = y/2$, and $x = 1$ and find that the region of integration is the shaded triangle that appears in Fig. 14.2.8.

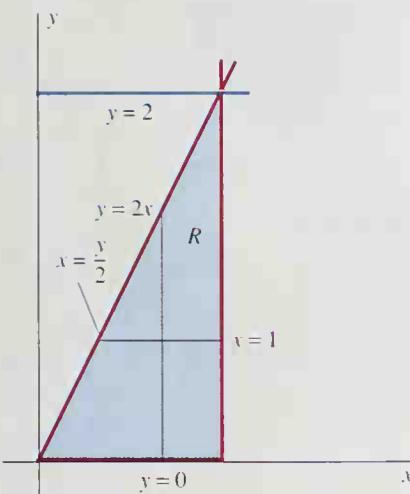


Fig. 14.2.8 The region of Example 3

Integrating first with respect to y , from $y_1(x) \equiv 0$ to $y_2(x) = 2x$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^2 \int_{y/2}^1 ye^{x^3} dx dy &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{2x} ye^{x^3} dy dx = \int_0^1 \left[\frac{1}{2}y^2 \right]_{y=0}^{2x} e^{x^3} dx \\ &= \int_0^1 2x^2 e^{x^3} dx = \left[\frac{2}{3} e^{x^3} \right]_{x=0}^1 = \frac{2}{3}(e - 1). \end{aligned}$$

Properties of Double Integrals

We conclude this section by listing some formal properties of double integrals. Let c be a constant and f and g be continuous functions on a region R on which $f(x, y)$ attains a minimum value m and a maximum value M . Let $a(R)$ denote the area of the region R . If all the indicated integrals exist, then

$$\iint_R cf(x, y) dA = c \iint_R f(x, y) dA, \quad (6)$$

$$\iint_R [f(x, y) + g(x, y)] dA = \iint_R f(x, y) dA + \iint_R g(x, y) dA, \quad (7)$$

$$m \cdot a(R) \leq \iint_R f(x, y) dA \leq M \cdot a(R), \quad (8)$$

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \iint_{R_1} f(x, y) dA + \iint_{R_2} f(x, y) dA. \quad (9)$$

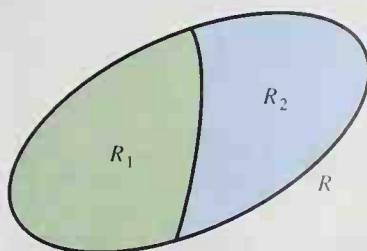


Fig. 14.2.9 The regions of Eq. (9)

In Eq. (9), R_1 and R_2 are simply two nonoverlapping regions (with disjoint interiors) with union R (Fig. 14.2.9). We indicate in Problems 45 through 48 proofs of the properties in (6) through (9) for the special case in which R is a rectangle.

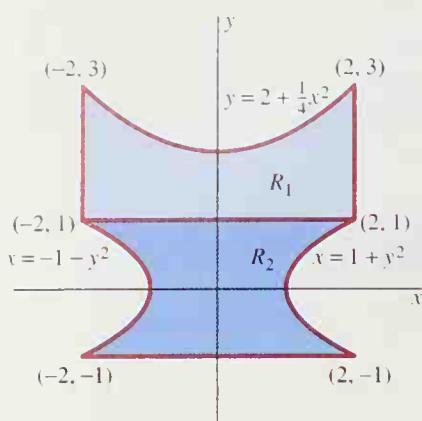


Fig. 14.2.10 The nonsimple region R is the union of the nonoverlapping simple regions R_1 and R_2 .

The property in Eq. (9) enables us to evaluate double integrals over a region R that is neither vertically nor horizontally simple. All that is necessary is to divide R into a finite number of simple regions R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n . Then we integrate over each (converting each double integral into an iterated integral, as in the examples of this section) and add the results.

EXAMPLE 4 Let f be a function that is integrable on the region R of Fig. 14.2.10. Note that R is not simple, but is the union of the vertically simple region R_1 and the horizontally simple region R_2 . Using the boundary curves labeled in the figure and the appropriate order of integration for each region, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R f(x, y) dA &= \iint_{R_1} f(x, y) dA + \iint_{R_2} f(x, y) dA \\ &= \int_{-2}^2 \int_{1-y^2}^{2+x^2/4} f(x, y) dy dx + \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-1-y^2}^{1+y^2} f(x, y) dx dy.\end{aligned}$$

14.2 PROBLEMS

Evaluate the iterated integrals in Problems 1 through 14.

1. $\int_0^1 \int_0^x (1+x) dy dx$

2. $\int_0^2 \int_0^{2x} (1+y) dy dx$

3. $\int_0^1 \int_y^1 (x+y) dx dy$ (Fig. 14.2.11)

4. $\int_0^2 \int_{y/2}^1 (x+y) dx dy$ (Fig. 14.2.12)

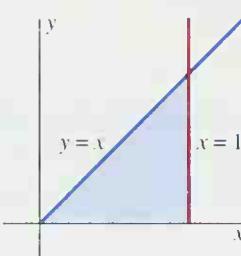


Fig. 14.2.11
Problem 3

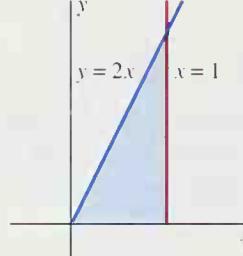


Fig. 14.2.12
Problem 4

5. $\int_0^1 \int_0^{x^2} xy dy dx$

6. $\int_0^1 \int_y^{\sqrt{y}} (x+y) dx dy$

7. $\int_0^1 \int_x^{\sqrt{x}} (2x-y) dy dx$ (Fig. 14.2.13)

8. $\int_0^2 \int_{-\sqrt{2y}}^{\sqrt{2y}} (3x+2y) dx dy$ (Fig. 14.2.14)

9. $\int_0^1 \int_{x^4}^x (y-x) dy dx$

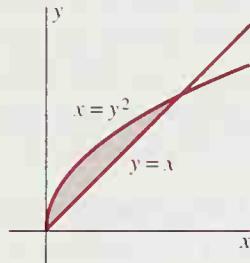


Fig. 14.2.13
Problem 7

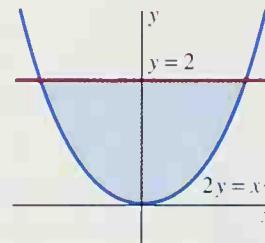


Fig. 14.2.14
Problem 8

10. $\int_{-1}^2 \int_{-y}^{y+2} (x+2y^2) dx dy$ (Fig. 14.2.15)

11. $\int_0^1 \int_0^{x^3} e^{y/x} dy dx$

12. $\int_0^\pi \int_0^{\sin x} y dy dx$ (Fig. 14.2.16)

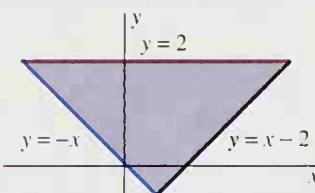


Fig. 14.2.15 Problem 10

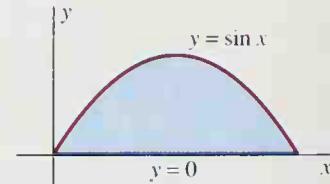


Fig. 14.2.16 Problem 12

13. $\int_0^3 \int_0^y \sqrt{y^2 + 16} dx dy$

14. $\int_1^{e^2} \int_0^{1/y} e^{xy} dx dy$

In Problems 15 through 24, evaluate the integral of the given function $f(x, y)$ over the plane region R that is described.

15. $f(x, y) = xy$; R is bounded by the parabola $y = x^2$ and the line $y = 4$.

16. $f(x, y) = x^2$; R is bounded by the parabola $y = 2 - x^2$ and the line $y = -4$.
17. $f(x, y) = x$; R is bounded by the parabolas $y = x^2$ and $y = 8 - x^2$.
18. $f(x, y) = y$; R is bounded by the parabolas $x = 1 - y^2$ and $x = y^2 - 1$.
19. $f(x, y) = x$; R is bounded by the x -axis and the curve $y = \sin x$, $0 \leq x \leq \pi$.
20. $f(x, y) = \sin x$; R is bounded by the x -axis and the curve $y = \cos x$, $-\pi/2 \leq x \leq \pi/2$.
21. $f(x, y) = 1/y$; R is the triangle bounded by the lines $y = 1$, $x = e$, and $y = x$.
22. $f(x, y) = xy$; R is the first-quadrant quarter circle bounded by $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the coordinate axes.
23. $f(x, y) = 1 - x$; R is the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 1)$, and $(-2, 1)$.
24. $f(x, y) = 9 - y$; R is the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(0, 9)$, and $(3, 6)$.

In Problems 25 through 34, first sketch the region of integration, reverse the order of integration as in Examples 2 and 3, and finally evaluate the resulting integral.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 25. \int_{-2}^2 \int_{x^2}^4 x^2 y \, dy \, dx & 26. \int_0^1 \int_{x^4}^x (x-1) \, dy \, dx \\ 27. \int_{-1}^3 \int_{y^2}^{2x+3} x \, dy \, dx & 28. \int_{-2}^2 \int_{y^2-4}^{4-y^2} y \, dx \, dy \\ 29. \int_0^2 \int_{2x}^{4x-x^2} 1 \, dy \, dx & 30. \int_0^1 \int_y^1 e^{-x^2} \, dx \, dy \\ 31. \int_0^\pi \int_y^\pi \frac{\sin y}{y} \, dy \, dx & 32. \int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_y^{\sqrt{\pi}} \sin x^2 \, dx \, dy \\ 33. \int_0^1 \int_y^1 \frac{1}{1+x^4} \, dx \, dy & 34. \int_0^1 \int_{\tan^{-1} y}^{\pi/4} \sec x \, dx \, dy \end{array}$$

In Problems 35 through 40, find the approximate value of

$$\iint_R x \, dA,$$

where R is the region bounded by the two given curves. Before integrating, use a calculator or computer to approximate (graphically or otherwise) the coordinates of the points of intersection of the given curves.

35. $y = x^3 + 1$, $y = 3x^2$ 36. $y = x^4$, $y = x + 4$

37. $y = x^2 - 1$, $y = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$

38. $y = x^4 - 16$, $y = 2x - x^2$

39. $y = x^2$, $y = \cos x$ 40. $y = x^2 - 2x$, $y = \sin x$

In Problems 41 through 44, the region R is the square with vertices $(\pm 1, 0)$ and $(0, \pm 1)$. Use the symmetry of this region around the coordinate axes to reduce the labor of evaluating the given integrals.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 41. \iint_R x \, dA & 42. \iint_R x^2 \, dA \\ 43. \iint_R xy \, dA & 44. \iint_R (x^2 + y^2) \, dA \end{array}$$

45. Use Riemann sums to prove Eq. (6) for the case in which R is a rectangle with sides parallel to the coordinate axes.

46. Use iterated integrals and familiar properties of single integrals to prove Eq. (7) for the case in which R is a rectangle with sides parallel to the coordinate axes.

47. Use Riemann sums to prove the inequalities in (8) for the case in which R is a rectangle with sides parallel to the coordinate axes.

48. Use iterated integrals and familiar properties of single integrals to prove Eq. (9) if R_1 and R_2 are rectangles with sides parallel to the coordinate axes and the right-hand edge of R_1 is the left-hand edge of R_2 .

49. Use Riemann sums to prove that

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA \leq \iint_R g(x, y) \, dA$$

if $f(x, y) \leq g(x, y)$ at each point of the region R , a rectangle with sides parallel to the coordinate axes.

50. Suppose that the continuous function f is integrable on the plane region R and that f attains a minimum value m and a maximum value M on R . Assume that R is connected in the following sense: For any two points (x_0, y_0) and (x_1, y_1) of R , there is a continuous parametric curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ in R for which $\mathbf{r}(0) = (x_0, y_0)$ and $\mathbf{r}(1) = (x_1, y_1)$. Let $a(R)$ denote the area of R . Then deduce from (8) the average value property of double integrals:

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = f(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \cdot a(R)$$

for some point (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) of R . (Suggestion: If $m = f(x_0, y_0)$ and $M = f(x_1, y_1)$, then you may apply the intermediate value property of the continuous function $f(\mathbf{r}(t))$.)

14.3 AREA AND VOLUME BY DOUBLE INTEGRATION

Our definition of the double integral $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$ in Section 14.2 was motivated by the problem of computing the volume of the solid

$$T = \{(x, y, z) | (x, y) \in R \text{ and } 0 \leq z \leq f(x, y)\}$$

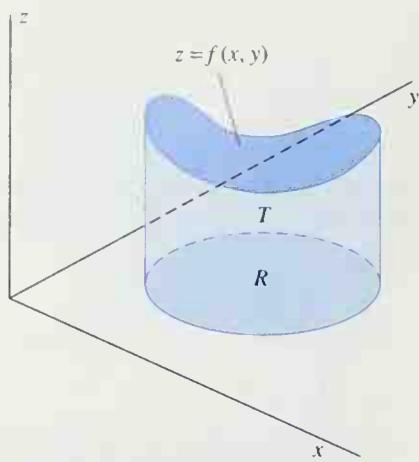


Fig. 14.3.1 A solid region T with vertical sides and base R in the xy -plane

that lies below the surface $z = f(x, y)$ and above the region R in the xy -plane. Such a solid appears in Fig. 14.3.1. Despite this geometric motivation, the actual definition of the double integral as a limit of Riemann sums does not depend on the concept of volume. We may therefore turn matters around and use the double integral to *define* volume.

Definition **Volume below $z = f(x, y)$**

Suppose that the function f is continuous and nonnegative on the bounded plane region R . Then the **volume** V of the solid that lies below the surface $z = f(x, y)$ and above the region R is defined to be

$$V = \iint_R f(x, y) dA, \quad (1)$$

provided that this integral exists.

It is of interest to note the connection between this definition and the cross-sectional approach to volume that we discussed in Section 6.2. If, for example, the region R is vertically simple, then the volume integral in Eq. (1) takes the form

$$V = \iint_R z dA = \int_a^b \int_{y_1(x)}^{y_2(x)} f(x, y) dy dx$$

in terms of iterated integrals. The inner integral

$$A(x) = \int_{y_1(x)}^{y_2(x)} f(x, y) dy$$

is equal to the area of the region in the yz -plane that lies below the curve $z = f(x, y)$ (x fixed) and above the interval $y_1(x) \leq y \leq y_2(x)$ (Fig. 14.3.2). But this is the projection of the cross section shown in Fig. 14.3.3. Hence the value of the inner integral is simply the area of the cross section of the solid region T in a plane perpendicular to the x -axis. Thus

$$V = \int_a^b A(x) dx,$$

and so in this case Eq. (1) reduces to “volume is the integral of cross-sectional area.”

Volume by Iterated Integrals

A three-dimensional region T is typically described in terms of the surfaces that bound it. The first step in applying Eq. (1) to compute the volume V of such a region is to determine the region R in the xy -plane over which T lies. The second step is to determine the appropriate order of integration. This may be done in the following way:

If each vertical line in the xy -plane meets R in a *single* line segment, then R is vertically simple, and you may integrate first with respect to y . The limits on y will be the y -coordinates $y_1(x)$ and $y_2(x)$ of the endpoints of this line segment (Fig. 14.3.4). The limits on x will be the endpoints a and b of the interval on the x -axis onto which R projects. Theorem 1 of Section 14.2 then gives

Fig. 14.3.2 The inner integral in Eq. (1) as the area of a region in the yz -plane

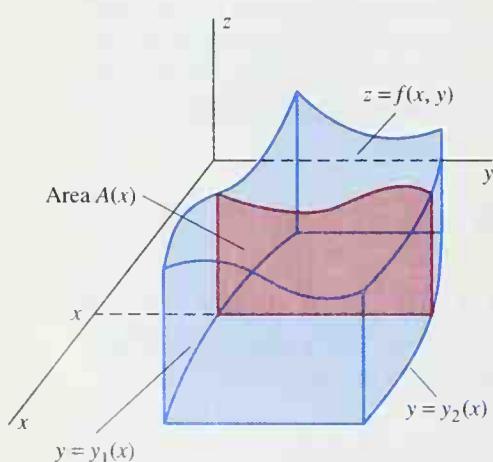


Fig. 14.3.3 The cross-sectional area is

$$A = \int_{y_1(x)}^{y_2(x)} f(x, y) dy.$$

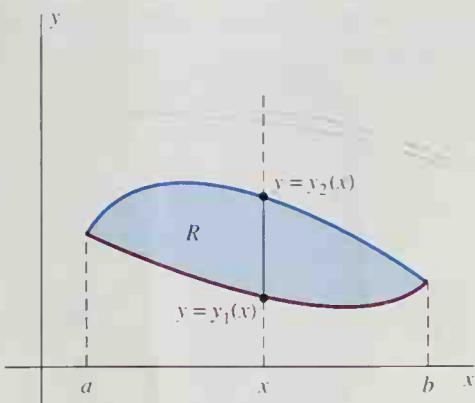


Fig. 14.3.4 A vertically simple region

$$V = \iint_R f(x, y) dA = \int_a^b \int_{y_1(x)}^{y_2(x)} f(x, y) dy dx. \quad (2)$$

Alternatively,

If each horizontal line in the \$xy\$-plane meets \$R\$ in a *single* line segment, then \$R\$ is horizontally simple, and you may integrate with respect to \$x\$ first. In this case,

$$V = \iint_R f(x, y) dA = \int_c^d \int_{x_1(y)}^{x_2(y)} f(x, y) dx dy. \quad (3)$$

As indicated in Fig. 14.3.5, \$x_1(y)\$ and \$x_2(y)\$ are the \$x\$-coordinates of the endpoints of this horizontal line segment, and \$c\$ and \$d\$ are the endpoints of the corresponding interval on the \$y\$-axis.

If the region \$R\$ is both vertically simple and horizontally simple, then you have the pleasant option of choosing the order of integration that will lead to the simpler subsequent computations. If \$R\$ is neither vertically simple nor horizontally simple, then you must first subdivide \$R\$ into simple regions before you proceed with iterated integration.

EXAMPLE 1 The rectangle \$R\$ in the \$xy\$-plane consists of those points \$(x, y)\$ for which \$0 \leq x \leq 2\$ and \$0 \leq y \leq 1\$. Find the volume \$V\$ of the solid that lies below the surface \$z = 1 + xy\$ and above \$R\$ (Fig. 14.3.6).

Solution Here \$f(x, y) = 1 + xy\$, so Eq. (1) yields

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \iint_R z dA = \int_0^2 \int_0^1 (1 + xy) dy dx \\ &= \int_0^2 \left[y + \frac{1}{2} xy^2 \right]_0^1 dx = \int_0^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} x \right) dx = \left[x + \frac{1}{4} x^2 \right]_0^2 = 3. \end{aligned}$$

The special case \$f(x, y) \equiv 1\$ in Eq. (1) gives the area

$$A = a(R) = \iint_R 1 dA = \iint_R dA \quad (4)$$

of the plane region \$R\$. In this case the solid region \$T\$ resembles a desert mesa (Fig. 14.3.7)—a solid cylinder with base \$R\$ of area \$A\$ and height 1. The volume of any such cylinder—not necessarily circular—is the product of its height and the area of its base. In this case, the iterated integrals in Eqs. (2) and (3) reduce to

$$A = \int_a^b \int_{y_{\text{bot}}}^{y_{\text{top}}} 1 dy dx \quad \text{and} \quad A = \int_c^d \int_{x_{\text{left}}}^{x_{\text{right}}} 1 dx dy,$$

respectively.

Fig. 14.3.5 A horizontally simple region

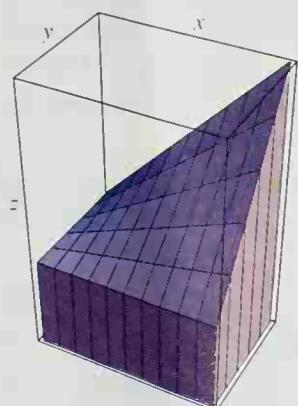


Fig. 14.3.6 The solid of Example 1

EXAMPLE 2 Compute by double integration the area \$A\$ of the region \$R\$ in the \$xy\$-plane that is bounded by the parabola \$y = x^2 - 2x\$ and the line \$y = x\$.

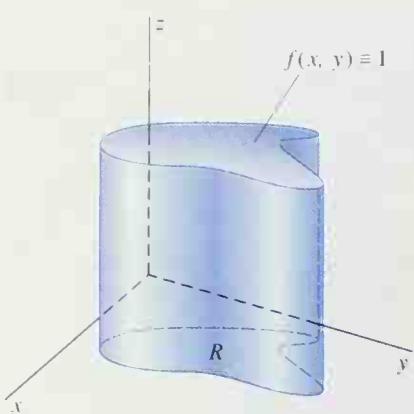


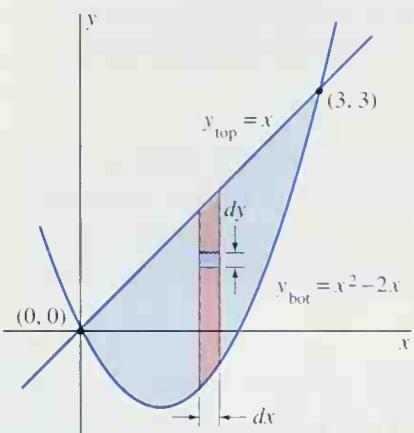
Fig. 14.3.7 The mesa

Solution As indicated in Fig. 14.3.8, the line $y_{\text{top}} = x$ and the parabola $y_{\text{bot}} = x^2 - 2x$ intersect at the points $(0, 0)$ and $(3, 3)$. (These coordinates are easy to find by solving the equation $y_{\text{top}} = y_{\text{bot}}$.) Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_a^b \int_{y_{\text{bot}}}^{y_{\text{top}}} 1 \, dy \, dx = \int_0^3 \int_{x^2-2x}^x 1 \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^3 \left[y \right]_{y=x^2-2x}^x \, dx = \int_0^3 (3x - x^2) \, dx = \left[\frac{3}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{3}x^3 \right]_0^3 = \frac{9}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 3 Find the volume of the wedge-shaped solid T that lies above the xy -plane, below the plane $z = x$, and within the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$. This wedge is shown in Fig. 14.3.9.

Solution The base region R is a semicircle of radius 2, but by symmetry we may integrate over the first-quadrant quarter circle S alone and then double the result. A sketch of the quarter circle (Fig. 14.3.10) helps establish the limits of integration. We could integrate in either order, but integration with respect to x first gives a slightly simpler computation of the volume V :

Fig. 14.3.8 The region R of Example 2

As an exercise, you should integrate in the other order and verify that the result is the same.

Volume Between Two Surfaces

Suppose now that the solid region T lies above the plane region R , as before, but between the surfaces $z = z_1(x, y)$ and $z = z_2(x, y)$, where $z_1(x, y) \leq z_2(x, y)$ for all (x, y) in R (Fig. 14.3.11). Then we get the volume V of T by subtracting the volume below $z = z_1(x, y)$ from the volume below $z = z_2(x, y)$, so

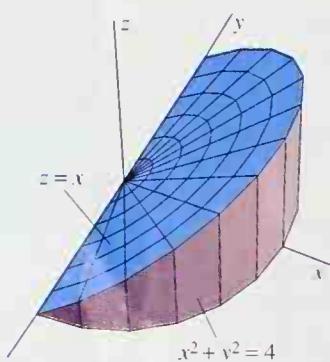
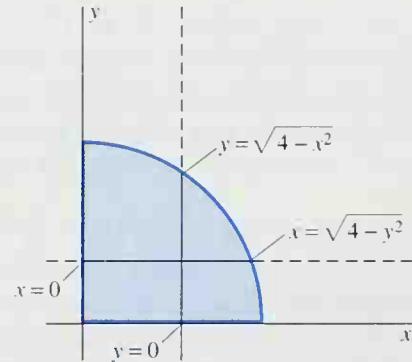
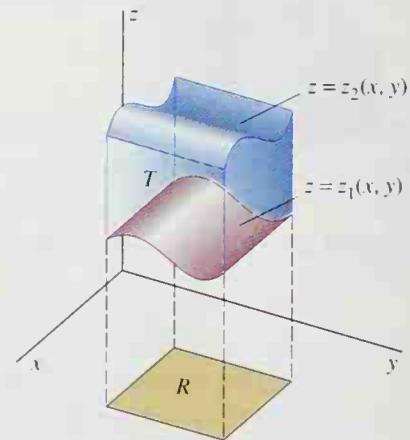


Fig. 14.3.9 The wedge of Example 3

Fig. 14.3.10 Half of the base R of the wedge (Example 3)Fig. 14.3.11 The solid T has vertical sides and is bounded above and below by surfaces.

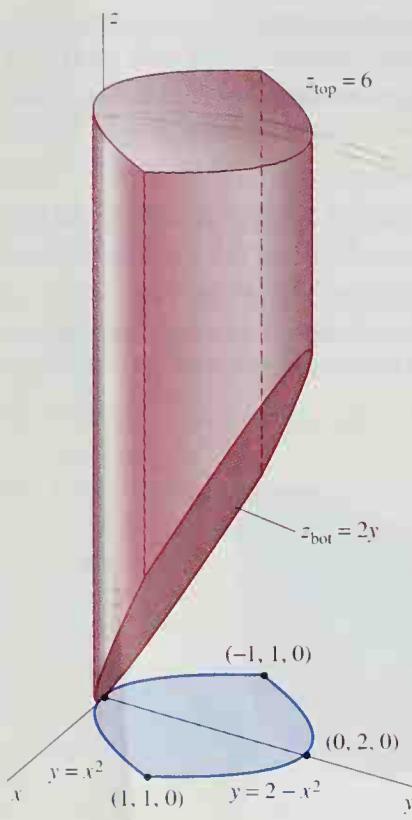


Fig. 14.3.12 The solid \$T\$ of Example 4

More briefly,

$$V = \iint_R (z_{\text{top}} - z_{\text{bot}}) dA$$

where \$z_{\text{top}} = z_2(x, y)\$ describes the top surface and \$z_{\text{bot}} = z_1(x, y)\$ the bottom surface of \$T\$. This is a natural generalization of the formula for the area of the plane region between the curves \$y = f_1(x)\$ and \$y = f_2(x)\$ over the interval \$[a, b]\$. Moreover, like that formula, Eq. (5) is valid even if \$f_1(x, y)\$, or both \$f_1(x, y)\$ and \$f_2(x, y)\$, are negative over part or all of the region \$R\$.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the volume \$V\$ of the solid \$T\$ bounded by the planes \$x = 6\$ and \$z = 2y\$ and by the parabolic cylinders \$y = x^2\$ and \$y = 2 - x^2\$. This solid is sketched in Fig. 14.3.12.

Solution Because the given parabolic cylinders are perpendicular to the \$xy\$-plane, the solid \$T\$ has vertical sides. Thus we may think of \$T\$ as lying between the planes \$z_{\text{top}} = 6\$ and \$z_{\text{bot}} = 2y\$ and above the \$xy\$-plane region \$R\$ that is bounded by the parabolas \$y = x^2\$ and \$y = 2 - x^2\$. As indicated in Fig. 14.3.13, these parabolas intersect at the points \$(-1, 1)\$ and \$(1, 1)\$.

Integrating first with respect to \$y\$ (for otherwise we would need two integrals), we get

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \iint_R (z_{\text{top}} - z_{\text{bot}}) dA = \int_{-1}^1 \int_{x^2}^{2-x^2} (6 - 2y) dy dx \\ &= 2 \int_0^1 \left[6y - y^2 \right]_{y=x^2}^{2-x^2} dx \quad (\text{by symmetry}) \\ &= 2 \int_0^1 ([6 \cdot (2 - x^2) - (2 - x^2)^2] - [6x^2 - x^4]) dx \\ &= 2 \int_0^1 (8 - 8x^2) dx = 16 \left[x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 \right]_0^1 = \frac{32}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

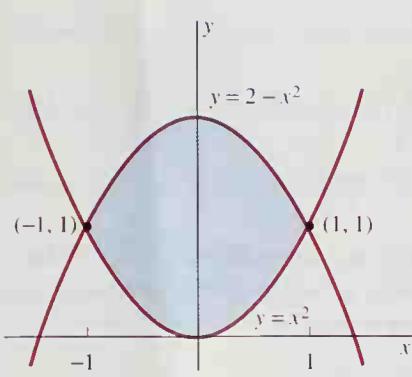


Fig. 14.3.13 The region \$R\$ of Example 4

14.3 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 10, use double integration to find the area of the region in the \$xy\$-plane bounded by the given curves.

1. \$y = x, y^2 = x\$
2. \$y = x, y = x^4\$
3. \$y = x^2, y = 2x + 3\$ (Fig. 14.3.14)
4. \$y = 2x + 3, y = 6x - x^2\$ (Fig. 14.3.15)
5. \$y = x^2, x + y = 2, y = 0\$
6. \$y = (x - 1)^2, y = (x + 1)^2, y = 0\$
7. \$y = x^2 + 1, y = 2x^2 - 3\$ (Fig. 14.3.16)
8. \$y = x^2 + 1, y = 9 - x^2\$ (Fig. 14.3.17)
9. \$y = x, y = 2x, xy = 2\$

10. \$y = x^2, y = \frac{2}{1+x^2}\$

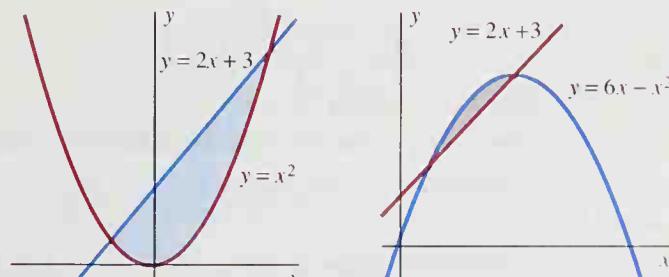


Fig. 14.3.14 Problem 3

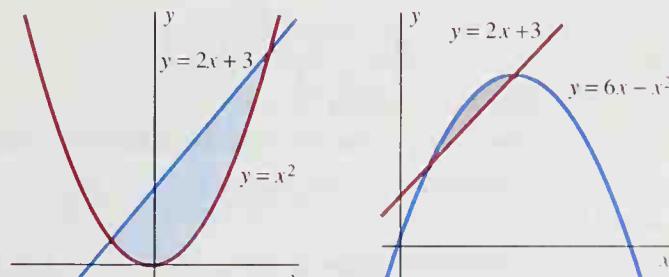


Fig. 14.3.15 Problem 4

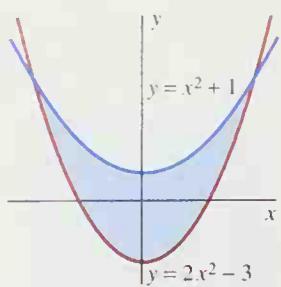


Fig. 14.3.16 Problem 7

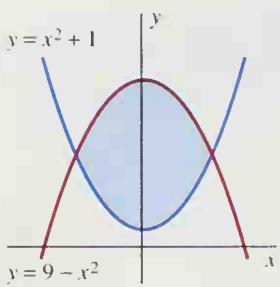


Fig. 14.3.17 Problem 8

In Problems 11 through 26, find the volume of the solid that lies below the surface $z = f(x, y)$ and above the region in the xy -plane bounded by the given curves.

11. $z = 1 + x + y; \quad x = 0, x = 1, y = 0, y = 1$
12. $z = 2x + 3y; \quad x = 0, x = 3, y = 0, y = 2$
13. $z = y + e^x; \quad x = 0, x = 1, y = 0, y = 2$
14. $z = 3 + \cos x + \cos y; \quad x = 0, x = \pi, y = 0, y = \pi$
(Fig. 14.3.18)

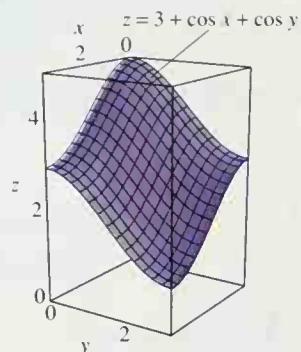


Fig. 14.3.18 The surface of Problem 14

15. $z = x + y; \quad x = 0, y = 0, x + y = 1$
16. $z = 3x + 2y; \quad x = 0, y = 0, x + 2y = 4$
17. $z = 1 + x + y; \quad x = 1, y = 0, y = x^2$
18. $z = 2x + y; \quad x = 0, y = 1, x = \sqrt{y}$
19. $z = x^2; \quad y = x^2, y = 1$
20. $z = y^2; \quad x = y^2, x = 4$
21. $z = x^2 + y^2; \quad x = 0, x = 1, y = 0, y = 2$
22. $z = 1 + x^2 + y^2; \quad y = x, y = 2 - x^2$
23. $z = 9 - x - y; \quad y = 0, x = 3, y = \frac{2}{3}x$
24. $z = 10 + y - x^2; \quad y = x^2, x = y^2$
25. $z = 4x^2 + y^2; \quad x = 0, y = 0, 2x + y = 2$
26. $z = 2x + 3y; \quad y = x^2, y = x^3$

In Problems 27 through 30, find the volume of the given solid.

27. The solid is bounded by the planes $x = 0, y = 0, z = 0$, and $3x + 2y + z = 6$.
28. The solid is bounded by the planes $y = 0, z = 0, y = 2x$, and $4x + 2y + z = 8$.

29. The solid lies under the hyperboloid $z = xy$ and above the triangle in the xy -plane with vertices $(1, 2), (1, 4)$, and $(5, 2)$.
30. The solid lies under the paraboloid $z = 25 - x^2 - y^2$ and above the triangle in the xy -plane with vertices $(-3, -4), (-3, 4)$, and $(5, 0)$.

In Problems 31 through 34, first set up an iterated integral that gives the volume of the given solid. Then use a computer algebra system (if available) to evaluate this integral.

31. The solid lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, above the xy -plane, and below the plane $z = x + 1$ (Fig. 14.3.19).

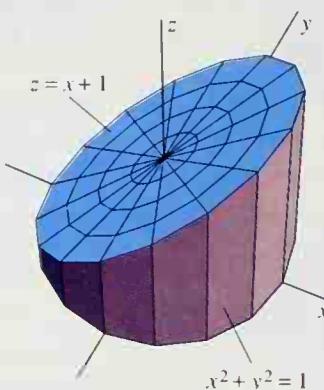


Fig. 14.3.19 The solid of Problem 31

32. The solid lies above the xy -plane and below the paraboloid $z = 9 - x^2 - y^2$.
33. The solid lies inside both the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$.
34. The solid lies inside the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2$ and above the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$.
35. Use double integration to find the volume of the tetrahedron in the first octant that is bounded by the coordinate planes and the plane with equation

$$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{z}{c} = 1$$

(Fig. 14.3.20). The numbers a, b , and c are positive constants.

36. Suppose that $h > a > 0$. Show that the volume of the solid bounded by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$, the plane $z = 0$, and the plane $z = x + h$ is $\pi a^2 h$.

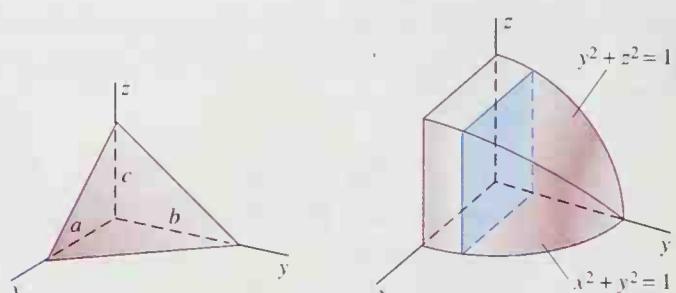


Fig. 14.3.20 The tetrahedron of Problem 35

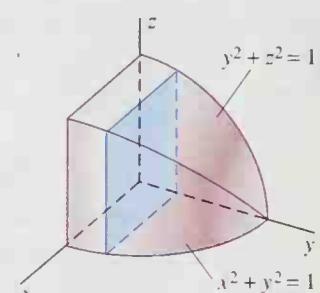


Fig. 14.3.21 The solid of Problem 37

37. Find the volume of the first octant part of the solid bounded by the cylinders $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and $y^2 + z^2 = 1$ (Fig. 14.3.21). (Suggestion: One order of integration is considerably easier than the other.)
38. Find by double integration the volume of the solid bounded by the surfaces $y = \sin x$, $y = -\sin x$, $z = \sin x$, and $z = -\sin x$ for $0 \leq x \leq \pi$.

For Problems 39 through 46, you may consult Chapter 9 or the integral table on the inside covers of this book to find antiderivatives of such expressions as $(a^2 - x^2)^{3/2}$.

39. Find the volume of a sphere of radius a by double integration.
40. Use double integration to find the formula $V = V(a, b, c)$ for the volume of an ellipsoid with semiaxes of lengths a , b , and c .
41. Find the volume of the solid bounded below by the xy -plane and above by the paraboloid $z = 25 - x^2 - y^2$ by evaluating a double integral (Fig. 14.3.22).
42. Find the volume of the solid bounded by the two paraboloids $z = x^2 + 2y^2$ and $z = 12 - 2x^2 - y^2$ (Fig. 14.3.23).

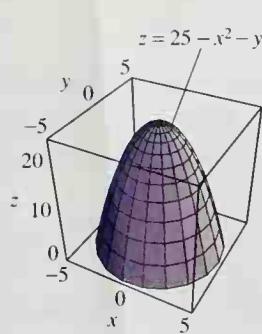


Fig. 14.3.22 The solid paraboloid of Problem 41

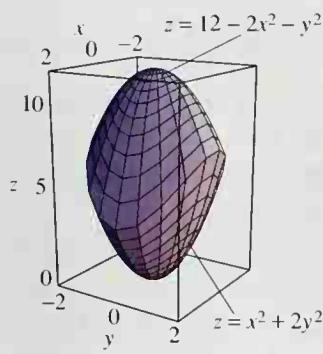


Fig. 14.3.23 The solid of Problem 42

43. Find the volume removed when a vertical square hole of edge length R is cut directly through the center of a long horizontal solid cylinder of radius R .
44. Find the volume of the solid bounded by the two surfaces $z = x^2 + 3y^2$ and $z = 4 - y^2$ (Fig. 14.3.24).

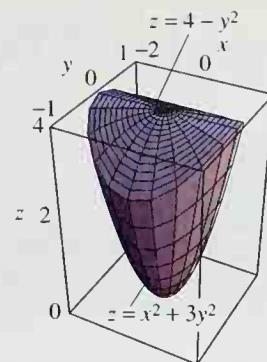


Fig. 14.3.24 The solid of Problem 44

45. Find the volume V of the solid T bounded by the parabolic cylinders $z = x^2$, $z = 2x^2$, $y = x^2$, and $y = 8 - x^2$.
46. Suppose that a square hole with sides of length 2 is cut symmetrically through the center of a sphere of radius 2. Show that the volume removed is given by

$$V = \int_0^1 F(x) dx,$$

where

$$F(x) = 4\sqrt{3 - x^2} + 4(4 - x^2) \arcsin \frac{1}{\sqrt{4 - x^2}}.$$

Next, use a computer algebra system (or the **INTEGRATE** key on a calculator) to approximate the volume numerically. Finally use a computer algebra system to determine the exact value

$$V = \frac{2}{3} (19\pi + 2\sqrt{2} - 54 \arctan \sqrt{2}),$$

and verify that your numerical value is consistent with this exact value.

For Problems 47 and 48, use a computer algebra system to find (either approximately or exactly) the volume of the solid that lies under the surface $z = f(x, y)$ and above the region in the xy -plane that is bounded by $y = \cos x$ and $y = -\cos x$ for $-\pi/2 \leq x \leq \pi/2$.

47. $f(x, y) = 4 - x^2 - y^2$ 48. $f(x, y) = \cos y$

14.4 DOUBLE INTEGRALS IN POLAR COORDINATES

A double integral may be easier to evaluate after it has been transformed from rectangular xy -coordinates into polar $r\theta$ -coordinates. This is likely to be the case when the region R of integration is a *polar rectangle*. A **polar rectangle** is a region described in polar coordinates by the inequalities

$$a \leq r \leq b, \quad \alpha \leq \theta \leq \beta. \quad (1)$$

This polar rectangle is shown in Fig. 14.4.1. If $a = 0$, it is a sector of a circular disk of radius b . If $0 < a < b$, $\alpha = 0$, and $\beta = 2\pi$, it is an annular ring of inner radius a and

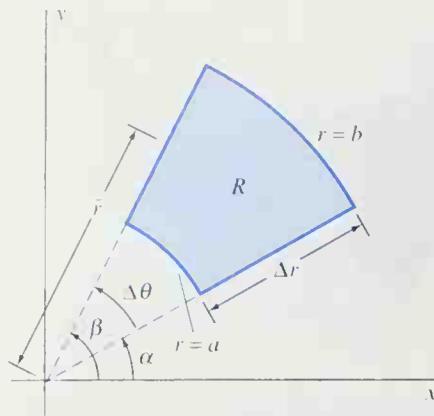
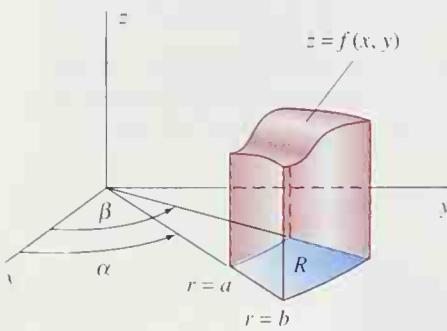
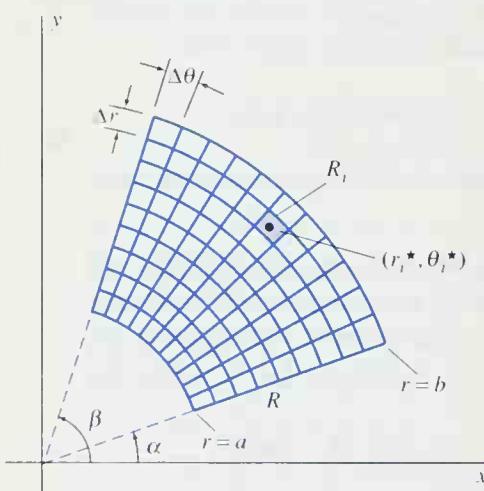


Fig. 14.4.1 A polar rectangle

Fig. 14.4.2 A solid region whose base is the polar rectangle R Fig. 14.4.3 A polar partition of the polar rectangle R

outer radius b . Because the area of a circular sector with radius r and central angle θ is $\frac{1}{2}r^2\theta$, the area of the polar rectangle in (1) is

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \frac{1}{2}b^2(\beta - \alpha) - \frac{1}{2}a^2(\beta - \alpha) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(a + b)(a - b)(\beta - \alpha) = r \Delta r \Delta \theta, \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where $\Delta r = b - a$, $\Delta \theta = \beta - \alpha$, and $\bar{r} = \frac{1}{2}(a + b)$ is the *average radius* of the polar rectangle.

Suppose that we want to compute the value of the double integral

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA,$$

where R is the polar rectangle in (1). Thus we want the volume of the solid with base R that lies below the surface $z = f(x, y)$ (Fig. 14.4.2). We defined in Section 14.1 the double integral as a limit of Riemann sums associated with partitions consisting of ordinary rectangles. We can define the double integral in terms of *polar partitions* as well, made up of polar rectangles. We begin with a partition

$$a = r_0 < r_1 < r_2 < \cdots < r_m = b$$

of $[a, b]$ into m subintervals all having the same length $\Delta r = (b - a)/m$ and a partition

$$\alpha = \theta_0 < \theta_1 < \theta_2 < \cdots < \theta_n = \beta$$

of $[\alpha, \beta]$ into n subintervals all having the same length $\Delta \theta = (\beta - \alpha)/n$. This gives the **polar partition** \mathcal{P} of R into the $k = mn$ polar rectangles R_1, R_2, \dots, R_k indicated in Fig. 14.4.3. The **norm** $|\mathcal{P}|$ of this polar partition is the maximum of the lengths of the diagonals of its polar subrectangles.

Let the center point of R_i have polar coordinates (r_i^*, θ_i^*) , where r_i^* is the average radius of R_i . Then the rectangular coordinates of this point are $x_i^* = r_i^* \cos \theta_i^*$ and $y_i^* = r_i^* \sin \theta_i^*$. Therefore the Riemann sum for the function $f(x, y)$ associated with the polar partition \mathcal{P} is

$$\sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i,$$

where $\Delta A_i = r_i^* \Delta r \Delta \theta$ is the area of the polar rectangle R_i [in part a consequence of Eq. (2)]. When we express this Riemann sum in polar coordinates, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i &= \sum_{i=1}^k f(r_i^* \cos \theta_i^*, r_i^* \sin \theta_i^*) r_i^* \Delta r \Delta \theta \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k g(r_i^*, \theta_i^*) \Delta r \Delta \theta, \end{aligned}$$

where $g(r, \theta) = r \cdot f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$. This last sum is simply a Riemann sum for the double integral

$$\int_a^\beta \int_a^b g(r, \theta) dr d\theta = \int_a^\beta \int_a^b f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) r dr d\theta,$$

so it finally follows that

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \lim_{|\mathcal{P}| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta r, \Delta\theta \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^k g(r_i^\star, \theta_i^\star) \Delta r \Delta\theta = \int_a^b \int_a^b g(r, \theta) dr d\theta.$$

That is,

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \int_a^\beta \int_a^b f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) r dr d\theta. \quad (3)$$

Thus we formally transform into polar coordinates a double integral over a polar rectangle of the form in (1) by substituting

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta, \quad dA = r dr d\theta \quad (4)$$

and inserting the appropriate limits of integration on r and θ . In particular, note the “extra” r on the right-hand side of Eq. (3). You may remember it by visualizing the “infinitesimal polar rectangle” of Fig. 14.4.4, with “area” $dA = r dr d\theta$ (formally).

Fig. 14.4.4 The dimensions of the small polar rectangle suggest that its area is $dA = r dr d\theta$.

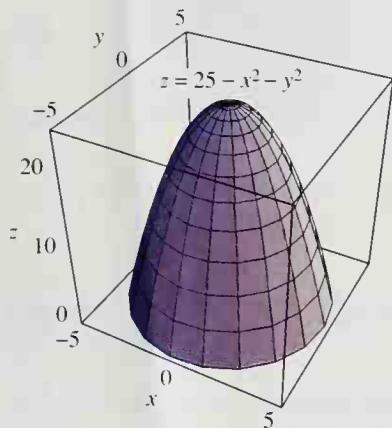


Fig. 14.4.5 The paraboloid of Example 1

EXAMPLE 1 Find the volume V of the solid shown in Fig. 14.4.5. This is the figure bounded below by the xy -plane and above by the paraboloid $z = 25 - x^2 - y^2$.

Solution The paraboloid intersects the xy -plane in the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 25$. We can compute the volume of the solid by integrating over the quarter of that circle that lies in the first quadrant (Fig. 14.4.6) and then multiplying the result by 4. Thus

$$V = 4 \int_0^5 \int_0^{\sqrt{25-x^2}} (25 - x^2 - y^2) dy dx.$$

There is no difficulty in performing the integration with respect to y , but then we are confronted with the integrals

$$\int \sqrt{25 - x^2} dx, \quad \int x^2 \sqrt{25 - x^2} dx, \quad \text{and} \quad \int (25 - x^2)^{3/2} dx.$$

Let us instead transform the original integral into polar coordinates. Because $25 - x^2 - y^2 = 25 - r^2$ and because the quarter of the circular disk in the first quadrant is described by

$$0 \leq r \leq 5, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2,$$

Eq. (3) yields the volume

$$\begin{aligned} V &= 4 \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^5 (25 - r^2) r dr d\theta \\ &= 4 \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[\frac{25}{2} r^2 - \frac{1}{4} r^4 \right]_{r=0}^5 d\theta = 4 \cdot \frac{625}{4} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{625\pi}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

More General Polar-Coordinate Regions

If R is a more general region, then we can transform into polar coordinates the double integral

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA$$

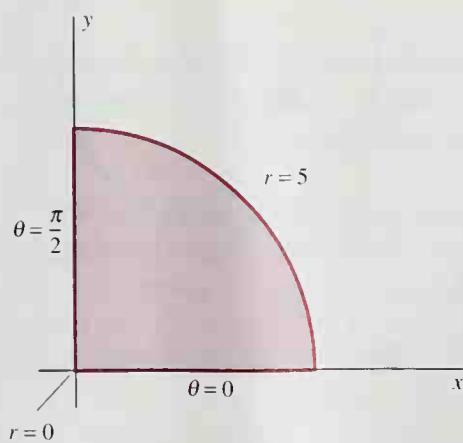


Fig. 14.4.6 One-fourth of the domain of the integral of Example 1

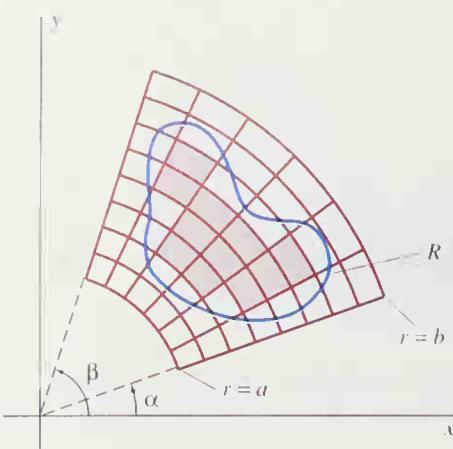


Fig. 14.4.7 A polar inner partition of the region R

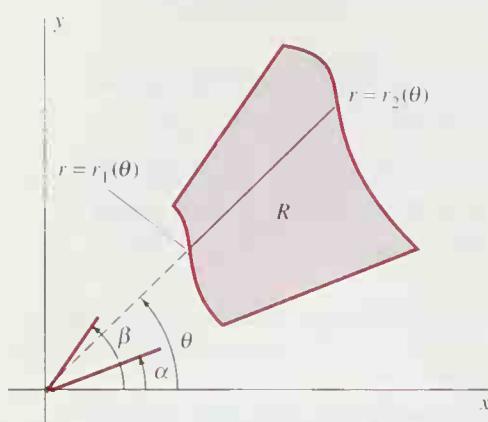


Fig. 14.4.8 A radially simple region R

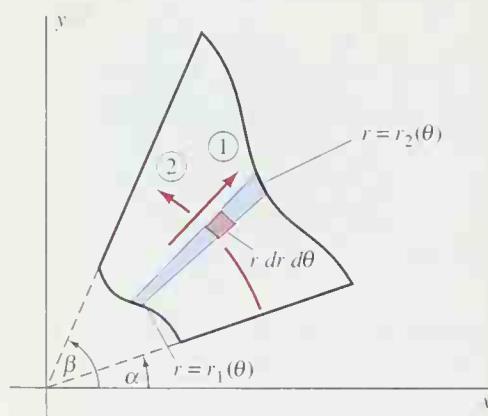


Fig. 14.4.9 Integrating first with respect to r and then with respect to θ

by expressing it as a limit of Riemann sums associated with “polar inner partitions” of the sort indicated in Fig. 14.4.7. Instead of giving the detailed derivation—a generalization of the preceding derivation of Eq. (3)—we shall simply give the results in one special case of practical importance.

Figure 14.4.8 shows a *radially simple* region R consisting of those points with polar coordinates that satisfy the inequalities

$$\alpha \leq \theta \leq \beta, \quad r_1(\theta) \leq r \leq r_2(\theta).$$

In this case, the formula

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \int_{r_1(\theta)}^{r_2(\theta)} f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) r dr d\theta \quad (5)$$

gives the evaluation in polar coordinates of a double integral over R (under the usual assumption that the indicated integrals exist). Note that we integrate first with respect to r , with the limits $r_1(\theta)$ and $r_2(\theta)$ being the r -coordinates of a typical radial segment in R (Fig. 14.4.8).

Figure 14.4.9 shows how we can set up the iterated integral on the right-hand side of Eq. (5) in a formal way. First, a typical area element $dA = r dr d\theta$ is swept radially from $r = r_1(\theta)$ to $r = r_2(\theta)$. Second, the resulting strip is rotated from $\theta = \alpha$ to $\theta = \beta$ to sweep out the region R . Equation (5) yields the volume formula

$$V = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \int_{r_{\text{inner}}}^{r_{\text{outer}}} zr dr d\theta \quad (6)$$

for the volume V of the solid that lies above the region R of Fig. 14.4.8 and below the surface $z = f(x, y) = f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$.

Observe that Eqs. (3) and (5) for the evaluation of a double integral in polar coordinates take the form

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \iint_S f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) r dr d\theta. \quad (7)$$

The symbol S on the right-hand side represents the appropriate limits on r and θ such that the region R is swept out in the manner indicated in Fig. 14.4.9.

With $f(x, y) \equiv 1$, Eq. (7) reduces to the formula

$$A = a(R) = \iint_S r dr d\theta \quad (8)$$

for computing the area $a(R)$ of R by double integration in polar coordinates. Note again that the symbol S refers not to a new region in the xy -plane, but to a new description—in terms of polar coordinates—of the original region R .

EXAMPLE 2 Figure 14.4.10 shows the region R bounded on the inside by the circle $r = 1$ and on the outside by the limacon $r = 2 + \cos \theta$. By following a typical radial line outward from the origin, we see that $r_{\text{inner}} = 1$ and $r_{\text{outer}} = 2 + \cos \theta$. Hence the area of R is

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \int_{r_{\text{inner}}}^{r_{\text{outer}}} r dr d\theta \\ &= 2 \int_{0}^{\pi} \int_{1}^{2 + \cos \theta} r dr d\theta \quad (\text{symmetry}) \end{aligned}$$

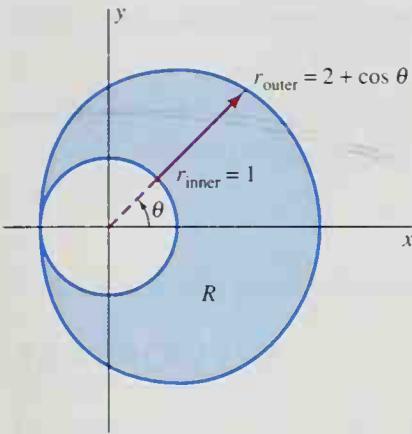


Fig. 14.4.10 The region R of Example 2

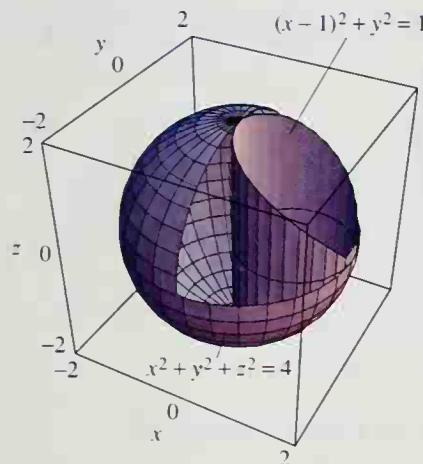


Fig. 14.4.11 The sphere with off-center hole (Example 3)

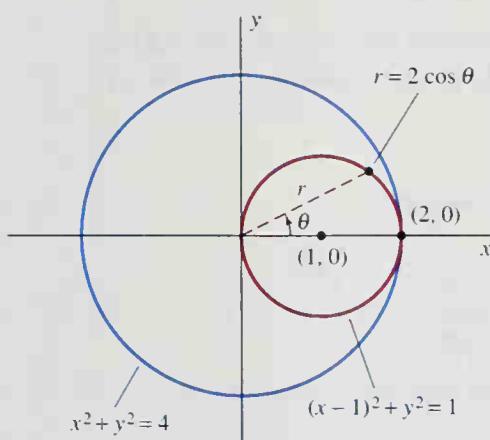


Fig. 14.4.12 The small circle is the domain of the integral of Example 3.

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 2 \int_0^\pi \frac{1}{2} [(2 + \cos \theta)^2 - 1^2] d\theta \\
 &= \int_0^\pi (3 + 4 \cos \theta + \cos^2 \theta) d\theta \\
 &= \int_0^\pi \left(3 + 4 \cos \theta + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos 2\theta \right) d\theta \\
 &= \int_0^\pi \left(3 + \frac{1}{2} \right) d\theta = \frac{7}{2} \pi.
 \end{aligned}$$

The cosine terms in the next-to-last integral contribute nothing, because upon integration they yield sine terms that are zero at both limits of integration. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Find the volume of the solid region that is interior to both the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ of radius 2 and the cylinder $(x - 1)^2 + y^2 = 1$. This is the volume of material removed when an off-center hole of radius 1 is bored just tangent to a diameter all the way through a sphere of radius 2 (Fig. 14.4.11).

Solution We need to integrate the function $f(x, y) = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}$ over the disk R that is bounded by the circle with center $(1, 0)$ and radius 1 (Fig. 14.4.12). The desired volume V is twice that of the part above the xy -plane, so

$$V = 2 \iint_R \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2} dA.$$

But this integral would be awkward to evaluate in rectangular coordinates, so we change to polar coordinates.

The circle of radius 1 in Fig. 14.4.12 is familiar from Chapter 10; its polar equation is $r = 2 \cos \theta$. Therefore the region R is described by the inequalities

$$0 \leq r \leq 2 \cos \theta, \quad -\pi/2 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2.$$

We shall integrate only over the upper half of R , taking advantage of the symmetry of the sphere-with-hole. This involves doubling, for a second time, the integral we write. So—using Eq. (5)—we find that

$$\begin{aligned}
 V &= 4 \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2 \cos \theta} \sqrt{4 - r^2} r dr d\theta \\
 &= 4 \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[-\frac{1}{3} (4 - r^2)^{3/2} \right]_{r=0}^{2 \cos \theta} d\theta = \frac{32}{3} \int_0^{\pi/2} (1 - \sin^3 \theta) d\theta.
 \end{aligned}$$

Now we see from Formula (113) on the inside back cover that

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^3 \theta d\theta = \frac{2}{3},$$

and therefore

$$V = \frac{16}{3} \pi - \frac{64}{9} \approx 9.64405. ■$$

In Example 4 we use a polar-coordinates version of the familiar volume formula

$$V = \iint_R (z_{\text{top}} - z_{\text{bot}}) dA.$$

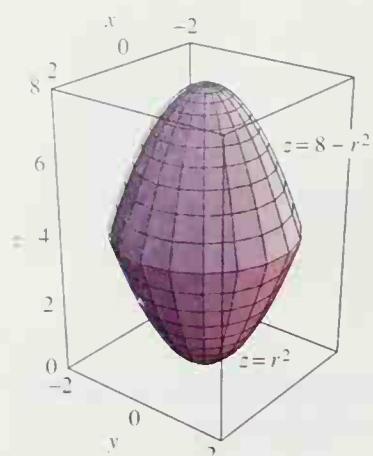


Fig. 14.4.13 The solid of Example 4

EXAMPLE 4 Find the volume of the solid that is bounded above by the paraboloid $z = 8 - r^2$ and below by the paraboloid $z = r^2$ (Fig. 14.4.13).

Solution The curve of intersection of the two paraboloids is found by simultaneous solution of the equations of the two surfaces. We eliminate z to obtain

$$r^2 = 8 - r^2; \text{ that is, } r^2 = 4.$$

Hence the solid lies above the plane circular disk D with polar description $0 \leq r \leq 2$, and so the volume of the solid is

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \iint_D (z_{\text{top}} - z_{\text{bot}}) dA = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^2 [(8 - r^2) - r^2] r dr d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^2 (8r - 2r^3) dr d\theta = 2\pi \left[4r^2 - \frac{1}{2}r^4 \right]_0^2 = 16\pi. \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 5 Here we apply a standard polar-coordinates technique to show that

$$I = \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}. \quad (9)$$

REMARK This important improper integral converges because

$$\int_1^b e^{-x^2} dx \leq \int_1^b e^{-x} dx \leq \int_1^\infty e^{-x} dx = \frac{1}{e}.$$

(The first inequality is valid because $e^{-x^2} \leq e^{-x}$ for $x \geq 1$.) It follows that

$$\int_1^b e^{-x^2} dx$$

is a bounded and increasing function of b .

Solution Let V_b denote the volume of the region that lies below the surface $z = e^{-x^2-y^2}$ and above the square with vertices $(\pm b, \pm b)$ in the xy -plane (Fig. 14.4.14). Then

$$\begin{aligned} V_b &= \int_{-b}^b \int_{-b}^b e^{-x^2-y^2} dx dy = \int_{-b}^b e^{-y^2} \left(\int_{-b}^b e^{-x^2} dx \right) dy \\ &= \left(\int_{-b}^b e^{-x^2} dx \right) \left(\int_{-b}^b e^{-y^2} dy \right) = \left(\int_{-b}^b e^{-x^2} dx \right)^2 = 4 \left(\int_0^b e^{-x^2} dx \right)^2. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that the volume below $z = e^{-x^2-y^2}$ and above the entire xy -plane is

$$V = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} V_b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} 4 \left(\int_0^b e^{-x^2} dx \right)^2 = 4 \left(\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx \right)^2 = 4I^2.$$

Now we compute V by another method—by using polar coordinates. We take the limit, as $b \rightarrow \infty$, of the volume below $z = e^{-x^2-y^2} = e^{-r^2}$ and above the circular disk with center $(0, 0)$ and radius b (Fig. 14.4.15). This disk is described by $0 \leq r \leq b$, $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$, so we obtain

Fig. 14.4.14 The surface $z = e^{-x^2-y^2}$ (Example 5)

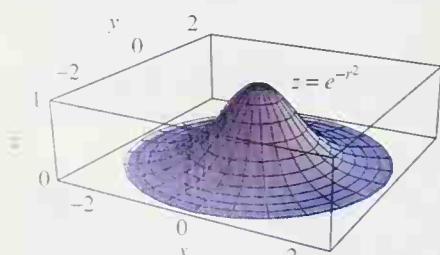


Fig. 14.4.15 The surface $z = e^{-r^2}$ (Example 5)

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^b r e^{-r^2} dr d\theta = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{2\pi} \left[-\frac{1}{2} e^{-r^2} \right]_0^b d\theta \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2} \left[1 - e^{-b^2} \right] d\theta = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \pi(1 - e^{-b^2}) = \pi. \end{aligned}$$

We equate these two values of V and it follows that $4I^2 = \pi$. Therefore $I = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\pi}$, as desired. ■

14.4 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 7, find the indicated area by double integration in polar coordinates.

1. The area bounded by the circle $r = 1$
2. The area bounded by the circle $r = 3 \sin \theta$
3. The area bounded by the cardioid $r = 1 + \cos \theta$ (Fig. 14.4.16)
4. The area bounded by one loop of $r = 2 \cos 2\theta$ (Fig. 14.4.17)

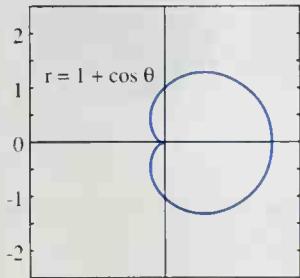


Fig. 14.4.16 The cardioid of Problem 3

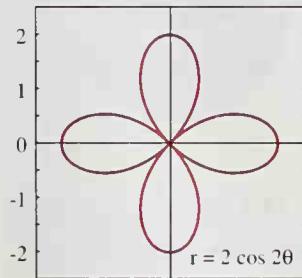


Fig. 14.4.17 The rose of Problem 4

5. The area inside both the circles $r = 1$ and $r = 2 \sin \theta$
6. The area inside $r = 2 + \cos \theta$ and outside the circle $r = 2$
7. The area inside the smaller loop of $r = 1 - 2 \sin \theta$ (Fig. 14.4.18)

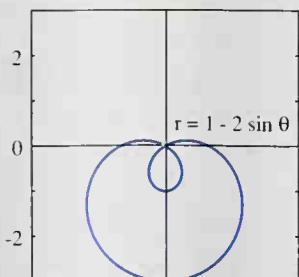


Fig. 14.4.18 The limacon of Problem 7

In Problems 8 through 12, use double integration in polar coordinates to find the volume of the solid that lies below the

given surface and above the plane region R bounded by the given curve.

8. $z = x^2 + y^2$; $r = 3$
9. $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$; $r = 2$
10. $z = x^2 + y^2$; $r = 2 \cos \theta$
11. $z = 10 + 2x + 3y$; $r = \sin \theta$
12. $z = a^2 - x^2 - y^2$; $r = a$

In Problems 13 through 18, evaluate the given integral by first converting to polar coordinates.

13. $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \frac{1}{1+x^2+y^2} dx dy$ (Fig. 14.4.19)
14. $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{4-x^2-y^2}} dy dx$ (Fig. 14.4.19)
15. $\int_0^2 \int_0^{\sqrt{4-x^2}} (x^2+y^2)^{3/2} dy dx$
16. $\int_0^1 \int_x^1 x^2 dy dx$
17. $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \sin(x^2+y^2) dx dy$
18. $\int_1^2 \int_0^{\sqrt{2x-x^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} dy dx$ (Fig. 14.4.20)

In Problems 19 through 22, find the volume of the solid that is bounded above and below by the given surfaces $z = z_1(x, y)$

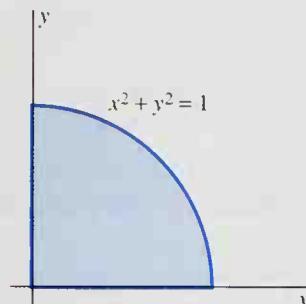


Fig. 14.4.19 The quarter-circle of Problems 13 and 14

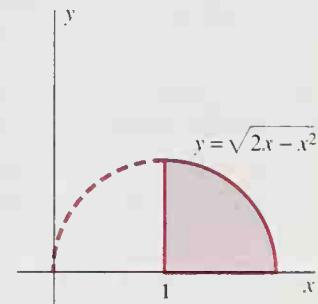


Fig. 14.4.20 The quarter-circle of Problem 18

and $z = z_0(x, y)$ and lies above the plane region R bounded by the given curve $r = g(\theta)$.

19. $z = 1, z = 3 + x + y; r = 1$
20. $z = 2 + x, z = 4 + 2x; r = 2$
21. $z = 0, z = 3 + x + y; r = 2 \sin \theta$
22. $z = 0, z = 1 + x; r = 1 + \cos \theta$

Solve Problems 23 through 32 by double integration in polar coordinates.

23. Find the volume of a sphere of radius a by double integration.
24. Find the volume of the solid bounded by the paraboloids $z = 12 - 2x^2 - y^2$ and $z = x^2 + 2y^2$.
25. Suppose that $h > a > 0$. Show that the volume of the solid bounded by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$, the plane $z = 0$, and the plane $z = x + h$ is $\pi a^2 h$.
26. Find the volume of the wedge-shaped solid described in Example 3 of Section 14.3 (Fig. 14.4.21).
27. Find the volume bounded by the paraboloids $z = x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 4 - 3x^2 - 3y^2$.
28. Find the volume bounded by the paraboloids $z = x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 2x^2 + 2y^2 = 1$.
29. Find the volume of the “ice-cream cone” bounded by the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ and the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. When $a = 1$ this solid is the one shown in Fig. 14.4.22.

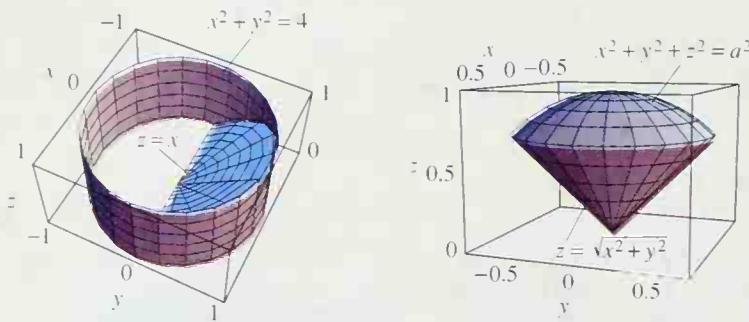


Fig. 14.4.21 The wedge of Problem 26

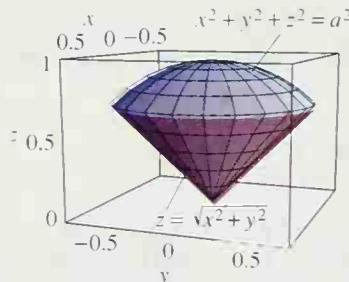


Fig. 14.4.22 The fat ice-cream cone of Problem 29

30. Find the volume bounded by the paraboloid $z = r^2$, the cylinder $r = 2a \sin \theta$, and the plane $z = 0$.
31. Find the volume that lies below the paraboloid $z = r^2$ and above one loop of the lemniscate with equation $r^2 = 2 \sin \theta$.

14.5 APPLICATIONS OF DOUBLE INTEGRALS

We can use the double integral to find the mass m and the *centroid* (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) of a plane *lamina*, or thin plate, that occupies a bounded region R in the xy -plane. We suppose that the density of the lamina (in units of mass per unit *area*) at the point (x, y) is given by the continuous function $\delta(x, y)$.

Let $\mathcal{P} = \{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n\}$ be an inner partition of R , and choose a point (x_i^*, y_i^*) in each subrectangle R_i (Fig. 14.5.1). Then the mass of the part of the lamina occupying

32. Find the volume that lies inside both the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the ellipsoid $2x^2 + 2y^2 + z^2 = 18$.
33. If $0 < h < a$, then the plane $z = a - h$ cuts off a spherical segment of height h and radius b from the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ (Fig. 14.4.23). (a) Show that $b^2 = 2ah - h^2$. (b) Show that the volume of the spherical segment is $V = \frac{1}{6}\pi h(3b^2 + h^2)$.

34. Show by the method of Example 5 that

$$\int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{(1 + x^2 + y^2)^2} dx dy = \frac{\pi}{4}.$$

35. Find the volume of the solid torus obtained by revolving the disk $r \leq a$ around the line $x = b > a$ (Fig. 14.4.24). (Suggestion: If the area element $dA = r dr d\theta$ is revolved around the line, the volume generated is $dV = 2\pi(b - x) dA$. Express everything in polar coordinates.)

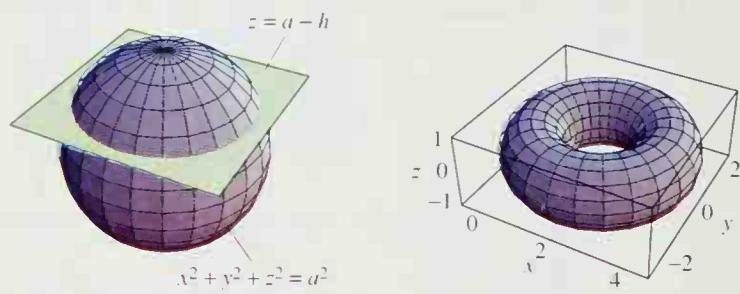


Fig. 14.4.23 The spherical segment of Problem 33

Fig. 14.4.24 The torus of Problem 35 (the case $a = 1, b = 2$ is shown)

In Problems 36 through 40, use double integrals in polar coordinates to find the volumes of the indicated solids.

36. The solid lies above the plane $z = -3$ and below the paraboloid $z = 15 - 2x^2 - 2y^2$.
37. The solid is bounded above by the plane $z = y + 4$ and below by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2 + y$.
38. The solid lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$, above the xy -plane, and below the plane $z = x + y + 3$.
39. The solid is bounded by the elliptical paraboloids $z = x^2 + 2y^2$ and $z = 12 - 2x^2 - y^2$.
40. The solid lies inside the ellipsoid $4x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 = 80$ and above the paraboloid $z = 2x^2 + 2y^2$.

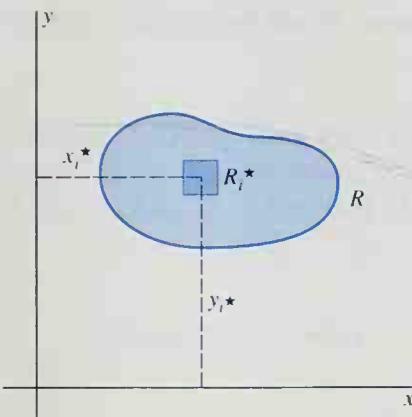


Fig. 14.5.1 The area element
 $\Delta A_i = a(R_i)$

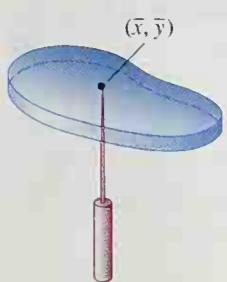


Fig. 14.5.2 A lamina balanced on its centroid

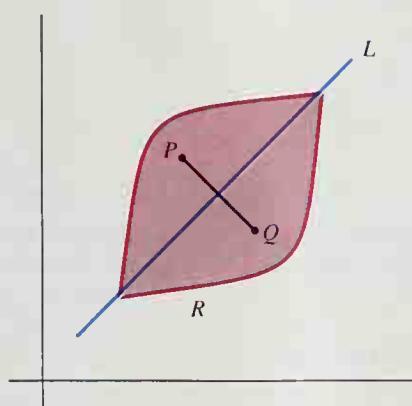


Fig. 14.5.3 A line of symmetry

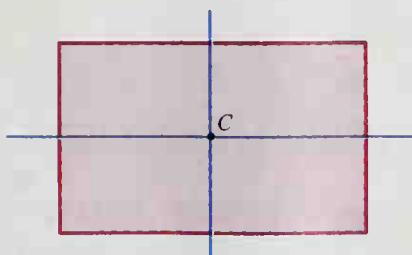


Fig. 14.5.4 The centroid of a rectangle

R_i is approximately $\delta(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i$, where ΔA_i denotes the area $a(R_i)$ of R_i . Hence the mass of the entire lamina is given approximately by

$$m \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \delta(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i.$$

As the norm $|\mathcal{P}|$ of the inner partition \mathcal{P} approaches zero, this Riemann sum approaches the corresponding double integral over R . We therefore *define* the **mass** m of the lamina by means of the formula

$$m = \iint_R \delta(x, y) dA. \quad (1)$$

In brief,

$$m = \iint_R \delta dA = \iint_R dm$$

in terms of the density δ and the mass element $dm = \delta dA$.

The coordinates (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) of the **centroid**, or *center of mass*, of the lamina are defined to be

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_R x \delta(x, y) dA, \quad (2)$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_R y \delta(x, y) dA. \quad (3)$$

You may remember these formulas in the form

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_R x dm, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_R y dm.$$

Thus \bar{x} and \bar{y} are the *average values* of x and y with respect to mass in the region R . The centroid (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) is the point of the lamina where it would balance horizontally if placed on the point of an ice pick (Fig. 14.5.2).

If the density function δ has the *constant* value $k > 0$, then the coordinates of \bar{x} and \bar{y} are independent of the specific value of k . (Why?) In such a case we will generally take $\delta \equiv 1$ in our computations. Moreover, in this case m will have the same numerical value as the area A of R , and (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) is then called the **centroid of the plane region R** .

Generally, we must calculate all three integrals in Eqs. (1) through (3) in order to find the centroid of a lamina. But sometimes we can take advantage of the following *symmetry principle*: If the plane region R (considered to be a lamina of constant density) is symmetric with respect to the line L —that is, if R is carried onto itself when the plane is rotated through an angle of 180° around the line L —then the centroid of R lies on L (Fig. 14.5.3). For example, the centroid of a rectangle (Fig. 14.5.4) is the point where the perpendicular bisectors of its sides meet, because these bisectors are also lines of symmetry.

In the case of a nonconstant density function δ , we require (for symmetry) that δ —as well as the region itself—be symmetric about the geometric line L of symmetry. That is, $\delta(P) = \delta(Q)$ if, as in Fig. 14.5.3, the points P and Q are symmetrically

located with respect to L . Then the centroid of the lamina R will lie on the line L of symmetry.

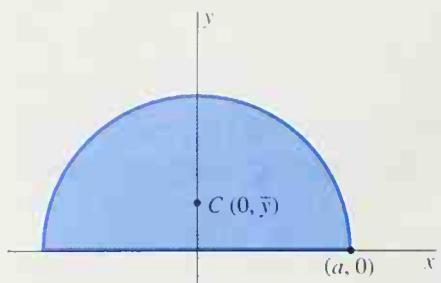


Fig. 14.5.5 The centroid of a semicircular disk (Example 1)

EXAMPLE 1 Consider the semicircular disk of radius a shown in Fig. 14.5.5. If it has constant density $\delta \equiv 1$, then its mass is $m = \frac{1}{2}\pi a^2$ (numerically equal to its area), and by symmetry its centroid $C(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ lies on the y -axis. Hence $\bar{x} = 0$, and we need only compute

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{y} &= \frac{1}{m} \iint_R y \, dm = \frac{2}{\pi a^2} \int_0^\pi \int_0^a (r \sin \theta) r \, dr \, d\theta \quad (\text{polar coordinates}) \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi a^2} \left[-\cos \theta \right]_0^\pi \left[\frac{1}{3} r^3 \right]_0^a = \frac{2}{\pi a^2} \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{a^3}{3} = \frac{4a}{3\pi}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus the centroid of the semicircular lamina is located at the point $(0, 4a/3\pi)$. Note that the computed value for \bar{y} has the dimensions of length (because a is a length), as it should. Any answer that has other dimensions would be suspect. ■

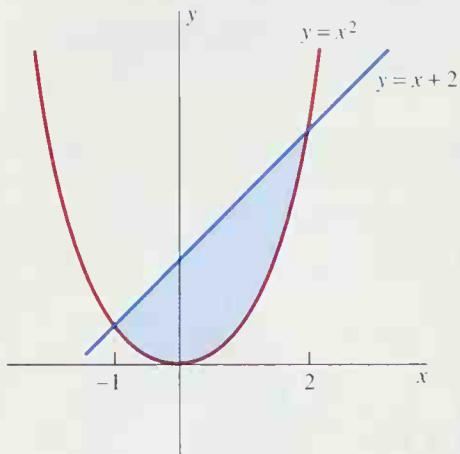


Fig. 14.5.6 The lamina of Example 2

EXAMPLE 2 A lamina occupies the region bounded by the line $y = x + 2$ and the parabola $y = x^2$ (Fig. 14.5.6). The density of the lamina at the point $P(x, y)$ is proportional to the square of the distance of P from the y -axis—thus $\delta(x, y) = kx^2$ (where k is a positive constant). Find the mass and centroid of the lamina.

Solution The line and the parabola intersect in the two points $(-1, 1)$ and $(2, 4)$, so Eq. (1) gives mass

$$\begin{aligned}m &= \int_{-1}^2 \int_{x^2}^{x+2} kx^2 \, dy \, dx = k \int_{-1}^2 \left[x^2 y \right]_{y=x^2}^{x+2} \, dx \\ &= k \int_{-1}^2 (x^3 + 2x^2 - x^4) \, dx = \frac{63}{20} k.\end{aligned}$$

Then Eqs. (2) and (3) give

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{x} &= \frac{20}{63k} \int_{-1}^2 \int_{x^2}^{x+2} kx^3 \, dy \, dx = \frac{20}{63} \int_{-1}^2 \left[x^3 y \right]_{y=x^2}^{x+2} \, dx \\ &= \frac{20}{63} \int_{-1}^2 (x^4 + 2x^3 - x^5) \, dx = \frac{20}{63} \cdot \frac{18}{5} = \frac{8}{7}; \\ \bar{y} &= \frac{20}{63k} \int_{-1}^2 \int_{x^2}^{x+2} kx^2 y \, dy \, dx = \frac{20}{63} \int_{-1}^2 \left[\frac{1}{2} x^2 y^2 \right]_{y=x^2}^{x+2} \, dx \\ &= \frac{10}{63} \int_{-1}^2 (x^4 + 4x^3 + 4x^2 - x^6) \, dx = \frac{10}{63} \cdot \frac{531}{35} = \frac{118}{49}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus the lamina of this example has mass $63k/20$, and its centroid is located at the point $(\frac{8}{7}, \frac{118}{49})$. ■

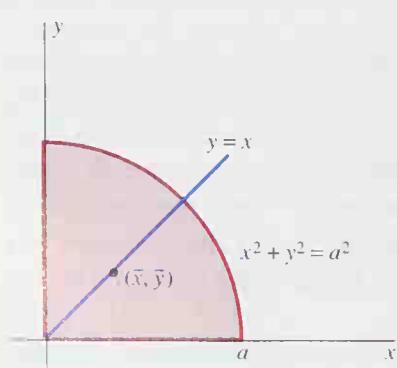


Fig. 14.5.7 Finding mass and centroid (Example 3)

EXAMPLE 3 A lamina is shaped like the first-quadrant quarter-circle of radius a shown in Fig. 14.5.7. Its density is proportional to distance from the origin—that is, its density at (x, y) is $\delta(x, y) = k\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = kr$ (where k is a positive constant). Find its mass and centroid.

Solution First we change to polar coordinates, because both the shape of the boundary of the lamina and the formula for its density suggest that this will make the computations much simpler. Equation (1) then yields the mass to be

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \iint_R \delta \, dA = \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^a kr^2 \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= k \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[\frac{1}{3} r^3 \right]_{r=0}^a \, d\theta = k \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{3} a^3 \, d\theta = \frac{k\pi a^3}{6}. \end{aligned}$$

By symmetry of the lamina and its density function, the centroid lies on the line $y = x$. So Eq. (3) gives

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x} = \bar{y} &= \frac{1}{m} \iint_R y \delta \, dA = \frac{6}{k\pi a^3} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^a kr^3 \sin \theta \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \frac{6}{\pi a^3} \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[\frac{1}{4} r^4 \sin \theta \right]_{r=0}^a \, d\theta = \frac{6}{\pi a^3} \cdot \frac{a^4}{4} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin \theta \, d\theta = \frac{3a}{2\pi}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the given lamina has mass $\frac{1}{6} k\pi a^3$; its centroid is located at the point $(3a/2\pi, 3a/2\pi)$. ■

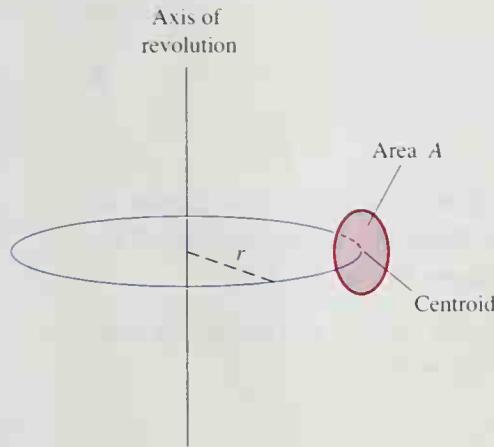


Fig. 14.5.8 A solid of volume $V = A \cdot d$ is generated by the area A as its centroid travels the distance $d = 2\pi r$ around a circle of radius r .

Volume and the First Theorem of Pappus

An important theorem relating centroids and volumes of revolution is named for the Greek mathematician who stated it during the third century A.D.

First Theorem of Pappus Volume of Revolution

Suppose that a plane region R is revolved around an axis in its plane (Fig. 14.5.8), generating a solid of revolution with volume V . Assume that the axis does not intersect the interior of R . Then the volume

$$V = A \cdot d$$

of the solid is the product of the area A of R and the distance d traveled by the centroid of R .

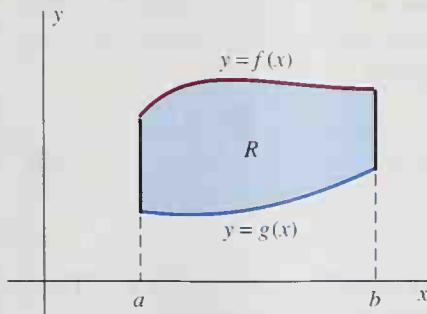


Fig. 14.5.9 A region R between the graphs of two functions

PROOF We treat only the special case of a region like that in Fig. 14.5.9. This is the region between the two graphs $y = f(x)$ and $y = g(x)$ for $a \leq x \leq b$, with $f(x) \geq g(x)$ for such x and with the axis of revolution being the y -axis. Then, in a revolution around the y -axis, the distance traveled by the centroid of R is $d = 2\pi \bar{x}$. By the method of cylindrical shells [see Eq. (4) of Section 6.3 and Fig. 14.5.10], the volume of the solid generated is

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \int_a^b 2\pi x [f(x) - g(x)] \, dx = \int_a^b \int_{g(x)}^{f(x)} 2\pi x \, dy \, dx \\ &= 2\pi \int_R x \, dA = 2\pi \bar{x} \cdot A \end{aligned}$$

[by Eq. (2), with $\delta \equiv 1$.] Thus $V = d \cdot A$, as desired. ■

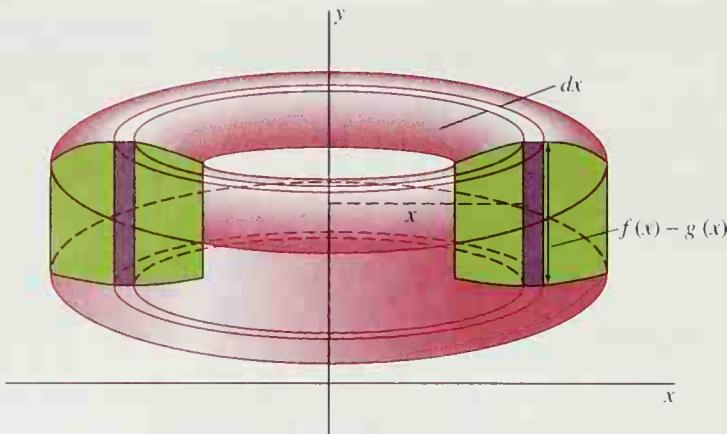


Fig. 14.5.10 A solid of revolution consisting of cylindrical shells

EXAMPLE 4 Find the volume V of the sphere of radius a generated by revolving around the x -axis the semicircular region D of Example 1. See Fig. 14.5.11.

Solution The area of D is $A = \frac{1}{2}\pi a^2$, and we found in Example 1 that $\bar{y} = 4a/3\pi$. Hence Pappus's theorem gives

$$V = 2\pi\bar{y}A = 2\pi \cdot \frac{4a}{3\pi} \cdot \frac{\pi a^2}{2} = \frac{4}{3}\pi a^3.$$

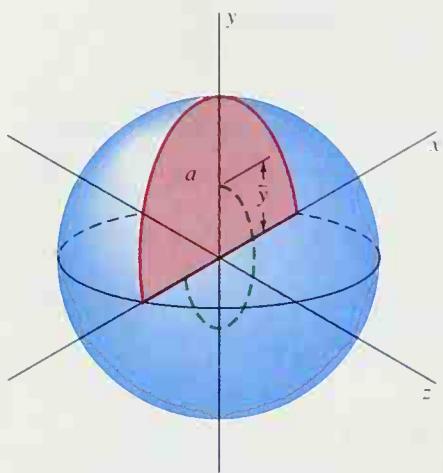


Fig. 14.5.11 A sphere of radius a generated by revolving a semicircular region of area $A = \frac{1}{2}\pi a^2$ around its diameter on the x -axis (Example 4). The centroid of the semicircle travels along a circle of circumference $d = 2\pi\bar{y}$.

EXAMPLE 5 Consider the circular disk of Fig. 14.5.12, with radius a and center at the point $(b, 0)$ with $0 < a < b$. Find the volume V of the solid torus generated by revolving this disk around the y -axis. Such a torus is shown in Fig. 14.4.24.

Solution The centroid of the circle is at its center $(b, 0)$, so $\bar{x} = b$. Hence the centroid is revolved through the distance $d = 2\pi b$. Consequently,

$$V = d \cdot A = 2\pi b \cdot \pi a^2 = 2\pi^2 a^2 b.$$

Note that this result is dimensionally correct.

Surface Area and the Second Theorem of Pappus

Centroids of plane *curves* are defined in analogy with the method for plane regions, so we shall present this topic in less detail. It will suffice for us to treat only the case of constant density $\delta \equiv 1$ (like a wire with unit mass per unit length). Then the centroid (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) of the plane curve C is defined by the formulas

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{s} \int_C x \, ds, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{s} \int_C y \, ds \tag{4}$$

where s is the arc length of C .

The meaning of the integrals in Eq. (4) is that of the notation of Section 6.4. That is, ds is a symbol to be replaced (before the integral is evaluated) with either

$$ds = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} \, dx \quad \text{or} \quad ds = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2} \, dy,$$

depending on whether C is a smooth arc of the form $y = f(x)$ or one of the form $x = g(y)$. Alternatively, we may have

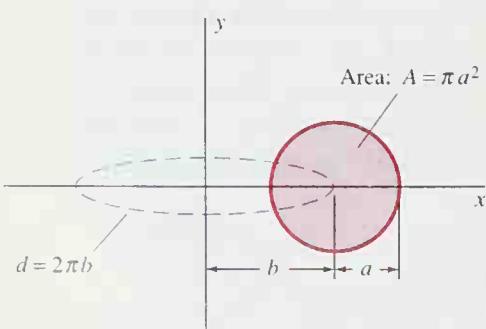


Fig. 14.5.12 Rotating the circular disk around the y -axis to generate a torus (Example 5)

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

if C is presented in parametric form, as in Section 10.5.

EXAMPLE 6 Let J denote the upper half of the *circle* (not the disk) of radius a and center $(0, 0)$, represented parametrically by

$$x = a \cos t, \quad y = a \sin t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq \pi.$$

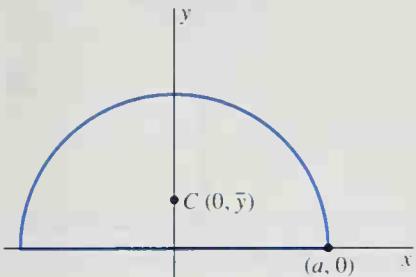


Fig. 14.5.13 The semicircular arc of Example 6

The arc J is shown in Fig. 14.5.13. Find its centroid.

Solution Note first that $\bar{x} = 0$ by symmetry. The arc length of J is $s = \pi a$; the arc-length element is

$$ds = \sqrt{(-a \sin t)^2 + (a \cos t)^2} dt = a dt.$$

Hence the second formula in (4) yields

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{\pi a} \int_0^\pi (a \sin t) a dt = \frac{a}{\pi} \left[-\cos t \right]_0^\pi = \frac{2a}{\pi}.$$

Thus the centroid of the semicircular arc is located at the point $(0, 2a/\pi)$ on the y -axis. Note that the answer is both plausible and dimensionally correct. ■

The first theorem of Pappus has an analogue for surface area of revolution.

Second Theorem of Pappus *Surface Area of Revolution*

Let the plane curve C be revolved around an axis in its plane that does not intersect the curve. Then the area

$$A = s \cdot d$$

of the surface of revolution generated is equal to the product of the length s of C and the distance d traveled by the centroid of C .

PROOF We treat only the special case in which C is a smooth arc described by $y = f(x)$, $a \leq x \leq b$, and the axis of revolution is the y -axis. The distance traveled by the centroid of C is $d = 2\pi\bar{x}$. By Eq. (11) of Section 6.4, the area of the surface of revolution is

$$A = \int_{\star}^{**} 2\pi x ds = \int_a^b 2\pi x \sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2} dx = 2\pi s \cdot \frac{1}{s} \int_C x ds = 2\pi s \bar{x}$$

by Eq. (4). Therefore $A = d \cdot s$, as desired. ■

EXAMPLE 7 Find the surface area A of the sphere of radius a generated by revolving around the x -axis the semicircular arc of Example 6.

Solution Because we found that $\bar{y} = 2a/\pi$ and we know that $s = \pi a$, the second theorem of Pappus gives

$$A = 2\pi \bar{y}s = 2\pi \cdot \frac{2a}{\pi} \cdot \pi a = 4\pi a^2.$$

EXAMPLE 8 Find the surface area A of the torus of Example 5.

Solution Now we think of revolving around the y -axis the circle (*not* the disk) of radius a centered at the point $(b, 0)$. Of course, the centroid of the circle is located at its center $(b, 0)$; this follows from the symmetry principle or can be verified by using computations such as those in Example 6. Hence the distance traveled by the centroid is $d = 2\pi b$. Because the circumference of the circle is $s = 2\pi a$, the second theorem of Pappus gives

$$A = 2\pi b \cdot 2\pi a = 4\pi^2 ab.$$

Moments of Inertia

Let R be a plane lamina and L a straight line that may or may not lie in the xy -plane. Then the **moment of inertia** I of R around the axis L is defined to be

$$I = \iint_R w^2 dm, \quad (5)$$

where $w = w(x, y)$ denotes the perpendicular distance to L from the point (x, y) of R .

The most important case is that in which the axis of revolution is the z -axis, so $w = r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ (Fig. 14.5.14). In this case we call $I = I_0$ the **polar moment of inertia** of the lamina R . Thus the polar moment of inertia of R is defined to be

$$I_0 = \iint_R r^2 \delta(x, y) dA = \iint_R (x^2 + y^2) dm. \quad (6)$$

It follows that $I_0 = I_x + I_y$, where

$$I_x = \iint_R y^2 dm = \iint_R y^2 \delta dm \quad (7)$$

and

$$I_y = \iint_R x^2 dm = \iint_R x^2 \delta dm. \quad (8)$$

Here I_x is the moment of inertia of the lamina around the x -axis and I_y is its moment of inertia around the y -axis.

An important application of moments of inertia involves *kinetic energy of rotation*. Consider a circular disk that is revolving around its center (the origin) with angular speed ω radians per second. A mass element dm at distance r from the origin is moving with (linear) velocity $v = r\omega$ (Fig. 14.5.15). Thus the kinetic energy of the mass element is

$$\frac{1}{2}(dm)v^2 = \frac{1}{2}\omega^2 r^2 dm.$$

Summing by integration over the whole disk, we find that its kinetic energy due to rotation at angular speed ω is

$$KE_{\text{rot}} = \iint_R \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 r^2 dm = \frac{1}{2}\omega^2 \iint_R r^2 dm;$$

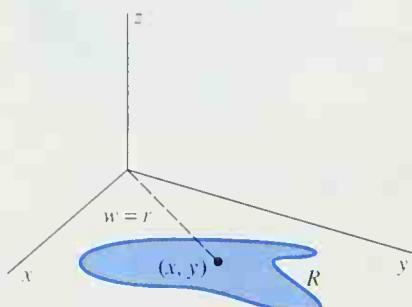


Fig. 14.5.14 A lamina in the xy -plane in space

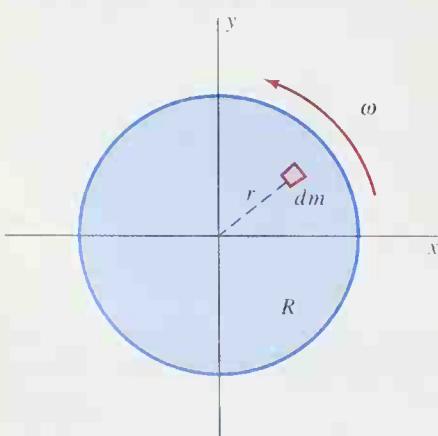


Fig. 14.5.15 The rotating disk

that is,

$$\text{KE}_{\text{tot}} = \frac{1}{2} I_0 \omega^2. \quad (9)$$

Because linear kinetic energy has the formula $\text{KE} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$, Eq. (9) suggests (correctly) that moment of inertia is the rotational analogue of mass.

EXAMPLE 9 Compute I_x for a lamina of constant density $\delta \equiv 1$ that occupies the region bounded by the curves $x = \pm y^4$, $-1 \leq y \leq 1$ (Fig. 14.5.16).

Solution Equation (7) gives

$$I_x = \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-y^4}^{y^4} y^2 dx dy = \int_{-1}^1 \left[xy^2 \right]_{x=-y^4}^{x=y^4} dy = \int_{-1}^1 2y^6 dy = \frac{4}{7}. \quad \blacksquare$$

The region of Example 9 resembles the cross section of an I beam. It is known that the stiffness, or resistance to bending, of a horizontal beam is proportional to the moment of inertia of its cross section with respect to a horizontal axis through the centroid of the cross section of the beam. Let us compare our I beam with a rectangular beam of equal height 2 and equal area

$$A = \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-y^4}^{y^4} 1 dx dy = \frac{4}{5}.$$

The cross section of such a rectangular beam is shown in Fig. 14.5.17. Its width is $\frac{2}{5}$, and the moment of inertia of its cross section is

$$I_x = \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-1/5}^{1/5} y^2 dx dy = \frac{4}{15}.$$

Because the ratio of $\frac{4}{7}$ to $\frac{4}{15}$ is $\frac{15}{7}$, we see that the I beam is more than twice as strong as a rectangular beam of the same cross-sectional area. This strength is why I beams are commonly used in construction.

EXAMPLE 10 Find the polar moment of inertia of a circular lamina R of radius a and constant density δ centered at the origin.

Solution In Cartesian coordinates, the lamina R occupies the plane region $x^2 + y^2 \leq a^2$; in polar coordinates, this region has the much simpler description $0 \leq r \leq a$, $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$. Equation (6) then gives

$$I_0 = \iint_R r^2 \delta dA = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a r^3 \delta dr d\theta = \frac{\delta \pi a^4}{2} = \frac{1}{2} m a^2,$$

where $m = \delta \pi a^2$ is the mass of the circular lamina. ■

Finally, the **radius of gyration** \hat{r} of a lamina of mass m around an axis is defined to be

$$\hat{r} = \sqrt{\frac{I}{m}}, \quad (10)$$

where I is the moment of inertia of the lamina around that axis. For example, the radii of gyration \hat{x} and \hat{y} around the y -axis and x -axis, respectively, are given by

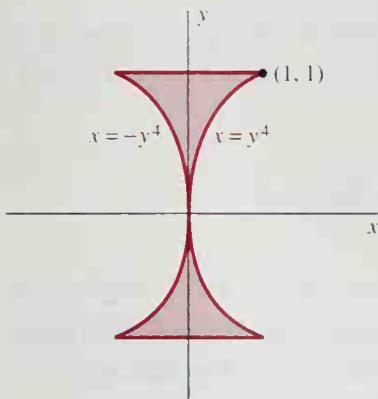


Fig. 14.5.16 The lamina of Example 9

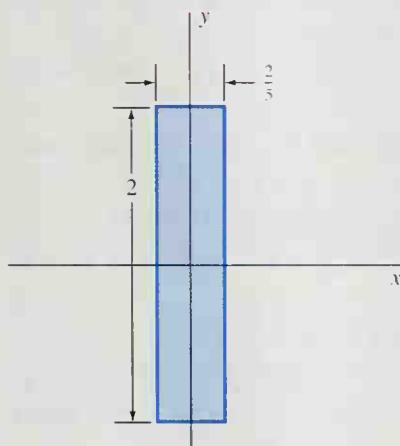


Fig. 14.5.17 A rectangular beam for comparison with the I beam of Example 9

$$\hat{x} = \sqrt{\frac{I_y}{m}} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{y} = \sqrt{\frac{I_x}{m}}. \quad (11)$$

Now suppose that this lamina lies in the right half-plane $x > 0$ and is symmetric around the x -axis. If it represents the face of a tennis racquet whose handle (considered of negligible weight) extends along the x -axis from the origin to the face, then the point $(\hat{x}, 0)$ is a plausible candidate for the racquet's "sweet spot" that delivers the maximum impact and control (see Problem 56).

The definition in Eq. (10) is motivated by consideration of a plane lamina R rotating with angular speed ω around the z -axis (Fig. 14.5.18). Then Eq. (10) yields

$$I_0 = m\hat{r}^2,$$

so it follows from Eq. (9) that the kinetic energy of the lamina is

$$KE = \frac{1}{2} m(\hat{r}\omega)^2.$$

Thus the kinetic energy of the rotating lamina equals that of a single particle of mass m revolving with velocity $v = \hat{r}\omega$ at the distance \hat{r} from the axis of revolution.

14.5 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 10, find the centroid of the plane region bounded by the given curves. Assume that the density is $\delta \equiv 1$ for each region.

1. $x = 0, x = 4, y = 0, y = 6$
2. $x = 1, x = 3, y = 2, y = 4$
3. $x = -1, x = 3, y = -2, y = 4$
4. $x = 0, y = 0, x + y = 3$
5. $x = 0, y = 0, x + 2y = 4$
6. $y = 0, y = x, x + y = 2$
7. $y = 0, y = x^2, x = 2$
8. $y = x^2, y = 9$
9. $y = 0, y = x^2 - 4$
10. $x = -2, x = 2, y = 0, y = x^2 + 1$

In Problems 11 through 30, find the mass and centroid of the plane lamina with the indicated shape and density.

11. The triangular region bounded by $x = 0, y = 0$, and $x + y = 1$, with $\delta(x, y) = xy$
12. The triangular region of Problem 11, with $\delta(x, y) = x^2$
13. The region bounded by $y = 0$ and $y = 4 - x^2$, with $\delta(x, y) = y$
14. The region bounded by $x = 0$ and $x = 9 - y^2$, with $\delta(x, y) = x^2$
15. The region bounded by the parabolas $y = x^2$ and $x = y^2$, with $\delta(x, y) = xy$
16. The region of Problem 15, with $\delta(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$
17. The region bounded by the parabolas $y = x^2$ and $y = 2 - x^2$, with $\delta(x, y) = y$
18. The region bounded by $x = 0, x = e, y = 0$, and $y = \ln x$ for $1 \leq x \leq e$, with $\delta(x, y) \equiv 1$

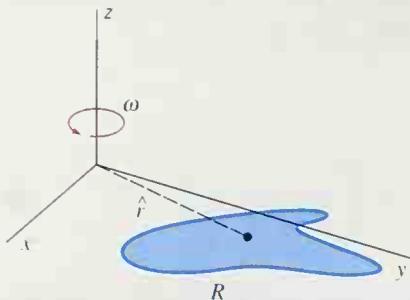


Fig. 14.5.18 A plane lamina rotating around the z -axis

19. The region bounded by $y = 0$ and $y = \sin x$ for $0 \leq x \leq \pi$, with $\delta(x, y) \equiv 1$
20. The region bounded by $y = 0, x = -1, x = 1$, and $y = \exp(-x^2)$, with $\delta(x, y) = |xy|$
21. The square with vertices $(0, 0), (0, a), (a, a)$, and $(a, 0)$, with $\delta(x, y) = x + y$
22. The triangular region bounded by the coordinate axes and the line $x + y = a$ ($a > 0$), with $\delta(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$
23. The region bounded by $y = x^2$ and $y = 4$; $\delta(x, y) = y$
24. The region bounded by $y = x^2$ and $y = 2x + 3$; $\delta(x, y) = x^2$
25. The region of Problem 19; $\delta(x, y) = x$
26. The semicircular region $x^2 + y^2 \leq a^2, y \geq 0$; $\delta(x, y) = y$
27. The region of Problem 26; $\delta(x, y) = r$ (the radial polar coordinate)
28. The region bounded by the cardioid with polar equation $r = 1 + \cos \theta$; $\delta(r, \theta) = r$ (Fig. 14.5.19)

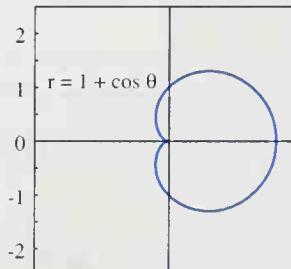


Fig. 14.5.19 The cardioid of Problem 28

29. The region inside the circle $r = 2 \sin \theta$ and outside the circle $r = 1$; $\delta(x, y) = y$

30. The region inside the limaçon $r = 1 + 2 \cos \theta$ and outside the circle $r = 2$; $\delta(r, \theta) = r$ (Fig. 14.5.20)

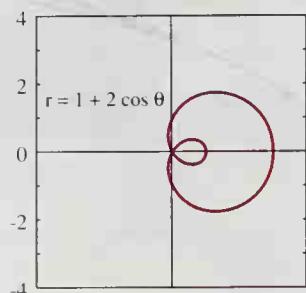


Fig. 14.5.20 The limaçon of Problem 30

In Problems 31 through 35, find the polar moment of inertia I_0 of the indicated lamina.

31. The region bounded by the circle $r = a$; $\delta(x, y) = r^n$, where n is a fixed positive integer
 32. The lamina of Problem 26
 33. The disk bounded by $r = 2 \cos \theta$; $\delta(x, y) = k$ (a positive constant)
 34. The lamina of Problem 29
 35. The region bounded by the right-hand loop of the lemniscate $r^2 = \cos 2\theta$; $\delta(x, y) = r^2$ (Fig. 14.5.21)

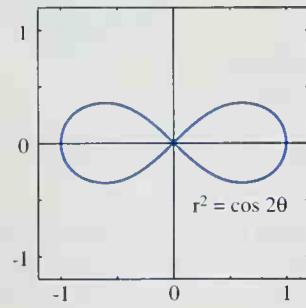


Fig. 14.5.21
The lemniscate of Problem 35

In Problems 36 through 40, find the radii of gyration \hat{x} and \hat{y} of the indicated lamina around the coordinate axes.

36. The lamina of Problem 21
 37. The lamina of Problem 23
 38. The lamina of Problem 24
 39. The lamina of Problem 27
 40. The lamina of Problem 33
 41. Find the centroid of the first quadrant of the circular disk $x^2 + y^2 \leq r^2$ by direct computation, as in Example 1.
 42. Apply the first theorem of Pappus to find the centroid of the first quadrant of the circular disk $x^2 + y^2 \leq r^2$. Use the facts that $\bar{x} = \bar{y}$ (by symmetry) and that revolution of this quarter-disk around either coordinate axis gives a solid hemisphere with volume $V = \frac{2}{3}\pi r^3$.

43. Find the centroid of the arc that consists of the first-quadrant portion of the circle $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ by direct computation, as in Example 6.

44. Apply the second theorem of Pappus to find the centroid of the quarter-circular arc of Problem 43. Note that $\bar{x} = \bar{y}$ (by symmetry) and that rotation of this arc around either coordinate axis gives a hemisphere with surface area $A = 2\pi r^2$.
 45. Show by direct computation that the centroid of the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(r, 0)$, and $(0, h)$ is the point $(r/3, h/3)$. Verify that this point lies on the line from the vertex $(0, 0)$ to the midpoint of the opposite side of the triangle and two-thirds of the way from the vertex to the midpoint.

46. Apply the first theorem of Pappus and the result of Problem 45 to verify the formula $V = \frac{1}{3}\pi r^2 h$ for the volume of the cone obtained by revolving the triangle around the y -axis.
 47. Apply the second theorem of Pappus to show that the lateral surface area of the cone of Problem 46 is $A = \pi r L$, where $L = \sqrt{r^2 + h^2}$ is the slant height of the cone.
 48. (a) Find the centroid of the trapezoid shown in Fig. 14.5.22.
 (b) Apply the first theorem of Pappus and the result of part (a) to show that the volume of the conical frustum generated by revolving the trapezoid around the y -axis is

$$V = \frac{\pi h}{3} (r_1^2 + r_1 r_2 + r_2^2).$$

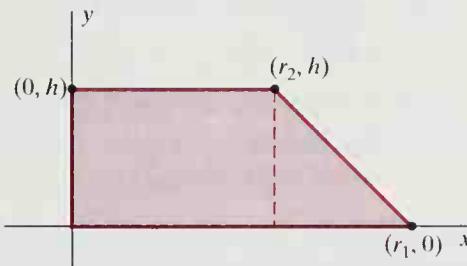


Fig. 14.5.22 The trapezoid of Problem 48

49. Apply the second theorem of Pappus to show that the lateral surface area of the conical frustum of Problem 48 is $a = \pi(r_1 + r_2)L$, where

$$L = \sqrt{(r_1 - r_2)^2 + h^2}$$

is its slant height.

50. (a) Apply the second theorem of Pappus to verify that the curved surface area of a right circular cylinder of height h and base radius r is $A = 2\pi rh$. (b) Explain how this follows also from the result of Problem 49.
 51. (a) Find the centroid of the plane region shown in Fig. 14.5.23, which consists of a semicircular region of radius a sitting atop a rectangular region of width $2a$ and height b whose base is on the x -axis. (b) Then apply the

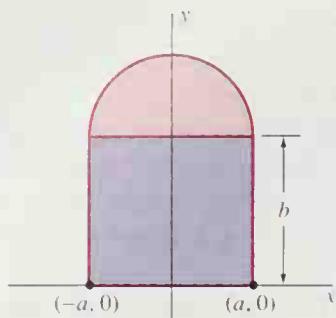


Fig. 14.5.23 The plane region of Problem 51(a)

first theorem of Pappus to find the volume generated by rotating this region around the x -axis.

52. (a) Consider the plane region of Fig. 14.5.24, bounded by $x^2 = 2py$, $x = 0$, and $y = h = r^2/2p$ ($p > 0$). Show that its area is $A = \frac{2}{3}rh$ and that the x -coordinate of its centroid is $\bar{x} = \frac{3}{8}r$. (b) Use Pappus's theorem and the result of part (a) to show that the volume of a paraboloid of revolution with radius r and height h is $V = \frac{1}{2}\pi r^2 h$.

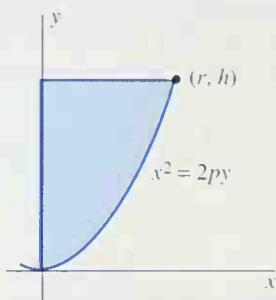


Fig. 14.5.24 The region of Problem 52

53. A uniform rectangular plate with base length a , height b , and mass m is centered at the origin. Show that its polar moment of inertia is $I_0 = \frac{1}{2}m(a^2 + b^2)$.
54. The centroid of a uniform plane region is at $(0, 0)$, and the region has total mass m . Show that its moment of inertia about an axis perpendicular to the xy -plane at the point (x_0, y_0) is

$$I = I_0 + m(x_0^2 + y_0^2).$$

55. Suppose that a plane lamina consists of two nonoverlapping laminae. Show that its polar moment of inertia is the sum of theirs. Use this fact together with the results of

Problems 53 and 54 to find the polar moment of inertia of the T-shaped lamina of constant density $\delta = k > 0$ shown in Fig. 14.5.25.

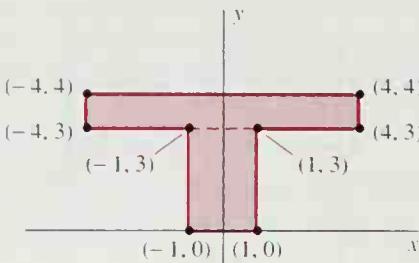


Fig. 14.5.25 One lamina made of two simpler ones (Problem 55)

56. A racquet consists of a uniform lamina that occupies the region inside the right-hand loop of $r^2 = \cos 2\theta$ on the end of a handle (assumed to be of negligible mass) corresponding to the interval $-1 \leq x \leq 0$ (Fig. 14.5.26). Find the radius of gyration of the racquet around the line $x = -1$. Where is its sweet spot?

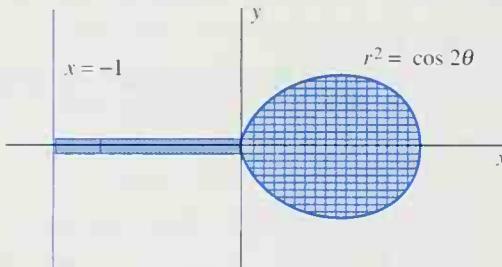


Fig. 14.5.26 The racquet of Problem 56

In Problems 57 through 60, find the mass m and centroid (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) of the indicated plane lamina R . You may use either a computer algebra system or the sine-cosine integrals of Formula (113) on the inside back cover.

57. R is bounded by the circle with polar equation $r = 2 \sin \theta$ and has density function $\delta(x, y) = y$.
58. R is bounded by the circle with polar equation $r = 2 \sin \theta$ and has density function $\delta(x, y) = y\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$.
59. R is the semicircular disk bounded by the x -axis and the upper half of the circle with polar equation $r = 2 \cos \theta$ and has density function $\delta(x, y) = x$.
60. R is the semicircular disk bounded by the x -axis and the upper half of the circle with polar equation $r = 2 \cos \theta$ and has density function $\delta(x, y) = x^2 y^2$.

14.5 PROJECT: OPTIMAL DESIGN OF DOWNSHILL RACE CAR WHEELS

To see moments of inertia in action, suppose that your club is designing an unpowered race car for the annual downhill derby. You have a choice of solid wheels, bicycle wheels with thin spokes, or even solid spherical wheels (like giant ball bearings). Which wheels will make the race car go the fastest?

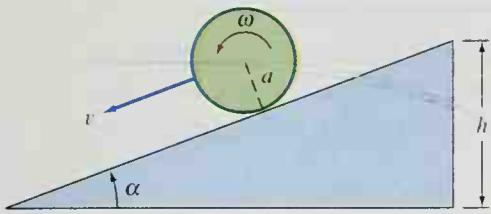


Fig. 14.5.27 A circular object rolling down an incline

Imagine an experiment in which you roll various types of wheels down an incline to see which reaches the bottom the fastest (Fig. 14.5.27). Suppose that a wheel of radius a and mass M starts from rest at the top with potential energy $PE = Mgh$ and reaches the bottom with angular speed ω and (linear) velocity $v = a\omega$. Then (by conservation of energy) the wheel's initial potential energy has been transformed into a sum $KE_{tr} + KE_{rot}$ of translational kinetic energy $KE_{tr} = \frac{1}{2}Mv^2$ and rotational kinetic energy

$$KE_{rot} = \frac{1}{2}I_0\omega^2 = \frac{I_0v^2}{2a^2}, \quad (1)$$

a consequence of Eq. (9) of this section. Thus

$$Mgh = \frac{1}{2}Mv^2 + \frac{I_0v^2}{2a^2}. \quad (2)$$

Problems 1 through 8 explore the implications of this formula.

- Suppose that the wheel's (polar) moment of inertia is given by

$$I_0 = kMa^2 \quad (3)$$

for some constant k . (For instance, Example 10 gives $k = \frac{1}{2}$ for a wheel in the shape of a uniform solid disk.) Then deduce from Eq. (2) that

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2gh}{1+k}}. \quad (4)$$

Thus the smaller k is (and hence the smaller the wheel's moment of inertia), the faster the wheel will roll down the incline.

In Problems 2 through 8, take $g = 32 \text{ ft/s}^2$ and assume that the vertical height of the incline is $h = 100 \text{ ft}$.

- Why does it follow from Eq. (4) that, whatever the wheel's design, the maximum velocity a circular wheel can attain on this incline is 80 ft/s (just under 55 mi/h)?
- If the wheel is a uniform solid disk (like a medieval wooden wagon wheel) with $I_0 = \frac{1}{2}Ma^2$, what is its speed v at the bottom of the incline?
- Answer Problem 3 if the wheel is shaped like a narrow bicycle tire, with its entire mass, in effect, concentrated at the distance a from its center. In this case, $I_0 = Ma^2$. (Why?)
- Answer Problem 3 if the wheel is shaped like an annular ring (or washer) with outer radius a and inner radius b .

Do not attempt Problems 6 through 8 until you have studied Example 3 of Section 14.7. In Problems 6 through 8, what is the velocity of the wheel when it reaches the bottom of the incline?

- The wheel is a uniform solid sphere of radius a .
- The wheel is a very thin, spherical shell whose entire mass is, in effect, concentrated at the distance a from its center.
- The wheel is a spherical shell with outer radius a and inner radius $b = \frac{1}{2}a$.

Finally, what is your conclusion? What is the shape of the wheels that will yield the fastest downhill race car?

14.6 TRIPLE INTEGRALS

The definition of the triple integral is the three-dimensional version of the definition of the double integral of Section 14.2. Let $f(x, y, z)$ be continuous on the bounded space region T , and suppose that T lies inside the rectangular block R determined by the inequalities

$$a \leq x \leq b, \quad c \leq y \leq d, \quad \text{and} \quad p \leq z \leq q.$$

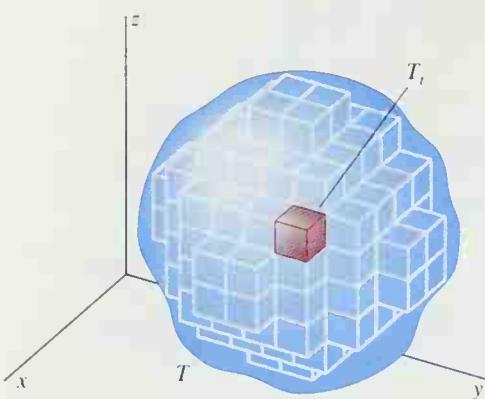


Fig. 14.6.1 One small block in an inner partition of the bounded space region T

We divide $[a, b]$ into subintervals of equal length Δx , $[c, d]$ into subintervals of equal length Δy , and $[p, q]$ into subintervals of equal length Δz . This generates a partition of R into smaller rectangular blocks (as in Fig. 14.6.1), each of volume $\Delta V = \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n\}$ be the collection of these smaller blocks that lie wholly within T . Then \mathcal{P} is called an **inner partition** of the region T . The **norm** $|\mathcal{P}|$ of \mathcal{P} is the length of a longest diagonal of any of the blocks T_i . If (x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*) is an arbitrarily selected point of T_i (for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$), then the **Riemann sum**

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*) \Delta V$$

is an approximation to the triple integral of f over the region T .

For example, if T is a solid body with density function f , then such a Riemann sum approximates its total mass. We define the **triple integral of f over T** by means of the equation

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV = \lim_{|\mathcal{P}| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*) \Delta V. \quad (1)$$

It is proved in advanced calculus that this limit of Riemann sums exists as the norm $|\mathcal{P}|$ approaches zero provided that f is continuous on T and that the boundary of the region T is reasonably well behaved. (For instance, it suffices for the boundary of T to be *piecewise smooth*, consisting of a finite number of smooth surfaces.)

Just as with double integrals, we ordinarily compute triple integrals by means of iterated integrals. If the region of integration is a rectangular block, as in Example 1, then we can integrate in any order we wish.

EXAMPLE 1 If $f(x, y, z) = xy + xz$ and T consists of those points (x, y, z) in space that satisfy the inequalities

$$-1 \leq x \leq 1, \quad 2 \leq y \leq 3, \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq z \leq 1$$

(Fig. 14.6.2), then

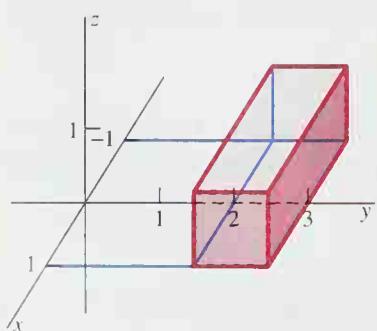


Fig. 14.6.2 The rectangular block T of Example 1, for which $-1 \leq x \leq 1$, $2 \leq y \leq 3$, and $0 \leq z \leq 1$

$$\begin{aligned} \iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV &= \int_{-1}^1 \int_2^3 \int_0^1 (xy + xz) dz dy dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^1 \int_2^3 \left[xyz + \frac{1}{2}yz^2 \right]_{z=0}^1 dy dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^1 \int_2^3 \left(xy + \frac{1}{2}y \right) dy dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^1 \left[\frac{1}{2}xy^2 + \frac{1}{4}y^2 \right]_{y=2}^3 dx \end{aligned}$$

$$= \int_{-1}^1 \left(\frac{5}{2}x + \frac{5}{4} \right) dx = \left[\frac{5}{4}x^2 + \frac{5}{4}x \right]_{-1}^1 = \frac{5}{2}.$$

The applications of double integrals that we saw in earlier sections generalize immediately to triple integrals. If T is a solid body with the density function $\delta(x, y, z)$, then its **mass** m is given by

$$m = \iiint_T \delta \, dV. \quad (2)$$

The case $\delta \equiv 1$ gives the **volume**

$$V = \iiint_T dV \quad (3)$$

of T . The coordinates of its **centroid** are

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{m} \iiint_T x \delta \, dV, \quad (4a)$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{m} \iiint_T y \delta \, dV, \text{ and} \quad (4b)$$

$$\bar{z} = \frac{1}{m} \iiint_T z \delta \, dV. \quad (4c)$$

The **moments of inertia** of T around the three coordinate axes are

$$I_x = \iiint_T (y^2 + z^2) \delta \, dV, \quad (5a)$$

$$I_y = \iiint_T (x^2 + z^2) \delta \, dV, \text{ and} \quad (5b)$$

$$I_z = \iiint_T (x^2 + y^2) \delta \, dV. \quad (5c)$$

Iterated Triple Integrals

As indicated previously, we almost always evaluate triple integrals by iterated single integration. Suppose that the region T with piecewise smooth boundary is **z -simple**: Each line parallel to the z -axis intersects T (if at all) in a single line segment. In effect, this means that T can be described by the inequalities

$$z_1(x, y) \leq z \leq z_2(x, y), \quad (x, y) \text{ in } R,$$

where R is the vertical projection of T into the xy -plane. Then

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) \, dV = \iint_R \left(\int_{z_1(x, y)}^{z_2(x, y)} f(x, y, z) \, dz \right) dA. \quad (6)$$

In Eq. (6), we take $dA = dx \, dy$ or $dA = dy \, dx$, depending on the preferred order of integration over the set R . The limits $z_1(x, y)$ and $z_2(x, y)$ are the z -coordinates of the endpoints of the line segment in which the vertical line at (x, y) meets T (Fig. 14.6.3).

If the region R has the description

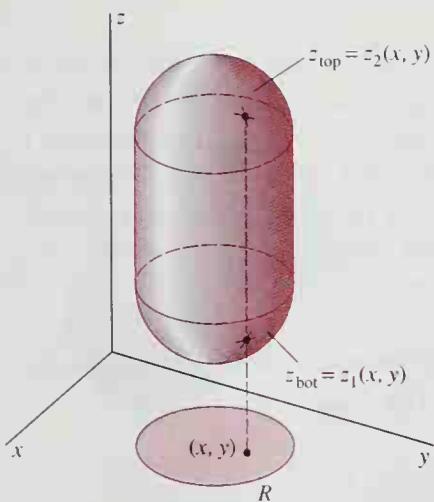


Fig. 14.6.3 Obtaining the limits of integration for z

$$y_1(x) \leq y \leq y_2(x), \quad a \leq x \leq b,$$

then (integrating last with respect to x),

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV = \int_a^b \int_{y_1(x)}^{y_2(x)} \int_{z_1(x, y)}^{z_2(x, y)} f(x, y, z) dz dy dx.$$

Thus the triple integral reduces in this case to three iterated single integrals. These can (in principle) be evaluated by using the fundamental theorem of calculus.

EXAMPLE 2 Find the mass m of the pyramid T of Fig. 14.6.4 if its density function is given by $\delta(x, y, z) = z$.

Solution The region T is bounded below by the xy -plane $z = 0$ and above by the plane $z = 6 - 3x - 2y$. Its base is the plane region R bounded by the x - and y -axes and the line $y = \frac{1}{2}(6 - 3x)$. Hence Eqs. (2) and (6) yield

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \int_0^2 \int_0^{(6-3x)/2} \int_0^{6-3x-2y} z dz dy dx = \int_0^2 \int_0^{(6-3x)/2} \left[\frac{1}{2} z^2 \right]_{z=0}^{6-3x-2y} dy dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 \int_0^{(6-3x)/2} (6 - 3x - 2y)^2 dy dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 \left[-\frac{1}{6} (6 - 3x - 2y)^3 \right]_{y=0}^{(6-3x)/2} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{12} \int_0^2 (6 - 3x)^3 dx = \frac{1}{12} \left[-\frac{1}{12} (6 - 3x)^4 \right]_{x=0}^2 = \frac{6^4}{12^2} = 9. \end{aligned}$$

We leave as an exercise (Problem 45) to show that the coordinates of the centroid $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$ of the pyramid are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x} &= \frac{1}{9} \int_0^2 \int_0^{(6-3x)/2} \int_0^{6-3x-2y} xz dz dy dx = \frac{2}{5}, \\ \bar{y} &= \frac{1}{9} \int_0^2 \int_0^{(6-3x)/2} \int_0^{6-3x-2y} yz dz dy dx = \frac{3}{5}, \\ \bar{z} &= \frac{1}{9} \int_0^2 \int_0^{(6-3x)/2} \int_0^{6-3x-2y} z^2 dz dy dx = \frac{12}{5}. \end{aligned}$$

If the solid T is bounded by the two surfaces $z = z_1(x, y)$ and $z = z_2(x, y)$ (as in Fig. 14.6.5), then we can find the “base region” R in Eq. (6) as follows. Note that the equation $z_1(x, y) = z_2(x, y)$ determines a vertical cylinder (not necessarily circular) that passes through the curve of intersection of the two surfaces. (Why?) This cylinder intersects the xy -plane in the boundary curve C of the plane region R . In essence, we obtain the equation of the curve C by equating the height functions of the surfaces that form the top and bottom of the space region T .

EXAMPLE 3 Figure 14.6.6 shows the solid T that is bounded above by the plane $z = y + 2$ and below by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$. The equation

$$x^2 + y^2 = y + 2; \text{ that is, } x^2 + (y - \frac{1}{2})^2 = \frac{9}{4}$$

describes the boundary circle of the disk R of radius $\frac{3}{2}$ and with center $(0, \frac{1}{2})$ in the xy -plane (Fig. 14.6.7). Because this disk is not centered at the origin, the volume integral

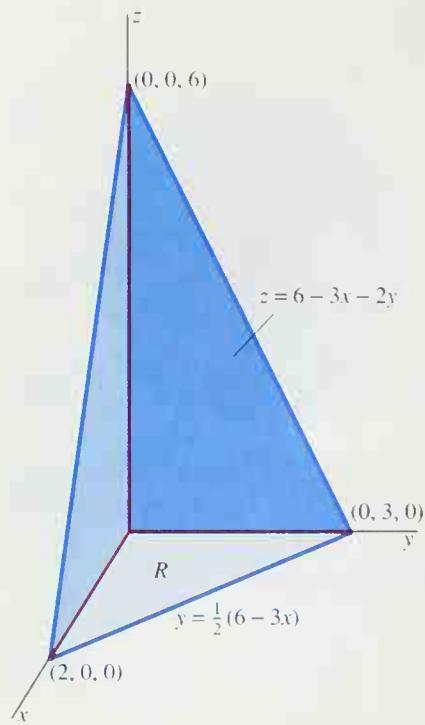


Fig. 14.6.4 The pyramid T of Example 2; its base is the triangle R in the xy -plane.

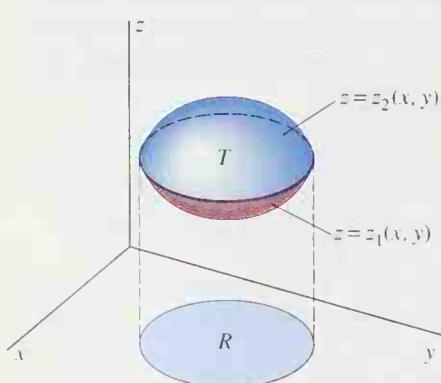


Fig. 14.6.5 To find the boundary of R , solve the equation $z_1(x, y) = z_2(x, y)$.

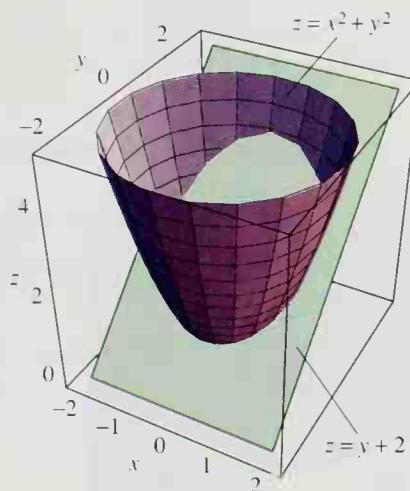


Fig. 14.6.6 The solid T of Example 3

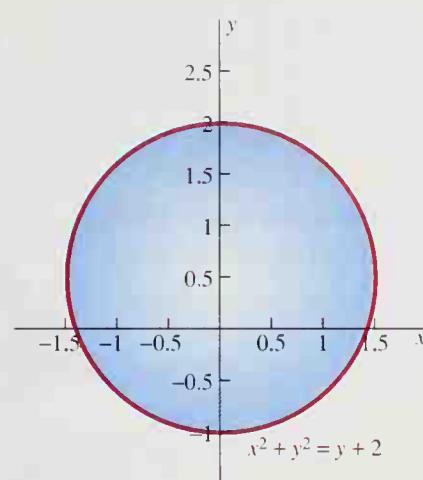


Fig. 14.6.7 The circular disk R of Example 3

$$V = \iint_R \left(\int_{z=x^2+y^2}^{y+2} dz \right) dA$$

is awkward to evaluate directly. In Example 5 we calculate V by integrating in a different order.

We may integrate first with respect to either x or y if the space region T is either **x -simple** or **y -simple**. Such situations, as well as a z -simple solid, appear in Fig. 14.6.8. For example, suppose that T is y -simple, so that it has a description of the form

$$y_1(x, z) \leq y \leq y_2(x, z), \quad (x, z) \text{ in } R,$$

where R is the projection of T into the xz -plane. Then

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV = \iint_R \left(\int_{y_1(x, z)}^{y_2(x, z)} f(x, y, z) dy \right) dA, \quad (7)$$

where $dA = dx dz$ or $dA = dz dx$ and the limits $y_1(x, z)$ and $y_2(x, z)$ are the y -coordinates of the endpoints of the line segment in which a typical line parallel to the y -axis intersects T . If T is x -simple, we have

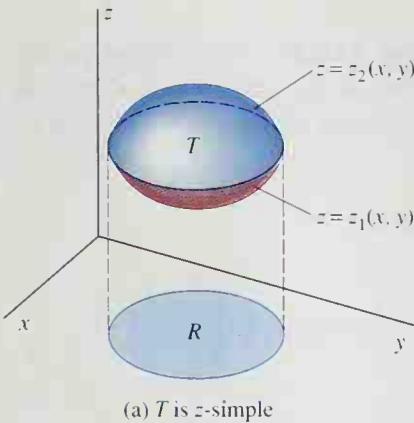
$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dA = \iint_R \left(\int_{x_1(y, z)}^{x_2(y, z)} f(x, y, z) dx \right) dA, \quad (8)$$

where $dA = dy dz$ or $dA = dz dy$ and R is the projection of T into the yz -plane.

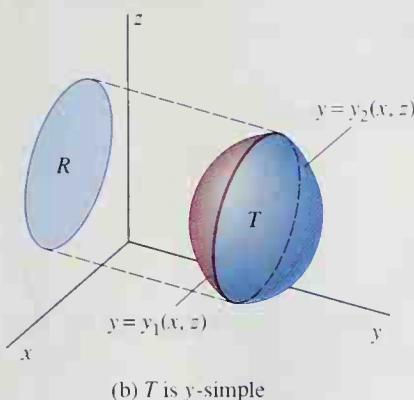
EXAMPLE 4 Compute by triple integration the volume of the region T that is bounded by the parabolic cylinder $x = y^2$ and the planes $z = 0$ and $x + z = 1$. Also find the centroid of T given that it has constant density $\delta \equiv 1$.

COMMENT The three segments in Fig. 14.6.9 parallel to the coordinate axes indicate that the region T is simultaneously x -simple, y -simple, and z -simple. We may therefore integrate in any order we choose, so there are six ways to evaluate the integral. Here are three computations of the volume V of T .

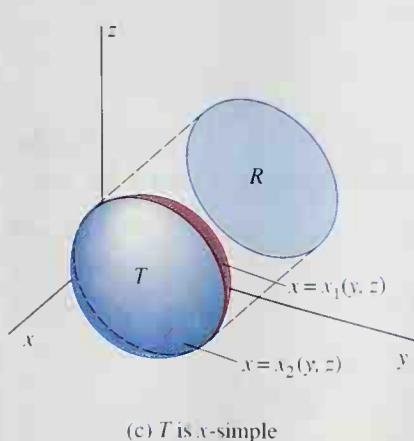
Solution 1 The projection of T into the xy -plane is the region shown in Fig. 14.6.10, bounded by $x = y^2$ and $x = 1$. So Eq. (6) gives



(a) T is z -simple



(b) T is y -simple



(c) T is x -simple

Fig. 14.6.8 Solids that are
(a) z -simple, (b) y -simple, and
(c) x -simple

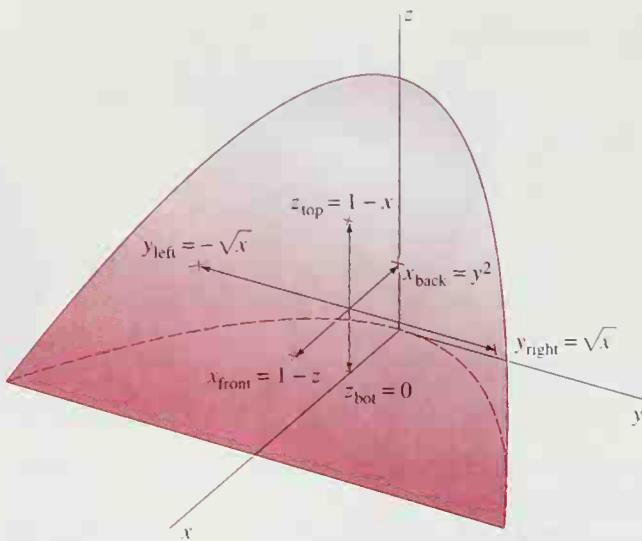


Fig. 14.6.9 The region T of Example 4 is x -simple, y -simple, and z -simple.

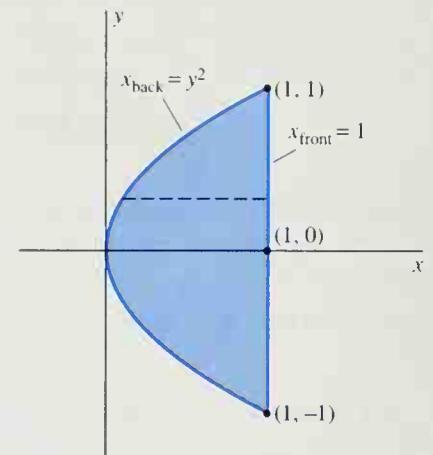


Fig. 14.6.10 The vertical projection of the solid region T into the xy -plane (Example 4, Solution 1)

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \int_{-1}^1 \int_0^1 \int_{y^2}^{1-x} dz dx dy = 2 \int_0^1 \int_{y^2}^1 (1-x) dx dy \\ &= 2 \int_0^1 \left[x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right]_{y^2}^1 dy = 2 \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{2} - y^2 + \frac{1}{2}y^4 \right) dy = \frac{8}{15}. \end{aligned}$$

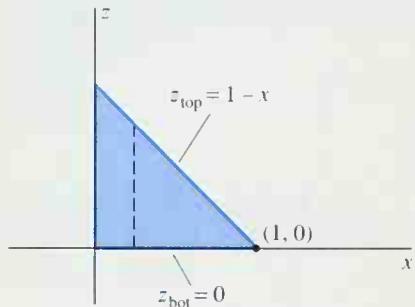


Fig. 14.6.11 The vertical projection of the solid region T into the xz -plane (Example 4, Solution 2)

Solution 2 The projection of T into the xz -plane is the triangle bounded by the coordinate axes and the line $x + z = 1$ (Fig. 14.6.11), so Eq. (7) gives

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_{-\sqrt{x}}^{\sqrt{x}} dy dz dx = 2 \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \sqrt{x} dz dx \\ &= 2 \int_0^1 (x^{1/2} - x^{3/2}) dx = \frac{8}{15}. \end{aligned}$$

Solution 3 The projection of T into the yz -plane is the region bounded by the y -axis and the parabola $z = 1 - y^2$ (Fig. 14.6.12), so Eq. (8) yields

$$V = \int_{-1}^1 \int_0^{1-y^2} \int_{y^2}^{1-z} dx dz dy,$$

and evaluation of this integral again gives $V = \frac{8}{15}$.

Now for the centroid of T . Because the region T is symmetric with respect to the xz -plane, its centroid lies in this plane, and so $\bar{y} = 0$. We compute \bar{x} and \bar{z} by integrating first with respect to y :

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x} &= \frac{1}{V} \iiint_T x dV = \frac{15}{8} \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_{-\sqrt{x}}^{\sqrt{x}} x dy dz dx \\ &= \frac{15}{4} \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} x^{3/2} dz dx = \frac{15}{4} \int_0^1 (x^{3/2} - x^{5/2}) dx = \frac{3}{7}; \end{aligned}$$

similarly,

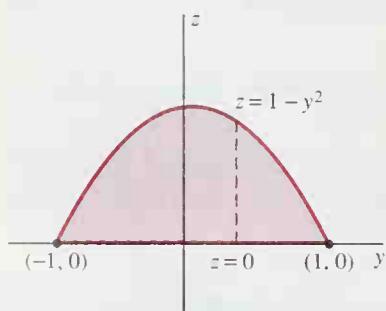


Fig. 14.6.12 The vertical projection of the solid region T into the yz -plane (Example 4, Solution 3)

$$\bar{z} = \frac{1}{V} \iiint_R z \, dV = \frac{15}{8} \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_{-\sqrt{x}}^{\sqrt{x}} z \, dy \, dz \, dx = \frac{2}{7}.$$

Thus the centroid of T is located at the point $(\frac{3}{7}, 0, \frac{2}{7})$. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Find the volume of the *oblique segment of a paraboloid* bounded by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and the plane $z = y + 2$ (Fig. 14.6.13).

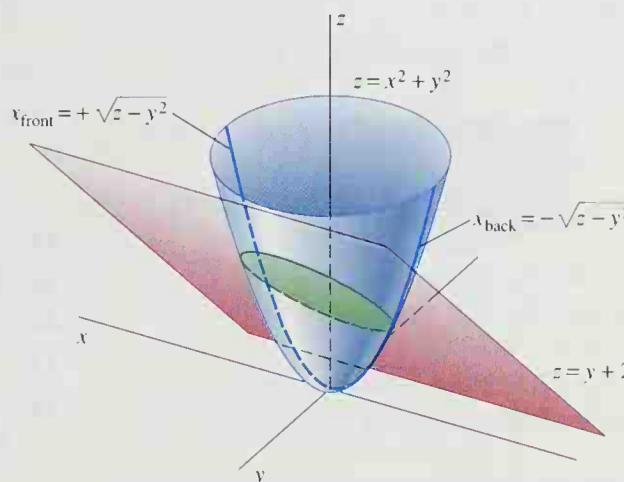


Fig. 14.6.13 An oblique segment of a paraboloid (Example 5)

Solution The given region T is z -simple, but its projection into the xy -plane is bounded by the graph of the equation $x^2 + y^2 = y + 2$, which is a translated circle. It would be possible to integrate first with respect to z , but perhaps another choice will yield a simpler integral.

The region T is also x -simple, so we may integrate first with respect to x . The projection of T into the yz -plane is bounded by the line $z = y + 2$ and the parabola $z = y^2$, which intersect at the points $(-1, 1)$ and $(2, 4)$ (Fig. 14.6.14). The endpoints of a line segment in T parallel to the x -axis have x -coordinates $x = \pm\sqrt{z - y^2}$. Because T is symmetric with respect to the yz -plane, we can integrate from $x = 0$ to $x = \sqrt{z - y^2}$ and double the result. Hence T has volume

$$\begin{aligned} V &= 2 \int_{-1}^2 \int_{y^2}^{y+2} \int_0^{\sqrt{z-y^2}} dx \, dz \, dy = 2 \int_{-1}^2 \int_{y^2}^{y+2} \sqrt{z-y^2} \, dz \, dy \\ &= 2 \int_{-1}^2 \left[\frac{2}{3} (z - y^2)^{3/2} \right]_{z=y^2}^{y+2} dy = \frac{4}{3} \int_{-1}^2 (2 + y - y^2)^{3/2} dy \\ &= \frac{4}{3} \int_{-3/2}^{3/2} \left(\frac{9}{4} - u^2 \right)^{3/2} du \quad \left(\text{completing the square; } u = y - \frac{1}{2} \right) \\ &= \frac{27}{4} \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \cos^4 \theta \, d\theta \quad \left(u = \frac{3}{2} \sin \theta \right) \\ &= \frac{27}{4} \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{81\pi}{32}. \end{aligned}$$

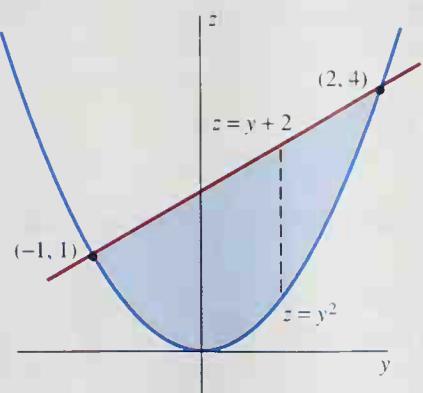


Fig. 14.6.14 Projection of the segment of the paraboloid into the yz -plane (Example 5)

In the final evaluation, we used Formula (113) (on the inside back cover). ■

14.6 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 10, compute the value of the triple integral

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) \, dV.$$

1. $f(x, y, z) = x + y + z$; T is the rectangular box $0 \leq x \leq 2, 0 \leq y \leq 3, 0 \leq z \leq 1$.
2. $f(x, y, z) = xy \sin z$; T is the cube $0 \leq x \leq \pi, 0 \leq y \leq \pi, 0 \leq z \leq \pi$.
3. $f(x, y, z) = xyz$; T is the rectangular block $-1 \leq x \leq 3, 0 \leq y \leq 2, -2 \leq z \leq 6$.
4. $f(x, y, z) = x + y + z$; T is the rectangular block of Problem 3.
5. $f(x, y, z) = x^2$; T is the tetrahedron bounded by the coordinate planes and the first octant part of the plane with equation $x + y + z = 1$.
6. $f(x, y, z) = 2x + 3y$; T is a first-octant tetrahedron as in Problem 5, except that the plane has equation $2x + 3y + z = 6$.
7. $f(x, y, z) = xyz$; T lies below the surface $z = 1 - x^2$ and above the rectangle $-1 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 2$ in the xy -plane.
8. $f(x, y, z) = 2y + z$; T lies below the surface with equation $z = 4 - y^2$ and above the rectangle $-1 \leq x \leq 1, -2 \leq y \leq 2$ in the xy -plane.
9. $f(x, y, z) = x + y$; T is the region between the surfaces $z = 2 - x^2$ and $z = x^2$ for $0 \leq y \leq 3$ (Fig. 14.6.15).

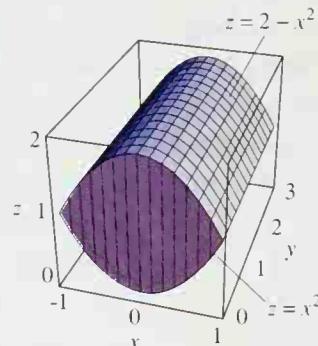


Fig. 14.6.15 The solid of Problem 9

10. $f(x, y, z) = z$; T is the region between the surfaces $z = y^2$ and $z = 8 - y^2$ for $-1 \leq x \leq 1$.

In Problems 11 through 20, sketch the solid bounded by the graphs of the given equations. Then find its volume by triple integration.

11. $2x + 3y + z = 6, x = 0, y = 0, z = 0$
12. $z = y, y = x^2, y = 4, z = 0$ (Fig. 14.6.16)
13. $y + z = 4, y = 4 - x^2, y = 0, z = 0$

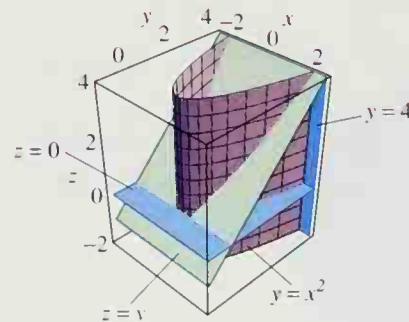


Fig. 14.6.16 The surfaces of Problem 12

14. $z = x^2 + y^2, z = 0, x = 0, y = 0, x + y = 1$
15. $z = 10 - x^2 - y^2, y = x^2, x = y^2, z = 0$
16. $x = z^2, x = 8 - z^2, y = -1, y = -3$
17. $z = x^2, y + z = 4, y = 0, z = 0$
18. $z = 1 - y^2, z = y^2 - 1, x + z = 1, x = 0$ (Fig. 14.6.17)

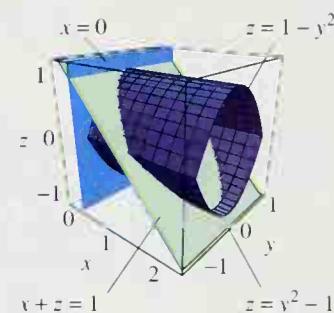


Fig. 14.6.17 The surfaces of Problem 18

19. $y = z^2, z = y^2, x + y + z = 2, x = 0$
20. $y = 4 - x^2 - z^2, x = 0, y = 0, z = 0, x + z = 2$

In Problems 21 through 32, assume that the indicated solid has constant density $\delta \equiv 1$.

21. Find the centroid of the solid of Problem 12.
22. Find the centroid of the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq R^2, z \geq 0$.
23. Find the centroid of the solid of Problem 17.
24. Find the centroid of the solid bounded by $z = 1 - x^2, z = 0, y = -1$, and $y = 1$.
25. Find the centroid of the solid bounded by $z = \cos x, x = -\pi/2, x = \pi/2, y = 0, z = 0$, and $y + z = 1$.
26. Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the solid of Problem 12.
27. Find the moment of inertia around the y -axis of the solid of Problem 24.

28. Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the solid cylinder $x^2 + y^2 \leq R^2$, $0 \leq z \leq H$.
29. Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the solid bounded by $x + y + z = 1$, $x = 0$, $y = 0$, and $z = 0$.
30. Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the cube with vertices $(\pm \frac{1}{2}, 3, \pm \frac{1}{2})$ and $(\pm \frac{1}{2}, 4, \pm \frac{1}{2})$.
31. Consider the solid paraboloid bounded by $z = x^2 + y^2$ and the plane $z = h > 0$. Show that its centroid lies on its axis of symmetry, two-thirds of the way from its “vertex” $(0, 0, 0)$ to its base.
32. Show that the centroid of a right circular cone lies on the axis of the cone and three-fourths of the way from the vertex to the base.

In Problems 33 through 40, the indicated solid has uniform density $\delta \equiv 1$ unless otherwise indicated.

33. For a cube with edge length a , find the moment of inertia around one of its edges.
34. The density at $P(x, y, z)$ of the first-octant cube with edge length a , faces parallel to the coordinate planes, and opposite vertices $(0, 0, 0)$ and (a, a, a) is proportional to the square of the distance from P to the origin. Find the coordinates of the centroid of this cube.
35. Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the cube of Problem 34.
36. The cube bounded by the coordinate planes and the planes $x = 1$, $y = 1$, and $z = 1$ has density $\delta = kz$ at the point $P(x, y, z)$ (k is a positive constant). Find its centroid.
37. Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the cube of Problem 36.
38. Find the moment of inertia around a diameter of a solid sphere of radius a .
39. Find the centroid of the first-octant region that is interior to the two cylinders $x^2 + z^2 = 1$ and $y^2 + z^2 = 1$ (Figs. 14.6.18 and 14.6.19).

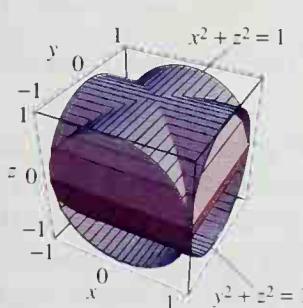


Fig. 14.6.18 The intersecting cylinders of Problem 39

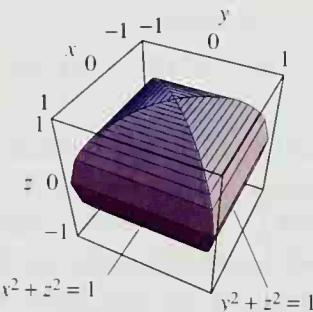


Fig. 14.6.19 The solid of intersection in Problem 39

40. Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the solid of Problem 39.
41. Find the volume bounded by the elliptic paraboloids $z = 2x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 12 - x^2 - 2y^2$. Note that this solid projects onto a circular disk in the xy -plane.

42. Find the volume bounded by the elliptic paraboloid $y = x^2 + 4z^2$ and the plane $y = 2x + 3$.
43. Find the volume of the elliptical cone bounded by $z = \sqrt{x^2 + 4y^2}$ and the plane $z = 1$. (Suggestion: Integrate first with respect to x .)
44. Find the volume of the region bounded by the paraboloid $x = y^2 + 2z^2$ and the parabolic cylinder $x = 2 - y^2$ (Fig. 14.6.20).

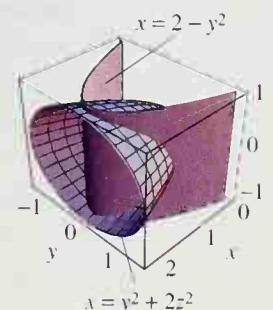


Fig. 14.6.20 The surfaces of Problem 44

45. Find the centroid of the pyramid in Example 2 with density $\delta(x, y, z) = z$.
46. Find the centroid of the parabolic segment (with density $\delta \equiv 1$) in Example 5.

For Problems 47 through 53, the **average value** \bar{f} of the function $f(x, y, z)$ at points of the space region T is defined to be

$$\bar{f} = \frac{1}{V} \iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV$$

where V is the volume of T . For instance, if T is a solid with density $\delta \equiv 1$, then the coordinates \bar{x} , \bar{y} , and \bar{z} of its centroid are the average values of the “coordinate functions” x , y , and z at points of T .

47. Find the average value of the density function $\delta(x, y, z) = z$ at points of the pyramid T of Example 2.
48. Suppose that T is the unit cube in the first octant with diagonally opposite vertices $(0, 0, 0)$ and $(1, 1, 1)$. Find the average of the “squared distance” $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ of points of T from the origin.
49. Let T be the cube of Problem 48. Find the average squared distance of points of T from its centroid.
50. Let T be the cube of Problem 48, but with density function $\delta(x, y, z) = x + y + z$ that varies linearly from 0 at the origin to 3 at the opposite vertex of T . Find the average value $\bar{\delta}$ of the density of T . Can you guess the value of $\bar{\delta}$ before evaluating the triple integral?
51. Find the average squared distance from the origin of points of the pyramid of Example 2.
52. Suppose that T is the pyramid of Example 2, but with density function $\delta \equiv 1$. Find the average squared distance of points of T from its centroid.

53. Find the average distance of points of the cube T of Problem 48 from the origin. *Warning:* Do not attempt this problem by hand; try it only if you have a computer algebra system. *Answer:*

$$\frac{1}{24} [6\sqrt{3} - \pi + 8 \ln(\sqrt{3} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}) - 8 \ln 2 + 16 \ln(1 + \sqrt{3})] \approx 0.960591956455.$$

14.6 PROJECT: ARCHIMEDES' FLOATING PARABOLOID

Archimedes was interested in floating bodies, and he studied the possible positions (see Fig. 14.6.21) of a floating right circular paraboloid of uniform density. For a paraboloid that floats in an “inclined position,” he discovered how to determine its angle of inclination in terms of the volume and centroid of the “oblique segment” of the paraboloid that lies beneath the water line. The principles he introduced for this investigation (over 22 centuries ago) are still important in modern naval architecture.

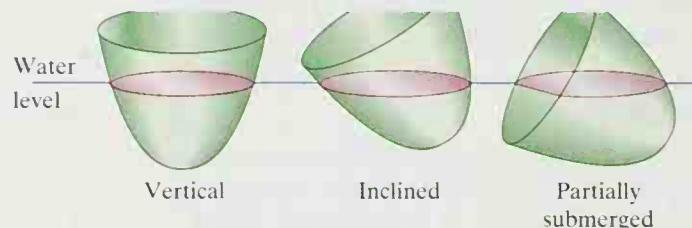


Fig. 14.6.21 How a uniform solid paraboloid might float

For your own personal paraboloid to investigate, let T be the three-dimensional solid region that is bounded below by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and above by the plane $z = (b - a)y + ab$, where a and b are the smallest and largest nonzero digits (respectively) of your student I.D. number. (If $a = 1$ and $b = 2$, then T is the solid of Example 5.) In the following problems you can evaluate the triple integrals either by hand—consulting an integral table if you wish—or by using a computer algebra system.

1. Find the volume V of the solid oblique paraboloid T . Sketch a picture of T similar to Fig. 14.6.13. Can you see that T is symmetric with respect to the yz -plane? Describe the region R in the yz -plane that is the horizontal projection of T . This plane region will determine the z -limits and the y -limits of your triple integral (as in Example 5).
2. Find the coordinates $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$ of the centroid C of T (assume that T has density $\delta \equiv 1$).
3. Find the coordinates of the point P at which a plane parallel to the original top plane $z = (b - a)y + ab$ is tangent to the paraboloid. Also find the coordinates of the point Q in which a vertical line through P intersects the top plane. According to Archimedes, the centroid C of Problem 2 should lie on the line PQ two-thirds of the way from P to Q . Is this so, according to your computations? (Compare with Problem 31 of this section.)

14.7 INTEGRATION IN CYLINDRICAL AND SPHERICAL COORDINATES

Suppose that $f(x, y, z)$ is a continuous function defined on the z -simple region T , which—because it is z -simple—can be described by

$$z_1(x, y) \leq z \leq z_2(x, y) \quad \text{for } (x, y) \text{ in } R$$

(where R is the projection of T into the xy -plane, as usual). We saw in Section 14.6 that

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV = \iint_R \left(\int_{z_1(x,y)}^{z_2(x,y)} f(x, y, z) dz \right) dA. \quad (1)$$

If we can describe the region R more naturally in polar coordinates than in rectangular coordinates, then it is likely that the integration over the plane region R will be simpler if it is carried out in polar coordinates.

We first express the inner partial integral of Eq. (1) in terms of r and θ by writing

$$\int_{z_1(x,y)}^{z_2(x,y)} f(x, y, z) dz = \int_{Z_1(r,\theta)}^{Z_2(r,\theta)} F(r, \theta, z) dz, \quad (2)$$

where

$$F(r, \theta, z) = f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta, z) \quad (3a)$$

and

$$Z_i(r, \theta) = z_i(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) \quad (3b)$$

for $i = 1, 2$. Substitution of Eq. (2) into Eq. (1) with (**important**) $dA = r dr d\theta$ gives

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV = \iint_S \left(\int_{Z_1(r,\theta)}^{Z_2(r,\theta)} F(r, \theta, z) dz \right) r dr d\theta, \quad (4)$$

where F , Z_1 , and Z_2 are the functions given in (3) and S represents the appropriate limits on r and θ needed to describe the plane region R in polar coordinates (as discussed in Section 14.4). The limits on z are simply the z -coordinates (in terms of r and θ) of a typical line segment joining the lower and upper boundary surfaces of T , as indicated in Fig. 14.7.1.

Thus the general formula for **triple integration in cylindrical coordinates** is

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV = \iint_U f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta, z) r dz dr d\theta, \quad (5)$$

where U is not a region in space, but—as in Section 14.4—a representation of limits on z , r , and θ appropriate to describe the space region T in cylindrical coordinates. Before we integrate, we must replace the variables x and y with $r \cos \theta$ and $r \sin \theta$, respectively, but z is left unchanged. The cylindrical-coordinates volume element

$$dV = r dz dr d\theta$$

may be regarded formally as the product of dz and the polar-coordinates area element $dA = r dr d\theta$. It is a consequence of the formula $\Delta V = \bar{r} \Delta z \Delta r \Delta \theta$ for the volume of the *cylindrical block* shown in Fig. 14.7.2.

Integration in cylindrical coordinates is particularly useful for computations associated with solids of revolution. So that the limits of integration will be the simplest, the solid should usually be placed so that the axis of revolution is the z -axis.

EXAMPLE 1 Find the centroid of the first-octant portion T of the solid ball bounded by the sphere $r^2 + z^2 = a^2$. The solid T appears in Fig. 14.7.3.

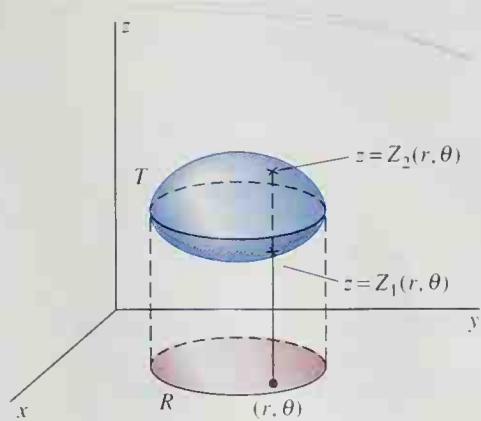


Fig. 14.7.1 The limits on z in a triple integral in cylindrical coordinates are determined by the lower and upper surfaces.

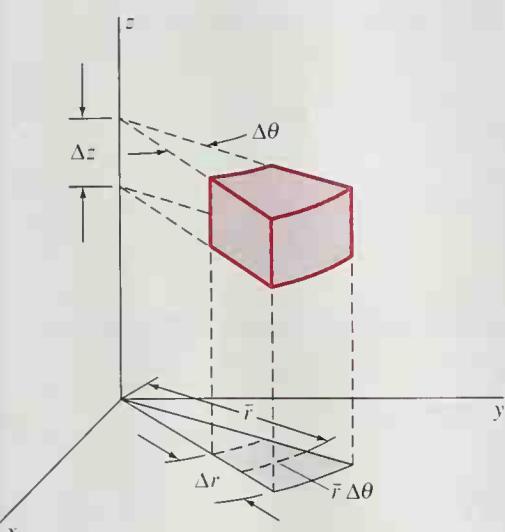


Fig. 14.7.2 The volume of the cylindrical block is $\Delta V = r \Delta z \Delta r \Delta \theta$.

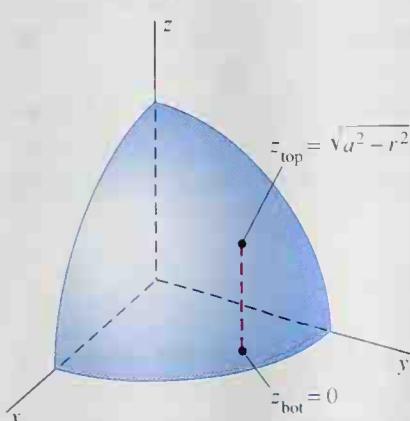


Fig. 14.7.3 The first octant of the sphere (Example 1)

Solution The volume of the first octant of the solid ball is $V = \frac{1}{8} \cdot \frac{4}{3} \pi a^3 = \frac{1}{6} \pi a^3$. Because $\bar{x} = \bar{y} = \bar{z}$ by symmetry, we need calculate only

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{z} &= \frac{1}{V} \iiint_T z \, dV = \frac{6}{\pi a^3} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^a \int_0^{\sqrt{a^2 - r^2}} zr \, dz \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \frac{6}{\pi a^3} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^a \frac{1}{2} r(a^2 - r^2) \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \frac{3}{\pi a^3} \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[\frac{1}{2} a^2 r^2 - \frac{1}{4} r^4 \right]_{r=0}^a d\theta = \frac{3}{\pi a^3} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{a^4}{4} = \frac{3a}{8}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus the centroid is located at the point $(\frac{3}{8}a, \frac{3}{8}a, \frac{3}{8}a)$. Observe that the answer is both plausible and dimensionally correct. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Find the volume and centroid of the solid T that is bounded by the paraboloid $z = b(x^2 + y^2)$ ($b > 0$) and the plane $z = h$ ($h > 0$).

Solution Figure 14.7.4 makes it clear that we get the radius of the circular top of T by equating $z = b(x^2 + y^2) = br^2$ and $z = h$. This gives $a = \sqrt{h/b}$ for the radius of the circle over which the solid lies. Hence Eq. (4), with $f(x, y, z) \equiv 1$, gives the volume,

$$\begin{aligned}V &= \iiint_T dV = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a \int_{br^2}^h r \, dz \, dr \, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a (hr - br^3) \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= 2\pi \left(\frac{1}{2} ha^2 - \frac{1}{4} ba^4 \right) = \frac{\pi h^2}{2b} = \frac{1}{2} \pi a^2 h\end{aligned}$$

(because $a^2 = h/b$).

By symmetry, the centroid of T lies on the z -axis, so all that remains is to compute \bar{z} .

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{z} &= \frac{1}{V} \iiint_T z \, dV = \frac{2}{\pi a^2 h} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a \int_{br^2}^h rz \, dz \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi a^2 h} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a \left(\frac{1}{2} h^2 r - \frac{1}{2} b^2 r^5 \right) dr \, d\theta \\ &= \frac{4}{a^2 h} \left(\frac{1}{4} h^2 a^2 - \frac{1}{12} b^2 a^6 \right) = \frac{2}{3} h,\end{aligned}$$

again using the fact that $a^2 = h/b$. Therefore the centroid of T is located at the point $(0, 0, \frac{2}{3}h)$. Again, this answer is both plausible and dimensionally correct. ■

We can summarize the results of Example 2 as follows: The volume of a right circular paraboloid is *half* that of the circumscribed cylinder (Fig. 14.7.5), and its centroid lies on its axis of symmetry *two-thirds* of the way from the “vertex” at $(0, 0, 0)$ to its circular “base” at the top.

Spherical Coordinate Integrals

When the boundary surfaces of the region T of integration are spheres, cones, or other surfaces with simple descriptions in spherical coordinates, it is generally advantageous to transform a triple integral over T into spherical coordinates. Recall from Section 12.8 that the relationship between spherical coordinates (ρ, ϕ, θ) (shown in Fig. 14.7.6) and rectangular coordinates (x, y, z) is given by

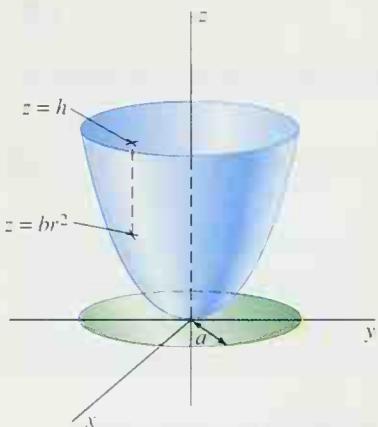


Fig. 14.7.4 The paraboloid of Example 2

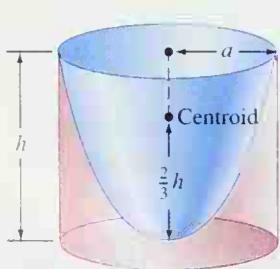


Fig. 14.7.5 Volume and centroid of a right circular paraboloid in terms of the circumscribed cylinder

$$x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \quad y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \quad z = \rho \cos \phi. \quad (6)$$

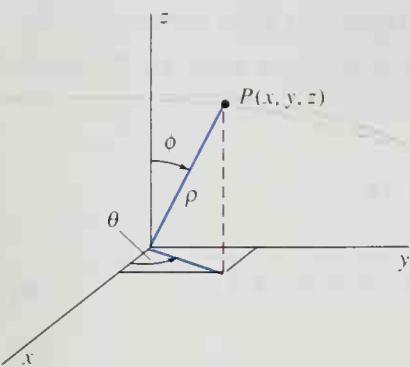


Fig. 14.7.6 The spherical coordinates (ρ, ϕ, θ) of the point P

Suppose, for example, that T is the **spherical block** determined by the simple inequalities

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_1 &\leq \rho \leq \rho_2 = \rho_1 + \Delta\rho, \\ \phi_1 &\leq \phi \leq \phi_2 = \phi_1 + \Delta\phi, \\ \theta_1 &\leq \theta \leq \theta_2 = \theta_1 + \Delta\theta. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

As indicated by the dimensions labeled in Fig. 14.7.7, this spherical block is (if $\Delta\rho, \Delta\phi$, and $\Delta\theta$ are small) *approximately* a rectangular block with dimensions $\Delta\rho, \rho_1 \Delta\phi$, and $\rho_1 \sin \phi_2 \Delta\theta$. Thus its volume is approximately $\rho_1^2 \sin \phi_2 \Delta\rho \Delta\phi \Delta\theta$. It can be shown (see Problem 19 of Section 14.8) that the *exact* volume of the spherical block described in (7) is

$$\Delta V = \hat{\rho}^2 \sin \hat{\phi} \Delta\rho \Delta\phi \Delta\theta \quad (8)$$

for certain numbers $\hat{\rho}$ and $\hat{\phi}$ such that $\rho_1 < \hat{\rho} < \rho_2$ and $\phi_1 < \hat{\phi} < \phi_2$.

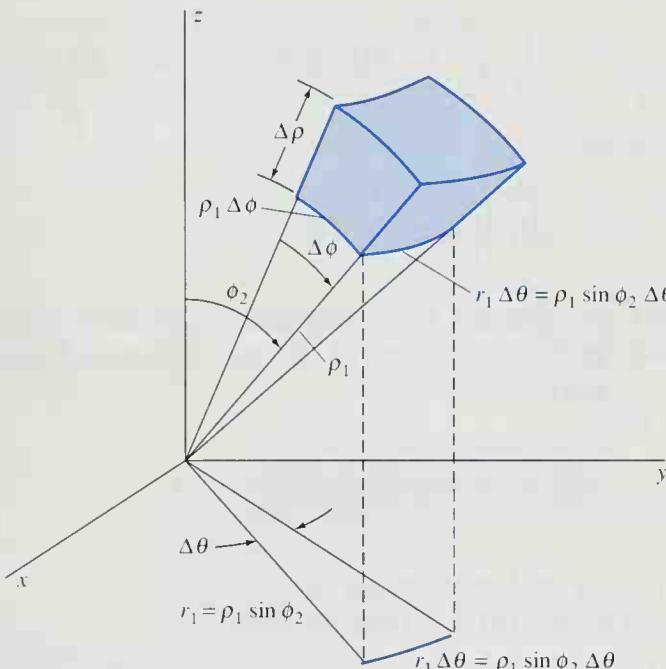


Fig. 14.7.7 The volume of the spherical block is approximately $\rho_1^2 \sin \phi_2 \Delta\rho \Delta\phi \Delta\theta$.

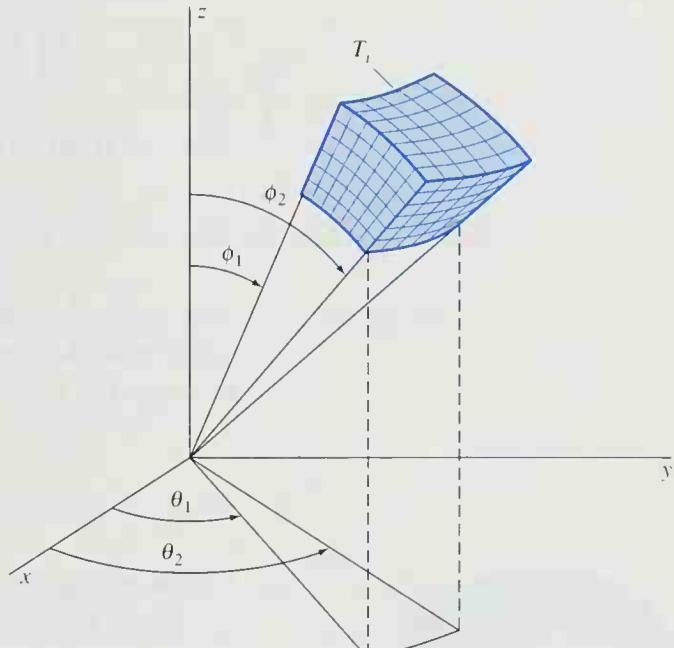


Fig. 14.7.8 The spherical block T divided into k smaller spherical blocks

Now suppose that we partition each of the intervals $[\rho_1, \rho_2]$, $[\phi_1, \phi_2]$, and $[\theta_1, \theta_2]$ into n subintervals of lengths

$$\Delta\rho = \frac{\rho_2 - \rho_1}{n}, \quad \Delta\phi = \frac{\phi_2 - \phi_1}{n}, \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta\theta = \frac{\theta_2 - \theta_1}{n},$$

respectively. This produces a **spherical partition** \mathcal{P} of the spherical block T into $k = n^3$ smaller spherical blocks T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k ; see Fig. 14.7.8. By Eq. (8), there exists a point $(\hat{\rho}_i, \hat{\phi}_i, \hat{\theta}_i)$ of the spherical block T_i such that its volume is $\Delta V_i = \hat{\rho}_i^2 \sin \hat{\phi}_i \Delta\rho \Delta\phi \Delta\theta$. The **norm** $|\mathcal{P}|$ of \mathcal{P} is the length of the longest diagonal of any of the small spherical blocks T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k .

If (x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*) are the rectangular coordinates of the point with spherical coordinates $(\hat{\rho}_i, \hat{\phi}_i, \hat{\theta}_i)$, then the definition of the triple integral as a limit of Riemann sums as the norm $|\mathcal{P}|$ approaches zero gives

$$\begin{aligned}\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV &= \lim_{|\mathcal{P}| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^k f(x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*) \Delta V_i \\ &= \lim_{|\mathcal{P}| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^k F(\hat{\rho}_i, \hat{\phi}_i, \hat{\theta}_i) \hat{\rho}_i^2 \sin \hat{\phi}_i \Delta \rho \Delta \phi \Delta \theta,\end{aligned}\quad (9)$$

where

$$F(\rho, \phi, \theta) = f(\rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \rho \cos \phi) \quad (10)$$

is the result of substituting Eq. (6) into $f(x, y, z)$. But the right-hand sum in Eq. (9) is simply a Riemann sum for the triple integral

$$\int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \int_{\phi_1}^{\phi_2} \int_{\rho_1}^{\rho_2} F(\rho, \phi, \theta) \rho^2 \sin \phi d\rho d\phi d\theta.$$

It therefore follows that

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV = \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \int_{\phi_1}^{\phi_2} \int_{\rho_1}^{\rho_2} F(\rho, \phi, \theta) \rho^2 \sin \phi d\rho d\phi d\theta. \quad (11)$$

Thus we transform the integral

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV$$

into spherical coordinates by replacing the rectangular-coordinate variables x , y , and z with their expressions in Eq. (6) in terms of the spherical-coordinate variables ρ , ϕ , and θ . In addition, we write

$$dV = \rho^2 \sin \phi d\rho d\phi d\theta$$

for the volume element in spherical coordinates.

More generally, we can transform the triple integral

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV$$

into spherical coordinates whenever the region T is **centrally simple**—that is, whenever it has a spherical-coordinates description of the form

$$\rho_1(\phi, \theta) \leq \rho \leq \rho_2(\phi, \theta), \quad \phi_1 \leq \phi \leq \phi_2, \quad \theta_1 \leq \theta \leq \theta_2. \quad (12)$$

If so, then

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV = \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \int_{\phi_1}^{\phi_2} \int_{\rho_1(\phi, \theta)}^{\rho_2(\phi, \theta)} F(\rho, \phi, \theta) \rho^2 \sin \phi d\rho d\phi d\theta. \quad (13)$$

The limits on ρ are simply the ρ -coordinates (in terms of ϕ and θ) of the endpoints of a typical radial segment that joins the “inner” and “outer” parts of the boundary of T (Fig. 14.7.9). Thus the general formula for **triple integration in spherical coordinates** is

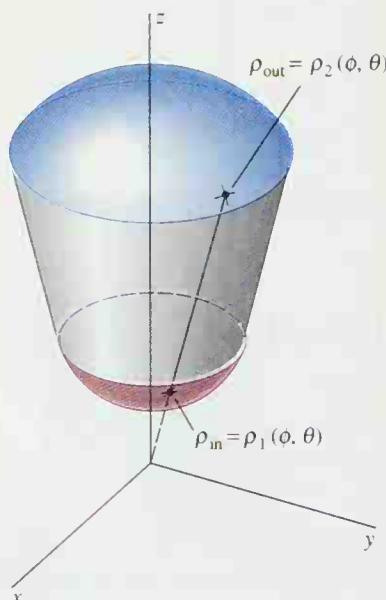


Fig. 14.7.9 A centrally simple region

$$\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV = \iiint_U f(\rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \rho \cos \phi) \rho^2 \sin \phi d\rho d\phi d\theta, \quad (14)$$

where, as before, U does not denote a region in space but rather indicates limits on ρ , ϕ , and θ appropriate to describe the region T in spherical coordinates.

EXAMPLE 3 A solid ball T with constant density δ is bounded by the spherical surface with equation $\rho = a$. Use spherical coordinates to compute its volume V and its moment of inertia I_z around the z -axis.

Solution The points of the ball T are described by the inequalities

$$0 \leq \rho \leq a, \quad 0 \leq \phi \leq \pi, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi.$$

We take $f = F \equiv 1$ in Eq. (11) and thereby obtain

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \iiint_T dV = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \int_0^a \rho^2 \sin \phi d\rho d\phi d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{3} a^3 \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \sin \phi d\phi d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{3} a^3 \int_0^{2\pi} \left[-\cos \phi \right]_{\phi=0}^\pi d\theta = \frac{2}{3} a^3 \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta = \frac{4}{3} \pi a^3. \end{aligned}$$

The distance from the typical point (ρ, ϕ, θ) of the sphere to the z -axis is $r = \rho \sin \phi$, so the moment of inertia of the sphere around that axis is

$$\begin{aligned} I_z &= \iiint_T r^2 \delta dV = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \int_0^a \delta \rho^4 \sin^3 \phi d\rho d\phi d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{5} \delta a^5 \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \sin^3 \phi d\phi d\theta \\ &= \frac{2}{5} \pi \delta a^5 \int_0^\pi \sin^3 \phi d\phi = \frac{2}{5} \pi \delta a^5 \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{2}{5} m a^2, \end{aligned}$$

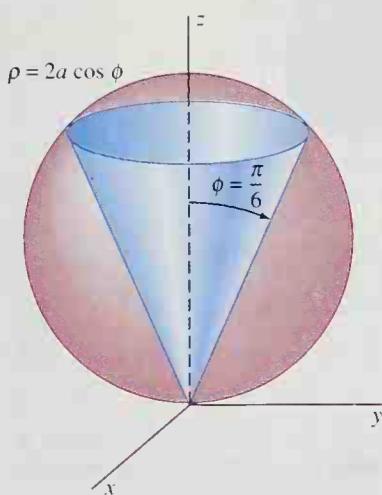


Fig. 14.7.10 The ice-cream cone of Example 4 is the part of the cone that lies within the sphere.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the volume and centroid of the uniform “ice-cream cone” C that is bounded by the cone $\phi = \pi/6$ and the sphere $\rho = 2a \cos \phi$ of radius a . The sphere and the part of the cone within it are shown in Fig. 14.7.10.

Solution The ice-cream cone is described by the inequalities

$$0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi, \quad 0 \leq \phi \leq \frac{\pi}{6}, \quad 0 \leq \rho \leq 2a \cos \phi.$$

Using Eq. (13) to compute its volume, we get

$$V = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/6} \int_0^{2a \cos \phi} \rho^2 \sin \phi d\rho d\phi d\theta$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{8}{3} a^3 \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/6} \cos^3 \phi \sin \phi \, d\phi \, d\theta \\
 &= \frac{16}{3} \pi a^3 \left[-\frac{1}{4} \cos^4 \phi \right]_0^{\pi/6} = \frac{7}{12} \pi a^3.
 \end{aligned}$$

Now for the centroid. It is clear by symmetry that $\bar{x} = \bar{y} = 0$. We may also assume that C has density $\delta \equiv 1$, so that the mass of C is numerically the same as its volume. Because $z = \rho \cos \phi$, the z -coordinate of the centroid of C is

$$\begin{aligned}
 \bar{z} &= \frac{1}{V} \iiint_C z \, dV = \frac{12}{7\pi a^3} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/6} \int_0^{2a \cos \phi} \rho^3 \cos \phi \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta \\
 &= \frac{48a}{7\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/6} \cos^5 \phi \sin \phi \, d\phi \, d\theta = \frac{96a}{7} \left[-\frac{1}{6} \cos^6 \phi \right]_0^{\pi/6} = \frac{37a}{28}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence the centroid of the ice-cream cone is located at the point $(0, 0, \frac{37}{28}a)$. ■

14.7 PROBLEMS

Solve Problems 1 through 20 by triple integration in cylindrical coordinates. Assume throughout that each solid has unit density unless another density function is specified.

1. Find the volume of the solid bounded above by the plane $z = 4$ and below by the paraboloid $z = r^2$.
2. Find the centroid of the solid of Problem 1.
3. Derive the formula for the volume of a sphere of radius a .
4. Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the solid sphere of Problem 3 given that the z -axis passes through its center.
5. Find the volume of the region that lies inside both the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.
6. Find the centroid of the half of the region of Problem 5 that lies on or above the xy -plane.
7. Find the mass of the cylinder $0 \leq r \leq a$, $0 \leq z \leq h$ if its density at (x, y, z) is z .
8. Find the centroid of the cylinder of Problem 7.
9. Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the cylinder of Problem 7.
10. Find the volume of the region that lies inside both the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 - 2x = 0$ (Fig. 14.7.11).
11. Find the volume and centroid of the region bounded by the plane $z = 0$ and the paraboloid $z = 9 - x^2 - y^2$.
12. Find the volume and centroid of the region bounded by the paraboloids $z = x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 12 - 2x^2 - 2y^2$.
13. Find the volume of the region bounded by the paraboloids $z = 2x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 12 - x^2 - 2y^2$.
14. Find the volume of the region bounded below by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and above by the plane $z = 2x$ (Fig. 14.7.12).
15. Find the volume of the region bounded above by the spherical surface $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2$ and below by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ (Fig. 14.7.13).

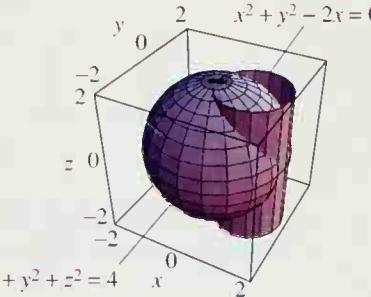


Fig. 14.7.11 The sphere and cylinder of Problem 10

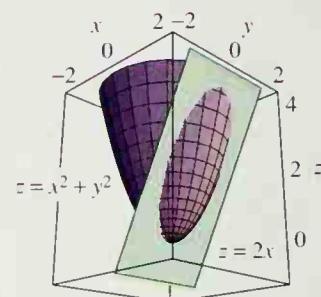


Fig. 14.7.12 The plane and paraboloid of Problem 14

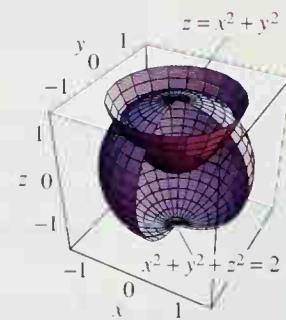


Fig. 14.7.13 The sphere and paraboloid of Problem 15

16. A homogeneous solid cylinder has mass m and radius a . Show that its moment of inertia around its axis of symmetry is $\frac{1}{2}ma^2$.
17. Find the moment of inertia I of a homogeneous solid right circular cylinder around a diameter of its base. Express I in terms of the radius a , the height h , and the (constant) density δ of the cylinder.

18. Find the centroid of a homogeneous solid right circular cylinder of radius a and height h .
19. Find the volume of the region bounded by the plane $z = 1$ and the cone $z = r$.
20. Show that the centroid of a homogeneous solid right circular cone lies on its axis three-quarters of the way from its vertex to its base.

Solve Problems 21 through 30 by triple integration in spherical coordinates.

21. Find the centroid of a homogeneous solid hemisphere of radius a .
22. Find the mass and centroid of the solid hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq a^2, z \geq 0$ if its density δ is proportional to distance z from its base—so $\delta = kz$ (where k is a positive constant).
23. Solve Problem 19 by triple integration in spherical coordinates.
24. Solve Problem 20 by triple integration in spherical coordinates.
25. Find the volume and centroid of the uniform solid that lies inside the sphere $\rho = a$ and above the cone $r = z$.
26. Find the moment of inertia I_z of the solid of Problem 25.
27. Find the moment of inertia around a tangent line of a solid homogeneous sphere of radius a and total mass m .
28. A spherical shell of mass m is bounded by the spheres $\rho = a$ and $\rho = 2a$, and its density function is $\delta = \rho^2$. Find its moment of inertia around a diameter.
29. Describe the surface $\rho = 2a \sin \phi$ and compute the volume of the region it bounds.
30. Describe the surface $\rho = 1 + \cos \phi$ and compute the volume of the region it bounds. Figure 14.7.14 may be useful.

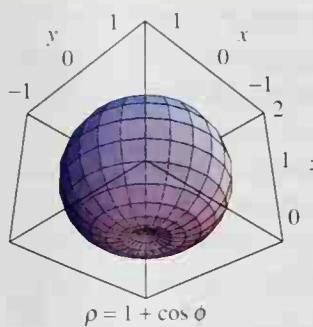


Fig. 14.7.14 The surface of Problem 30

31. Find the moment of inertia around the x -axis of the region that lies inside both the cylinder $r = a$ and the sphere $\rho = 2a$.
32. Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the ice-cream cone of Example 4.
33. Find the mass and centroid of the ice-cream cone of Example 4 if its density at (x, y, z) is $\delta(x, y, z) = z$.
34. Find the moment of inertia of the ice-cream cone of Problem 33 around the z -axis.

35. Suppose that a gaseous spherical star of radius a has density function $\delta = k(1 - \rho^2/a^2)$, so its density varies from $\delta = k$ at its center to $\delta = 0$ at its boundary $\rho = a$. Show that its mass is $\frac{2}{5}$ that of a similar star with uniform density k .
36. Find the moment of inertia around a diameter of the gaseous spherical star of Problem 35.
37. (a) Use spherical coordinates to evaluate the integral

$$\iiint_B \exp(-\rho^3) dV$$

where B is the solid ball of radius a centered at the origin.
(b) Let $a \rightarrow \infty$ in the result of part (a) to show that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(-(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}) dx dy dz = \frac{4}{3} \pi.$$

38. Use the method of Problem 37 to show that
- $$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/2} \exp(-x^2 - y^2 - z^2) dx dy dz = 2\pi.$$
39. Find the average distance of points of a solid ball of radius a from the center of the ball. (The definition of the average value of a function precedes Problem 47 in Section 14.6.)
40. Find the average distance of the points of a solid ball of radius a from a fixed boundary point of the ball.
41. Consider a homogeneous spherical ball of radius a centered at the origin, with density δ and mass $M = \frac{4}{3}\pi a^3 \delta$. Show that the gravitational force \mathbf{F} exerted by this ball on a point mass m located at the point $(0, 0, c)$, where $c > a$ (Fig. 14.7.15), is the same as though all the mass of the ball were concentrated at its center $(0, 0, 0)$. That is, show that $|\mathbf{F}| = GMm/c^2$. (Suggestion: By symmetry you may assume that the force is vertical, so that $\mathbf{F} = F_z \mathbf{k}$. Set up the integral

$$F_z = - \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a \int_0^\pi \frac{Gm\delta \cos \alpha}{w^2} \rho^2 \sin \phi d\phi d\rho d\theta.$$

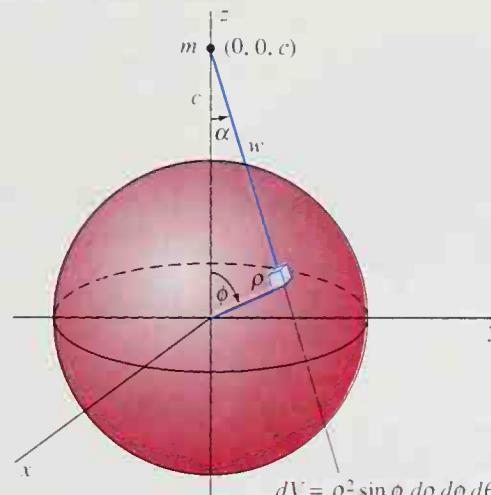


Fig. 14.7.15 The system of Problem 41

Change the first variable of integration from ϕ to w by using the law of cosines:

$$w^2 = \rho^2 + c^2 - 2\rho c \cos \phi.$$

Then $2w dw = 2\rho c \sin \phi d\phi$ and $w \cos \alpha + \rho \cos \phi = c$. (Why?)

42. Consider now the spherical shell $a \leq r \leq b$ with uniform density δ . Show that this shell exerts no net force on a point mass m located at the point $(0, 0, c)$ inside it—that is, with $|c| < a$. The computation will be the same as in Problem 41 except for the limits of integration on ρ and w .

14.7 PROJECT: THE EARTH'S MANTLE

If the earth were a perfect sphere with radius $R = 6370$ km, uniform density δ , and mass $M = \frac{4}{3}\pi\delta R^3$, then (according to Example 3) its moment of inertia around its polar axis would be $I = \frac{2}{5}MR^2$. In actuality, however, it turns out that

$$I = kMR^2, \quad (1)$$

where $k < 0.4 = \frac{2}{5}$. The reason is that, instead of having a uniform interior, the earth has a dense core covered with a lighter mantle a few thousand kilometers thick (Fig. 14.7.16). The density of the core is $\delta_1 \approx 11 \times 10^3$ (kg/m^3) and that of the mantle is $\delta_2 \approx 5 \times 10^3$ (kg/m^3).

The numerical value of k in Eq. (1) can be determined from certain earth satellite observations. If the earth's polar moment of inertia I and mass M (for the core-mantle model) are expressed in terms of the unknown radius x of the spherical core, then substitution of these expressions into Eq. (1) yields an equation that can be solved for x .

Show that this equation can be written in the form

$$2(\delta_1 - \delta_2)x^5 - 5k(\delta_1 - \delta_2)R^2x^3 + (2 - 5k)\delta_2R^5 = 0. \quad (2)$$

Given the measured numerical value $k = 0.371$, solve this equation (graphically or numerically) to find x and from this solution determine the thickness of the earth's mantle.

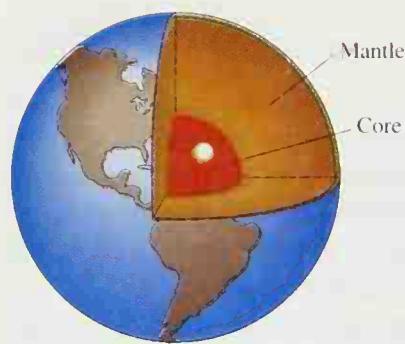


Fig. 14.7.16 The core and mantle of the earth

14.8 SURFACE AREA

Until now our concept of a surface has been the graph $z = f(x, y)$ of a function of two variables. Occasionally we have seen such a surface defined implicitly by an equation of the form $F(x, y, z) = 0$. Now we want to introduce the more precise concept of a *parametric surface*—the two-dimensional analogue of a parametric curve.

A **parametric surface** S is the *image* of a function or transformation \mathbf{r} that is defined on a region R in the uv -plane (Fig. 14.8.1) and has values in xyz -space (Fig. 14.8.2). The *image* under \mathbf{r} of each point (u, v) in R is the point in xyz -space with position vector

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v) \rangle. \quad (1)$$

We shall assume throughout this section that the component functions of \mathbf{r} have continuous partial derivatives with respect to u and v and also that the vectors

$$\mathbf{r}_u = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} = \langle x_u, y_u, z_u \rangle = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} \mathbf{k} \quad (2)$$

and

$$\mathbf{r}_v = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} = \langle x_v, y_v, z_v \rangle = \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \mathbf{k} \quad (3)$$

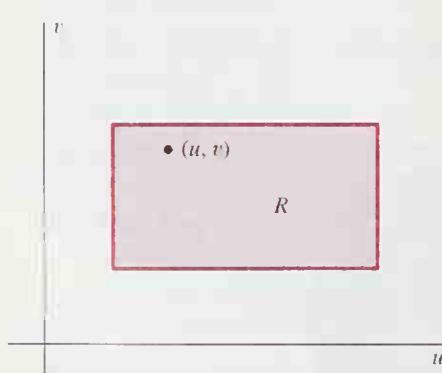


Fig. 14.8.1 The uv -region R on which the transformation \mathbf{r} is defined

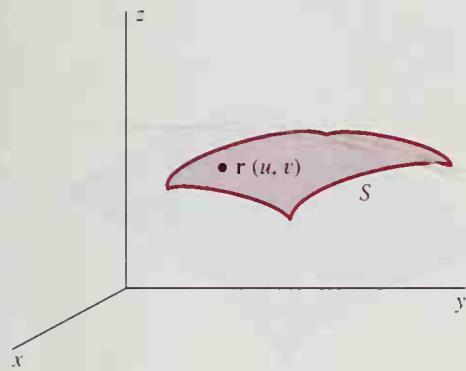


Fig. 14.8.2 The parametric surface S in xyz -space

are nonzero and nonparallel at each interior point of R . (Compare this with the definition of *smooth* parametric curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ in Section 10.4.) We call the variables u and v the *parameters* for the surface S , in analogy with the single parameter t for a parametric curve.

EXAMPLE 1 (a) We may regard the graph $z = f(x, y)$ of a function as a parametric surface with parameters x and y . In this case the transformation \mathbf{r} from the xy -plane to xyz -space has the component functions

$$x = x, \quad y = y, \quad z = f(x, y). \quad (4)$$

(b) Similarly, we may regard a surface given in cylindrical coordinates by the graph of $z = g(r, \theta)$ as a parametric surface with parameters r and θ . The transformation \mathbf{r} from the $r\theta$ -plane (Fig. 14.8.3) to xyz -space (Fig. 14.8.4) is then given by

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta, \quad z = g(r, \theta). \quad (5)$$

(c) We may regard a surface given in spherical coordinates by $\rho = h(\phi, \theta)$ as a parametric surface with parameters ϕ and θ , and the corresponding transformation from the $\phi\theta$ -plane to xyz -space is then given by

$$x = h(\phi, \theta) \sin \phi \cos \theta, \quad y = h(\phi, \theta) \sin \phi \sin \theta, \quad z = h(\phi, \theta) \cos \phi. \quad (6)$$

The concept of a parametric surface lets us treat all these special cases, and many others, with the same techniques. ■

Now we want to define the *surface area* of the general parametric surface given in Eq. (1). We begin with an inner partition of the region R —the domain of \mathbf{r} in the uv -plane—into rectangles R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n , each with dimensions Δu and Δv . Let (u_i, v_i) be the lower left-hand corner of R_i (as in Fig. 14.8.5). The image S_i of R_i under \mathbf{r} will not generally be a rectangle in xyz -space; it will look more like a *curvilinear figure* on the image surface S , with $\mathbf{r}(u_i, v_i)$ as one “vertex” (Fig. 14.8.6). Let ΔS_i denote the area of this curvilinear figure S_i .

The parametric curves $\mathbf{r}(u, v_i)$ and $\mathbf{r}(u_i, v)$ —with parameters u and v , respectively—lie on the surface S and meet at the point $\mathbf{r}(u_i, v_i)$. At this point of intersection, these two curves have the tangent vectors $\mathbf{r}_u(u_i, v_i)$ and $\mathbf{r}_v(u_i, v_i)$ shown in Fig. 14.8.7. Hence their vector product

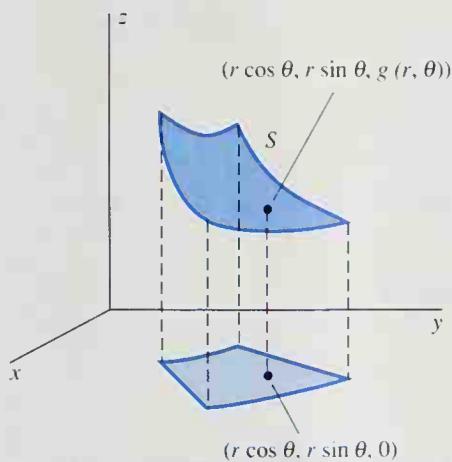


Fig. 14.8.3 A rectangle in the $r\theta$ -plane; the domain of the function $z = g(r, \theta)$ of Example 1

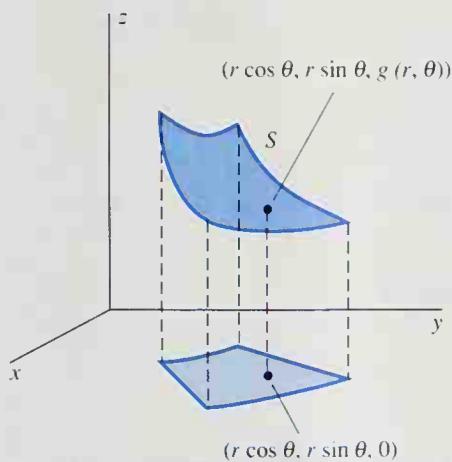


Fig. 14.8.4 A cylindrical-coordinates surface in xyz -space (Example 1)

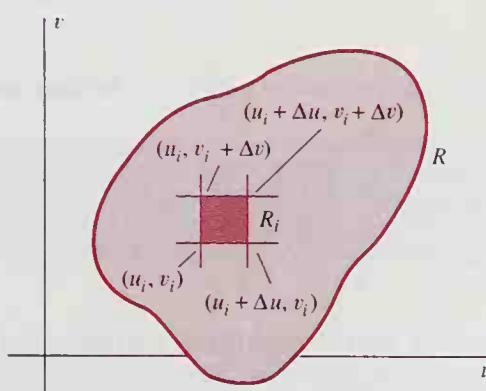


Fig. 14.8.5 The rectangle R_i in the uv -plane

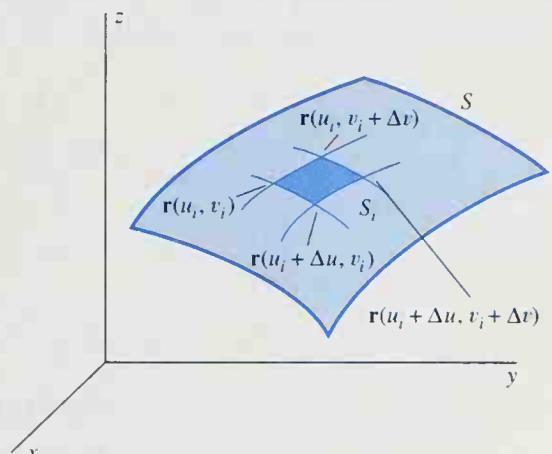


Fig. 14.8.6 The image of R_i is a curvilinear figure.

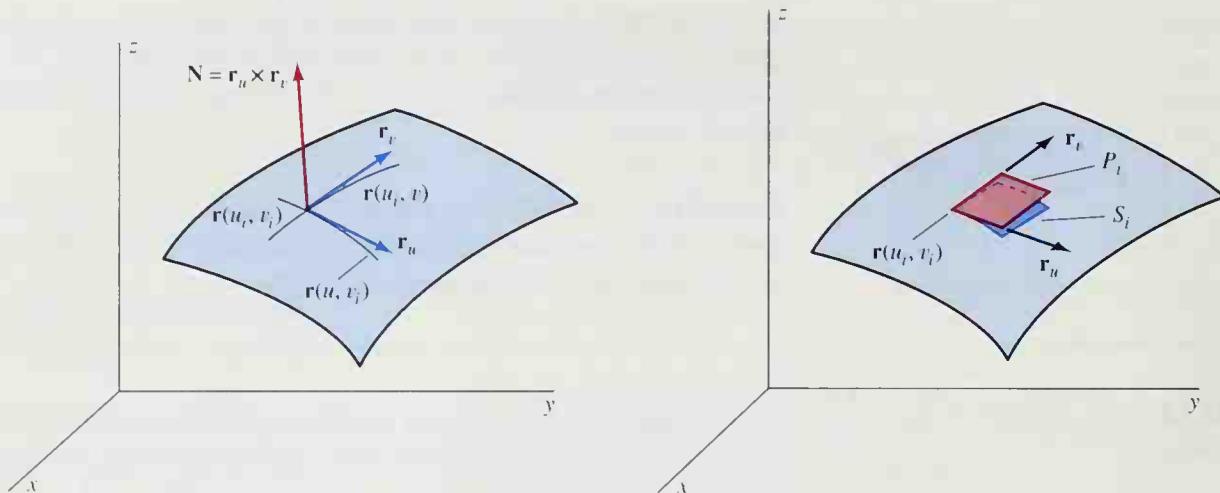


Fig. 14.8.7 The vector \mathbf{N} normal to the surface at $\mathbf{r}(u_i, v_i)$

Fig. 14.8.8 The area of the parallelogram P_i is an approximation to the area of the curvilinear figure S_i .

$$\mathbf{N}(u_i, v_i) = \mathbf{r}_u(u_i, v_i) \times \mathbf{r}_v(u_i, v_i) \quad (7)$$

is a vector normal to S at the point $\mathbf{r}(u_i, v_i)$.

Now suppose that both Δu and Δv are small. Then the area ΔS_i of the curvilinear figure S_i will be approximately equal to the area ΔP_i of the parallelogram P_i with adjacent sides $\mathbf{r}_u(u_i, v_i) \Delta u$ and $\mathbf{r}_v(u_i, v_i) \Delta v$ (Fig. 14.8.8). But the area of this parallelogram is

$$\Delta P_i = |\mathbf{r}_u(u_i, v_i) \Delta u \times \mathbf{r}_v(u_i, v_i) \Delta v| = |\mathbf{N}(u_i, v_i)| \Delta u \Delta v.$$

This means that the area $a(S)$ of the surface S is given approximately by

$$a(S) = \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta S_i \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta P_i$$

so

$$a(S) \approx \sum_{i=1}^n |\mathbf{N}(u_i, v_i)| \Delta u \Delta v.$$

But this last sum is a Riemann sum for the double integral

$$\iint_R |\mathbf{N}(u, v)| du dv.$$

We are therefore motivated to *define* the **surface area** A of the parametric surface S by

$$A = a(S) = \iint_R |\mathbf{N}(u, v)| du dv = \iint_R \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} \right| du dv. \quad (8)$$

Surface Area in Rectangular Coordinates

In the case of the surface $z = f(x, y)$ for (x, y) in the region R in the xy -plane, the component functions of \mathbf{r} are given by the equations in (4) with parameters x and y (in place of u and v). Then

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial x} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial y} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 0 & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k},$$

so Eq. (8) takes the special form

$$\begin{aligned} A = a(S) &= \iint_R \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)^2} dx dy \\ &= \iint_R \sqrt{1 + z_x^2 + z_y^2} dx dy. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

EXAMPLE 2 Find the area of the ellipse cut from the plane $z = 2x + 2y + 1$ by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ (Fig. 14.8.9).

Solution Here, R is the unit circle in the xy -plane with area

$$\iint_R 1 dx dy = \pi,$$

so Eq. (9) gives the area of the ellipse to be

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \iint_R \sqrt{1 + z_x^2 + z_y^2} dx dy \\ &= \iint_R \sqrt{1 + 2^2 + 2^2} dx dy = \iint_R 3 dx dy = 3\pi. \end{aligned}$$

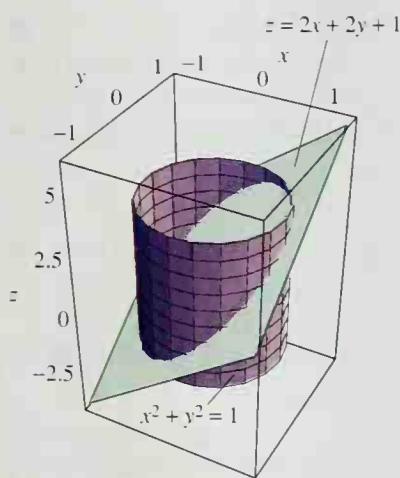


Fig. 14.8.9 The cylinder and plane of Example 2

REMARK Computer-generated figures such as Fig. 14.8.9 could not be constructed without using parametric surfaces. For example, the vertical cylinder in Fig. 14.8.9 was generated by instructing the computer to plot the parametric surface defined on the $z\theta$ -rectangle $-5 \leq z \leq 5, 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$ by $\mathbf{r}(z, \theta) = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta, z)$. Is it clear that the image of this transformation is the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1, -5 \leq z \leq 5$?

Surface Area in Cylindrical Coordinates

Now consider a cylindrical-coordinates surface $z = g(r, \theta)$ parametrized by the equations in (5) for (r, θ) in a region R of the $r\theta$ -plane. Then the normal vector is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{N} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial r} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \theta} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \cos \theta & \sin \theta & \frac{\partial z}{\partial r} \\ -r \sin \theta & r \cos \theta & \frac{\partial z}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \mathbf{i} \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial \theta} \sin \theta - r \frac{\partial z}{\partial r} \cos \theta \right) - \mathbf{j} \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial \theta} \cos \theta + r \frac{\partial z}{\partial r} \sin \theta \right) + r \mathbf{k}. \end{aligned}$$

After some simplifications, we find that

$$|\mathbf{N}| = \sqrt{r^2 + r^2 \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial r} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial \theta} \right)^2}.$$

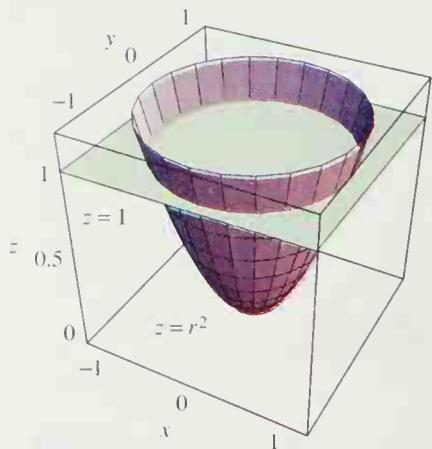


Fig. 14.8.10 The part of the paraboloid $z = r^2$ inside the cylinder $r = 1$ (Example 3) is the same as the part beneath the plane $z = 1$. (Why?)

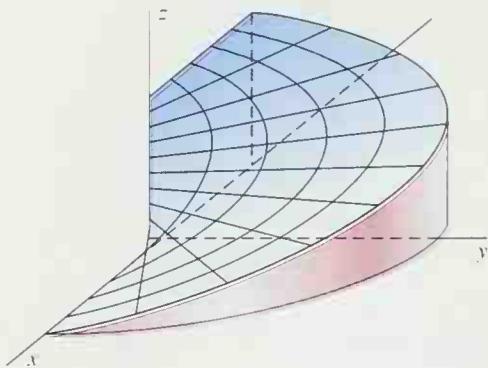


Fig. 14.8.11 The spiral ramp of Example 4

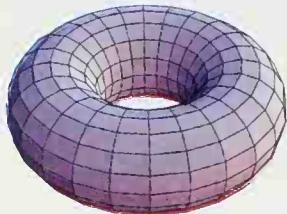


Fig. 14.8.12 The torus of Example 5

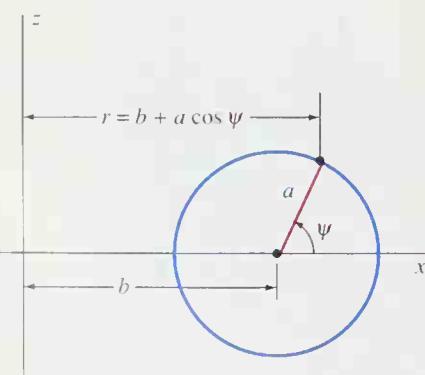


Fig. 14.8.13 The circle that generates the torus of Example 5

Then Eq. (8) yields the formula

$$A = \iint_R \sqrt{r^2 + (rz_r)^2 + (z_\theta)^2} \, dr \, d\theta \quad (10)$$

for surface area in cylindrical coordinates.

EXAMPLE 3 Find the surface area cut from the paraboloid $z = r^2$ by the cylinder $r = 1$ (Fig. 14.8.10).

Solution Equation (10) gives surface area

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 \sqrt{r^2 + r^2 \cdot (2r)^2} \, dr \, d\theta = 2\pi \int_0^1 r \sqrt{1 + 4r^2} \, dr \\ &= 2\pi \left[\frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{8} (1 + 4r^2)^{3/2} \right]_0^1 = \frac{\pi}{6} (5\sqrt{5} - 1) \approx 5.3304. \end{aligned}$$

In Example 3, you would get the same result if you first wrote $z = x^2 + y^2$, used Eq. (9), which gives

$$A = \iint_R \sqrt{1 + 4x^2 + 4y^2} \, dx \, dy,$$

and then changed to polar coordinates. In Example 4 it would be less convenient to begin with rectangular coordinates.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the surface area of the *spiral ramp* $z = \theta$, $0 \leq r \leq 1$, $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$. This is the upper surface of the solid shown in Fig. 14.8.11.

Solution Equation (10) gives surface area

$$A = \int_0^\pi \int_0^1 \sqrt{r^2 + 1} \, dr \, d\theta = \frac{\pi}{2} [\sqrt{2} + \ln(1 + \sqrt{2})] \approx 3.6059.$$

We avoided a trigonometric substitution by using the table of integrals on the inside back cover.

EXAMPLE 5 Find the surface area of the torus generated by revolving the circle

$$(x - b)^2 + z^2 = a^2 \quad (0 < a < b)$$

in the xz -plane around the z -axis (Fig. 14.8.12).

Solution With the ordinary polar coordinate θ and the angle ψ of Fig. 14.8.13, the torus is described for $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$ and $0 \leq \psi \leq 2\pi$ by the parametric equations

$$x = r \cos \theta = (b + a \cos \psi) \cos \theta,$$

$$y = r \sin \theta = (b + a \cos \psi) \sin \theta,$$

$$z = a \sin \psi.$$

When we compute $\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{r}_\theta \times \mathbf{r}_\psi$ and simplify, we find that $|\mathbf{N}| = a(b + a \cos \psi)$. Hence the general surface-area formula, Eq. (8), gives area

$$A = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} a(b + a \cos \psi) d\theta d\psi = 2\pi a \left[b\psi + a \sin \psi \right]_0^{2\pi} = 4\pi^2 ab.$$

We obtained the same result in Section 14.5 with the aid of Pappus's theorem. ■

14.8 PROBLEMS

1. Find the area of the portion of the plane $z = x + 3y$ that lies inside the elliptical cylinder with equation $x^2/4 + y^2/9 = 1$.
2. Find the area of the region in the plane $z = 1 + 2x + 2y$ that lies directly above the region in the xy -plane bounded by the parabolas $y = x^2$ and $x = y^2$.
3. Find the area of the part of the paraboloid $z = 9 - x^2 - y^2$ that lies above the plane $z = 5$.
4. Find the area of the part of the surface $2z = x^2$ that lies directly above the triangle in the xy -plane with vertices at $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(1, 1)$.
5. Find the area of the surface that is the graph of $z = x + y^2$ for $0 \leq x \leq 1$, $0 \leq y \leq 2$.
6. Find the area of that part of the surface of Problem 5 that lies above the triangle in the xy -plane with vertices at $(0, 0)$, $(0, 1)$, and $(1, 1)$.
7. Find by integration the area of the part of the plane $2x + 3y + z = 6$ that lies in the first octant.
8. Find the area of the ellipse that is cut from the plane $2x + 3y + z = 6$ by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 2$.
9. Find the area that is cut from the saddle-shaped surface $z = xy$ by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.
10. Find the area that is cut from the surface $z = x^2 - y^2$ by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$.
11. Find the surface area of the part of the paraboloid $z = 16 - x^2 - y^2$ that lies above the xy -plane.
12. Show by integration that the surface area of the conical surface $z = br$ between the planes $z = 0$ and $z = h = ab$ is given by $A = \pi aL$, where L is the slant height $\sqrt{a^2 + h^2}$ and a is the radius of the base of the cone.
13. Let the part of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ between the planes $z = 0$ and $z = h$ be parametrized by $x = a \cos \theta$, $y = a \sin \theta$, $z = z$. Apply Eq. (8) to show that the area of this zone is $A = 2\pi ah$.
14. Consider the meridional zone of height $h = c - b$ that lies on the sphere $r^2 + z^2 = a^2$ between the planes $z = b$ and $z = c$, where $0 \leq b < c \leq a$. Apply Eq. (10) to show that the area of this zone is $A = 2\pi ah$.
15. Find the area of the part of the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = a^2$ that lies within the cylinder $r^2 = x^2 + y^2 = a^2$.
16. Find the area of the part of the sphere $r^2 + z^2 = a^2$ that lies within the cylinder $r = a \sin \theta$.
17. (a) Apply Eq. (8) to show that the surface area of the surface $y = f(x, z)$, for (x, z) in the region R of the xz -plane, is given by

$$A = \iint_R \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right)^2} dx dz.$$

- (b) State and derive a similar formula for the area of the surface $x = f(y, z)$ for (y, z) in the region R of the yz -plane.

18. Suppose that R is a region in the $\phi\theta$ -plane. Consider the part of the sphere $\rho = a$ that corresponds to (ϕ, θ) in R , parametrized by the equations in (6) with $h(\phi, \theta) = a$. Apply Eq. (8) to show that the surface area of this part of the sphere is

$$A = \iint_R a^2 \sin \phi d\phi d\theta.$$

19. (a) Consider the "spherical rectangle" defined by

$$\rho = a, \quad \phi_1 \leq \phi \leq \phi_2 = \phi_1 + \Delta\phi, \quad \theta_1 \leq \theta \leq \theta_2 = \theta_1 + \Delta\theta.$$

Apply the formula of Problem 18 and the average value property (see Problem 50 in Section 14.2) to show that the area of this spherical rectangle is $A = a^2 \sin \hat{\phi} \Delta\phi \Delta\theta$ for some $\hat{\phi}$ in (ϕ_1, ϕ_2) . (b) Conclude from the result of part (a) that the volume of the spherical block defined by

$$\rho_1 \leq \rho \leq \rho_2 = \rho_1 + \Delta\rho, \quad \phi_1 \leq \phi \leq \phi_2, \quad \theta_1 \leq \theta \leq \theta_2$$

is

$$\Delta V = \frac{1}{3} (\rho_2^3 - \rho_1^3) \sin \hat{\phi} \Delta\phi \Delta\theta.$$

Finally, derive Eq. (8) of Section 14.7 by applying the mean value theorem to the function $f(\rho) = \rho^3$ on the interval $[\rho_1, \rho_2]$.

20. Describe the surface $\rho = 2a \sin \phi$. Why is it called a *pinched torus*? It is parametrized as in Eq. (6) with $h(\phi, \theta) = 2a \sin \theta$. Show that its surface area is $A = 4\pi^2 a^2$. Figure 14.8.14 may be helpful.
21. The surface of revolution obtained when we revolve the curve $x = f(z)$, $a \leq z \leq b$, around the z -axis is parametrized in terms of θ ($0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$) and z ($a \leq z \leq b$) by $x = f(z) \cos \theta$, $y = f(z) \sin \theta$, $z = z$. From Eq. (8) derive the surface-area formula

$$A = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_a^b f(z) \sqrt{1 + [f'(z)]^2} dz d\theta.$$

This formula agrees with the area of a surface of revolution as defined in Section 6.4.

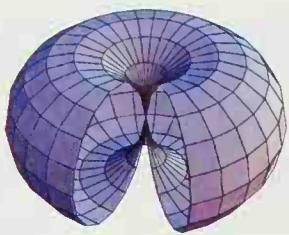


Fig. 14.8.14 Cutaway view of the pinched torus of Problem 20

22. Apply the formula of Problem 18 in both parts of this problem. (a) Verify the formula $A = 4\pi a^2$ for the surface area of a sphere of radius a . (b) Find the area of that part of a sphere of radius a and center $(0, 0, 0)$ that lies inside the cone $\phi = \pi/6$.
23. Apply the result of Problem 21 to verify the formula $A = 2\pi rh$ for the lateral surface area of a right circular cylinder of radius r and height h .
24. Apply Eq. (9) to verify the formula $A = 2\pi rh$ for the lateral surface area of the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = r^2$, $0 \leq y \leq h$ of radius r and height h .

In Problems 25 through 28, use a computer algebra system first to plot and then to approximate (with four-place accuracy) the area of the part of the given surface S that lies above the square in the xy -plane defined by: (a) $-1 \leq x \leq 1$, $-1 \leq y \leq 1$; (b) $|x| + |y| \leq 1$.

25. S is the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$.
26. S is the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$.
27. S is the hyperboloid $z = 1 + xy$.
28. S is the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$.
29. An ellipsoid with semiaxes a , b , and c is defined by the parametrization

$$x = a \sin \phi \cos \theta, \quad y = b \sin \phi \sin \theta, \quad z = c \cos \phi$$

$(0 \leq \phi \leq \pi, 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi)$ in terms of the angular spherical coordinates ϕ and θ . Use a computer algebra system to approximate (to four-place accuracy) the area of the ellipsoid with $a = 4$, $b = 3$, and $c = 2$.

30. (a) Generalize Example 5 to derive the parametric equations

$$x = (b + a \cos \psi) \cos \theta, \quad y = (b + a \cos \psi) \sin \theta, \quad z = c \sin \psi$$

$(0 \leq \psi \leq 2\pi, 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi)$ of the “elliptical torus” obtained by revolving around the z -axis the ellipse $(x - b)^2/a^2 + z^2/c^2 = 1$ (where $0 < a < b$) in the xz -plane. (b) Use a computer algebra system to approximate (to four-place accuracy) the area of the elliptical torus obtained as in part (a) with $a = 2$, $b = 3$, and $c = 1$. (c) Also approximate the perimeter of the ellipse of part (a). Are your results consistent with Pappus’s theorem for the area of a surface of revolution?

14.8 PROJECT: COMPUTER-GENERATED PARAMETRIC SURFACES

Parametric surfaces are used in most serious computer graphics work. Common computer algebra systems provide parametric plotting instructions such as the *Maple* command

```
plot3d( [f(u,v), g(u,v), h(u,v)], u = a..b, v = c..d )
```

and the *Mathematica* command

```
ParametricPlot3D[ {f[u,v],g[u,v],h[u,v]}, {u, a, b}, {v, c, d} ]
```

to plot the parametric surface defined by

$$x = f(u, v), \quad y = g(u, v), \quad z = h(u, v)$$

for $a \leq u \leq b$, $c \leq v \leq d$. In each of the following problems, first verify the given parametrization for the indicated surface. Then plot the surface, or a typical part of it, with selected numerical values of any constants that appear. Finally, calculate the area of your plotted surface.

1. The cylindrical-coordinates parametrization

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta, \quad z = f(r, \theta)$$

of a polar-coordinates surface such as a cone $z = kr$ or a circular paraboloid $z = kr^2$. Then try something more exotic, such as $z = (\sin r)/r$.

2. The parametrization

$$x = a \cos \theta, \quad y = b \sin \theta, \quad z = z$$

($0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$) of the elliptic cylinder $(x/a)^2 + (y/b)^2 = 1$.

3. The parametrization

$$x = au \cos \theta, \quad y = bu \sin \theta, \quad z = u^2$$

of the elliptic paraboloid $z = (x/a)^2 + (y/b)^2$, or the analogous elliptic cone.

4. The parametrization

$$x = a \sin u \cos v, \quad y = b \sin u \sin v, \quad z = c \cos u$$

of the ellipsoid $(x/a)^2 + (y/b)^2 + (z/c)^2 = 1$.

5. The parametrization

$$x = a \cosh u \cos v, \quad y = b \cosh u \sin v, \quad z = c \sinh u$$

of the hyperboloid $(x/a)^2 + (y/b)^2 - (z/c)^2 = 1$ of one sheet.

6. The parametrization

$$x = a \sinh u \cos v, \quad y = b \sinh u \sin v, \quad z = c \cosh u$$

of the hyperboloid $(z/c)^2 - (x/a)^2 - (y/b)^2 = 1$ of two sheets.

*14.9 CHANGE OF VARIABLES IN MULTIPLE INTEGRALS

We have seen in preceding sections that we can evaluate certain multiple integrals by transforming them from rectangular coordinates into polar or spherical coordinates. The technique of changing coordinate systems to evaluate a multiple integral is the multivariable analogue of substitution in a single integral. Recall from Section 5.7 that if $x = g(u)$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_c^d f(g(u)) g'(u) du, \tag{1}$$

where $a = g(c)$ and $b = g(d)$. The method of substitution involves a “change of variables” that is tailored to the evaluation of a given integral.

Suppose that we want to evaluate the double integral

$$\iint_R F(x, y) dx dy.$$

A change of variables for this integral is determined by a **transformation** T from the uv -plane to the xy -plane—that is, a function T that associates with the point (u, v) a point $(x, y) = T(u, v)$ given by equations of the form

$$x = f(u, v), \quad y = g(u, v). \tag{2}$$

The point (x, y) is called the **image** of the point (u, v) under the transformation T . If no two different points in the uv -plane have the same image point in the xy -plane, then the transformation T is said to be **one-to-one**. In this case it may be possible to solve the equations in (2) for u and v in terms of x and y and thus obtain the equations

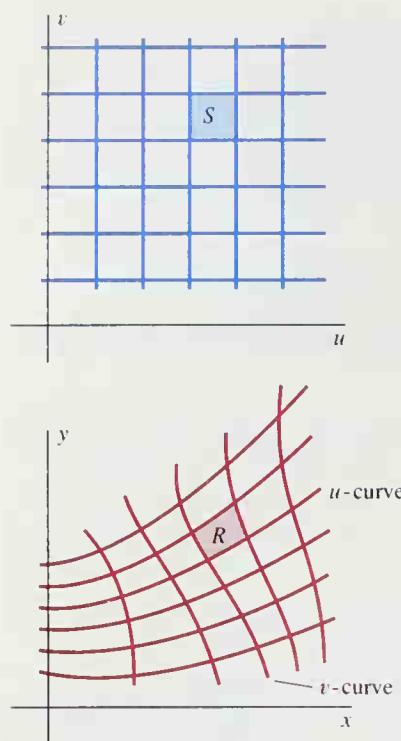


Fig. 14.9.1 The transformation T turns the rectangle S into the curvilinear figure R .

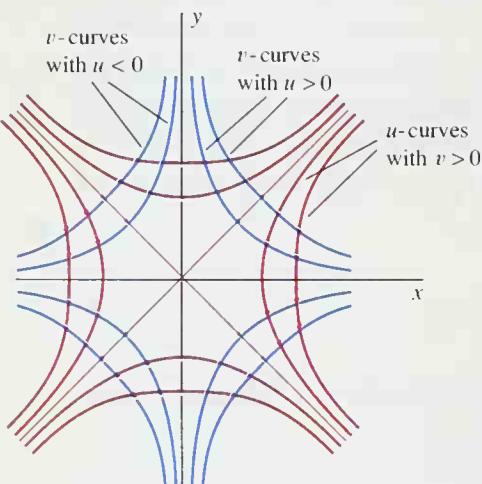


Fig. 14.9.2 The u -curves and v -curves of Example 1

$$u = h(x, y), \quad v = k(x, y) \quad (3)$$

of the **inverse transformation** T^{-1} from the xy -plane to the uv -plane.

Often it is convenient to visualize the transformation T geometrically in terms of its u -curves and v -curves. The u -curves of T are the images in the xy -plane of the horizontal lines in the uv -plane—on each such curve the value of u varies but v is constant. The v -curves of T are the images of the vertical lines in the uv -plane—on each of these, the value of v varies but u is constant. Note that the image under T of a rectangle bounded by horizontal and vertical lines in the uv -plane is a *curvilinear figure* bounded by u -curves and v -curves in the xy -plane (Fig. 14.9.1). If we know the equations in (3) of the inverse transformation, then we can find the u -curves and the v -curves quite simply by writing the equations

$$\begin{aligned} k(x, y) = C_1 &\quad (\text{u-curve on which } v = C_1 \text{ is constant}), \\ h(x, y) = C_2 &\quad (\text{v-curve on which } u = C_2 \text{ is constant}). \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 1 Determine the u -curves and the v -curves of the transformation T whose inverse T^{-1} is specified by the equations $u = xy$, $v = x^2 - y^2$.

Solution The u -curves are the hyperbolas

$$x^2 - y^2 = v = C_1 \quad (\text{constant}),$$

and the v -curves are the rectangular hyperbolas

$$xy = u = C_2 \quad (\text{constant}).$$

These two familiar families of hyperbolas are shown in Fig. 14.9.2. ■

Change of Variables in Double Integrals

Now we shall describe the change of variables in a double integral that corresponds to the transformation T specified by the equations in (2). Let the region R in the xy -plane be the image under T of the region S in the uv -plane. Let $F(x, y)$ be continuous on R and let $\{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n\}$ be an inner partition of S into rectangles each with dimensions Δu by Δv . Each rectangle S_i is transformed by T into a curvilinear figure R_i in the xy -plane (Fig. 14.9.3). The images $\{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n\}$ under T of the rectangles S_i then constitute an inner partition of the region R (though into curvilinear figures rather than rectangles).

Let (u_i^*, v_i^*) be the lower left-hand corner point of S_i , and write

$$(x_i^*, y_i^*) = (f(u_i^*, v_i^*), g(u_i^*, v_i^*))$$

for its image under T . The u -curve through (x_i^*, y_i^*) has velocity vector

$$\mathbf{t}_u = \mathbf{i} f_u(u_i^*, v_i^*) + \mathbf{j} g_u(u_i^*, v_i^*) = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \mathbf{j},$$

and the v -curve through (x_i^*, y_i^*) has velocity vector

$$\mathbf{t}_v = \mathbf{i} f_v(u_i^*, v_i^*) + \mathbf{j} g_v(u_i^*, v_i^*) = \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \mathbf{j}.$$

Thus we can approximate the curvilinear figure R_i by a parallelogram P_i with edges that are “copies” of the vectors $\mathbf{t}_u \Delta u$ and $\mathbf{t}_v \Delta v$. These edges and the approximating parallelogram appear in Fig. 14.9.3.

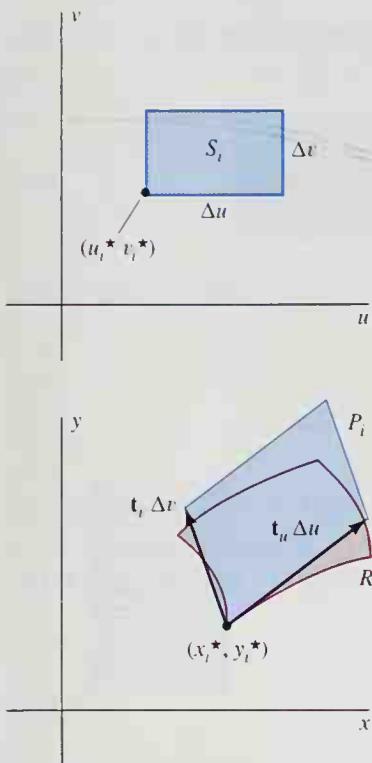


Fig. 14.9.3 The effect of the transformation T . We estimate the area of $R_i = T(S_i)$ by computing the area of the parallelogram P_i .

Now the area ΔA_i of R_i is also approximated by the area $a(P_i)$ of the parallelogram P_i , and we can compute the latter. Indeed,

$$\Delta A_i \approx a(P_i) = |(\mathbf{t}_u \Delta u) \times (\mathbf{t}_v \Delta v)| = |\mathbf{t}_u \times \mathbf{t}_v| \Delta u \Delta v.$$

But

$$\mathbf{t}_u \times \mathbf{t}_v = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & 0 \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}.$$

The two-by-two determinant on the right is called the **Jacobian** of the transformation T , after the German mathematician Carl Jacobi (1804–1851), who first investigated general changes of variables in multiple integrals. The Jacobian of the transformation T is a function of u and v , and we denote it by $J_T = J_T(u, v)$. Thus

$$J_T(u, v) = \begin{vmatrix} f_u(u, v) & f_v(u, v) \\ g_u(u, v) & g_v(u, v) \end{vmatrix}. \quad (4)$$

A common and particularly suggestive notation for the Jacobian is

$$J_T = \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)}.$$

The computation preceding Eq. (4) shows that the area ΔA_i of R_i is given approximately by $\Delta A_i \approx |J_T(u_i^*, v_i^*)| \Delta u \Delta v$. Therefore, when we set up Riemann sums for approximating double integrals, we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R F(x, y) dx dy &\approx \sum_{i=1}^n F(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta A_i \\ &\approx \sum_{i=1}^m F(f(u_i^*, v_i^*), g(u_i^*, v_i^*)) |J_T(u_i^*, v_i^*)| \Delta u \Delta v \\ &\approx \iint_S F(f(u, v), g(u, v)) |J_T(u, v)| du dv. \end{aligned}$$

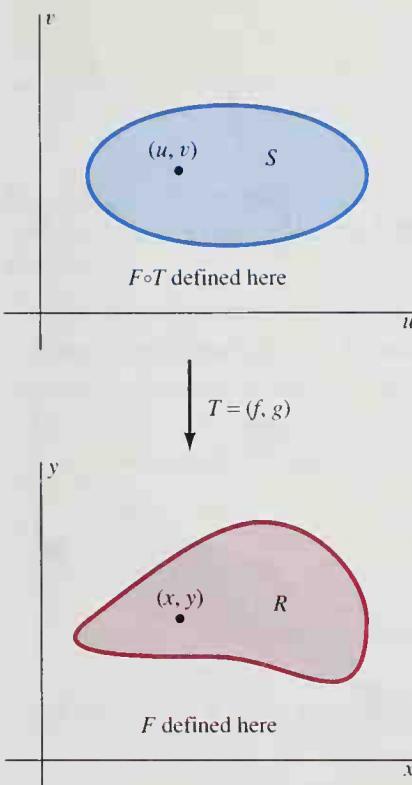
This discussion is, in fact, an outline of a proof of the following general **change-of-variables** theorem. We assume that T transforms the bounded region S in the uv -plane into the bounded region R in the xy -plane (Fig. 14.9.4) and that T is one-to-one from the interior of S to the interior of R . Suppose that the function $F(x, y)$ and the first-order partial derivatives of the component functions of T are continuous functions. Finally, to ensure the existence of the indicated double integrals, we assume that the boundaries of both regions R and S consist of a finite number of piecewise smooth curves.

Theorem 1 Change of Variables

If the transformation T with component functions $x = f(u, v)$ and $y = g(u, v)$ satisfies the conditions in the preceding paragraph, then

$$\iint_R F(x, y) dx dy = \iint_S F(f(u, v), g(u, v)) |J_T(u, v)| du dv. \quad (5)$$

Fig. 14.9.4 The domains of $F(x, y)$ and $F(T(u, v)) = F(f(x, y), g(x, y))$



If we write $G(u, v) = F(f(u, v), g(u, v))$, then the change-of-variables formula, Eq. (5), becomes

$$\iint_R F(x, y) dx dy = \iint_S G(u, v) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| du dv. \quad (5a)$$

Thus we formally transform $\iint_R F(x, y) dA$ by replacing the variables x and y with $f(u, v)$ and $g(u, v)$, respectively, and writing

$$dA = \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| du dv$$

for the area element in terms of u and v . Note the analogy between Eq. (5a) and the single-variable formula in Eq. (1). In fact, if $g'(x) \neq 0$ on $[c, d]$ and we denote by α the smaller, and by β the larger, of the two limits c and d in Eq. (1), then Eq. (1) takes the form

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(g(u)) |g'(u)| du. \quad (1a)$$

Thus the Jacobian in Eq. (5a) plays the role of the derivative $g'(u)$ in Eq. (1).

EXAMPLE 2 Suppose that the transformation T from the $r\theta$ -plane to the xy -plane is determined by the polar equations

$$x = f(r, \theta) = r \cos \theta, \quad y = g(r, \theta) = r \sin \theta.$$

The Jacobian of T is

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(r, \theta)} = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{vmatrix} = r > 0,$$

so Eq. (5) or (5a) reduces to the familiar formula

$$\iint_R F(x, y) dx dy = \iint_S F(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) r dr d\theta. \quad \blacksquare$$

Given a particular double integral $\iint_R f(x, y) dx dy$, how do we find a *productive* change of variables? One standard approach is to choose a transformation T such that the boundary of R consists of u -curves and v -curves. In case it is more convenient to express u and v in terms of x and y , we can first compute $\partial(u, v)/\partial(x, y)$ explicitly and then find the needed Jacobian $\partial(x, y)/\partial(u, v)$ from the formula

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \cdot \frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(x, y)} = 1. \quad (6)$$

Equation (6) is a consequence of the chain rule (see Problem 18).

EXAMPLE 3 Suppose that R is the plane region of unit density that is bounded by the hyperbolas

$$xy = 1, \quad xy = 3 \quad \text{and} \quad x^2 - y^2 = 1, \quad x^2 - y^2 = 4.$$

Find the polar moment of inertia

$$I_0 = \iint_R (x^2 + y^2) dx dy$$

of this region.

Solution The hyperbolas bounding R are u -curves and v -curves if $u = xy$ and $v = x^2 - y^2$, as in Example 1. We can most easily write the integrand $x^2 + y^2$ in terms of u and v by first noting that

$$4u^2 + v^2 = 4x^2y^2 + (x^2 - y^2)^2 = (x^2 + y^2)^2,$$

so $x^2 + y^2 = \sqrt{4u^2 + v^2}$. Now

$$\frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(x, y)} = \begin{vmatrix} y & x \\ 2x & -2y \end{vmatrix} = -2(x^2 + y^2).$$

Hence Eq. (6) gives

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = -\frac{1}{2(x^2 + y^2)} = -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{4u^2 + v^2}}.$$

We are now ready to apply the change-of-variables theorem, with the regions S and R as shown in Fig. 14.9.5. With $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$, Eq. (5a) gives

$$\begin{aligned} I_0 &= \iint_R (x^2 + y^2) dx dy = \int_1^4 \int_1^3 \sqrt{4u^2 + v^2} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{4u^2 + v^2}} du dv \\ &= \int_1^4 \int_1^3 \frac{1}{2} du dv = 3. \end{aligned}$$

Example 4 is motivated by an important application. Consider an engine with an operating cycle that consists of alternate expansion and compression of gas in a piston. During one cycle the point (p, V) , which gives the pressure and volume of this gas, traces a closed curve in the pV -plane. The work done by the engine—ignoring friction and related losses—is then equal (in appropriate units) to the area enclosed by this curve, called the *indicator diagram* of the engine. The indicator diagram for an ideal *Carnot engine* consists of two *isotherms* $xy = a$, $xy = b$ and two *adiabatics* $xy^\gamma = c$, $xy^\gamma = d$, where γ is the heat capacity ratio of the working gas in the piston. A typical value is $\gamma = 1.4$.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the area of the region R bounded by the curves $xy = 1$, $xy = 3$ and $xy^{1.4} = 1$, $xy^{1.4} = 2$ (Fig. 14.9.6).

Solution To force the given curves to be u -curves and v -curves, we define our change of variables transformation by $u = xy$ and $v = xy^{1.4}$. Then

$$\frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(x, y)} = \begin{vmatrix} y & x \\ y^{1.4} & (1.4)xy^{0.4} \end{vmatrix} = (0.4)xy^{1.4} = (0.4)v.$$

So

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = \frac{1}{\partial(u, v)/\partial(x, y)} = \frac{2.5}{v}.$$

Fig. 14.9.5 The transformation T and the new region S constructed in Example 3

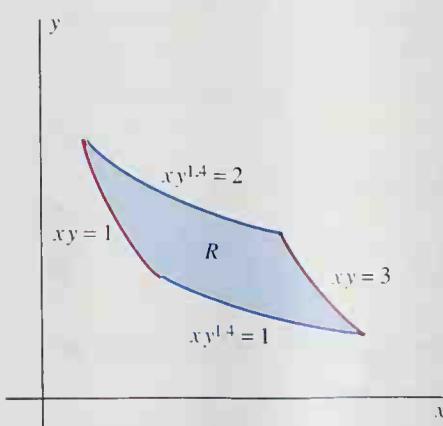


Fig. 14.9.6 Finding the area of the region R (Example 4)

Consequently, the change-of-variables theorem gives the formula

$$A = \iint_R 1 \, dx \, dy = \int_1^2 \int_1^3 \frac{2.5}{v} \, du \, dv = 5 \ln 2.$$

Change of Variables in Triple Integrals

The change-of-variables formula for triple integrals is similar to Eq. (5). Let S and R be regions that correspond under the one-to-one transformation T from uvw -space to xyz -space, where the coordinate functions that comprise T are

$$x = f(u, v, w), \quad y = g(u, v, w), \quad z = h(u, v, w). \quad (7)$$

The Jacobian of T is

$$J_T(u, v, w) = \frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(u, v, w)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial w} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial w} \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial w} \end{vmatrix}. \quad (8)$$

Then the change-of-variables formula for triple integrals is

$$\iiint_R F(x, y, z) \, dx \, dy \, dz = \iiint_S G(u, v, w) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(u, v, w)} \right| \, du \, dv \, dw, \quad (9)$$

where $G(u, v, w) = F(f(u, v, w), g(u, v, w), h(u, v, w))$ is the function obtained from $F(x, y, z)$ by expressing the variables x , y , and z in terms of u , v , and w .

EXAMPLE 5 If T is the spherical-coordinates transformation given by

$$x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \quad y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \quad z = \rho \cos \phi,$$

then the Jacobian of T is

$$\frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(\rho, \phi, \theta)} = \begin{vmatrix} \sin \phi \cos \theta & \rho \cos \phi \cos \theta & -\rho \sin \phi \sin \theta \\ \sin \phi \sin \theta & \rho \cos \phi \sin \theta & \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta \\ \cos \phi & -\rho \sin \phi & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \rho^2 \sin \phi.$$

Thus Eq. (9) reduces to the familiar formula

$$\iiint_R F(x, y, z) \, dx \, dy \, dz = \iiint_S G(\rho, \phi, \theta) \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta.$$

The sign is correct because $\rho^2 \sin \phi \geq 0$ for ϕ in $[0, \pi]$.

EXAMPLE 6 Find the volume of the solid torus R obtained by revolving around the z -axis the circular disk

$$(x - b)^2 + z^2 \leq a^2, \quad 0 < a < b \quad (10)$$

in the xz -plane.

Solution This is the torus of Example 5 of Section 14.8. Let us write u for the ordinary polar coordinate angle θ , v for the angle ψ of Fig. 14.8.12, and w for the distance from the center of the circular disk described by the inequality in (10). We then define the transformation T by means of the equations

$$x = (b + w \cos v) \cos u, \quad y = (b + w \cos v) \sin u, \quad z = w \sin v.$$

Then the solid torus R is the image under T of the region in uvw -space described by the inequalities

$$0 \leq u \leq 2\pi, \quad 0 \leq v \leq 2\pi, \quad 0 \leq w \leq a.$$

By a routine computation, we find that the Jacobian of T is

$$\frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(u, v, w)} = w(b + w \cos v).$$

Hence Eq. (9) with $F(x, y, z) \equiv 1$ yields volume

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \iiint_T dx dy dz = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a (bw + w^2 \cos v) dw du dv \\ &= 2\pi \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{2} a^2 b + \frac{1}{3} a^3 \cos v \right) dv = 2\pi^2 a^2 b, \end{aligned}$$

which agrees with the value $V = 2\pi b \cdot \pi a^2$ given by Pappus's first theorem (Section 14.5). ■

14.9 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 6, solve for x and y in terms of u and v . Then compute the Jacobian $\partial(x, y)/\partial(u, v)$.

1. $u = x + y, \quad v = x - y$
2. $u = x - 2y, \quad v = 3x + y$
3. $u = xy, \quad v = y/x$
4. $u = 2(x^2 + y^2), \quad v = 2(x^2 - y^2)$
5. $u = x + 2y^2, \quad v = x - 2y^2$
6. $u = \frac{2x}{x^2 + y^2}, \quad v = -\frac{2y}{x^2 + y^2}$

7. Let R be the parallelogram bounded by the lines $x + y = 1, x + y = 2$ and $2x - 3y = 2, 2x - 3y = 5$. Substitute $u = x + y, v = 2x - 3y$ to find its area

$$A = \iint_R dx dy.$$

8. Substitute $u = xy, v = y/x$ to find the area of the first-quadrant region bounded by the lines $y = x, y = 2x$ and the hyperbolas $xy = 1, xy = 2$ (Fig. 14.9.7).
9. Substitute $u = xy, v = xy^3$ to find the area of the first-quadrant region bounded by the curves $xy = 2, xy = 4$ and $xy^3 = 3, xy^3 = 6$ (Fig. 14.9.8).
10. Find the area of the first-quadrant region bounded by the curves $y = x^2, y = 2x^2$ and $x = y^2, x = 4y^2$ (Fig. 14.9.9). (Suggestion: Let $y = ux^2$ and $x = vy^2$.)

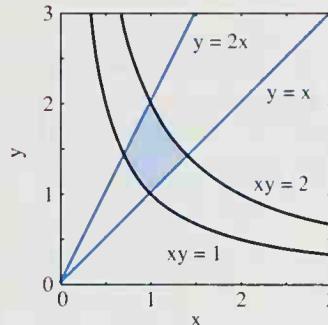


Fig. 14.9.7 The region of Problem 8

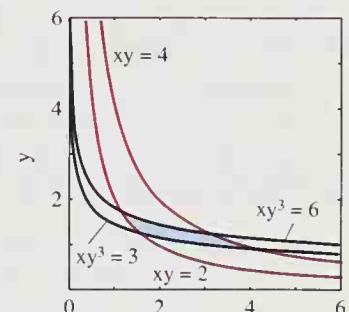


Fig. 14.9.8 The region of Problem 9

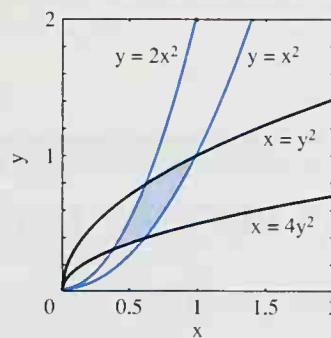


Fig. 14.9.9 The region of Problem 10

11. Use the method of Problem 10 to find the area of the first-quadrant region bounded by the curves $y = x^3$, $y = 2x^3$ and $x = y^3$, $x = 4y^3$.
12. Let R be the first-quadrant region bounded by the circles $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$, $x^2 + y^2 = 6x$ and the circles $x^2 + y^2 = 2y$, $x^2 + y^2 = 8y$. Use the transformation

$$u = \frac{2x}{x^2 + y^2}, \quad v = \frac{2y}{x^2 + y^2}$$

to evaluate the integral

$$\iint_R \frac{1}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} dx dy.$$

13. Use elliptical coordinates $x = 3r \cos \theta$, $y = 2r \sin \theta$ to find the volume of the region bounded by the xy -plane, the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$, and the elliptic cylinder

$$\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1.$$

14. Let R be the solid ellipsoid with outer boundary surface

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1.$$

Use the transformation $x = au$, $y = bv$, $z = cw$ to show that the volume of this ellipsoid is

$$V = \iiint_R 1 dx dy dz = \frac{4}{3} \pi abc.$$

15. Find the volume of the region in the first octant that is bounded by the hyperbolic cylinders $xy = 1$, $xy = 4$; $xz = 1$, $xz = 9$; and $yz = 4$, $yz = 9$. (Suggestion: Let $u = xy$, $v = xz$, $w = yz$, and note that $uvw = x^2y^2z^2$.)

16. Use the transformation

$$x = \frac{r}{t} \cos \theta, \quad y = \frac{r}{t} \sin \theta, \quad z = r^2$$

to find the volume of the region R that lies between the paraboloids $z = x^2 + y^2$, $z = 4(x^2 + y^2)$ and the planes $z = 1$, $z = 4$.

17. Let R be the rotated elliptical region bounded by the graph of $x^2 + xy + y^2 = 3 = 3u^2 + v^2$, where $x = u + v$ and $y = u - v$. Show that

$$\iint_R \exp(-x^2 - xy - y^2) dx dy = 2 \iint_S \exp(-3u^2 - v^2) du dv.$$

Then substitute $u = r \cos \theta$, $v = \sqrt{3}(r \sin \theta)$ to evaluate the latter integral.

18. From the chain rule and from the following property of determinants, derive the relation in Eq. (6) between the Jacobians of a transformation and its inverse.

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ c_1 & d_1 \end{vmatrix} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ c_2 & d_2 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 a_2 + b_1 c_2 & a_1 b_2 + b_1 d_2 \\ a_2 c_1 + c_2 d_1 & b_2 c_1 + d_1 d_2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

19. Change to spherical coordinates to show that, for $k > 0$,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \exp(-k(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)) dx dy dz = \frac{2\pi}{k^2}.$$

20. Let R be the solid ellipsoid with constant density δ and boundary surface

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1.$$

Use ellipsoidal coordinates $x = a\rho \sin \phi \cos \theta$, $y = b\rho \sin \phi \sin \theta$, $z = c\rho \cos \phi$ to show that the mass of R is $M = \frac{4}{3}\pi \delta abc$.

21. Show that the moment of inertia of the ellipsoid of Problem 20 around the z -axis is $I_z = \frac{1}{5}M(a^2 + b^2)$.

In Problems 22 through 26, use a computer algebra system (if necessary) to find the indicated centroids and moments of inertia.

22. The centroid of the plane region of Problem 8 (Fig. 14.9.7)

23. The centroid of the plane region of Problem 9 (Fig. 14.9.8)

24. The centroid of the plane region of Problem 10 (Fig. 14.9.9)

25. The moment of inertia around each coordinate axis of the solid ellipsoid of Problem 20

26. The centroid of the solid of Problem 16 and its moments of inertia around the coordinate axes

27. Write the triple integral that gives the average distance of points of the solid ellipsoid of Problem 20 from the origin. Then approximate that integral in the case $a = 4$, $b = 3$, and $c = 2$.

CHAPTER 14 REVIEW: Definitions, Concepts, Results

Use the following list as a guide to concepts that you may need to review.

1. Definition of the double integral as a limit of Riemann sums
2. Evaluation of double integrals by iterated single integration

3. Use of the double integral to find the volume between two surfaces above a given plane region
4. Transformation of the double integral $\iint_R f(x, y) dA$ into polar coordinates

5. Application of double integrals to find mass, centroids, and moments of inertia of plane laminae
6. The two theorems of Pappus
7. Definition of the triple integral as a limit of Riemann sums
8. Evaluation of triple integrals by iterated single integration
9. Applications of triple integrals to find volume, mass, centroids, and moments of inertia
10. Transformation of the triple integral $\iiint_T f(x, y, z) dV$ into cylindrical and spherical coordinates
11. The surface area of a parametric surface
12. The area of a surface $z = f(x, y)$ for (x, y) in the plane region R
13. The Jacobian of a transformation of coordinates
14. The transformation of a double or triple integral corresponding to a given change of variables

CHAPTER 14 MISCELLANEOUS PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 5, evaluate the given integral by first reversing the order of integration.

1. $\int_0^1 \int_{y^{1/3}}^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} dx dy$

2. $\int_0^1 \int_y^1 \frac{\sin x}{x} dx dy$

3. $\int_0^1 \int_x^1 \exp(-y^2) dy dx$

4. $\int_0^8 \int_{x^{2/3}}^4 x \cos y^4 dy dx$

5. $\int_0^4 \int_{\sqrt{y}}^2 \frac{y \exp(x^2)}{x^3} dx dy$

6. The double integral

$$\int_0^\infty \int_x^\infty \frac{e^{-y}}{y} dy dx$$

is an improper integral over the unbounded region in the first quadrant between the lines $y = x$ and $x = 0$. Assuming that it is valid to reverse the order of integration, evaluate this integral by integrating first with respect to x .

7. Find the volume of the solid T that lies below the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and above the triangle R in the xy -plane that has vertices at $(0, 0, 0)$, $(1, 1, 0)$, and $(2, 0, 0)$.
8. Find by integration in cylindrical coordinates the volume bounded by the paraboloids $z = 2x^2 + 2y^2$ and $z = 48 - x^2 - y^2$.
9. Use integration in spherical coordinates to find the volume and centroid of the solid region that is inside the sphere $\rho = 3$, below the cone $\phi = \pi/3$, and above the xy -plane $\phi = \pi/2$.
10. Find the volume of the solid bounded by the elliptic paraboloids $z = x^2 + 3y^2$ and $z = 8 - x^2 - 5y^2$.
11. Find the volume bounded by the paraboloid $y = x^2 + 3z^2$ and the parabolic cylinder $y = 4 - z^2$.
12. Find the volume of the region bounded by the parabolic cylinders $z = x^2$, $z = 2 - x^2$ and the planes $y = 0$, $y + z = 4$.
13. Find the volume of the region bounded by the elliptical cylinder $y^2 + 4z^2 = 4$ and the planes $x = 0$, $x = y + 2$.
14. Show that the volume of the solid bounded by the elliptical cylinder

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

and the planes $z = 0$, $z = h + x$ (where $h > a > 0$) is $V = \pi abh$.

15. Let R be the first-quadrant region bounded by the curve $x^4 + x^2y^2 = y^2$ and the line $y = x$. Use polar coordinates to evaluate

$$\iint_R \frac{1}{(1+x^2+y^2)^2} dA.$$

In Problems 16 through 20, find the mass and centroid of a plane lamina with the given shape and density δ .

16. The region bounded by $y = x^2$ and $x = y^2$; $\delta(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$
17. The region bounded by $x = 2y^2$ and $y^2 = x - 4$; $\delta(x, y) = y^2$
18. The region between $y = \ln x$ and the x -axis over the interval $1 \leq x \leq 2$; $\delta(x, y) = 1/x$
19. The circle bounded by $r = 2 \cos \theta$; $\delta(r, \theta) = k$ (a constant)
20. The region of Problem 19; $\delta(r, \theta) = r$
21. Use the first theorem of Pappus to find the y -coordinate of the centroid of the upper half of the ellipse

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1.$$

Employ the facts that the area of this semiellipse is $A = \pi ab/2$ and the volume of the ellipsoid it generates when rotated around the x -axis is $V = \frac{4}{3}\pi ab^2$.

22. (a) Use the first theorem of Pappus to find the centroid of the first-quadrant portion of the annular ring with boundary circles $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ and $x^2 + y^2 = b^2$ (where $0 < a < b$). (b) Show that the limiting position of this centroid as $b \rightarrow a$ is the centroid of a quarter-circular arc, as we found in Problem 44 of Section 14.5.
23. Find the centroid of the region in the xy -plane bounded by the x -axis and the parabola $y = 4 - x^2$.

24. Find the volume of the solid that lies below the parabolic cylinder $z = x^2$ and above the triangle in the xy -plane bounded by the coordinate axes and the line $x + y = 1$.
25. Use cylindrical coordinates to find the volume of the ice-cream cone bounded above by the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 5$ and below by the cone $z = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$.
26. Find the volume and centroid of the ice-cream cone bounded above by the sphere $\rho = a$ and below by the cone $\phi = \pi/3$.
27. A homogeneous solid circular cone has mass M and base radius a . Find its moment of inertia around its axis of symmetry.
28. Find the mass of the first octant of the ball $\rho \leq a$ if its density at (x, y, z) is $\delta(x, y, z) = xyz$.
29. Find the moment of inertia around the x -axis of the homogeneous solid ellipsoid with unit density and boundary surface

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1.$$

30. Find the volume of the region in the first octant that is bounded by the sphere $\rho = a$, the cylinder $r = a$, the plane $z = a$, the xz -plane, and the yz -plane.
31. Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the homogeneous region of unit density that lies inside both the sphere $\rho = 2$ and the cylinder $r = 2 \cos \theta$.

In Problems 32 through 34, a volume is generated by revolving a plane region R around an axis. To find the volume, set up a double integral over R by revolving an area element dA around the indicated axis to generate a volume element dV .

32. Find the volume of the solid obtained by revolving around the y -axis the region inside the circle $r = 2a \cos \theta$.
33. Find the volume of the solid obtained by revolving around the x -axis the region enclosed by the cardioid $r = 1 + \cos \theta$.
34. Find the volume of the solid torus obtained by revolving the disk $0 \leq r \leq a$ around the line $x = -b$, $|b| \geq a$.
35. Assume that the torus of Problem 34 has uniform density δ . Find its moment of inertia around its natural axis of symmetry.

Problems 36 through 42 deal with *average distance*. The **average distance** \bar{d} of the point (x_0, y_0) from the points of the plane region R with area A is defined to be

$$\bar{d} = \frac{1}{A} \iint_R \sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2} dA.$$

The average distance of a point (x_0, y_0, z_0) from the points of a space region is defined analogously.

36. Show that the average distance of the points of a disk of radius a from its center is $2a/3$.
37. Show that the average distance of the points of a disk of radius a from a fixed point on its boundary is $32a/9\pi$.

38. A circle of radius 1 is interior to and tangent to a circle of radius 2. Find the average distance of the point of tangency from the points that lie between the two circles.
39. Show that the average distance of the points of a spherical ball of radius a from its center is $3a/4$.
40. Show that the average distance of the points of a spherical ball of radius a from a fixed point on its surface is $6a/5$.
41. A sphere of radius 1 is interior to and tangent to a sphere of radius 2. Find the average distance of the point of tangency from the set of all points between the two spheres.
42. A right circular cone has radius R and height H . Find the average distance of points of the cone from its vertex.
43. Find the surface area of the part of the paraboloid $z = 10 - r^2$ that lies between the two planes $z = 1$ and $z = 6$.
44. Find the surface area of the part of the surface $z = y^2 - x^2$ that is inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$.
45. Let A be the surface area of the zone on the sphere $\rho = a$ between the planes $z = z_1$ and $z = z_2$ (where $-a \leq z_1 < z_2 \leq a$). Use the formula of Problem 18 in Section 14.8 to show that $A = 2\pi ah$, where $h = z_2 - z_1$.
46. Find the surface area of the part of the sphere $\rho = 2$ that is inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$.
47. A square hole with side length 2 is cut through a cone of height 2 and base radius 2; the centerline of the hole is the axis of symmetry of the cone. Find the area of the surface removed from the cone.
48. Numerically approximate the surface area of the part of the parabolic cylinder $2z = x^2$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.
49. A “fence” of variable height $h(t)$ stands above the plane curve $(x(t), y(t))$. Thus the fence has the parametrization $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$, $z = z$ for $a \leq t \leq b$, $0 \leq z \leq h(t)$. Apply Eq. (8) of Section 14.8 to show that the area of the fence is

$$A = \int_a^b \int_0^{h(t)} \left[\left(\frac{dx}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} dz dt.$$

50. Apply the formula of Problem 49 to compute the area of the part of the cylinder $r = a \sin \theta$ that lies inside the sphere $r^2 + z^2 = a^2$.
51. Find the polar moment of inertia of the first-quadrant region of constant density δ that is bounded by the hyperbolas $xy = 1$, $xy = 3$ and $x^2 - y^2 = 1$, $x^2 - y^2 = 4$.
52. Substitute $u = x - y$ and $v = x + y$ to evaluate
- $$\iint_R \exp \left(\frac{x - y}{x + y} \right) dx dy,$$
- where R is bounded by the coordinate axes and the line $x + y = 1$.
53. Use ellipsoidal coordinates $x = a\rho \sin \phi \cos \theta$, $y = b\rho \sin \phi \sin \theta$, $z = c\rho \cos \phi$ to find the mass of the solid ellipsoid

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} \leq 1$$

if its density at the point (x, y, z) is given by

$$\delta(x, y, z) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{z^2}{c^2}.$$

- 54.** Let R be the first-quadrant region bounded by the lemniscates $r^2 = \cos 2\theta$, $r^2 = 4 \cos 2\theta$ and $r^2 = \sin 2\theta$, $r^2 = 4 \sin 2\theta$ (Fig. 14.MP.1). Show that its area is $A = \frac{1}{4}(2\sqrt{17} - 5\sqrt{2})$. [Suggestion: Define the transformation T from the uv -plane to the $r\theta$ -plane by $r^2 = u^{1/2} \cos 2\theta$, $r^2 = v^{1/2} \sin 2\theta$. Show first that

$$r^4 = \frac{uv}{u+v}, \quad \theta = \frac{1}{2} \arctan \frac{u^{1/2}}{v^{1/2}}.$$

Then show that

$$\frac{\partial(r, \theta)}{\partial(u, v)} = -\frac{1}{16r(u+v)^{3/2}}. \quad \boxed{}$$

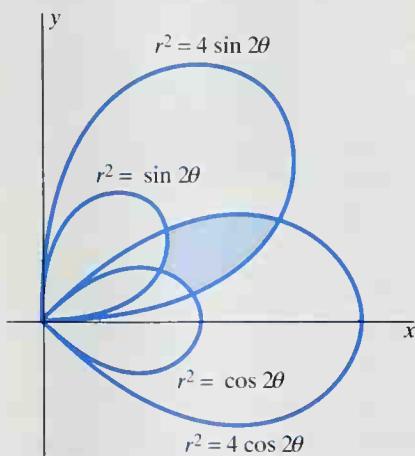


Fig. 14.MP.1 The region R of Problem 54

- 55.** A 2-by-2 square hole is cut symmetrically through a sphere of radius $\sqrt{3}$ (see Fig. 14.MP.2). (a) Show that the total surface area of the two pieces cut from the sphere is

$$A = \int_0^1 8\sqrt{3} \arcsin \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3-x^2}} \right) dx.$$

Then use Simpson's rule to approximate this integral. (b) (Difficult!) Show that the exact value of the integral in part (a) is $A = 4\pi(\sqrt{3} - 1)$. (Suggestion: First integrate by parts, then substitute $x = \sqrt{2} \sin \theta$.)

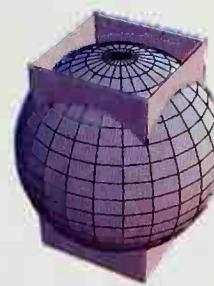


Fig. 14.MP.2

Cutting a square hole through the sphere of Problem 55

- 56.** Show that the volume enclosed by the surface

$$x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} + z^{2/3} = a^{2/3}$$

is $V = \frac{4}{35}\pi a^3$. (Suggestion: Substitute $y = b \sin^3 \theta$.)

- 57.** Show that the volume enclosed by the surface

$$x^{1/3} + y^{1/3} + z^{1/3} = a^{1/3}$$

is $V = \frac{1}{210}a^3$. (Suggestion: Substitute $y = b \sin^6 \theta$.)

- 58.** Find the average of the *square* of the distance of points of the solid ellipsoid $(x/a)^2 + (y/b)^2 + (z/c)^2 \leq 1$ from the origin.

- 59.** A cube C of edge length 1 is rotated around a line passing through two opposite vertices, thereby sweeping out a solid S of revolution. Find the volume of S . (Answer: $\pi/\sqrt{3} \approx 1.8138$.)

VECTOR CALCULUS



C. F. Gauss (1777–1855)

It is customary to list Archimedes, Newton, and Carl Friedrich Gauss as history's three preeminent mathematicians. Gauss was a precocious infant in a poor and uneducated family. He learned to calculate before he could talk and taught himself to read before beginning school in his native Brunswick, Germany. At age 14 he was already familiar with elementary geometry, algebra, and analysis. By age 18, when he entered the University of Göttingen, he had discovered empirically the “prime number theorem,” which implies that the number of primes p between 1 and n is about $n/(\ln n)$. This theorem was not proved rigorously until a century later.

During his first year at university, Gauss investigated ruler-and-compass constructions of regular polygons and demonstrated the constructability of the regular 17-gon (the first advance in this area since the similar construction of the regular pentagon in Euclid's *Elements* 2000 years earlier). In 1801 Gauss published his great treatise *Disquisitiones arithmeticæ*, which set the pattern for nineteenth-century research in number theory. This book established Gauss as a mathematician of uncommon stature, but another event thrust him into the public eye. On January 1, 1801, the new asteroid Ceres was observed, but it disappeared behind the sun a month later. In the following weeks, astronomers searched the skies in vain for Ceres' reappearance. It was Gauss who developed the method of least-squares approximations to predict the asteroid's future orbit on the basis of a handful of observations. When Gauss's three-month long computation was finished, Ceres was soon spotted in the precise location he had predicted.

In 1807 Gauss became director of the astronomical observatory in Göttingen, where he remained until his death. His published work thereafter dealt mainly with physical science, although his unpublished papers show that he

continued to work on theoretical mathematics ranging from infinite series and special functions to non-Euclidean geometry. His work on the shape of the earth's surface established the new subject of differential geometry, and his studies of the earth's magnetic and gravitational fields involved results such as the divergence theorem of Section 15.6.

The concept of curved space-time in Albert Einstein's general relativity theory traces back to the discovery of non-Euclidean geometry and Gauss's early investigations of differential geometry. A current application of relativity theory is the study of black holes. Space is itself thought to be severely warped in the vicinity of a black hole, with its immense gravitational attraction, and the mathematics required begins with the vector calculus of Chapter 15.



Artist's conception of a black hole (lower left)

15.1 VECTOR FIELDS

This chapter is devoted to topics in the calculus of vector fields of importance in science and engineering. A **vector field** defined on a region T in space is a vector-valued function \mathbf{F} that associates with each point (x, y, z) of T a vector

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \mathbf{i}P(x, y, z) + \mathbf{j}Q(x, y, z) + \mathbf{k}R(x, y, z). \quad (1)$$

We may more briefly describe the vector field \mathbf{F} in terms of its *component functions* P, Q , and R by writing

$$\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k} \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{F} = \langle P, Q, R \rangle.$$

Note that the components P, Q , and R of a vector function are *scalar* (real-valued) functions.

A **vector field** in the plane is similar except that neither z -components nor z -coordinates are involved. Thus a vector field on the plane region R is a vector-valued function \mathbf{F} that associates with each point (x, y) of R a vector

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \mathbf{i}P(x, y) + \mathbf{j}Q(x, y) \quad (2)$$

or, briefly, $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j}$ or $\mathbf{F} = \langle P, Q \rangle$.

It is useful to be able to visualize a given vector field \mathbf{F} . One common way is to sketch a collection of typical vectors $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$, each represented by an arrow of length $|\mathbf{F}(x, y)|$ and located with (x, y) as its initial point. This procedure is illustrated in Example 1.

EXAMPLE 1 Describe the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$.

Solution For each point (x, y) in the coordinate plane, $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$ is simply its position vector. It points directly away from the origin and has length

$$|\mathbf{F}(x, y)| = |x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = r,$$

equal to the distance from the origin to (x, y) . Figure 15.1.1 shows some typical vectors representing this vector field. ■

Among the most important vector fields in applications are velocity vector fields. Imagine the steady flow of a fluid, such as the water in a river or the solar wind. By a *steady flow* we mean that the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(x, y, z)$ of the fluid flowing through each point (x, y, z) is independent of time (although not necessarily independent of x, y , and z), so the pattern of the flow remains constant. Then $\mathbf{v}(x, y, z)$ is the **velocity vector field** of the fluid flow.

EXAMPLE 2 Suppose that the horizontal xy -plane is covered with a thin sheet of water that is revolving (rather like a whirlpool) around the origin with constant angular speed ω radians per second in the counterclockwise direction. Describe the associated velocity vector field.

Solution In this case we have a two-dimensional vector field $\mathbf{v}(x, y)$. At each point (x, y) the water is moving with speed $v = r\omega$ and tangential to the circle of radius $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. The vector field

$$\mathbf{v}(x, y) = \omega(-y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}) \quad (3)$$

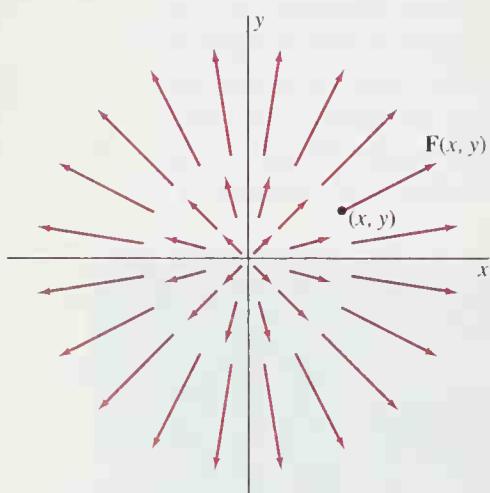


Fig. 15.1.1 The vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$

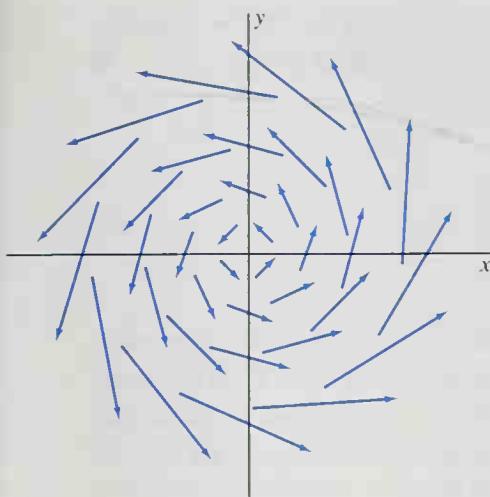


Fig. 15.1.2 The velocity vector field $\mathbf{v}(x, y) = \omega(-y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j})$, drawn for $\omega = 1$ (Example 2)

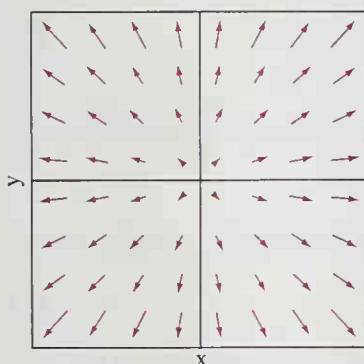


Fig. 15.1.3 The vector field $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$

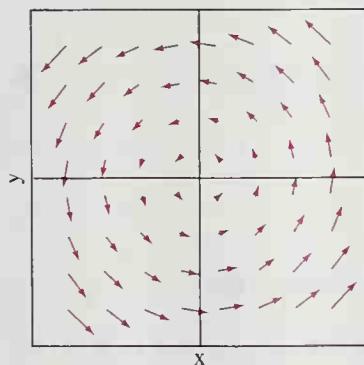


Fig. 15.1.4 The vector field $\mathbf{F} = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$

has length $r\omega$ and points in a generally counterclockwise direction, and

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{r} = \omega(-y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}) \cdot (x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}) = 0,$$

so \mathbf{v} is tangent to the circle just mentioned. The velocity field determined by Eq. (3) is illustrated in Fig. 15.1.2. ■

REMARK Most computer algebra systems have the facility to plot vector fields. For instance, either the *Maple* command `fieldplot([x,y], x=-2..2, y=-2..2)` or the *Mathematica* command `PlotVectorField[{x,y}, {x,-2,2}, {y,-2,2}]` generates a computer plot like Fig. 15.1.3 of the vector field $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$ of Example 1. The computer program has scaled the vectors to a fixed maximum length so that the length of each vector as plotted is proportional to its actual length. Figure 15.1.4 shows a similar computer plot of the vector field $\mathbf{F} = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$ of Example 2 (with $\omega = 1$).

Equally important in physical applications are *force fields*. Suppose that some circumstance (perhaps gravitational or electrical in character) causes a force $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ to act on a particle when it is placed at the point (x, y, z) . Then we have a force field \mathbf{F} . Example 3 deals with what is perhaps the most common force field perceived by human beings.

EXAMPLE 3 Suppose that a mass M is fixed at the origin in space. When a particle of unit mass is placed at the point (x, y, z) other than the origin, it is subjected to a force $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ of gravitational attraction directed toward the mass M at the origin. By Newton's inverse-square law of gravitation, the magnitude of \mathbf{F} is $F = GM/r^2$, where $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ is the length of the position vector $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$. It follows immediately that

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -\frac{k\mathbf{r}}{r^3}, \quad (4)$$

where $k = GM$, because this vector has both the correct magnitude and the correct direction (toward the origin, for \mathbf{F} is a multiple of $-\mathbf{r}$). A force field of the form in Eq. (4) is called an *inverse-square* force field. Note that $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ is not defined at the origin and that $|\mathbf{F}| \rightarrow +\infty$ as $r \rightarrow 0^+$. Figure 15.1.5 illustrates an inverse-square force field. ■

The Gradient Vector Field

In Section 13.8 we introduced the gradient vector of the real-valued function $f(x, y, z)$. It is the vector ∇f defined as follows:

$$\nabla f = \mathbf{i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \mathbf{j} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} + \mathbf{k} \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}. \quad (5)$$

The partial derivatives on the right-hand side of Eq. (5) are evaluated at the point (x, y, z) . Thus $\nabla f(x, y, z)$ is a vector field: It is the **gradient vector field** of the function f . According to Theorem 1 of Section 13.8, the vector $\nabla f(x, y, z)$ points in the direction in which the maximal directional derivative of f at (x, y, z) is obtained. For example, if $f(x, y, z)$ is the temperature at the point (x, y, z) in space, then you should move in the direction $\nabla f(x, y, z)$ in order to warm up the most quickly.

In the case of a two-variable scalar function $f(x, y)$, we suppress the third component in Eq. (5), so $\nabla f = \langle f_x, f_y \rangle = f_x \mathbf{i} + f_y \mathbf{j}$ defines a plane vector field.

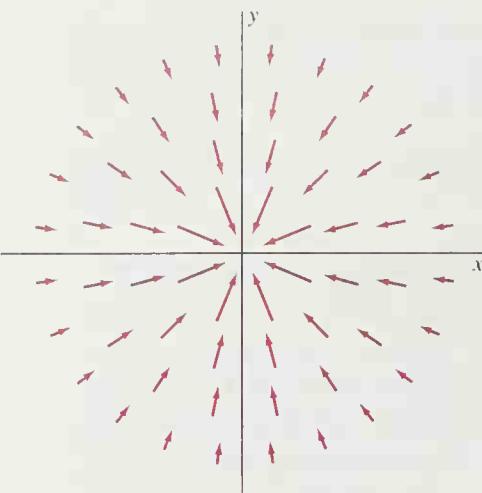


Fig. 15.1.5 An inverse-square force field (Example 3)

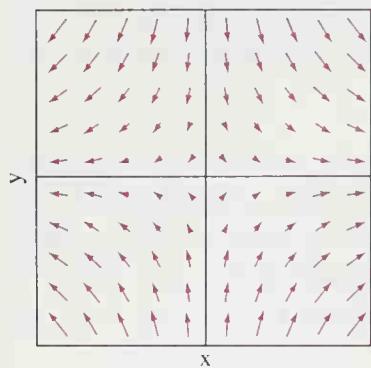


Fig. 15.1.6 The gradient vector field $\nabla f = 2x\mathbf{i} - 2y\mathbf{j}$ of Example 4

EXAMPLE 4 With $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$, the gradient vector field $\nabla f = 2x\mathbf{i} - 2y\mathbf{j}$ plotted in Fig. 15.1.6 should remind you of a contour plot near a saddle point. ■

The notation in Eq. (5) suggests the formal expression

$$\nabla = \mathbf{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \mathbf{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \mathbf{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}. \quad (6)$$

It is fruitful to think of ∇ as a *vector differential operator*. That is, ∇ is the operation that, when applied to the scalar function f , yields its gradient vector field ∇f . This operation behaves in several familiar and important ways like the operation D_x of single-variable differentiation. For a familiar example of this phenomenon, recall that in Chapter 13 we found the critical points of a function f of several variables to be those points at which $\nabla f(x, y, z) = \mathbf{0}$ and those at which $\nabla f(x, y, z)$ does not exist. As a computationally useful instance, suppose that f and g are functions and that a and b are constants. It then follows readily from Eq. (5) and from the linearity of partial differentiation that

$$\nabla(af + bg) = a\nabla f + b\nabla g. \quad (7)$$

Thus the gradient operator is *linear*. It also satisfies the product rule, as demonstrated in Example 5.

EXAMPLE 5 Given the differentiable functions $f(x, y, z)$ and $g(x, y, z)$, show that

$$\nabla(fg) = f \nabla g + g \nabla f. \quad (8)$$

Solution We apply the definition in Eq. (5) and the product rule for partial differentiation. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla(fg) &= \mathbf{i} \frac{\partial(fg)}{\partial x} + \mathbf{j} \frac{\partial(fg)}{\partial y} + \mathbf{k} \frac{\partial(fg)}{\partial z} \\ &= \mathbf{i}(fg_x + gf_x) + \mathbf{j}(fg_y + gf_y) + \mathbf{k}(fg_z + gf_z) \\ &= f \cdot (\mathbf{i}g_x + \mathbf{j}g_y + \mathbf{k}g_z) + g \cdot (\mathbf{i}f_x + \mathbf{j}f_y + \mathbf{k}f_z) = f \nabla g + g \nabla f. \end{aligned}$$

The Divergence of a Vector Field

Suppose that we are given the vector-valued function

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \mathbf{i}P(x, y, z) + \mathbf{j}Q(x, y, z) + \mathbf{k}R(x, y, z)$$

with differentiable component functions P , Q , and R . Then the **divergence** of \mathbf{F} is the scalar function $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}$ defined as follows:

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}. \quad (9)$$

Here div is an abbreviation for “divergence,” and the alternative notation $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ is consistent with the formal expression for ∇ in Eq. (6). That is,

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \left\langle \frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right\rangle \cdot \langle P, Q, R \rangle = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}.$$

We will see in Section 15.6 that if \mathbf{v} is the velocity vector field of a steady fluid flow, then the value of $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{v}$ at the point (x, y, z) is essentially the net rate per unit volume at which fluid mass is flowing away (or “diverging”) from the point (x, y, z) .

EXAMPLE 6 If the vector field \mathbf{F} is given by

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (xe^y)\mathbf{i} + (z \sin y)\mathbf{j} + (xy \ln z)\mathbf{k},$$

then $P(x, y, z) = xe^y$, $Q(x, y, z) = z \sin y$, and $R(x, y, z) = xy \ln z$. Hence Eq. (9) yields

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(xe^y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(z \sin y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(xy \ln z) = e^y + z \cos y + \frac{xy}{z}.$$

For instance, the value of $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}$ at the point $(-3, 0, 2)$ is

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}(-3, 0, 2) = e^0 + 2 \cos 0 + 0 = 3. \quad \blacksquare$$

The analogues of Eqs. (7) and (8) for divergence are the formulas

$$\nabla \cdot (a\mathbf{F} + b\mathbf{G}) = a \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} + b \nabla \cdot \mathbf{G}, \quad (10)$$

$$\nabla \cdot (f\mathbf{G}) = (f)(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{G}) + (\nabla f) \cdot \mathbf{G}. \quad (11)$$

We ask you to verify these formulas in the problems. Note that Eq. (11)—in which f is a scalar function and \mathbf{G} is a vector field—is consistent in that f and $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{G}$ are scalar functions, whereas ∇f and \mathbf{G} are vector fields, so the sum on the right-hand side makes sense (and is a scalar function).

The Curl of a Vector Field

The **curl** of the vector field $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$ is the following vector field, abbreviated as $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$:

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ P & Q & R \end{vmatrix}. \quad (12)$$

When we evaluate the formal determinant in Eq. (12), we obtain

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{i} \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \right) + \mathbf{j} \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} \right) + \mathbf{k} \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right). \quad (13)$$

Although you could try to memorize this formula, we recommend—because you will generally find it simpler—that in practice you set up and evaluate directly the formal determinant in Eq. (12). Example 7 shows how easy this is.

EXAMPLE 7 For the vector field \mathbf{F} of Example 6, Eq. (12) yields

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ xe^y & z \sin y & xy \ln z \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \mathbf{i}(x \ln z - \sin y) + \mathbf{j}(-y \ln z) + \mathbf{k}(-xe^y).$$

In particular, the value of $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$ at the point $(3, \pi/2, e)$ is

$$\{\nabla \times \mathbf{F}\}(3, \pi/2, e) = 2\mathbf{i} - \frac{1}{2}\pi\mathbf{j} - 3e^{\pi/2}\mathbf{k}. \quad \blacksquare$$

We will see in Section 15.7 that if \mathbf{v} is the velocity vector of a fluid flow, then the value of the vector $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{v}$ at the point (x, y, z) (where that vector is nonzero) determines the axis through (x, y, z) about which the fluid is rotating (or whirling or “curling”) as well as the angular velocity of the rotation.

The analogues of Eqs. (10) and (11) for curl are the formulas

$$\nabla \times (a\mathbf{F} + b\mathbf{G}) = a(\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) + b(\nabla \times \mathbf{G}), \quad (14)$$

$$\nabla \times (f\mathbf{G}) = (f)(\nabla \times \mathbf{G}) + (\nabla f) \times \mathbf{G} \quad (15)$$

that we ask you to verify in the problems.

EXAMPLE 8 If the function $f(x, y, z)$ has continuous second-order partial derivatives, show that $\operatorname{curl}(\operatorname{grad} f) = \mathbf{0}$.

Solution Direct computation yields

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \times \nabla f &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \mathbf{i} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z \partial y} \right) + \mathbf{j} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z \partial x} - \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial z} \right) + \mathbf{k} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\nabla \times \nabla f = \mathbf{0}$ because of the equality of continuous mixed second-order partial derivatives. ■

15.1 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 10, illustrate the given vector field \mathbf{F} by sketching several typical vectors in the field.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$ | 2. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = 3\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j}$ |
| 3. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x\mathbf{i} - y\mathbf{j}$ | 4. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = 2\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$ |
| 5. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x^2 + y^2)^{1/2}(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{y}\mathbf{j})$ | |
| 6. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x^2 + y^2)^{-1/2}(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{y}\mathbf{j})$ | |
| 7. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ | 8. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$ |
| 9. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -x\mathbf{i} - y\mathbf{j}$ | 10. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ |

Match the gradient vector fields of the functions in Problems 11 through 14 with the computer-generated plots in Figs. 15.1.7 through 15.1.10.

- | | |
|---|----------------------------|
| 11. $f(x, y) = xy$ | 12. $f(x, y) = 2x^2 + y^2$ |
| 13. $f(x, y) = \sin \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2)$ | |
| 14. $f(x, y) = \sin \frac{1}{2}(y^2 - x^2)$ | |

In Problems 15 through 24, calculate the divergence and curl of the given vector field \mathbf{F} .

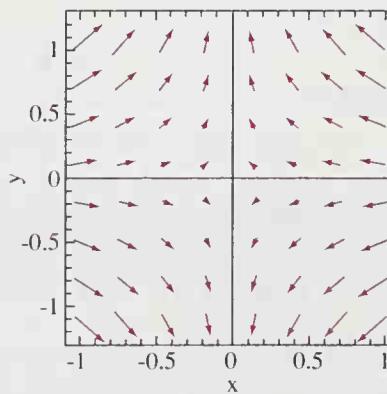


Fig. 15.1.7

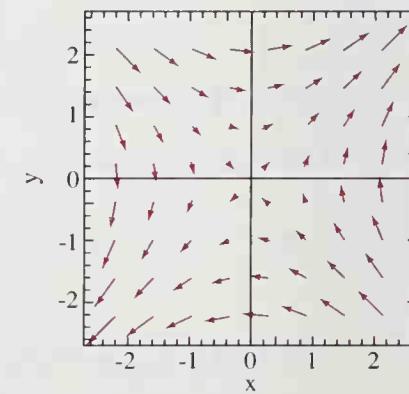


Fig. 15.1.8

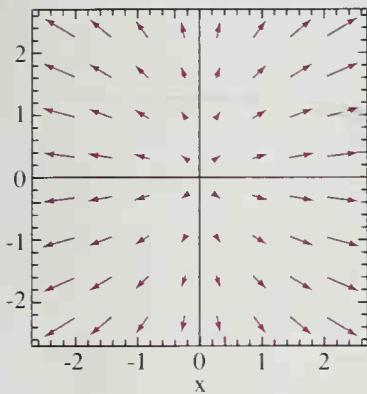


Fig. 15.1.9

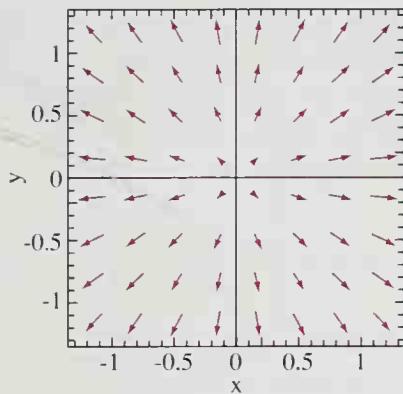


Fig. 15.1.10

15. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xi + yj + zk$
16. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = 3xi - 2yj - 4zk$
17. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = yzi + xzj + xyk$
18. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2i + y^2j + z^2k$
19. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xy^2i + yz^2j + zx^2k$
20. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (2x - y)i + (3y - 2z)j + (7z - 3x)k$
21. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (y^2 + z^2)i + (x^2 + z^2)j + (x^2 + y^2)k$
22. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (e^{xz} \sin y)j + (e^{xy} \cos z)k$
23. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x + \sin yz)i + (y + \sin xz)j + (z + \sin xy)k$
24. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x^2 e^{-z})i + (y^3 \ln x)j + (z \cosh y)k$

Apply the definitions of gradient, divergence, and curl to establish the identities in Problems 25 through 31, in which a and b denote constants, f and g denote differentiable scalar functions, and \mathbf{F} and \mathbf{G} denote differentiable vector fields.

25. $\nabla(af + bg) = a\nabla f + b\nabla g$

26. $\nabla \cdot (a\mathbf{F} + b\mathbf{G}) = a\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} + b\nabla \cdot \mathbf{G}$
27. $\nabla \times (a\mathbf{F} + b\mathbf{G}) = a(\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) + b(\nabla \times \mathbf{G})$
28. $\nabla \cdot (f\mathbf{G}) = (f)(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{G}) + (\nabla f) \cdot \mathbf{G}$
29. $\nabla \times (f\mathbf{G}) = (f)(\nabla \times \mathbf{G}) + (\nabla f) \times \mathbf{G}$
30. $\nabla \left(\frac{f}{g} \right) = \frac{g \nabla f - f \nabla g}{g^2}$
31. $\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{G}) = \mathbf{G} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) - \mathbf{F} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{G})$

Establish the identities in Problems 32 through 34 under the assumption that the scalar functions f and g and the vector field \mathbf{F} are twice differentiable.

32. $\operatorname{div}(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) = 0$
33. $\operatorname{div}(\nabla fg) = f \operatorname{div}(\nabla g) + g \operatorname{div}(\nabla f) + 2(\nabla f) \cdot (\nabla g)$
34. $\operatorname{div}(\nabla f \times \nabla g) = 0$

Verify the identities in Problems 35 through 44, in which \mathbf{a} is a constant vector, $\mathbf{r} = xi + yj + zk$, and $r = |\mathbf{r}|$. Problems 37 and 38 imply that both the divergence and the curl of an inverse-square vector field vanish identically.

35. $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{r} = 3$ and $\nabla \times \mathbf{r} = 0$
36. $\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{r}) = 0$ and $\nabla \times (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{r}) = 2\mathbf{a}$
37. $\nabla \cdot \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r^3} = 0$
38. $\nabla \times \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r^3} = 0$
39. $\nabla r = \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r}$
40. $\nabla \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = -\frac{\mathbf{r}}{r^3}$
41. $\nabla \cdot (r\mathbf{r}) = 4r$
42. $\nabla \cdot (\nabla r) = 0$
43. $\nabla(\ln r) = \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r^2}$
44. $\nabla(r^{10}) = 10r^8\mathbf{r}$

15.2 LINE INTEGRALS

The single integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ might be described as an integral along the x -axis. We now define integrals along curves in space (or in the plane). Such integrals are called *line integrals* (although the phrase *curve integrals* might be more appropriate).

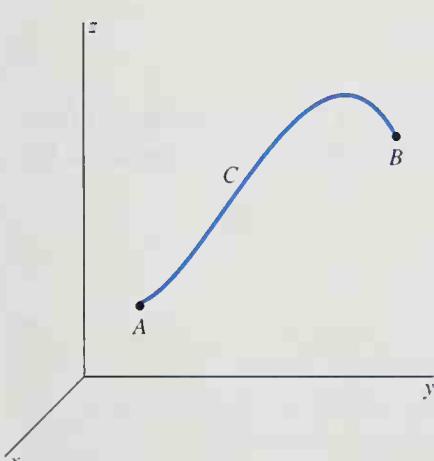
To motivate the definition of the line integral of the function f along the smooth space curve C with parametrization

$$x = x(t), \quad y = y(t), \quad z = z(t), \quad (a \leq t \leq b), \quad (1)$$

we imagine a thin wire shaped like C (Fig. 15.2.1). Suppose that $f(x, y, z)$ denotes the density of the wire at the point (x, y, z) , measured in units of mass per unit length—for example, grams per centimeter. Then we expect to compute the total mass m of the curved wire as some kind of integral of the function f . To approximate m , we begin with a partition

$$a = t_0 < t_1 < t_2 < \cdots < t_{n-1} < t_n = b$$

Fig. 15.2.1 A wire of variable density in the shape of the smooth curve C from A (where $t = a$) to B (where $t = b$)



of $[a, b]$ into n subintervals, all with the same length $\Delta t = (b - a)/n$. These subdivision points of $[a, b]$ produce, via our parametrization, a physical subdivision of the wire into short curve segments (Fig. 15.2.2). We let P_i denote the point $(x(t_i), y(t_i), z(t_i))$ for $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$. Then the points P_0, P_1, \dots, P_n are the subdivision points of C .

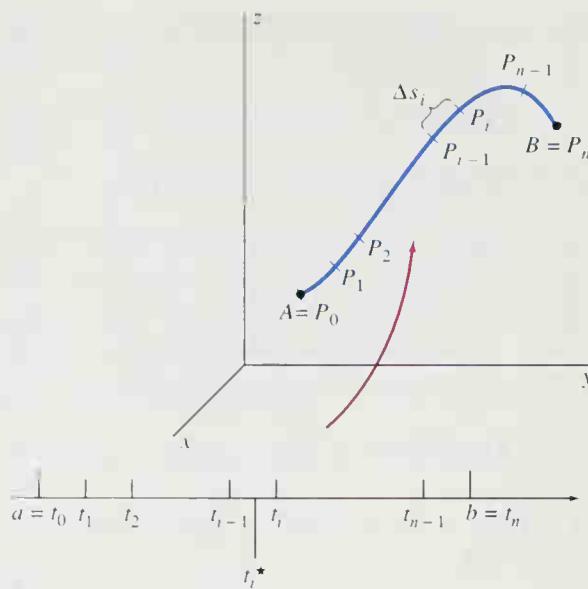


Fig. 15.2.2 The partition of the interval $[a, b]$ determines a related partition of the curve C into short arcs.

From our study of arc length in Sections 10.4 and 12.6, we know that the arc length Δs_i of the segment of C from P_{i-1} to P_i is

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta s_i &= \int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \sqrt{[x'(t)]^2 + [y'(t)]^2 + [z'(t)]^2} dt \\ &= \sqrt{[x'(t_i^*)]^2 + [y'(t_i^*)]^2 + [z'(t_i^*)]^2} \Delta t\end{aligned}\quad (2)$$

for some number t_i^* in the interval $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$. This is a consequence of the average value theorem for integrals of Section 5.5.

Denote $x(t_i^*)$ by x_i^* and similarly define y_i^* and z_i^* . If we multiply the density of the wire at the point (x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*) by the length Δs_i of the segment of C containing that point, we obtain an estimate of the mass of that segment of C . So, after we sum over all the segments, we have an estimate of the total mass m of the wire:

$$m \approx \sum_{i=1}^n f(x(t_i^*), y(t_i^*), z(t_i^*)) \Delta s_i.$$

The limit of this sum as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ should be the actual mass m . This is our motivation for the definition of the line integral of the function f along the curve C , denoted by

$$\int_C f(x, y, z) ds.$$

Definition *Line Integral of a Function Along a Curve*

Suppose that the function $f(x, y, z)$ is defined at each point of the smooth curve C parametrized as in (1). Then the **line integral of f along C** is defined by

$$\int_C f(x, y, z) ds = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x(t_i^*), y(t_i^*), z(t_i^*)) \Delta s_i, \quad (3)$$

provided that this limit exists.

REMARK 1 It can be shown that the limit in (3) always exists if the function f is continuous at each point of C . Recall from Section 10.4 that the curve C is *smooth* provided that the component functions in its parametrization have continuous derivatives that are never simultaneously zero. When we substitute Eq. (2) into Eq. (3), we recognize the result as the limit of a Riemann sum. Therefore

$$\int_C f(x, y, z) \, ds = \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t), z(t)) \sqrt{[x'(t)]^2 + [y'(t)]^2 + [z'(t)]^2} \, dt. \quad (4)$$

Thus we may evaluate the line integral $\int_C f(x, y, z) \, ds$ by expressing everything in terms of the parameter t , including the symbolic arc-length element

$$ds = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2} \, dt.$$

As a consequence, the right-hand side in Eq. (4) is *evaluated as an ordinary single integral with respect to the real variable t* . Because of the appearance of the arc-length element ds , the line integral $\int_C f(x, y, z) \, ds$ is sometimes called the line integral of the function f **with respect to arc length** along the curve C .

REMARK 2 A curve C that lies in the xy -plane may be regarded as a space curve for which z [and $z'(t)$] are zero. In this case we simply suppress the variable z in Eq. (4) and write

$$\int_C f(x, y) \, ds = \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t)) \sqrt{[x'(t)]^2 + [y'(t)]^2} \, dt. \quad (5)$$

In the case that f is positive-valued, Fig. 15.2.3 illustrates an interpretation of the line integral in Eq. (5) as the area of a “fence” whose base is the curve C in the xy -plane, with the height of the fence above the point (x, y) given by $f(x, y)$.

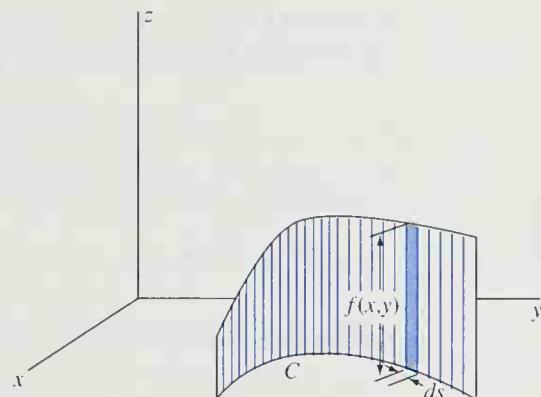


Fig. 15.2.3 The vertical strip with base ds and height $f(x, y)$ has area $dA = f(x, y) \, ds$, so the whole fence with base curve C has area

$$A = \int dA = \int_C f(x, y) \, ds.$$

EXAMPLE 1 Evaluate the line integral

$$\int_C xy \, ds$$

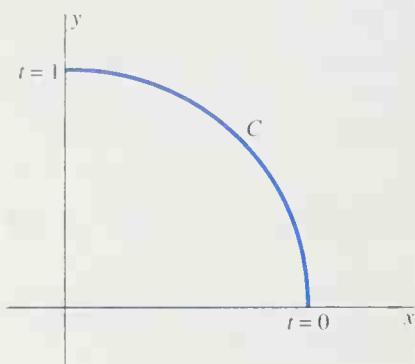


Fig. 15.2.4 The quarter-circle of Example 1

where C is the first-quadrant quarter-circle of radius 1 parametrized by $x = \cos t, y = \sin t, 0 \leq t \leq \pi/2$ (Fig. 15.2.4).

Solution Here $ds = \sqrt{(-\sin t)^2 + (\cos t)^2} dt = dt$, so Eq. (5) yields

$$\int_C xy \, ds = \int_{t=0}^{\pi/2} \cos t \sin t \, dt = \left[\frac{1}{2} \sin^2 t \right]_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Let us now return to the physical wire and denote its density function by $\delta(x, y, z)$. The mass of a small piece of length Δs is $\Delta m = \delta \Delta s$, so we write

$$dm = \delta(x, y, z) \, ds$$

for its (symbolic) element of mass. Then the **mass** m of the wire and its **centroid** $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$ are defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \int_C dm = \int_C \delta \, ds, & \bar{x} &= \frac{1}{m} \int_C x \, dm, \\ \bar{y} &= \frac{1}{m} \int_C y \, dm, & \bar{z} &= \frac{1}{m} \int_C z \, dm. \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

Note the analogy with Eqs. (2) and (4) of Section 14.6. The **moment of inertia** of the wire around a given axis is

$$I = \int_C w^2 \, dm, \tag{7}$$

where $w = w(x, y, z)$ denotes the perpendicular distance from the point (x, y, z) of the wire to the axis in question.

EXAMPLE 2 Find the centroid of a wire that has density $\delta = kz$ and the shape of the helix C (Fig. 15.2.5) with parametrization

$$x = 3 \cos t, \quad y = 3 \sin t, \quad z = 4t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq \pi.$$

Solution The mass element of the wire is

$$dm = \delta \, ds = kz \, ds = 4kt \sqrt{(-3 \sin t)^2 + (3 \cos t)^2 + 4^2} \, dt = 20kt \, dt.$$

Hence the formulas in (6) yield

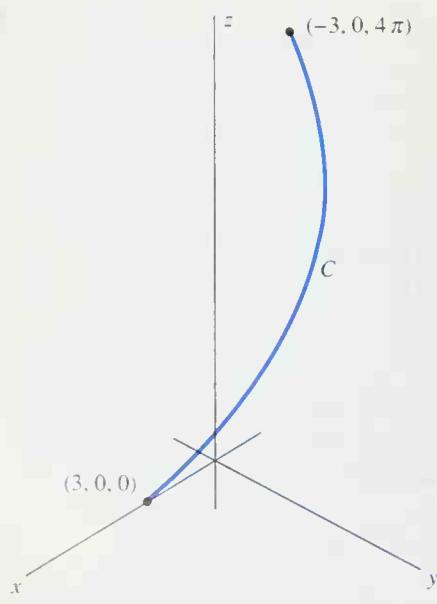


Fig. 15.2.5 The helical wire of Example 2. Does the centroid $(-1.22, 1.91, 8.38)$ lie on the wire?

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \int_C \delta \, ds = \int_0^\pi 20kt \, dt = 10k\pi^2; \\ \bar{x} &= \frac{1}{m} \int_C \delta x \, ds = \frac{1}{10k\pi^2} \int_0^\pi 60kt \cos t \, dt \\ &= \frac{6}{\pi^2} \left[\cos t + t \sin t \right]_0^\pi = -\frac{12}{\pi^2} \approx -1.22; \\ \bar{y} &= \frac{1}{m} \int_C \delta y \, ds = \frac{1}{10k\pi^2} \int_0^\pi 60kt \sin t \, dt \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{6}{\pi^2} \left[\sin t - t \cos t \right]_0^\pi = \frac{6}{\pi} \approx 1.91;$$

$$\bar{z} = \frac{1}{m} \int_C \delta z \, ds = \frac{1}{10k\pi^2} \int_0^\pi 80kt^2 \, dt$$

$$= \frac{8}{\pi^2} \left[\frac{1}{3}t^3 \right]_0^\pi = \frac{8\pi}{3} \approx 8.38.$$

So the centroid of the wire is located close to the point $(-1.22, 1.91, 8.38)$. ■

Line Integrals with Respect to Coordinate Variables

We obtain a different kind of line integral by replacing Δs_i in Eq. (3) with

$$\Delta x_i = x(t_i) - x(t_{i-1}) = x'(t_i^*) \Delta t.$$

The **line integral of f along C with respect to x** is defined to be

$$\int_C f(x, y, z) \, dx = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x(t_i^*), y(t_i^*), z(t_i^*)) \Delta x_i.$$

Thus

$$\int_C f(x, y, z) \, dx = \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t), z(t)) x'(t) \, dt. \quad (8a)$$

Similarly, the **line integrals of f along C with respect to y and with respect to z** are given by

$$\int_C f(x, y, z) \, dy = \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t), z(t)) y'(t) \, dt, \quad (8b)$$

$$\int_C f(x, y, z) \, dz = \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t), z(t)) z'(t) \, dt. \quad (8c)$$

The three integrals in (8) typically occur together. If P , Q , and R are continuous functions of the variables x , y , and z , then we write (indeed, *define*)

$$\int_C P \, dx + Q \, dy + R \, dz = \int_C P \, dx + \int_C Q \, dy + \int_C R \, dz. \quad (9)$$

The line integrals in Eqs. (8) and (9) are evaluated by expressing x , y , z , dx , dy , and dz in terms of t as determined by a suitable parametrization of the curve C . The result is an ordinary single-variable integral. For instance, if C is a parametric plane curve parametrized over the interval $[a, b]$ by $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t) \rangle$, then

$$\int_C P \, dx + Q \, dy = \int_a^b [P(x(t), y(t)) \cdot x'(t) + Q(x(t), y(t)) \cdot y'(t)] \, dt.$$

EXAMPLE 3 Evaluate the line integral

$$\int_C y \, dx + z \, dy + x \, dz,$$

where C is the parametric curve $x = t, y = t^2, z = t^3, 0 \leq t \leq 1$.

Solution Because $dx = dt, dy = 2t dt$, and $dz = 3t^2 dt$, substitution in terms of t yields

$$\begin{aligned}\int_C y \, dx + z \, dy + x \, dz &= \int_0^1 t^2 \, dt + t^3(2t \, dt) + t(3t^2 \, dt) \\ &= \int_0^1 (t^2 + 3t^3 + 2t^4) \, dt = \left[\frac{1}{3}t^2 + \frac{3}{4}t^4 + \frac{2}{5}t^5 \right]_0^1 = \frac{89}{60}. \quad \blacksquare\end{aligned}$$

The given parametrization of a smooth curve C determines an **orientation** or “positive direction” along the curve. As the parameter t increases from $t = a$ to $t = b$, the point $(x(t), y(t))$ moves along the curve from its initial point A to its terminal point B . Now think of a curve $-C$ with the *opposite orientation*. This new curve consists of the same points as C , but the parametrization of $-C$ traces these points in the opposite direction, from initial point B to terminal point A (Fig. 15.2.6). Because the arc-length differential $ds = \sqrt{[x'(t)]^2 + [y'(t)]^2 + [z'(t)]^2} dt$ is always positive (the square root is positive), the value of the line integral with respect to arc length is not affected by the reversal of orientation. That is,

$$\int_{-C} f(x, y, z) \, ds = \int_C f(x, y, z) \, ds. \quad (10)$$

In contrast, the signs of the derivatives $x'(t), y'(t)$, and $z'(t)$ in Eqs. (8a), (8b), and (8c) are changed when the direction of the parametrization is reversed, so it follows that

$$\int_{-C} P \, dx + Q \, dy + R \, dz = - \int_C P \, dx + Q \, dy + R \, dz. \quad (11)$$

Thus changing the orientation of the curve changes the *sign* of a line integral with respect to coordinate variables but does not affect the value of a line integral with respect to arc length. It is proved in advanced calculus that, for either type of line integral, two one-to-one parametrizations of the same smooth curve give the same value if they agree in orientation.

EXAMPLE 4 The parametrization $x = 1 + 8t, y = 2 + 6t$ ($0 \leq t \leq 1$) of the line segment C from $A(1, 2)$ to $B(9, 8)$ in Fig. 15.2.7 gives $dx = 8 dt, dy = 6 dt$, and $ds = 10 dt$. Hence we easily verify that

$$\int_C xy \, ds = \int_0^1 (1 + 8t)(2 + 6t) \cdot 10 \, dt = 290$$

and

$$\int_C y \, ds + x \, dy = \int_0^1 [(2 + 6t) \cdot 8 + (1 + 8t) \cdot 6] \, dt = 70.$$

The parametrization $x = 9 - 4t, y = 8 - 3t$ ($0 \leq t \leq 2$) of the oppositely oriented segment $-C$ from $B(9, 8)$ to $A(1, 2)$ gives $dx = -4 dt, dy = -3 dt$, and $ds = 5 dt$, and we easily verify that

$$\int_{-C} xy \, dx = \int_0^2 (9 - 4t)(8 - 3t) \cdot 5 \, dt = 290.$$

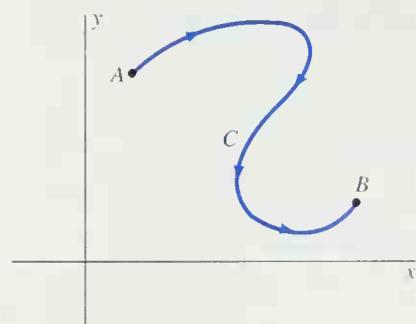


Fig. 15.2.6 $\int_{-C} f \, ds = \int_C f \, ds$ but

$$\int_{-C} P \, dx + Q \, dy = - \int_C P \, dx + Q \, dy.$$

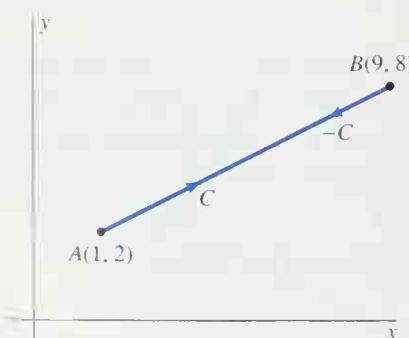


Fig. 15.2.7 The line segment of Example 4

whereas

$$\int_{-C} y \, dx + x \, dy = \int_0^2 [(8 - 3t) \cdot (-4) + (9 - 4t) \cdot (-3)] \, dt = -70. \quad \blacksquare$$

If the curve C consists of a finite number of smooth curves joined at consecutive corner points, then we say that C is **piecewise smooth**. In such a case the value of a line integral along C is defined to be the sum of its values along the smooth segments of C . For instance, with the piecewise smooth curve $C = C_1 + C_2$ of Fig. 15.2.8, we have

$$\int_C f(x, y, z) \, ds = \int_{C_1 + C_2} f(x, y, z) \, ds = \int_{C_1} f(x, y, z) \, ds + \int_{C_2} f(x, y, z) \, ds.$$

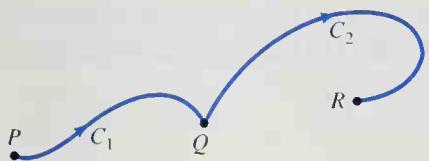


Fig. 15.2.8 The curve $C = C_1 + C_2$ from P to R

EXAMPLE 5 Evaluate the line integral

$$\int_C y \, dx + 2x \, dy$$

for each of these three curves C (Fig. 15.2.9):

- C_1 : The straight line segment in the plane from $A(1, 1)$ to $B(2, 4)$;
- C_2 : The plane path from $A(1, 1)$ to $B(2, 4)$ along the graph of the parabola $y = x^2$; and
- C_3 : The straight line in the plane from $A(1, 1)$ to $Q(2, 1)$ followed by the straight line from $Q(2, 1)$ to $B(2, 4)$.

Solution The straight line segment C_1 from A to B can be parametrized by $x = 1 + t$, $y = 1 + 3t$, $0 \leq t \leq 1$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{C_1} y \, dx + 2x \, dy &= \int_0^1 (1 + 3t) \, dt + 2(1 + t)(3 \, dt) \\ &= \int_0^1 (7 + 9t) \, dt = \frac{23}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

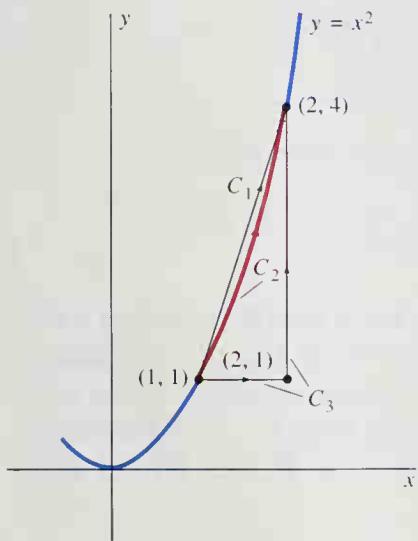


Fig. 15.2.9 The three arcs of Example 5

Next, the arc C_2 of the parabola $y = x^2$ from A to B is “self-parametrizing”: It has the parametrization $x = x$, $y = x^2$, $1 \leq x \leq 2$. So

$$\int_{C_2} y \, dx + 2x \, dy = \int_1^2 (x^2)(dx) + 2(x)(2x \, dx) = \int_1^2 5x^2 \, dx = \frac{35}{3}.$$

Finally, along the straight line segment from $(1, 1)$ to $(2, 1)$, we have $y \equiv 1$ and (because y is a constant) $dy = 0$. Along the vertical segment from $(2, 1)$ to $(2, 4)$, we have $x \equiv 2$ and $dx = 0$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{C_3} y \, dx + 2x \, dy &= \int_{x=1}^2 [(1)(dx) + (2x)(0)] + \int_{y=1}^4 [(y)(0) + (4)(dy)] \\ &= \int_{x=1}^2 1 \, dx + \int_{y=1}^4 4 \, dy = 13. \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

Example 5 shows that we may well obtain different values for the line integral from A to B if we evaluate it along different curves from A to B . Thus this line integral is *path-dependent*. We shall give in Section 15.3 a sufficient condition for the line integral

$$\int_C P \, ds + Q \, dy + R \, dz$$

to have the same value for *all* smooth or piecewise smooth curves C from A to B , and thus for the integral to be *independent of path*.

Line Integrals and Vector Fields

Suppose now that $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$ is a force field defined on a region that contains the curve C from the point A to the point B . Suppose also that C has a parametrization

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i}x(t) + \mathbf{j}y(t) + \mathbf{k}z(t), \quad t \text{ in } [a, b],$$

with a *nonzero* velocity vector

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i}\frac{dx}{dt} + \mathbf{j}\frac{dy}{dt} + \mathbf{k}\frac{dz}{dt}.$$

The speed associated with this velocity vector is

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

Recall from Section 12.6 that the *unit tangent vector* to the curve C is

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{v} = \frac{1}{v} \left(\frac{dx}{dt} \mathbf{i} + \frac{dy}{dt} \mathbf{j} + \frac{dz}{dt} \mathbf{k} \right).$$

We want to approximate the work W done by the force field \mathbf{F} in moving a particle along the curve C from A to B . Subdivide C as indicated in Fig. 15.2.10. Think of \mathbf{F} moving the particle from P_{i-1} to P_i , two consecutive division points of C . The work ΔW_i done is approximately the product of the distance Δs_i from P_{i-1} to P_i (measured along C) and the tangential component $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}$ of the force \mathbf{F} at a typical point $(x(t_i^*), y(t_i^*), z(t_i^*))$ between P_{i-1} and P_i . Thus

$$\Delta W_i \approx \mathbf{F}(x(t_i^*), y(t_i^*), z(t_i^*)) \cdot \mathbf{T}(t_i^*) \Delta s_i,$$

so the total work W is given approximately by

$$W \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{F}(x(t_i^*), y(t_i^*), z(t_i^*)) \cdot \mathbf{T}(t_i^*) \Delta s_i.$$

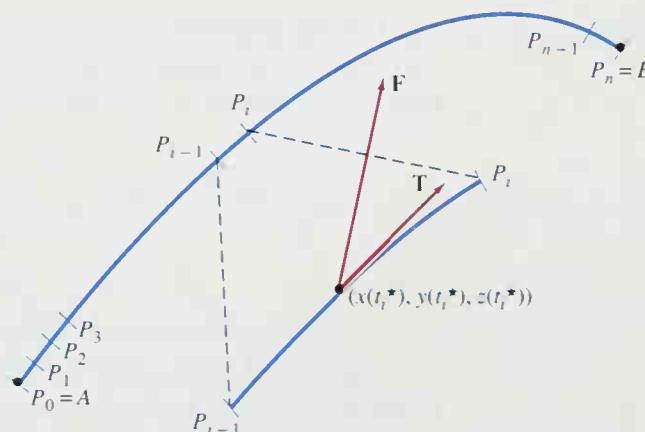


Fig. 15.2.10 The component of \mathbf{F} along C from P_{i-1} to P_i is $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}$.

This approximation suggests that we *define* the **work** W as

$$W = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds. \quad (12)$$

Thus *work is the integral with respect to arc length of the tangential component of the force*. Intuitively, we may regard $dW = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$ as the infinitesimal element of work done by the tangential component $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}$ of the force in moving the particle along the arc-length element ds . The line integral in Eq. (12) is then the “sum” of all these infinitesimal elements of work.

It is customary to write formally

$$\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}, \quad d\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{i} dx + \mathbf{j} dy + \mathbf{k} dz,$$

and

$$\mathbf{T} ds = \left(\frac{dx}{dt} \mathbf{i} + \frac{dy}{dt} \mathbf{j} + \frac{dz}{dt} \mathbf{k} \right) ds = d\mathbf{r}.$$

With this notation, Eq. (12) takes the form

$$W = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} \quad (13)$$

that is common in engineering and physics texts.

To evaluate the line integral in Eqs. (12) or (13), we express its integrand and limits of integration in terms of the parameter t , as usual. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds \\ &= \int_a^b (P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}) \cdot \frac{1}{v} \left(\frac{dx}{dt} \mathbf{i} + \frac{dy}{dt} \mathbf{j} + \frac{dz}{dt} \mathbf{k} \right) v dt \\ &= \int_a^b \left(P \frac{dx}{dt} + Q \frac{dy}{dt} + R \frac{dz}{dt} \right) dt. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$W = \int_C P dx + Q dy + R dz. \quad (14)$$

This computation reveals an important relation between the two types of line integrals we have defined here.

Theorem 1 *Equivalent Line Integrals*

Suppose that the vector field $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$ has continuous component functions and that \mathbf{T} is the unit tangent vector to the smooth curve C . Then

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_C P dx + Q dy + R dz. \quad (15)$$

REMARK If the orientation of the curve C is reversed, then the sign of the right-hand integral in Eq. (15) is changed according to Eq. (11), whereas the sign of the left-hand integral is changed because \mathbf{T} is replaced with $-\mathbf{T}$.

EXAMPLE 6 The work done by the force field $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} + z\mathbf{j} + x\mathbf{k}$ in moving a particle from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 1, 1)$ along the twisted cubic $x = t, y = t^2, z = t^3$ is given by the line integral

$$W = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_C y dx + z dy + x dz,$$

and we computed the value of this integral in Example 3. Hence $W = \frac{89}{60}$. ■

EXAMPLE 7 Find the work done by the inverse-square force field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \frac{k\mathbf{r}}{r^3} = \frac{k(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$$

in moving a particle along the straight line segment C from $(0, 4, 0)$ to $(0, 4, 3)$.

Solution Along C we have $x = 0$, $y = 4$, and z varying from 0 to 3. Thus we choose z as the parameter:

$$x \equiv 0, \quad y \equiv 4, \quad \text{and} \quad z = z, \quad 0 \leq z \leq 3.$$

Because $dx = 0 = dy$, Eq. (14) gives

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_C \frac{k(x dx + y dy + z dz)}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} \\ &= \int_0^3 \frac{kz}{(16 + z^2)^{3/2}} dz = \left[\frac{-k}{\sqrt{16 + z^2}} \right]_0^3 = \frac{k}{20}. \end{aligned}$$

15.2 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 5, evaluate the line integrals

$$\int_C f(x, y) ds, \quad \int_C f(x, y) dx, \quad \text{and} \quad \int_C f(x, y) dy$$

along the indicated parametric curve.

1. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2; \quad x = 4t - 1, y = 3t + 1, -1 \leq t \leq 1$
2. $f(x, y) = x; \quad x = t, y = t^2, 0 \leq t \leq 1$
3. $f(x, y) = x + y; \quad x = e^t + 1, y = e^t - 1, 0 \leq t \leq \ln 2$
4. $f(x, y) = 2x - y; \quad x = \sin t, y = \cos t, 0 \leq t \leq \pi/2$
5. $f(x, y) = xy; \quad x = 3t, y = t^4, 0 \leq t \leq 1$

In Problems 6 through 10, evaluate

$$\int_C P(x, y) dx + Q(x, y) dy.$$

6. $P(x, y) = xy, Q(x, y) = x + y; \quad C$ is the part of the graph of $y = x^2$ from $(-1, 1)$ to $(2, 4)$.

7. $P(x, y) = y^2, Q(x, y) = x; \quad C$ is the part of the graph of $x = y^3$ from $(-1, -1)$ to $(1, 1)$.
8. $P(x, y) = y\sqrt{x}, Q(x, y) = x\sqrt{y}; \quad C$ is the part of the graph of $y^2 = x^3$ from $(1, 1)$ to $(4, 8)$.
9. $P(x, y) = x^2y, Q(x, y) = xy^3; \quad C$ consists of the line segments from $(-1, 1)$ to $(2, 1)$ and from $(2, 1)$ to $(2, 5)$.
10. $P(x, y) = x + 2y, Q(x, y) = 2x - y; \quad C$ consists of the line segments from $(3, 2)$ to $(3, -1)$ and from $(3, -1)$ to $(-2, -1)$.

In Problems 11 through 15, evaluate the line integral

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$$

along the indicated path C .

11. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} - y\mathbf{k}; \quad C$ is parametrized by $x = t, y = t^2, z = t^3, 0 \leq t \leq 1$.

12. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = yz\mathbf{i} + xz\mathbf{j} + xy\mathbf{k}$; C is the straight line segment from $(2, -1, 3)$ to $(4, 2, -1)$.
13. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y\mathbf{i} - x\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$; $x = \sin t$, $y = \cos t$, $z = 2t$, $0 \leq y \leq \pi$.
14. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (2x + 3y)\mathbf{i} + (3x + 2y)\mathbf{j} + 3z^2\mathbf{k}$; C is the path from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(4, 2, 3)$ that consists of three line segments parallel to the x -axis, the y -axis, and the z -axis, in that order.
15. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = yz^2\mathbf{i} + xz^2\mathbf{j} + 2xyz\mathbf{k}$; C is the path from $(-1, 2, -2)$ to $(1, 5, 2)$ that consists of three line segments parallel to the z -axis, the x -axis, and the y -axis, in that order.

In Problems 16 through 18, evaluate

$$\int_C f(x, y, z) ds$$

for the given function $f(x, y, z)$ and the given path C .

16. $f(x, y, z) = xyz$; C is the straight line segment from $(1, -1, 2)$ to $(3, 2, 5)$.
17. $f(x, y, z) = 2x + 9xy$; C is the curve $x = t$, $y = t^2$, $z = t^3$, $0 \leq t \leq 1$.
18. $f(x, y, z) = xy$; C is the elliptical helix $x = 4 \cos t$, $y = 9 \sin t$, $z = 7t$, $0 \leq t \leq 5\pi/2$.
19. Find the centroid of a uniform thin wire shaped like the semicircle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$, $a \geq 0$, $y \geq 0$.
20. Find the moments of inertia around the x - and y -axes of the wire of Problem 19.
21. Find the mass and centroid of a wire that has constant density $\delta = k$ and is shaped like the helix $x = 3 \cos t$, $y = 3 \sin t$, $z = 4t$, $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$.
22. Find the moment of inertia $I_z = \int_C (x^2 + y^2) dm$ around the z -axis of the helical wire of Problem 21.
23. A wire shaped like the first-quadrant portion of the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ has density $\delta = kxy$ at the point (x, y) . Find its mass, centroid, and moment of inertia around each coordinate axis.
24. A wire is shaped like the arch $x = t - \sin t$, $y = 1 - \cos t$ ($0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$) of a cycloid C and has constant density $\delta(x, y) \equiv k$. Find its mass, centroid, and moment of inertia $I_x = \int_C y^2 dm$ around the x -axis.
25. A wire is shaped like the astroid $x = \cos^3 t$, $y = \sin^3 t$ ($0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$) and has constant density $\delta(x, y) \equiv k$. Find its moment of inertia $I_0 = \int_C (x^2 + y^2) dm$ around the origin.

The **average distance** \bar{D} from the fixed point P to points of the parametrized curve C is defined by

$$\bar{D} = \frac{1}{s} \int_C D(x, y) ds$$

where s is the length of C and $D(x, y)$ denotes the distance from P to the variable point (x, y) of C . In Problems 26 through 31, compute the average distance, exactly if possible.

or use a computer algebra system to find it (either symbolically or, if necessary, numerically).

26. Use the standard trigonometric parametrization of a circle C of radius a to verify that the average distance of points of C from its center is $\bar{D} = a$.
27. Find (exactly) the average distance from the point $(a, 0)$ to points of the circle of radius a centered at the origin. (Suggestion: Use the law of cosines to find $D(x, y)$.)
28. Find the average distance from the origin to points of the cycloidal arch of Problem 24.
29. Find the average distance from the origin to points of the astroid of Problem 25.
30. Find the average distance from the origin to points of the helix of Problem 21.
31. The spiral parametrized by $x = e^{-t} \cos t$, $y = e^{-t} \sin t$ starts at $(1, 0)$ when $t = 0$ and closes in on the origin as $t \rightarrow \infty$. Use improper integrals to calculate the average distance from the origin to points of this spiral.
32. Find the work done by the inverse-square force field of Example 7 in moving a particle from $(1, 0, 0)$ to $(0, 3, 4)$. Integrate first along the line segment from $(1, 0, 0)$ to $(5, 0, 0)$ and then along a path on the sphere with equation $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 25$. The second integral is automatically zero. (Why?)
33. Imagine an infinitely long and uniformly charged wire that coincides with the z -axis. The electric force that it exerts on a unit charge at the point $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ in the xy -plane is

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \frac{k(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j})}{x^2 + y^2}.$$

Find the work done by \mathbf{F} in moving a unit charge along the straight line segment from (a) $(1, 0)$ to $(1, 1)$; (b) $(1, 1)$ to $(0, 1)$.

34. Show that if \mathbf{F} is a *constant* force field, then it does zero work on a particle that moves once uniformly counterclockwise around the unit circle in the xy -plane.
35. Show that if $\mathbf{F} = k\mathbf{r} = k(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j})$, then \mathbf{F} does zero work on a particle that moves once uniformly counterclockwise around the unit circle in the xy -plane.
36. Find the work done by the force field $\mathbf{F} = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$ in moving a particle counterclockwise once around the unit circle in the xy -plane.
37. Let C be a curve on the unit sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$. Explain why the inverse-square force field of Example 7 does zero work in moving a particle along C .

In Problems 38 through 40, the given curve C joins the points P and Q in the xy -plane. The point P represents the top of a ten-story building, and Q is a point on the ground 100 ft from the base of the building. A 150-lb person slides down a frictionless slide shaped like the curve C from P to Q under the influence of the gravitational force $\mathbf{F} = -150\mathbf{j}$. In each problem show that \mathbf{F} does the same amount of work on the person,

$W = 15000 \text{ ft} \cdot \text{lb}$, as if he or she had dropped straight down to the ground.

38. C is the straight line segment $y = x$ from $P(100, 100)$ to $Q(0, 0)$.
39. C is the circular arc $x = 100 \sin t$, $y = 100 \cos t$ from $P(0, 100)$ to $Q(100, 0)$.
40. C is the parabolic arc $y = x^2/100$ from $P(100, 100)$ to $Q(0, 0)$.
41. Now suppose that the 100-ft ten-story building of Problems 38 through 40 is a circular tower with a radius of 25 ft, and the fire-escape slide is a spiral (helical) ramp that encircles the tower once every two floors. Use a line integral to compute the work done by the gravitational force field $\mathbf{F} = -200\mathbf{k}$ on a 200-lb person who slides down this (frictionless) ramp from the top of the building to the ground.

42. An electric current I in a long straight wire generates a magnetic field \mathbf{B} in the space surrounding the wire. The vector \mathbf{B} is tangent to any circle C that is centered on the wire and lies in a plane perpendicular to the wire. *Ampere's law* implies that

$$\int_C \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \mu I,$$

where μ is a certain electromagnetic constant. Deduce from this fact that the magnitude $B = |\mathbf{B}|$ of the magnetic field is proportional to the current I and inversely proportional to the distance r from the wire.

15.3 THE FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM AND INDEPENDENCE OF PATH

The fundamental theorem of calculus says, in effect, that differentiation and integration are inverse processes for single-variable functions. Specifically, part 2 of the fundamental theorem in Section 5.6 implies that

$$\int_a^b G'(t) dt = G(b) - G(a) \quad (1)$$

if the derivative G' is continuous on $[a, b]$. Theorem 1 here can be interpreted as saying that “gradient vector differentiation” and “line integration” are, similarly, inverse processes for multivariable functions.

Theorem 1 *The Fundamental Theorem for Line Integrals*

Let f be a function of two or three variables and let C be a smooth curve parametrized by the vector-valued function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ for $a \leq t \leq b$. If f has continuous partial derivatives at each point of C , then

$$\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(\mathbf{r}(b)) - f(\mathbf{r}(a)). \quad (2)$$

PROOF: We consider the three-dimensional case $f(x, y, z)$ illustrated in Fig. 15.3.1. Then $\nabla f = \langle \partial f / \partial x, \partial f / \partial y, \partial f / \partial z \rangle$, so Theorem 1 in Section 15.2 yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} &= \int_C \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} dz \\ &= \int_a^b \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \frac{dz}{dt} \right) dt. \end{aligned}$$

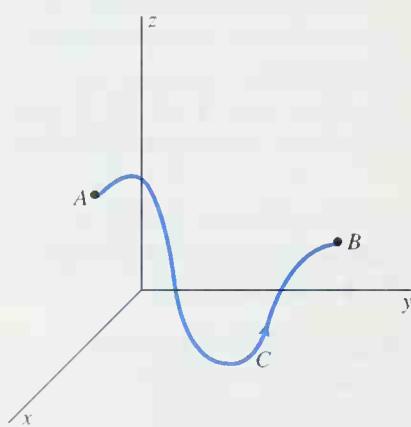


Fig. 15.3.1 The path C of Theorem 1

By the multivariable chain rule (Section 13.7), the integrand here is the derivative $G'(t)$ of the composite function $G(t) = f(\mathbf{r}(t)) = f(x(t), y(t), z(t))$. Therefore it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} &= \int_a^b G'(t) dt = G(b) - G(a) \quad (\text{by Eq. (1)}) \\ &= f(\mathbf{r}(b)) - f(\mathbf{r}(a)),\end{aligned}$$

and so we have established Eq. (2), as desired. ■

REMARK 1 If we write A and B for the endpoints $\mathbf{r}(a)$ and $\mathbf{r}(b)$ of C , then Eq. (2) takes the form

$$\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(B) - f(A), \quad (3)$$

which is quite similar to Eq. (1).

REMARK 2 If

$$f(x, y, z) = -\frac{k}{r} = -\frac{k}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}},$$

then a brief computation shows that $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$ is the inverse-square force field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \frac{k(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$$

of Example 7 in Section 15.2, where we calculated directly the work $W = k/20$ done by the force field \mathbf{F} in moving a particle along a straight line segment from the point $A(0, 4, 0)$ to the point $B(0, 4, 3)$. Indeed, using Theorem 1, we find that the work done by \mathbf{F} in moving a particle along *any* smooth path from A to B (that does not pass through the origin) is given by

$$\begin{aligned}W &= \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} \\ &= f(0, 4, 3) - f(0, 4, 0) \quad (\text{by Eq. (3)}) \\ &= \left(-\frac{k}{5}\right) - \left(-\frac{k}{4}\right) = \frac{k}{20}.\end{aligned}$$

Independence of Path

We next apply the fundamental theorem for line integrals to discuss the question whether the integral

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C P dx + Q dy + R dz \quad (4)$$

(where $\mathbf{F} = \langle P, Q, R \rangle$) has the *same value* for *any* two curves with the same initial and terminal points.

Definition *Independence of Path*

The line integral in Eq. (1) is said to be **independent of the path in the region D** provided that, given any two points A and B of D , the integral has the same value along every piecewise smooth curve, or **path**, in D from A to B . In this case we may write

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds \quad (5)$$

because the value of the integral depends only on the points A and B , not on the particular choice of the path C joining them.

For a tangible interpretation of independence of path, let us think of walking along the curve C from point A to point B in the plane where a wind with velocity vector $\mathbf{w}(x, y)$ is blowing. Suppose that when we are at (x, y) , the wind exerts a force $\mathbf{F} = k\mathbf{w}(x, y)$ on us, k being a constant that depends on our size and shape (and perhaps other factors as well). Then, by Eq. (12) of Section 15.2, the amount of work the wind does on us as we walk along C is given by

$$W = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = k \int_C \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds. \quad (6)$$

This is the wind's contribution to our trip from A to B . In this context, the question of independence of path is whether the wind's work W depends on *which* path we choose from point A to point B .

EXAMPLE 1 Suppose that a steady wind blows toward the northeast with velocity vector $\mathbf{w} = 10\mathbf{i} + 10\mathbf{j}$ in fps units; its speed is $|\mathbf{w}| = 10\sqrt{2} \approx 14$ ft/s—about 10 mi/h. Assume that $k = 0.5$, so the wind exerts 0.5 lb of force for each foot per second of its velocity. Then $\mathbf{F} = 5\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}$, so Eq. (6) yields

$$W = \int_C \langle 5, 5 \rangle \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_C 5 dx + 5 dy \quad (7)$$

for the work done on us by the wind as we walk along C .

For instance, if C is the straight path $x = 10t$, $y = 10t$ ($0 \leq x \leq 1$) from $(0, 0)$ to $(10, 10)$, then Eq. (7) gives

$$W = \int_0^1 5 \cdot 10 dt + 5 \cdot 10 dt = 100 \int_0^1 1 dt = 100$$

ft·lb of work. Or, if C is the parabolic path $y = \frac{1}{10}x^2$, $0 \leq x \leq 10$ from the same initial point $(0, 0)$ to the same terminal point $(10, 10)$, then Eq. (7) yields

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_0^{10} 5 dx + 5 \cdot \frac{1}{5}x dx = \int_0^{10} (5 + x) dx \\ &= \left[5x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right]_0^{10} = 100 \end{aligned}$$

ft·lb of work, the same as before. We shall see that it follows from Theorem 2 of this section that the line integral in Eq. (7) is independent of path, so the wind does 100 ft·lb of work along any path from $(0, 0)$ to $(10, 10)$. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Suppose that $\mathbf{w} = -2y\mathbf{i} + 2x\mathbf{j}$. This wind is blowing counterclockwise around the origin, as in a hurricane with its eye at $(0, 0)$. With $k = 0.5$ as before, $\mathbf{F} = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$, so the work integral is

$$W = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_C -y dx + x dy. \quad (8)$$

If we walk from $(10, 0)$ to $(-10, 0)$ along the straight path C_1 through the eye of the hurricane, then the wind is always perpendicular to our unit tangent vector \mathbf{T} (Fig. 15.3.2). Hence $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} = 0$, and therefore

$$W = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_{C_1} -y dx + x dy = 0.$$

But if we walk along the semicircular path C_2 shown in Fig. 15.3.2, then \mathbf{w} remains tangent to our path, so $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} = |\mathbf{F}| = 10$ at each point. In this case,

$$W = \int_{C_2} -y dx + x dy = \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = 10 \cdot 10\pi = 100\pi.$$

The fact that we get different values along different paths from $(10, 0)$ to $(-10, 0)$ shows that the line integral in Eq. (8) is *not* independent of path. ■

Theorem 2 tells us when a given line integral is independent of path and when it is not.

Theorem 2 *Independence of Path*

The line integral $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$ is independent of path in the region D if and only if $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ for some function f defined on D .

PROOF: Suppose that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f = \langle \partial f / \partial x, \partial f / \partial y, \partial f / \partial z \rangle$ and that C is a piecewise smooth curve from A to B in D parametrized as usual with parameter t in $[a, b]$. Then the fundamental theorem in the form in Eq. (3) gives

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_C \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(B) - f(A).$$

This result shows that the value of the line integral depends only on the points A and B and is therefore independent of the choice of the particular path C . This proves the *if* part of Theorem 1.

To prove the *only if* part of Theorem 2, we suppose that the line integral is independent of path in D . Choose a *fixed* point $A_0 = A_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ in D , and let $B = B(x, y, z)$ be an arbitrary point in D . Given any path C from A_0 to B in D , we define the function f by means of the equation

$$f(x, y, z) = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_{(x_0, y_0, z_0)}^{(x, y, z)} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds. \quad (9)$$

Because of the hypothesis of independence of path, the resulting value of $f(x, y, z)$ depends only on (x, y, z) , not on the particular path C used. We shall omit the verification that $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$ (see Problem 21 of Section 15.7). ■

As an application of Theorem 2, we see that the vector field $\mathbf{F} = -yi + xj$ of Example 2 is not the gradient of any scalar function f because $\int \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$ is not independent of path. More precisely, $\int \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$ is not independent of path in any region that either includes or encloses the origin.

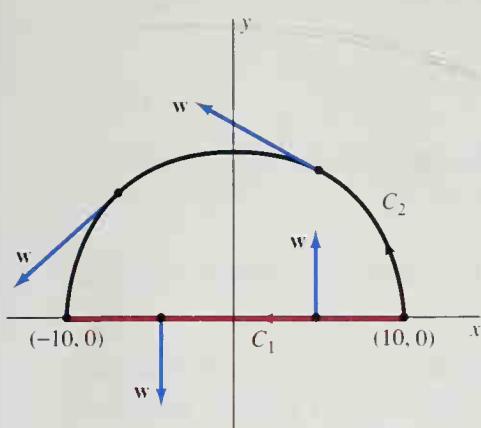


Fig. 15.3.2 Around and through the eye of the hurricane (Example 2)

Definition *Conservative Fields and Potential Functions*

The vector field \mathbf{F} defined on a region D is **conservative** provided that there exists a scalar function f defined on D such that

$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla f \quad (10)$$

at each point of D . In this case f is called a **potential function** for the vector field \mathbf{F} .

COMMENT In some physical applications the scalar function f is called a *potential function* for the vector field \mathbf{F} provided that $\mathbf{F} = -\nabla f$.

If the line integral $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$ is known to be independent of path, then Theorem 2 guarantees that the vector field \mathbf{F} is conservative and that Eq. (9) yields a potential function f for \mathbf{F} . In this case—because the value of the integral does not depend on the specific curve C from A to B —we may well write Eq. (3) in the form

$$\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_A^B \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(B) - f(A) \quad (11)$$

that is still more reminiscent of the ordinary fundamental theorem.

EXAMPLE 3 Find a potential function for the conservative vector field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (6xy - y^3)\mathbf{i} + (4y + 3x^2 - 3xy^2)\mathbf{j}. \quad (12)$$

Solution Because we are given the information that \mathbf{F} is a conservative field, the line integral $\int \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$ is independent of path by Theorem 2. Therefore we may apply Eq. (9) to find a scalar potential function F . Let C be the straight-line path from $A(0, 0)$ to $B(x_1, y_1)$ parametrized by $x = x_1 t$, $y = y_1 t$, $0 \leq t \leq 1$. Then Eq. (9) yields

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1, y_1) &= \int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds \\ &= \int_A^B (6xy - y^3) dx + (4y + 3x^2 - 3xy^2) dy \\ &= \int_0^1 (6x_1 y_1 t^2 - y_1^3 t^3)(x_1 dt) + (4y_1 t + 3x_1^2 t^2 - 3x_1 y_1^2 t^3)(y_1 dt) \\ &= \int_0^1 (4y_1^2 t + 9x_1^2 y_1 t^2 - 4x_1 y_1^3 t^3) dt \\ &= \left[2y_1^2 t^2 + 3x_1^2 y_1 t^3 - x_1 y_1^3 t^4 \right]_0^1 = 2y_1^2 + 3x_1^2 y_1 - x_1 y_1^3. \end{aligned}$$

At this point we delete the subscripts, because (x_1, y_1) is an arbitrary point of the plane. Thus we obtain the potential function

$$f(x, y) = 2y^2 + 3x^2y - xy^3$$

for the vector field \mathbf{F} in Eq. (12). As a check, we can differentiate f to obtain

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 6xy - y^3, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 4y + 3x^2 - 3xy^2.$$

But how did we know in advance that the vector field \mathbf{F} was conservative? The answer is provided by Theorem 3.*

Theorem 3 *Conservative Fields and Potential Functions*

Suppose that the functions $P(x, y)$ and $Q(x, y)$ are continuous and have continuous first-order partial derivatives in the open rectangle $R = \{(x, y) | a < x < b, c < y < d\}$. Then the vector field $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j}$ is conservative in R —and hence has a potential function $f(x, y)$ defined on R —if and only if, at each point of R ,

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}. \quad (13)$$

Observe that the vector field \mathbf{F} in Eq. (12), where $P(x, y) = 6xy - y^3$ and $Q(x, y) = 4y + 3x^2 - 3xy^2$, satisfies the criterion in Eq. (13) because

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = 6x - 3y^2 = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}.$$

When this sufficient condition for the existence of a potential function is satisfied, the method illustrated in Example 4 is usually an easier way to find a potential function than the evaluation of the line integral in Eq. (9)—the method used in Example 3.

EXAMPLE 4 Given $P(x, y) = 6xy - y^3$ and $Q(x, y) = 4y + 3x^2 - 3xy^2$, note that P and Q satisfy the condition $\partial P / \partial y = \partial Q / \partial x$. Find a potential function $f(x, y)$ such that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 6xy - y^3 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 4y + 3x^2 - 3xy^2. \quad (14)$$

Solution Upon integrating the first of these equations with respect to x , we get

$$f(x, y) = 3x^2y - xy^3 + \xi(y), \quad (15)$$

where $\xi(y)$ is an “arbitrary function” of y alone; it acts as a “constant of integration” with respect to x , because its derivative with respect to x is zero. We next determine $\xi(y)$ by imposing the second condition in (14):

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 3x^2 - 3xy^2 + \xi'(y) = 4y + 3x^2 - 3xy^2.$$

It follows that $\xi'(y) = 4y$, so $\xi(y) = 2y^2 + C$. When we set $C = 0$ and substitute the result into Eq. (15), we get the same potential function

$$f(x, y) = 3x^2y - xy^3 + 2y^2$$

that we found by entirely different methods in Example 3. ■

*A proof of Theorem 3 can be found in Section 1.6 of C. H. Edwards, Jr. and David E. Penney, *Differential Equations: Computing and Modeling* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1996), pp. 60–61.

Conservative Force Fields and Conservation of Energy

Given a conservative force field \mathbf{F} , it is customary in physics to introduce a minus sign and write $\mathbf{F} = -\nabla V$. Then $V(x, y, z)$ is called the **potential energy** at the point (x, y, z) . With $f = -V$ in Eq. (11), we have

$$W = \int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = V(A) - V(B), \quad (16)$$

and this means that the work W done by \mathbf{F} in moving a particle from A to B is equal to the *decrease* in potential energy.

Here is the reason the expression *conservative field* is used. Suppose that a particle of mass m moves from A to B under the influence of the conservative force \mathbf{F} , with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$, $a \leq t \leq b$. Then Newton's law $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) = m\mathbf{r}''(t) = m\mathbf{v}'(t)$ with $d\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}'(t) dt = \mathbf{v}(t) dt$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} \int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} &= \int_a^b m\mathbf{v}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) dt \\ &= \int_a^b mD_t \left[\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{v}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) \right] dt = \left[\frac{1}{2} m[\mathbf{v}(t)]^2 \right]_a^b. \end{aligned}$$

Thus with the abbreviations v_A for $v(a)$ and v_B for $v(b)$, we see that

$$\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \frac{1}{2} m(v_B)^2 - \frac{1}{2} m(v_A)^2. \quad (17)$$

By equating the right-hand sides of Eqs. (16) and (17), we get the formula

$$\frac{1}{2} m(v_A)^2 + V(A) = \frac{1}{2} m(v_B)^2 + V(B). \quad (18)$$

This is the law of **conservation of mechanical energy** for a particle moving under the influence of a *conservative* force field: Its **total energy**—the sum of its kinetic energy $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ and its potential energy V —remains *constant*.

15.3 PROBLEMS

Determine whether the vector fields in Problems 1 through 16 are conservative. Find potential functions for those that are conservative (either by inspection or by using the method of Example 4).

1. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (2x + 3y)\mathbf{i} + (3x + 2y)\mathbf{j}$
2. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (4x - y)\mathbf{i} + (6y - x)\mathbf{j}$
3. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (3x^2 + 2y^2)\mathbf{i} + (4xy + 6y^2)\mathbf{j}$
4. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (2xy^2 + 3x^2)\mathbf{i} + (2x^2y + 4y^3)\mathbf{j}$
5. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (2y + \sin 2x)\mathbf{i} + (3x + \cos 3y)\mathbf{j}$
6. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (4x^2y - 5y^4)\mathbf{i} + (x^3 - 20xy^3)\mathbf{j}$
7. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \left(x^3 + \frac{y}{x} \right) \mathbf{i} + (y^2 + \ln x)\mathbf{j}$
8. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (1 + ye^{xy})\mathbf{i} + (2y + xe^{xy})\mathbf{j}$
9. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (\cos x + \ln y)\mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{x}{y} + e^y \right) \mathbf{j}$

10. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x + \arctan y)\mathbf{i} + \frac{x + y}{1 + y^2}\mathbf{j}$
11. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x \cos y + \sin y)\mathbf{i} + (y \cos x + \sin x)\mathbf{j}$
12. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = e^{x-y}[(xy + y)\mathbf{i} + (xy + x)\mathbf{j}]$
13. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (3x^2y^3 + y^4)\mathbf{i} + (3x^3y^2 + y^4 + 4xy^3)\mathbf{j}$
14. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (e^x \sin y + \tan y)\mathbf{i} + (e^x \cos y + x \sec^2 y)\mathbf{j}$
15. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \left(\frac{2x}{y} - \frac{3y^2}{x^4} \right) \mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{2y}{x^3} - \frac{x^2}{y^2} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{y}} \right) \mathbf{j}$
16. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \frac{2x^{5/2} - 3y^{5/3}}{2x^{5/2}y^{2/3}} \mathbf{i} + \frac{3y^{5/3} - 2x^{5/2}}{3x^{3/2}y^{5/3}} \mathbf{j}$

In Problems 17 through 20, apply the method of Example 3 to find a potential function for the indicated vector field.

17. The vector field of Problem 3
18. The vector field of Problem 4

19. The vector field of Problem 13
 20. The vector field of Problem 8

In Problems 21 through 26, show that the given line integral is independent of path in the entire xy -plane, and then calculate the value of the line integral.

21. $\int_{(0,0)}^{(1,2)} (y^2 + 2xy) dx + (x^2 + 2xy) dy$

22. $\int_{(0,0)}^{(1,1)} (2x - 3y) dx + (2y - 3x) dy$

23. $\int_{(0,0)}^{(1,-1)} 2xe^y dx + x^2e^y dy$

24. $\int_{(0,0)}^{(2,\pi)} \cos y dx - x \sin y dy$

25. $\int_{(\pi/2,\pi/2)}^{(\pi,\pi)} (\sin y + y \cos x) dx + (\sin x + x \cos y) dy$

26. $\int_{(0,0)}^{(1,-1)} (e^y + ye^x) dx + (e^x + xe^y) dy$

Find a potential function for each of the conservative vector fields in Problems 27 through 29.

27. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = yz\mathbf{i} + xz\mathbf{j} + xy\mathbf{k}$

28. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (2x - y - z)\mathbf{i} + (2y - x)\mathbf{j} + (2z - x)\mathbf{k}$

29. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (y \cos z - yze^x)\mathbf{i} + (x \cos z - ze^x)\mathbf{j} - (xy \sin z + ye^x)\mathbf{k}$

30. Let $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (-y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j})/(x^2 + y^2)$ for x and y not both zero. Calculate the values of

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$$

along both the upper and the lower halves of the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ from $(1, 0)$ to $(-1, 0)$. Is there a function $f = f(x, y)$ defined for x and y not both zero such that $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$? Why?

31. Show that if the force field $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j}$ is conservative, then $\partial P/\partial y = \partial Q/\partial x$. Show that the force field of Problem 30 satisfies the condition $\partial P/\partial y = \partial Q/\partial x$ but nevertheless is *not* conservative.
 32. Suppose that the force field $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$ is conservative. Show that

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial R}{\partial x}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial R}{\partial y}.$$

33. Apply Theorem 2 and the result of Problem 32 to show that

$$\int_C 2xy dx + x^2 dy + y^2 dz$$

is not independent of path.

34. Let $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = yz\mathbf{i} + (xz + y)\mathbf{j} + (xy + 1)\mathbf{k}$. Define the function f by

$$f(x, y, z) = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds,$$

where C is the straight line segment from $(0, 0, 0)$ to (x, y, z) . Determine f by evaluating this line integral, and then show that $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$.

35. Let $f(x, y) = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$, which if $x > 0$ equals the polar angle θ for the point (x, y) . (a) Show that

$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla f = \frac{-y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}}{x^2 + y^2}.$$

(b) Suppose that $A(x_1, y_1) = (r_1, \theta_1)$ and $B(x_2, y_2) = (r_2, \theta_2)$ are two points in the right half-plane $x > 0$ and that C is a smooth curve from A to B . Explain why it follows from the fundamental theorem for line integrals that $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \theta_2 - \theta_1$. (c) Suppose that C_1 is the upper half of the unit circle from $(1, 0)$ to $(-1, 0)$ and that C_2 is the lower half, oriented also from $(1, 0)$ to $(-1, 0)$. Show that

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \pi \quad \text{whereas} \quad \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = -\pi.$$

Why does this not contradict the fundamental theorem?

36. Let $\mathbf{F} = k\mathbf{r}/r^3$ be the inverse-square force field of Example 7 in Section 15.2. Show that the work done by \mathbf{F} in moving a particle from a point at distance r_1 from the origin to a point at distance r_2 from the origin is given by

$$W = k \left(\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} \right).$$

37. Suppose that an Earth satellite with mass $m = 10000$ kg travels in an elliptical orbit whose apogee (farthest point) and perigee (closest point) are, respectively, 11000 km and 9000 km from the center of the Earth. Calculate the work done against Earth's gravitational force field $\mathbf{F} = -GMmr/r^3$ in lifting the satellite from perigee to apogee. Use the values $M = 5.97 \times 10^{24}$ kg for the mass of Earth and $G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11}$ N·m²/kg² for the universal gravitational constant.

38. Calculate the work that must be done against the sun's gravitational force field in transporting the satellite of Problem 37 from Earth to Mars. Use the values $M = 1.99 \times 10^{30}$ kg for the mass of the sun, $r_E = 1.50 \times 10^8$ km for the distance from the sun to Earth, and $r_M = 2.29 \times 10^8$ km for the distance from the sun to Mars.

15.4 GREEN'S THEOREM

Green's theorem relates a line integral around a simple closed plane curve C to an ordinary double integral over the plane region R bounded by C . Suppose that the curve C is piecewise smooth—it consists of a finite number of parametric arcs with continuous nonzero velocity vectors. Then C has a unit tangent vector \mathbf{T} everywhere except possibly at a finite number of *corner points*. The **positive**, or **couterclockwise**, direction along C is the direction determined by a parametrization $\mathbf{r}(t)$ of C such that the region R remains on the *left* as the point $\mathbf{r}(t)$ traces the boundary curve C . That is, the vector obtained from the unit tangent vector \mathbf{T} by a counterclockwise rotation through 90° always points *into* the region R (Fig. 15.4.1). The symbol

$$\oint_C P \, dx + Q \, dy$$

denotes a line integral along or around C in this positive direction. A reversed arrow on the circle through the integral sign indicates a line integral around C in the opposite direction, which we call the **negative**, or the **clockwise**, direction.

The following result first appeared (in an equivalent form) in a booklet on the applications of mathematics to electricity and magnetism, published privately in 1828 by the self-taught English mathematical physicist George Green (1793–1841).

Green's Theorem

Let C be a piecewise smooth simple closed curve that bounds the region R in the plane. Suppose that the functions $P(x, y)$ and $Q(x, y)$ have continuous first-order partial derivatives on R . Then

$$\oint_C P \, dx + Q \, dy = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dA. \quad (1)$$

PROOF: First we give a proof for the case in which the region R is both horizontally simple and vertically simple. Then we indicate how to extend the result to more general regions.

Recall from Section 14.2 that if R is vertically simple, then it has a description of the form $g_1(x) \leq y \leq g_2(x)$, $a \leq x \leq b$. The boundary curve C is then the union of the four arcs C_1 , C_2 , C_3 , and C_4 of Fig. 15.4.2, positively oriented as indicated there. Hence

$$\oint_C P \, dx = \int_{C_1} P \, dx + \int_{C_2} P \, dx + \int_{C_3} P \, dx + \int_{C_4} P \, dx.$$

The integrals along both C_2 and C_4 are zero, because on those two curves $x(t)$ is constant, so that $dx = x'(t) dt = 0$. Thus we need compute only the integrals along C_1 and C_3 .

The point $(x, g_1(x))$ traces C_1 as x increases from a to b , whereas the point $(x, g_2(x))$ traces C_3 as x decreases from b to a . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C P \, dx &= \int_a^b P(x, g_1(x)) \, dx + \int_b^a P(x, g_2(x)) \, dx \\ &= - \int_a^b [P(x, g_2(x)) - P(x, g_1(x))] \, dx = - \int_a^b \int_{g_1(x)}^{g_2(x)} \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \, dy \, dx \end{aligned}$$

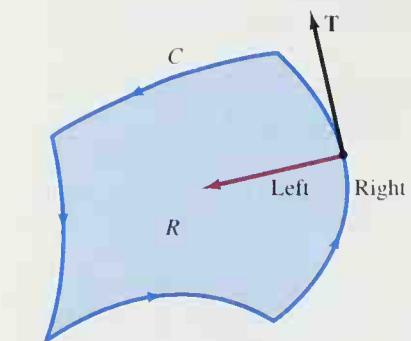


Fig. 15.4.1 Positive orientation of the curve C : The region R within C is to the *left* of the unit tangent vector \mathbf{T} .

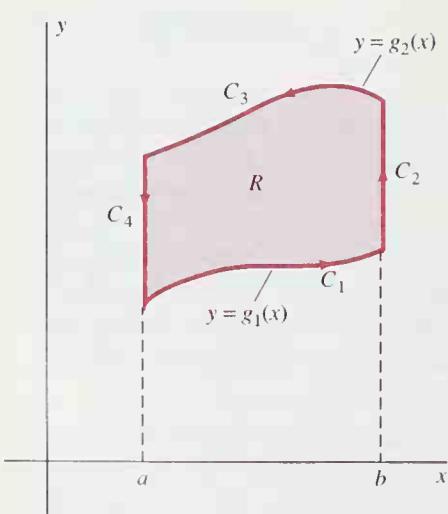


Fig. 15.4.2 The boundary curve C is the union of the four arcs C_1 , C_2 , C_3 , and C_4 .

by the fundamental theorem of calculus. Thus

$$\oint_C P \, dx = - \iint_R \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \, dA. \quad (2)$$

In Problem 36 we ask you to show in a similar way that

$$\oint_C Q \, dy = + \iint_R \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \, dA \quad (3)$$

if the region R is horizontally simple. We then obtain Eq. (1), the conclusion of Green's theorem, simply by adding Eqs. (2) and (3). ■

The complete proof of Green's theorem for more general regions is beyond the scope of an elementary text. But the typical region R that appears in practice can be divided into smaller regions R_1, R_2, \dots, R_k that are both vertically and horizontally simple. Green's theorem for the region R then follows from the fact that it holds for each of the regions R_1, R_2, \dots, R_k (see Problem 29).

For example, we can divide the horseshoe-shaped region R of Fig. 15.4.3 into the two regions R_1 and R_2 , both of which are horizontally simple and vertically simple. We also subdivide the boundary C of R accordingly and write $C_1 \cup D_1$ for the boundary of R_1 and $C_2 \cup D_2$ for the boundary of R_2 (Fig. 15.4.3). Applying Green's theorem separately to the regions R_1 and R_2 , we get

$$\oint_{C_1 \cup D_1} P \, dx + Q \, dy = \iint_{R_1} \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dA$$

and

$$\oint_{C_2 \cup D_2} P \, dx + Q \, dy = \iint_{R_2} \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dA.$$

When we add these two equations, the result is Eq. (1), Green's theorem for the region R , because the two line integrals along D_1 and D_2 cancel. This occurs because D_1 and D_2 represent the same curve with opposite orientations, so

$$\int_{D_2} P \, dx + Q \, dy = - \int_{D_1} P \, dx + Q \, dy$$

by Eq. (11) of Section 15.2. It therefore follows that

$$\int_{C_1 \cup D_1 \cup C_2 \cup D_2} P \, dx + Q \, dy = \oint_{C_1 \cup C_2} P \, dx + Q \, dy = \oint_C P \, dx + Q \, dy.$$

Similarly, we could establish Green's theorem for the region shown in Fig. 15.4.4 by dividing it into the four simple regions indicated there.

EXAMPLE 1 Use Green's theorem to evaluate the line integral

$$\oint_C (2y + \sqrt{9 + x^3}) \, dx + (5x + e^{\arctan y}) \, dy,$$

where C is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$.

Solution With $P(x, y) = 2y + \sqrt{9 + x^3}$ and $Q(x, y) = 5x + e^{\arctan y}$, we see that

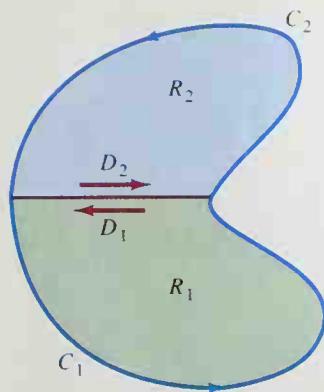


Fig. 15.4.3 Decomposing the region R into two horizontally and vertically simple regions by using a crosscut

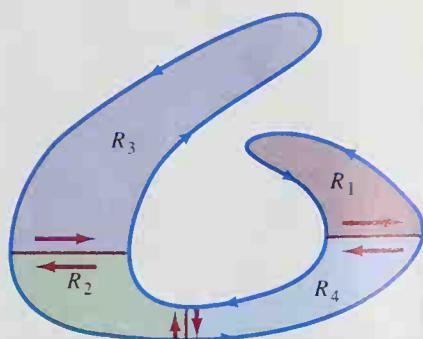


Fig. 15.4.4 Many important regions can be decomposed into simple regions by using one or more crosscuts.

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = 5 - 2 = 3.$$

Because C bounds R , a circular disk with area 4π , Green's theorem therefore implies that the given line integral is equal to

$$\iint_R 3 \, dA = 3 \cdot 4\pi = 12\pi.$$

REMARK Suppose that the force field \mathbf{F} is defined by

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (2y + \sqrt{9 + x^2})\mathbf{i} + (5x + e^{\arctan y})\mathbf{j} = P(x, y)\mathbf{i} + Q(x, y)\mathbf{j},$$

using the notation in Example 1. Then (as in Section 15.2) the work W done by the force field \mathbf{F} in moving a particle counterclockwise once around the circle C of radius 2 is given by

$$W = \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \oint_C P \, dx + Q \, dy = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) \, dA = \iint_R 3 \, dA = 12\pi$$

as in Example 1.

EXAMPLE 2 Evaluate the line integral

$$\oint_C 3xy \, dx + 2x^2 \, dy,$$

where C is the boundary of the region R shown in Fig. 15.4.5. It is bounded above by the line $y = x$ and below by the parabola $y = x^2 - 2x$.

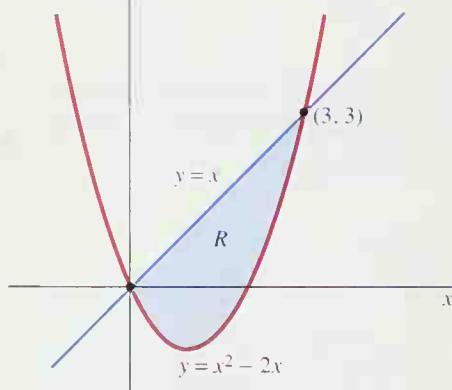


Fig. 15.4.5 The region of Example 2

Solution To evaluate the line integral directly, we would need to parametrize separately the line and the parabola. Instead, we apply Green's theorem with $P(x, y) = 3xy$ and $Q(x, y) = 2x^2$, so

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = 4x - 3x = x.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C 3xy \, dx + 2x^2 \, dy &= \iint_R x \, dA \\ &= \int_0^3 \int_{x^2-2x}^x x \, dy \, dx = \int_0^3 \left[xy \right]_{y=x^2-2x}^x \, dx \\ &= \int_0^3 (3x^2 - x^3) \, dx = \left[x^3 - \frac{1}{4}x^4 \right]_0^3 = \frac{27}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

In Examples 1 and 2 we found the double integral easier to evaluate directly than the line integral. Sometimes the situation is the reverse. The following consequence of Green's theorem illustrates the technique of evaluating a double integral $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$ by converting it into a line integral

$$\oint_C P \, dx + Q \, dy.$$

To do this, we must be able to find functions $P(x, y)$ and $Q(x, y)$ such that

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = f(x, y).$$

As in the proof of the following result, this is sometimes easy.

Corollary to Green's Theorem

The area A of the region R bounded by the piecewise smooth simple closed curve C is given by

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \oint_C -y \, dx + x \, dy = -\oint_C y \, dx = \oint_C x \, dy. \quad (4)$$

PROOF: With $P(x, y) = -y$ and $Q(x, y) \equiv 0$, Green's theorem gives

$$-\oint_C y \, dx = \iint_R 1 \, dA = A.$$

Similarly, with $P(x, y) \equiv 0$ and $Q(x, y) = x$, we obtain

$$\oint_C x \, dy = \iint_R 1 \, dA = A.$$

The third result may be obtained by averaging the left- and right-hand sides in the last two equations. Alternatively, with $P(x, y) = -y/2$ and $Q(x, y) = x/2$, Green's theorem gives

$$\frac{1}{2} \oint_C -y \, dx + x \, dy = \iint_R \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\right) \, dA = A. \quad \blacksquare$$

EXAMPLE 3 Apply the corollary to Green's theorem to find the area A of the region R bounded by the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$.

Solution With the parametrization $x = a \cos t$, $y = b \sin t$, $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$, Eq. (4) gives

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \oint_R x \, dy = \int_0^{2\pi} (a \cos t)(b \cos t \, dt) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}ab \int_0^{2\pi} (1 + \cos 2t) \, dt = \pi ab. \end{aligned}$$

By using the technique of subdividing a region into simpler ones, we can extend Green's theorem to regions with boundaries that consist of two or more simple closed curves. For example, consider the annular region R of Fig. 15.4.6, with boundary C consisting of the two simple closed curves C_1 and C_2 . The positive direction along C —the direction for which the region R always lies on the left—is counterclockwise on the outer curve C_1 but clockwise on the inner curve C_2 .

We divide R into two regions R_1 and R_2 by using two crosscuts, as shown in Fig. 15.4.7. Applying Green's theorem to each of these subregions, we get

$$\iint_R (Q_x - P_y) \, dA = \iint_{R_1} (Q_x - P_y) \, dA + \iint_{R_2} (Q_x - P_y) \, dA$$

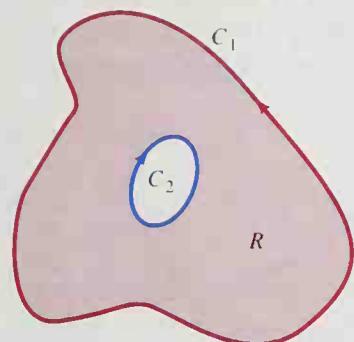


Fig. 15.4.6 An annular region—the boundary consists of two simple closed curves, one within the other.

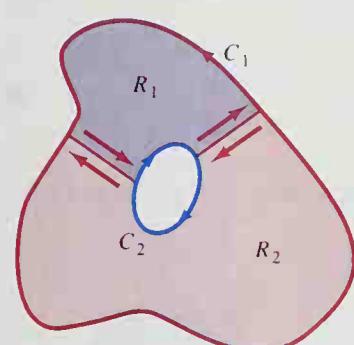


Fig. 15.4.7 Two crosscuts convert the annular region into the union of two ordinary regions R_1 and R_2 , each bounded by a single closed curve.

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \oint_{C_1} (P dx + Q dy) + \oint_{C_2} (P dx + Q dy) \\
 &= \oint_C P dx + Q dy.
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus we obtain Green's theorem for the given region R . What makes this proof work is that the opposite line integrals along the two crosscuts cancel each other. You may, of course, use any finite number of crosscuts.

EXAMPLE 4 Suppose that C is a smooth simple closed curve that encloses the origin $(0, 0)$. Show that

$$\oint_C \frac{-y dx + x dy}{x^2 + y^2} = 2\pi,$$

and also show that this integral is zero if C does *not* enclose the origin.

Solution With $P(x, y) = -y/(x^2 + y^2)$ and $Q(x, y) = x/(x^2 + y^2)$, a brief computation gives $\partial Q/\partial x - \partial P/\partial y \equiv 0$ when x and y are not both zero. If the region R bounded by C does not contain the origin, then P and Q and their derivatives are continuous on R . Hence Green's theorem implies that the integral in question is zero.

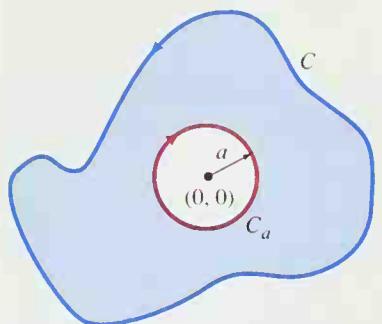
If C does enclose the origin, then we enclose the origin in a small circle C_a of radius a so small that C_a lies wholly within C (Fig. 15.4.8). We parametrize this circle by $x = a \cos t$, $y = a \sin t$, $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$. Then Green's theorem, applied to the region R between C and C_a , gives

$$\oint_C \frac{-y dx + x dy}{x^2 + y^2} + \oint_{C_a} \frac{-y dx + x dy}{x^2 + y^2} = \iint_R 0 dA = 0.$$

IMPORTANT Note the *reversed arrow* in the second line integral, required because the parametrization we chose is the clockwise (*negative*) orientation for C_a . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 \oint_C \frac{-y dx + x dy}{x^2 + y^2} &= \oint_{C_a} \frac{-y dx + x dy}{x^2 + y^2} \\
 &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{(-a \sin t)(-a \sin t dt) + (a \cos t)(a \cos t dt)}{(a \cos t)^2 + (a \sin t)^2} \\
 &= \int_0^{2\pi} 1 dt = 2\pi.
 \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 15.4.8 Use the small circle C_a if C encloses the origin (Example 4).



REMARK The result of Example 4 can be interpreted in terms of the polar-coordinate angle $\theta = \arctan(y/x)$. Because

$$d\theta = \frac{-y dx + x dy}{x^2 + y^2},$$

the line integral of Example 4 measures the net change in θ as we go around the curve C once in a counterclockwise direction. This net change is 2π if C encloses the origin and is zero otherwise.

The Divergence and Flux of a Vector Field

Now let us consider the steady flow of a thin layer of fluid in the plane (perhaps like a sheet of water spreading across a floor). Let $\mathbf{v}(x, y)$ be its velocity vector field and $\delta(x, y)$ be the density of the fluid at the point (x, y) . The term *steady flow* means that \mathbf{v} and δ depend only on x and y , *not* on time t . We want to compute the rate at which the fluid flows out of the region R bounded by a simple closed curve C (Fig. 15.4.9). We seek the net rate of outflow—the actual outflow minus the inflow (Fig. 15.4.10).

Let Δs_i be a short segment of the curve C , and let (x_i^*, y_i^*) be an endpoint of Δs_i . Then the area of the portion of the fluid that flows out of R across Δs_i per unit time is approximately the area of the parallelogram in Fig. 15.4.9. This is the parallelogram spanned by the segment Δs_i and the vector $\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{v}(x_i^*, y_i^*)$. Suppose that \mathbf{n}_i is the unit normal vector to C at the point (x_i^*, y_i^*) , the normal that points *out* of R . Then the area of this parallelogram is

$$(|\mathbf{v}_i| \cos \theta) \Delta s_i = \mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{n}_i \Delta s_i,$$

where θ is the angle between \mathbf{n}_i and \mathbf{v}_i .

We multiply this area by the density $\delta_i = \delta(x_i^*, y_i^*)$ and then add these terms over those values of i that correspond to a subdivision of the entire curve C . This gives the (net) total mass of fluid leaving R per unit of time; it is approximately

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i \mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{n}_i \Delta s_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{F}_i \cdot \mathbf{n}_i \Delta s_i,$$

where $\mathbf{F} = \delta \mathbf{v}$. The line integral around C that this sum approximates is called the **flux of the vector field \mathbf{F} across the curve C** . Thus the flux ϕ of \mathbf{F} across C is given by

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds, \quad (5)$$

where \mathbf{n} is the *outer* unit normal vector to C (Fig. 15.4.11).

In the present case of fluid flow with velocity vector \mathbf{v} , the flux ϕ of $\mathbf{F} = \delta \mathbf{v}$ is the rate at which the fluid is flowing out of R across the boundary curve C , in units of mass per unit of time. But the same terminology is used for an arbitrary vector field $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$. For example, we may speak of the flux of an electric or gravitational field across a curve C .

From Fig. 15.4.11 we see that the outer unit normal vector \mathbf{n} is equal to $\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{k}$. The unit tangent vector \mathbf{T} to the curve C is

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{1}{v} \left(\mathbf{i} \frac{dx}{dt} + \mathbf{j} \frac{dy}{dt} \right) = \mathbf{i} \frac{dx}{ds} + \mathbf{j} \frac{dy}{ds}$$

because $v = ds/dt$. Hence

$$\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{k} = \left(\mathbf{i} \frac{dx}{ds} + \mathbf{j} \frac{dy}{ds} \right) \times \mathbf{k}.$$

But $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{k} = -\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{i}$. Thus we find that

$$\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{i} \frac{dy}{ds} - \mathbf{j} \frac{dx}{ds}. \quad (6)$$

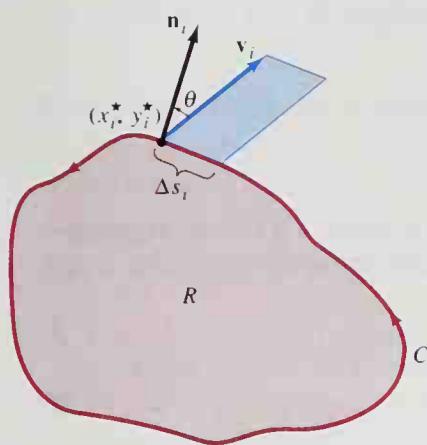


Fig. 15.4.9 The area of the parallelogram approximates the fluid flow across Δs_i in unit time.

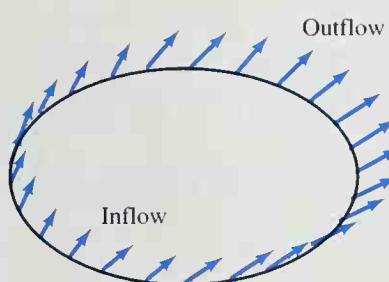


Fig. 15.4.10 The flux ϕ of the vector field \mathbf{F} across the curve C is the net outflow minus the net inflow.

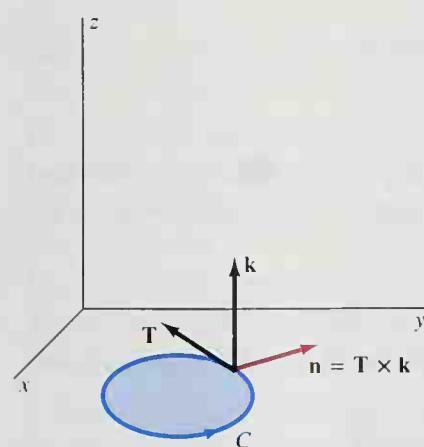


Fig. 15.4.11 Computing the outer unit normal vector \mathbf{n} from the unit tangent vector \mathbf{T} .

Substitution of the expression in Eq. (6) into the flux integral of Eq. (5) gives

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds = \oint_C (M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}) \cdot \left(\mathbf{i} \frac{dy}{dx} - \mathbf{j} \frac{dx}{ds} \right) ds = \oint_C -N dx + M dy.$$

Applying Green's theorem to the last line integral with $P = -N$ and $Q = M$, we get

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y} \right) dA \quad (7)$$

for the flux of $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$ across C .

The scalar function $\partial M/\partial x + \partial N/\partial y$ that appears in Eq. (7) is the **divergence** of the two-dimensional vector field $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$ as defined in Section 15.1 and denoted by

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y}. \quad (8)$$

When we substitute Eq. (8) into Eq. (7), we obtain a **vector form of Green's theorem**:

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds = \iint_R \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dA, \quad (9)$$

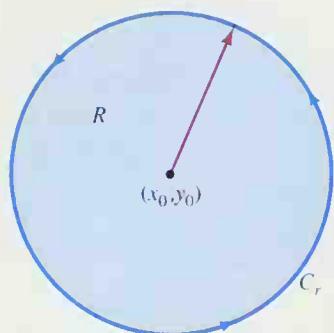


Fig. 15.4.12 The circular disk R of radius r centered at (x_0, y_0)

with the understanding that \mathbf{n} is the *outer* unit normal to C . Thus the flux of a vector field across a simple closed curve C is equal to the double integral of its divergence over the region R bounded by C .

If the region R is bounded by a circle C_r of radius r centered at the point (x_0, y_0) , then

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds = \iint_R \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dA = \pi r^2 \cdot \{\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\}(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$$

for some point (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) in R (Fig. 15.4.12); this is a consequence of the average value property of double integrals (see Problem 50 of Section 14.2). We divide by πr^2 and then let r approach zero. Thus we find that

$$\{\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}\}(x_0, y_0) = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \oint_{C_r} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds \quad (10)$$

because $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)$ as $r \rightarrow 0$.

In the case of our original fluid flow, with $\mathbf{F} = \delta \mathbf{v}$, Eq. (10) implies that the value of $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ at (x_0, y_0) is a measure of the rate at which the fluid is “diverging away” from the point (x_0, y_0) .

EXAMPLE 5 The vector field $\mathbf{F} = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$ is the velocity field of a steady-state counterclockwise rotation around the origin. Show that the flux of \mathbf{F} across any simple closed curve C is zero (Fig. 15.4.13).

Solution This follows immediately from Eq. (9) because

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(-y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(x) = 0.$$

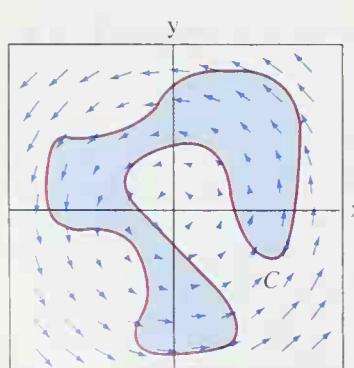


Fig. 15.4.13 The flux $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds$ of the vector field $\mathbf{F} = -y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$ across the curve C is zero.

15.4 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 12, apply Green's theorem to evaluate the integral

$$\oint_C P \, dx + Q \, dy$$

around the specified closed curve C .

1. $P(x, y) = x + y^2, Q(x, y) = y + x^2$; C is the square with vertices $(\pm 1, \pm 1)$.
2. $P(x, y) = x^2 + y^2, Q(x, y) = -2xy$; C is the boundary of the triangle bounded by the lines $x = 0, y = 0$, and $x + y = 1$.
3. $P(x, y) = y + e^x, Q(x, y) = 2x^2 + \cos y$; C is the boundary of the triangle with vertices $(0, 0), (1, 1)$, and $(2, 0)$.
4. $P(x, y) = x^2 - y^2, Q(x, y) = xy$; C is the boundary of the region bounded by the line $y = x$ and the parabola $y = x^2$.
5. $P(x, y) = -y^2 + \exp(e^y), Q(x, y) = \arctan y$; C is the boundary of the region between the parabolas $y = x^2$ and $x = y^2$.
6. $P(x, y) = y^2, Q(x, y) = 2x - 3y$; C is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 9$.
7. $P(x, y) = x - y, Q(x, y) = y$; C is the boundary of the region between the x -axis and the graph of $y = \sin x$ for $0 \leq x \leq \pi$.
8. $P(x, y) = e^x \sin y, Q(x, y) = e^x \cos y$; C is the right-hand loop of the graph of the polar equation $r^2 = 4 \cos \theta$.
9. $P(x, y) = y^2, Q(x, y) = xy$; C is the ellipse with equation $x^2/9 + y^2/4 = 1$.
10. $P(x, y) = y/(1 + x^2), Q(x, y) = \arctan x$; C is the oval with equation $x^4 + y^4 = 1$.
11. $P(x, y) = xy, Q(x, y) = x^2$; C is the first-quadrant loop of the graph of the polar equation $r = \sin 2\theta$.
12. $P(x, y) = x^2, Q(x, y) = -y^2$; C is the cardioid with polar equation $r = 1 + \cos \theta$.

In Problems 13 through 16, use the corollary to Green's theorem to find the area of the indicated region.

13. The circle bounded by $x = a \cos t, y = a \sin t, 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$
14. The region between the x -axis and one arch of the cycloid with parametric equations $x = a(t - \sin t), y = a(1 - \cos t)$
15. The region bounded by the astroid with parametric equations $x = \cos^3 t, y = \sin^3 t, 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$
16. The region between the graphs of $y = x^2$ and $y = x^3$

In Problems 17 through 20, use Green's theorem to calculate the work

$$W = \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds$$

done by the given force field \mathbf{F} in moving a particle counter-clockwise once around the indicated curve C .

17. $\mathbf{F} = -2y\mathbf{i} + 3x\mathbf{j}$ and C is the ellipse $x^2/9 + y^2/4 = 1$.
18. $\mathbf{F} = (y^2 - x^2)\mathbf{i} + 2xy\mathbf{j}$ and C is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 9$.
19. $\mathbf{F} = 5x^2y^3\mathbf{i} + 7x^3y^2\mathbf{j}$ and C is the triangle with vertices $(0, 0), (3, 0)$, and $(0, 6)$.
20. $\mathbf{F} = xy^2\mathbf{i} + 3x^2y\mathbf{j}$ and C is the boundary of the semicircular disk bounded by the x -axis and the circular arc $y = \sqrt{4 - x^2} \geq 0$.

In Problems 21 through 24, use Green's theorem in the vector form of Eq. (9) to calculate the outward flux

$$\phi = \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds$$

of the given vector field across the indicated closed curve C .

21. $\mathbf{F} = 2x\mathbf{i} + 3y\mathbf{j}$ and C is the ellipse of Problem 17.
22. $\mathbf{F} = x^3\mathbf{i} + y^3\mathbf{j}$ and C is the circle of Problem 18.
23. $\mathbf{F} = (3x + \sqrt{1 + y^2})\mathbf{i} + (2y - \sqrt[3]{1 + x^4})\mathbf{j}$ and C is the triangle of Problem 19.
24. $\mathbf{F} = (3xy^2 + 4x)\mathbf{i} + (3x^2y - 4y)\mathbf{j}$ and C is the closed curve of Problem 20.
25. Suppose that f is a twice-differentiable scalar function of x and y . Show that

$$\nabla^2 f = \operatorname{div}(\nabla f) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}.$$

26. Show that $f(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + y^2)$ satisfies Laplace's equation $\nabla^2 f = 0$ except at the point $(0, 0)$.
27. Suppose that f and g are twice-differentiable functions. Show that

$$\nabla^2(fg) = f \nabla^2 g + g \nabla^2 f + 2 \nabla f \cdot \nabla g.$$

28. Suppose that the function $f(x, y)$ is twice continuously differentiable in the region R bounded by the piecewise smooth curve C . Prove that

$$\oint_C \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \, dy - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \, dx = \iint_R \nabla^2 f \, dx \, dy.$$

29. Let R be the plane region with area A enclosed by the piecewise smooth simple closed curve C . Use Green's theorem to show that the coordinates of the centroid of R are

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{2A} \oint_C x^2 \, dy, \quad \bar{y} = -\frac{1}{2A} \oint_C y^2 \, dx.$$

30. Use the result of Problem 29 to find the centroid of: (a) a semicircular region of radius a ; (b) a quarter-circular region of radius a .

31. Suppose that a lamina shaped like the region of Problem 29 has constant density δ . Show that its moments of inertia around the coordinate axes are

$$I_x = -\frac{\delta}{3} \oint_C y^3 dx, \quad I_y = \frac{\delta}{3} \oint_C x^3 dy.$$

32. Use the result of Problem 31 to show that the polar moment of inertia $I_0 = I_x + I_y$ of a circular lamina of radius a , centered at the origin and of constant density δ , is $\frac{1}{2}Ma^2$, where M is the mass of the lamina.
33. The loop of the folium of Descartes (with equation $x^3 + y^3 = 3xy$) appears in Fig. 15.4.14. Apply the corollary to Green's theorem to find the area of this loop. (Suggestion: Set $y = tx$ to discover a parametrization of the loop. To obtain the area of the loop, use values of t that lie in the interval $[0, 1]$. This gives the half of the loop that lies below the line $y = x$.)

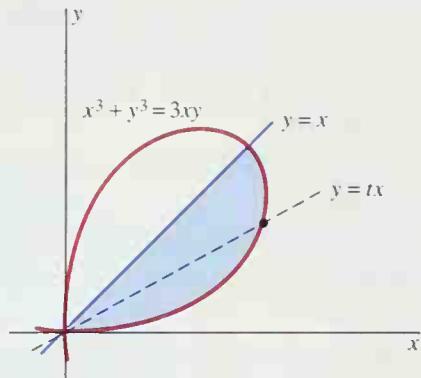


Fig. 15.4.14 The loop of Problem 33

34. Find the area bounded by one loop of the curve $x = \sin 2t, y = \sin t$.
35. Let f and g be functions with continuous second-order partial derivatives in the region R bounded by the piecewise smooth simple closed curve C . Apply Green's theorem in vector form to show that

$$\oint_C f \nabla g \cdot \mathbf{n} ds = \iint_R [f \nabla \cdot \nabla g + \nabla f \cdot \nabla g] dA.$$

It was this formula rather than Green's theorem itself that appeared in Green's book of 1828.

36. Complete the proof of the simple case of Green's theorem by showing directly that

$$\oint_C Q dy = \iint_R \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} dA$$

if the region R is horizontally simple.

37. Suppose that the bounded plane region R is divided into the nonoverlapping subregions R_1, R_2, \dots, R_k . If Green's theorem, Eq. (1), holds for each of these subregions, explain why it follows that Green's theorem holds for R . State carefully any assumptions that you need to make.
38. (a) If C is the line segment from (x_1, y_1) to (x_2, y_2) , show by direct evaluation of the line integral that

$$\int_C x dy - y dx = x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1.$$

(b) Let $(0, 0), (x_1, y_1)$, and (x_2, y_2) be the vertices of a triangle taken in counterclockwise order. Deduce from part (a) and Green's theorem that the area of this triangle is $A = \frac{1}{2}(x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1)$.

39. Use the result of Problem 38 to find the area of (a) the equilateral triangle with vertices $(1, 0), (\cos \frac{2}{3}\pi, \sin \frac{2}{3}\pi)$, and $(\cos \frac{4}{3}\pi, \sin \frac{4}{3}\pi)$; (b) the regular pentagon with vertices $(1, 0), (\cos \frac{2}{5}\pi, \sin \frac{2}{5}\pi), (\cos \frac{4}{5}\pi, \sin \frac{4}{5}\pi), (\cos \frac{6}{5}\pi, \sin \frac{6}{5}\pi)$, and $(\cos \frac{8}{5}\pi, \sin \frac{8}{5}\pi)$.
40. Let T be a one-to-one transformation from the region S (with boundary curve J) in the uv -plane to the region R (with boundary curve C) in the xy -plane. Then the change-of-variables formula in Section 14.9 implies that the area A of the region R is given by

$$\iint_R dx dy = \iint_S \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| du dv. \quad (11)$$

Establish this formula by carrying out the following steps.

- (a) Use Eq. (4) to convert the left-hand side in Eq. (11) to a line integral around C . (b) Use the coordinate functions $x(u, v)$ and $y(u, v)$ of the transformation T to convert the line integral in part (a) to a line integral around J . (c) Apply Green's theorem to the line integral in part (b).

15.4 PROJECT: GREEN'S THEOREM AND LOOP AREAS

Figure 15.4.15 shows the first-quadrant loop of the generalized folium of Descartes that is defined implicitly by the equation

$$x^{2n+1} + y^{2n+1} = (2n+1)x^n y^n \quad (1)$$

(where n is a positive integer). Your task here is to calculate the area A_n of the region bounded by this loop. Begin by substituting $y = tx$ to discover the parametrization

$$x = \frac{(2n+1)t^n}{t^{2n+1} + 1}, \quad y = \frac{(2n+1)t^{n+1}}{t^{2n+1} + 1} \quad (0 \leq t < \infty) \quad (2)$$

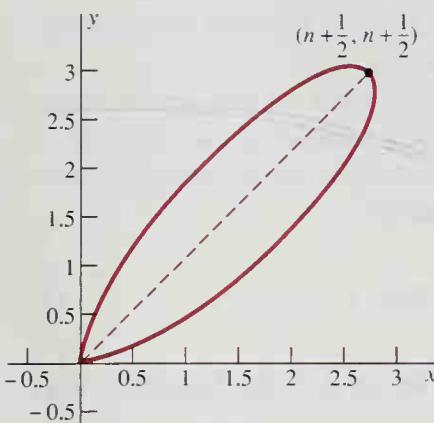


Fig. 15.4.15 The first-quadrant loop of the generalized folium

of the loop. A computer algebra system may be useful in showing that with this parametrization the area formula in Eq. (4) of this section yields

$$A_n = (2n+1)^2 \int_0^\infty \left[\frac{(2n+1)t^{2n}}{(t^{2n+1}+1)^3} - \frac{nt^{2n}}{(t^{2n+1}+1)^2} \right] dt. \quad (3)$$

You can now calculate A_n for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$; you should find that $A_n = n + \frac{1}{2}$. (Do you need a computer algebra system for this?) But the improper integral in Eq. (3) should give you pause. Check your result by calculating (and then doubling) the area of the lower half of the loop indicated in Fig. 15.4.15—this involves only the integral from $t = 0$ to $t = 1$ (Why?).

15.5 SURFACE INTEGRALS

A *surface integral* is to surfaces in space what a line (or “curve”) integral is to curves in the plane. Consider a curved, thin metal sheet shaped like the surface S . Suppose that this sheet has variable density, given at the point (x, y, z) by the known continuous function $f(x, y, z)$ in units such as grams per square centimeter of surface. We want to define the surface integral

$$\iint_S f(x, y, z) dS$$

in such a way that—upon evaluation—it gives the total mass of the thin metal sheet. In case $f(x, y, z) \equiv 1$, the numerical value of the integral should also equal the surface area of S .

As in Section 14.8, we assume that S is a parametric surface described by the function or transformation

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v) \rangle = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$$

for (u, v) in a region D in the uv -plane. We suppose throughout that the component functions of \mathbf{r} have continuous partial derivatives and also that the vectors $\mathbf{r}_u = \partial \mathbf{r} / \partial u$ and $\mathbf{r}_v = \partial \mathbf{r} / \partial v$ are nonzero and nonparallel at each interior point of D .

Recall how we computed the surface area A of S in Section 14.8. We began with an inner partition of D consisting of n rectangles R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n , each Δu by Δv in size. The images under \mathbf{r} of the rectangles are curvilinear figures filling most of the surface S , and these pieces of S are themselves approximated by parallelograms P_i of the sort shown in Fig. 15.5.1. This gave us the approximation

$$A \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta S_i = \sum_{i=1}^n |\mathbf{N}(u_i, v_i)| \Delta u \Delta v, \quad (1)$$

where the vector

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} \quad (2)$$

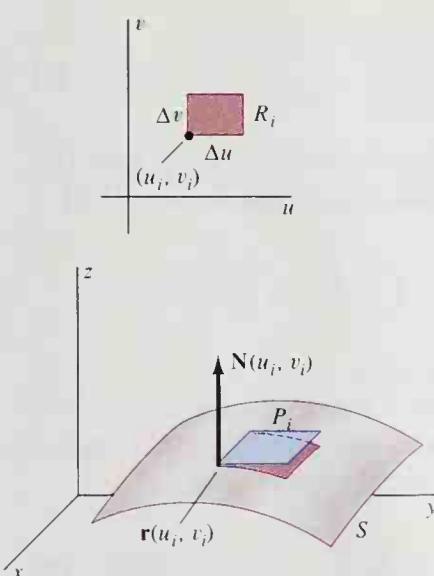


Fig. 15.5.1 Approximating surface area with parallelograms

is normal to S at the point $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$ and $\Delta S_i = |\mathbf{N}(u_i, v_i)| \Delta u \Delta v$ is the area of the parallelogram P_i that is tangent to the surface S at the point $\mathbf{r}(u_i, v_i)$.

If the surface S also has a density function $f(x, y, z)$, then we can approximate the total mass m of the surface by first multiplying each parallelogram area ΔS_i in Eq. (1) by the density $f(\mathbf{r}(u_i, v_i))$ at $\mathbf{r}(u_i, v_i)$ and then summing these estimates over all such parallelograms. Thus we obtain the approximation

$$m \approx \sum_{i=1}^n f(\mathbf{r}(u_i, v_i)) \Delta S_i = \sum_{i=1}^n f(\mathbf{r}(u_i, v_i)) |\mathbf{N}(u_i, v_i)| \Delta u \Delta v. \quad (3)$$

This approximation is a Riemann sum for the **surface integral of the function f over the surface S** , denoted by

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S f(x, y, z) dS &= \iint_D f(\mathbf{r}(u, v)) |\mathbf{N}(u, v)| du dv \\ &= \iint_D f(\mathbf{r}(u, v)) \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} \right| du dv. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

To evaluate the surface integral $\iint_S f(x, y, z) dS$, we simply use the parametrization \mathbf{r} to express the variables x , y , and z in terms of u and v and formally replace the **surface area element** dS with

$$dS = |\mathbf{N}(u, v)| du dv = \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} \right| du dv. \quad (5)$$

Expansion of the cross product determinant in Eq. (2) gives

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(u, v)} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(u, v)} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \mathbf{k} \quad (6)$$

in the Jacobian notation of Section 14.9, so the surface integral in Eq. (4) takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S f(x, y, z) dS \\ = \iint_D f(x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v)) \sqrt{\left[\frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(u, v)} \right]^2 + \left[\frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(u, v)} \right]^2 + \left[\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right]^2} du dv. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

This formula converts the surface integral into an *ordinary double integral* over the region D in the uv -plane and is analogous to the formula [Eq. (4) of Section 15.2]

$$\int_C f(x, y, z) ds = \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t), z(t)) \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt} \right)^2} dt$$

that converts a line integral into an ordinary single integral.

In the important special case of a surface S described as a graph $z = h(x, y)$ of a function h defined on a region D in the xy -plane, we may use x and y (rather than u and v) as the parameters. The surface area element then takes the form

$$dS = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial y} \right)^2} dx dy \quad (8)$$

(as in Eq. (9) of Section 14.8). The surface integral of f over S is then given by

$$\iint_S f(x, y, z) dS = \iint_D f(x, y, h(x, y)) \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}\right)^2} dx dy. \quad (9)$$

Centroids and moments of inertia for surfaces are computed in much the same way as for curves (see Section 15.2, using surface integrals in place of line integrals). For example, suppose that the surface S has density $\delta(x, y, z)$ at the point (x, y, z) and total mass m . Then the z -component \bar{z} of its centroid and its moment of inertia I_z around the z -axis are given by

$$\bar{z} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_S z \delta(x, y, z) dS \quad \text{and} \quad I_z = \iint_S (x^2 + y^2) \delta(x, y, z) dS.$$

EXAMPLE 1 Find the centroid of the unit-density hemispherical surface

$$z = \sqrt{a^2 - x^2 - y^2}, \quad x^2 + y^2 \leq a^2.$$

Solution By symmetry, $\bar{x} = 0 = \bar{y}$. A simple computation gives $\partial z / \partial x = -x/z$ and $\partial z / \partial y = -y/z$, so Eq. (8) takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} dS &= \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)^2} dx dy = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{x}{z}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{z}\right)^2} dx dy \\ &= \frac{1}{z} \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} dx dy = \frac{a}{z} dx dy. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\bar{z} = \frac{1}{2\pi a^2} \iint_D z \cdot \frac{a}{z} dx dy = \frac{1}{2\pi a} \iint_D 1 dx dy = \frac{a}{2}.$$

Note in the final step that D is a circular disk of radius a in the xy -plane. This simplifies the computation of the last integral. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the spherical surface $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$, assuming that it has constant density $\delta = k$.

Solution The spherical surface of radius a is most easily parametrized in spherical coordinates:

$$x = a \sin \phi \cos \theta, \quad y = a \sin \phi \sin \theta, \quad z = a \cos \phi$$

for $0 \leq \phi \leq \pi$ and $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$. Hence the sphere S is defined parametrically by

$$\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta) = \mathbf{i}a \sin \phi \cos \theta + \mathbf{j}a \sin \phi \sin \theta + \mathbf{k}a \cos \phi.$$

As in Problem 18 of Section 14.8, the surface area element is then

$$dS = \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \phi} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial \theta} \right| = a^2 \sin \phi d\phi d\theta.$$

Because

$$x^2 + y^2 = a^2 \sin^2 \phi \cos^2 \theta + a^2 \sin^2 \phi \sin^2 \theta = a^2 \sin^2 \phi,$$

it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 I_z &= \iint_S (x^2 + y^2) \delta \, dS = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi k(a^2 \sin^2 \phi) a^2 \sin \phi \, d\phi \, d\theta \\
 &= 2\pi \cdot ka^4 \cdot 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^3 \phi \, d\phi = 4\pi ka^4 \cdot \frac{2}{3} \quad (\text{by integral formula 113}) \\
 &= \frac{2}{3} \cdot 4\pi ka^2 \cdot a^2 = \frac{2}{3} ma^2,
 \end{aligned}$$

using in the final step the fact that the mass of the spherical surface with density k is $m = 4\pi ka^2$. Is this result both plausible and dimensionally correct? ■

Surface Integrals with Respect to Coordinate Elements

The surface integral $\iint_S f(x, y, z) \, dS$ is an integral **with respect to surface area** and thus is analogous to the line integral $\int_C f(x, y) \, ds$ with respect to arc length. A second type of surface integral of the form

$$\iint_S P \, dy \, dz + Q \, dz \, dx + R \, dx \, dy$$

is analogous to the line integral $\int_C P \, dx + Q \, dy$ with respect to coordinate variables.

The definition of the integral $\iint_S R \, dx \, dy$, for instance—with $R(x, y, z)$ a scalar function (instead of f) and $dx \, dy$ an area element in the xy -plane (instead of the area element dS on the surface S)—is motivated by replacing the area element $\Delta S_i = |\mathbf{N}(u_i, v_i)| \Delta u \Delta v$ in the Riemann sum in Eq. (3) with the area $\Delta S_i \cos \gamma$ of its projection into the xy -plane (Fig. 15.5.2). The result is the Riemann sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^n R(\mathbf{r}(u_i, v_i)) \cos \gamma |\mathbf{N}(u_i, v_i)| \Delta u \Delta v \approx \iint_D R(\mathbf{r}(u, v)) \cos \gamma |\mathbf{N}(u, v)| \, du \, dv. \quad (10)$$

To calculate the factor $\cos \gamma$ in Eq. (10), we consider the unit normal vector

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{\mathbf{N}}{|\mathbf{N}|} = \mathbf{i} \cos \alpha + \mathbf{j} \cos \beta + \mathbf{k} \cos \gamma \quad (11)$$

with “direction cosines” $\cos \alpha$, $\cos \beta$, and $\cos \gamma$. Using Eq. (6) we find that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \cos \alpha &= \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{i} = \frac{\mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{i}}{|\mathbf{N}|} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{N}|} \frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(u, v)} \quad \text{and, similarly,} \\
 \cos \beta &= \frac{1}{|\mathbf{N}|} \frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(u, v)}, \quad \cos \gamma = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{N}|} \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)}. \quad (12)
 \end{aligned}$$

Substitution for $\cos \gamma$ in (10) now yields the *definition*

$$\begin{aligned}
 \iint_S R(x, y, z) \, dx \, dy &= \iint_S R(x, y, z) \cos \gamma \, dS \\
 &= \iint_D R(\mathbf{r}(u, v)) \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \, du \, dv. \quad (13)
 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we *define*

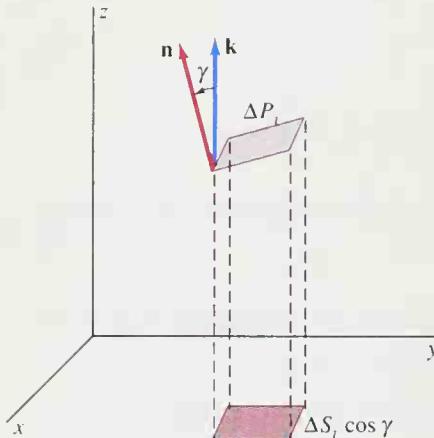


Fig. 15.5.2 Finding the area of the projected parallelogram

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S P(x, y, z) dy dz &= \iint_S P(x, y, z) \cos \alpha dS \\ &= \iint_D P(\mathbf{r}(u, v)) \frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(u, v)} du dv\end{aligned}\quad (14)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S Q(x, y, z) dz dx &= \iint_S Q(x, y, z) \cos \beta dS \\ &= \iint_D Q(\mathbf{r}(u, v)) \frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(u, v)} du dv.\end{aligned}\quad (15)$$

Note The symbols z and x appear in reverse of alphabetical order in Eq. (15). It is important to write them in the correct order because

$$\frac{\partial(x, z)}{\partial(u, v)} = \begin{vmatrix} x_u & x_v \\ z_u & z_v \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} z_u & z_v \\ x_u & x_v \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(u, v)}.$$

This implies that

$$\iint_S f(x, y, z) dx dz = - \iint_S f(x, y, z) dz dx.$$

In an ordinary *double integral*, the order in which the differentials are written simply indicates the order of integration. But in a *surface integral*, it instead indicates the order of appearance of the corresponding variables in the Jacobians in Eqs. (13) through (15).

The three integrals in Eqs. (13) through (15) typically occur together, and the general **surface integral with respect to coordinate area elements** is the sum

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S P dy dz + Q dz dx + R dx dy \\ &= \iint_S (P \cos \alpha + Q \cos \beta + R \cos \gamma) dS\end{aligned}\quad (16)$$

$$= \iint_D \left(P \frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(u, v)} + Q \frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(u, v)} + R \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right) du dv. \quad (17)$$

Equation (17) gives the evaluation procedure for the surface integral in Eq. (16): Substitute for x, y, z , and their derivatives in terms of u and v , then integrate over the appropriate region D in the uv -plane.

The relation between surface integrals with respect to surface area and with respect to coordinate areas is somewhat analogous to the formula

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_C P dx + Q dy + R dz$$

relating line integrals with respect to arc length and with respect to coordinates. Given the vector field $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$, Eq. (11) implies that

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = P \cos \alpha + Q \cos \beta + R \cos \gamma, \quad (18)$$

so the equations in (12) yield

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \iint_S P dy dz + Q dz dx + R dx dy. \quad (19)$$

Only the sign of the right-hand surface integral in Eq. (19) depends on the parametrization of S . The unit normal vector on the left-hand side is the vector provided by the parametrization of S via the equations in (12). In the case of a surface given by $z = h(x, y)$, with x and y used as the parameters u and v , this will be the *upper* normal, as you will see in Example 3.

EXAMPLE 3 Suppose that S is the surface $z = h(x, y)$, (x, y) in D . Then show that

$$\iint_S P dy dz + Q dz dx + R dx dy = \iint_D \left(-P \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} - Q \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} + R \right) dx dy, \quad (20)$$

where P , Q , and R in the second integral are evaluated at $(x, y, h(x, y))$.

Solution This is simply a matter of computing the three Jacobians in Eq. (17) with the parameters x and y . We note first that $\partial x/\partial x = 1 = \partial y/\partial y$ and that $\partial x/\partial y = 0 = \partial y/\partial x$. Hence

$$\frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(x, y)} = \begin{vmatrix} y_x & y_y \\ z_x & z_y \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(x, y)} = \begin{vmatrix} z_x & z_y \\ x_x & x_y \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{\partial z}{\partial y},$$

and

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(x, y)} = \begin{vmatrix} x_x & x_y \\ y_x & y_y \end{vmatrix} = 1.$$

Equation (20) is an immediate consequence. ■

The Flux of a Vector Field

One of the most important applications of surface integrals involves the computation of the flux of a vector field. To define the flux of the vector field \mathbf{F} across the surface S , we assume that S has a unit normal vector field \mathbf{n} that varies *continuously* from point to point of S . This condition excludes from our consideration one-sided (*nonorientable*) surfaces, such as the Möbius strip of Fig. 15.5.3. If S is a two-sided (*orientable*) surface, then there are two possible choices for \mathbf{n} . For example, if S is a closed surface (such as a torus or sphere) that separates space, then we may choose for \mathbf{n} either the outer normal vector (at each point of S) or the inner normal vector (Fig. 15.5.4). The unit normal vector defined in Eq. (11) may be either the outer normal or the inner normal; which of the two it is depends on how S has been parametrized.

To define the concept of flux, suppose that we are given the vector field \mathbf{F} , the orientable surface S , and a continuous unit normal vector field \mathbf{n} on S . Then, in analogy with Eq. (5) in Section 15.4, we define the **flux ϕ across S in the direction of \mathbf{n}** by

$$\phi = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS. \quad (21)$$

For example, if $\mathbf{F} = \delta \mathbf{v}$, where \mathbf{v} is the velocity vector field corresponding to the steady flow in space of a fluid of density δ and \mathbf{n} is the *outer* unit normal vector for a

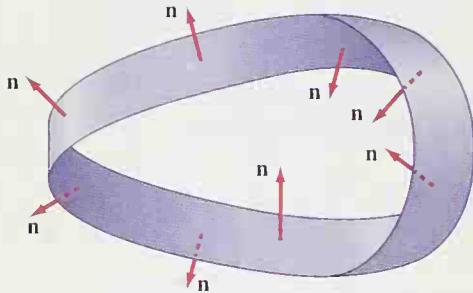


Fig. 15.5.3 The Möbius strip is an example of a one-sided surface.

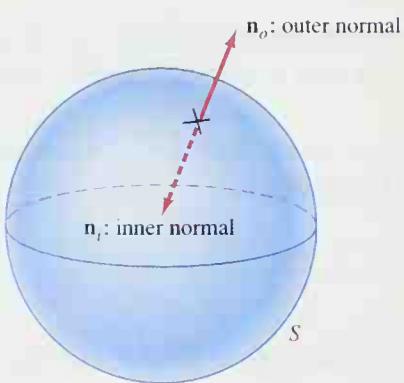


Fig. 15.5.4 Inner and outer normal vectors to a two-sided closed surface

closed surface S that bounds the space region T , then the flux determined by Eq. (21) is the net rate of flow of the fluid *out* of T across its boundary surface S in units such as grams per second.

EXAMPLE 4 Calculate the flux $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS$, where $\mathbf{F} = v_0 \mathbf{k}$ and S is the hemispherical surface of radius a with equation $z = \sqrt{a^2 - x^2 - y^2}$ and with outer unit normal vector \mathbf{n} (see Fig. 15.5.5).

Solution If we think of $\mathbf{F} = v_0 \mathbf{k}$ as the velocity vector field of a fluid that is flowing upward with constant speed v_0 , then we can interpret the flux in question as the rate of flow (in cubic centimeters per second, for example) of the fluid across S . To calculate this flux, we note that

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} = \frac{1}{a}(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}).$$

Hence

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = v_0 \mathbf{k} \cdot \frac{1}{a}(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}) = \frac{v_0}{a}z,$$

so

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \iint_S \frac{v_0}{a}z dS.$$

If we introduce spherical coordinates $z = a \cos \phi$, $dS = a^2 \sin \phi d\phi d\theta$ on the hemispherical surface, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS &= \frac{v_0}{a} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} (a \cos \phi)(a^2 \sin \phi) d\phi d\theta \\ &= 2\pi a^2 v_0 \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos \phi \sin \phi d\phi = 2\pi a^2 v_0 \left[\frac{1}{2} \sin^2 \phi \right]_0^{\pi/2}; \end{aligned}$$

thus

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \pi a^2 v_0.$$

This last quantity is equal to the flux of $\mathbf{F} = v_0 \mathbf{k}$ across the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leq a^2$ of area πa^2 . If we think of the hemispherical region T bounded by the hemisphere S and the circular disk D that forms its base, it should be no surprise that the rate of inflow of an incompressible fluid across the disk D is equal to its rate of outflow across the hemisphere S . ■

EXAMPLE 5 Find the flux of the vector field $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$ out of the region T bounded by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and the plane $z = 4$ (Fig. 15.5.6).

Solution Let S_1 denote the circular top, which has outer unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}_1 = \mathbf{k}$. Let S_2 be the parabolic part of this surface, with outer unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}_2 = -\mathbf{n}$. The flux across S_1 is

$$\iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_1 dS = \iint_{S_1} 3 dS = 12\pi$$

because S_1 is a circular disk of radius 2.

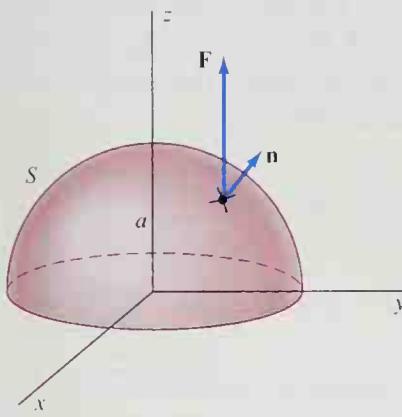


Fig. 15.5.5 The hemisphere S of Example 4

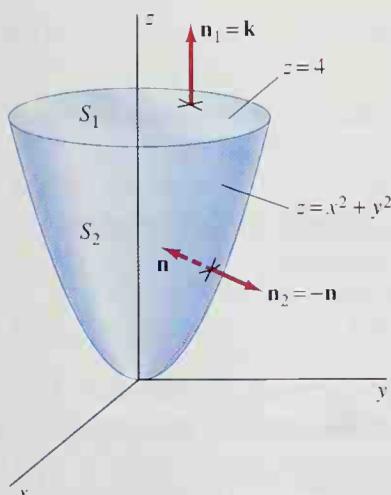


Fig. 15.5.6 The surface of Example 5

Next, the computation in Example 3 gives

$$\mathbf{N} = \left\langle -\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}, -\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}, 1 \right\rangle = \langle -2x, -2y, 1 \rangle$$

for a vector normal to the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$. Then $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{N}/|\mathbf{N}|$ is an upper—and thus an *inner*—unit normal vector to the surface S_2 . The unit *outer* normal vector is therefore $\mathbf{n}_2 = -\mathbf{n}$, opposite to the direction of $\mathbf{N} = \langle -2x, -2y, 1 \rangle$. With parameters (x, y) in the circular disk $x^2 + y^2 \leq 4$ in the xy -plane, the surface-area element is $dS = |\mathbf{N}| dx dy$. Therefore the outward flux across S_2 is

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_2 dS &= - \iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = - \iint_D \mathbf{F} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{N}}{|\mathbf{N}|} |\mathbf{N}| dx dy \\ &= - \iint_D [(x)(-2x) + (y)(-2y) + (3)(1)] dx dy. \end{aligned}$$

We change to polar coordinates in the disk D of radius 2—so that $3 - 2x^2 - 2y^2 = 3 - 2r^2$ and $dx dy = r dr d\theta$ —and find that

$$\iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_2 dS = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^2 (2r^2 - 3)r dr d\theta = 2\pi \left[\frac{1}{2}r^4 - \frac{3}{2}r^2 \right]_0^2 = 4\pi.$$

Hence the total flux of \mathbf{F} out of T is $12\pi + 4\pi = 16\pi \approx 50.27$.

Another physical application of flux is to the flow of heat, which is mathematically quite similar to the flow of a fluid. Suppose that a body has temperature $u = u(x, y, z)$ at the point (x, y, z) . Experiments indicate that the flow of heat in the body is described by the heat-flow vector

$$\mathbf{q} = -K \nabla u. \quad (22)$$

The number K —normally, but not always, a constant—is the *heat conductivity* of the body. The vector \mathbf{q} points in the direction of heat flow, and its length is the rate of flow of heat across a unit area normal to \mathbf{q} . This flow rate is measured in units such as calories per second per square centimeter. If S is a closed surface within the body bounding the solid region T and \mathbf{n} denotes the outer unit normal vector for S , then

$$\iint_S \mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = - \iint_S K \nabla u \cdot \mathbf{n} dS \quad (23)$$

is the net rate of heat flow (in calories per second, for example) out of the region T across its boundary surface S .

EXAMPLE 6 Suppose that a uniform solid ball B of radius R is centered at the origin (Fig. 15.5.7) and that the temperature u within it is given by

$$u(x, y, z) = c(R^2 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2).$$

Thus the temperature of B is maximal at its center and is zero on its boundary. Find the rate of flow of heat across a sphere S of radius $a < R$ centered at the origin.

Solution Writing $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ for the position vector of a point (x, y, z) of B , we find that the heat flow vector \mathbf{q} in Eq. (22) is

$$\mathbf{q} = -K \nabla u = -K \cdot c(-2x\mathbf{i} - 2y\mathbf{j} - 2z\mathbf{k}) = 2Kc\mathbf{r}.$$

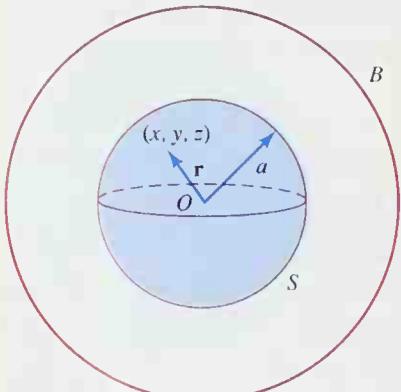


Fig. 15.5.7 The solid ball B of Example 6

Obviously the outer unit normal vector \mathbf{n} at a point (x, y, z) of the sphere S is $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{r}/a$, so

$$\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 2Kc\mathbf{r} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{r}}{a} = 2Kca$$

because $\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r} = a^2$ at points of S . Therefore the heat flow across the sphere S (with area $A(S) = 4\pi a^2$) is

$$\iint_S \mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \iint_S 2Kca dS = 2Kca \cdot 4\pi a^2 = 8Kc\pi a^3.$$

Still other applications of flux involve force fields rather than flow fields. For example, suppose that \mathbf{F} is the gravitational field of a collection of fixed masses in space, so $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r})$ is the net force exerted on a unit mass located at \mathbf{r} . Then **Gauss's law** for inverse-square gravitational fields says that the (outward) flux of \mathbf{F} across the closed surface S is

$$\phi = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = -4\pi GM \quad (24)$$

where M is the total mass enclosed by S and G is the universal gravitational constant.

Gauss's law also applies to inverse-square electric fields. The electric field at \mathbf{r} of a charge q located at the origin is $\mathbf{E} = q\mathbf{r}/(4\pi\epsilon_0|\mathbf{r}|^3)$, where $\epsilon_0 \approx 8.85 \times 10^{-12}$ in mks units (charge in coulombs). Then **Gauss's law** for electric fields says that the (outward) flux of \mathbf{E} across the closed surface S is

$$\phi = \iint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \quad (25)$$

where Q is the net (positive minus negative) charge enclosed by S .

15.5 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 6, evaluate the surface integral $\iint_S f(x, y, z) dS$.

1. $f(x, y, z) = x + y$; S is the first-octant part of the plane $x + y + z = 1$.
2. $f(x, y, z) = xyz$; S is the triangle with vertices $(3, 0, 0)$, $(0, 2, 0)$, and $(0, 0, 6)$.
3. $f(x, y, z) = y + z + 3$; S is the part of the plane $z = 2x + 3y$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 9$.
4. $f(x, y, z) = z^2$; S is the part of the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$.
5. $f(x, y, z) = xy + 1$; S is the part of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$.
6. $f(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2)z$; S is the hemisphere $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$.

In Problems 7 through 12, find the moment of inertia $\iint_S (x^2 + y^2) dS$ of the given surface S . Assume that S has constant density $\delta \equiv 1$.

7. S is the part of the plane $z = x + y$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 9$.

8. S is the part of the surface $z = xy$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 25$.
9. S is the part of the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 1$ that lies between the planes $y = -1$ and $y = 1$. As parameters on the cylinder use y and the polar angular coordinate in the xz -plane.
10. S is the part of the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ that lies between the planes $z = 2$ and $z = 5$.
11. S is the part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 25$ that lies above the plane $z = 3$.
12. S is the part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 25$ that lies outside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 9$.

In Problems 13 through 18, evaluate the surface integral $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS$, where \mathbf{n} is the upward-pointing unit normal vector to the given surface S .

13. $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$; S is the hemisphere $z = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2}$.
14. $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$; S is the first-octant part of the plane $2x + 2y + z = 3$.
15. $\mathbf{F} = 2y\mathbf{i} + 3z\mathbf{k}$; S is the part of the plane $z = 3x + 2$ that lies within the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$.

16. $\mathbf{F} = z\mathbf{k}$; S is the upper half of the spherical surface $\rho \equiv 2$. (Suggestion: Use spherical coordinates.)
17. $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} - x\mathbf{j}$; S is the part of the cone $z = r$ that lies within the cylinder $r = 3$.
18. $\mathbf{F} = 2x\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$; S is the part of the paraboloid $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$ that lies above the xy -plane.

In Problems 19 through 24, calculate the outward flux of the vector field \mathbf{F} across the given closed surface S .

19. $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j} + 3z\mathbf{k}$; S is the boundary of the first-octant unit cube with opposite vertices $(0, 0, 0)$ and $(1, 1, 1)$.
20. $\mathbf{F} = 2x\mathbf{i} - 3y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$; S is the boundary of the solid hemisphere $0 \leq z \leq \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}$.
21. $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} - y\mathbf{j}$; S is the boundary of the solid first-octant pyramid bounded by the coordinate planes and the plane $3x + 4y + z = 12$.
22. $\mathbf{F} = 2x\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$; S is the boundary of the solid paraboloid bounded by the xy -plane and $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$.
23. $\mathbf{F} = z^2\mathbf{k}$; S is the boundary of the solid bounded by the paraboloids $z = x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 18 - x^2 - y^2$.
24. $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} + 2y^2\mathbf{j} + 3z^2\mathbf{k}$; S is the boundary of the solid bounded by the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and the plane $z = 3$.
25. The first-octant part of the spherical surface $\rho = a$ has unit density. Find its centroid.
26. The conical surface $z = r$, $r \leq a$, has constant density $\delta = k$. Find its centroid and its moment of inertia around the z -axis.
27. The paraboloid $z = r^2$, $r \leq a$, has constant density δ . Find its centroid and moment of inertia around the z -axis.
28. Find the centroid of the part of the spherical surface $\rho = a$ that lies within the cone $r = z$.
29. Find the centroid of the part of the spherical surface $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ that lies both inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$ and above the xy -plane.
30. Suppose that the toroidal surface of Example 5 of Section 14.8 has uniform density and total mass M . Show that its moment of inertia around the z -axis is $\frac{1}{2}M(3a^2 + 2b^2)$.

In Problems 31 and 32, use a table of integrals or a computer algebra system (if necessary) to find the moment of inertia around the z -axis of the given surface S . Assume that S has constant density $\delta \equiv 1$.

31. S is the part of the parabolic cylinder $z = 4 - y^2$ that lies inside the rectangular cylinder $-1 \leq x \leq 1$, $-2 \leq y \leq 2$.
32. S is the part of the paraboloid $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$ that lies inside the square cylinder $-1 \leq x \leq 1$, $-1 \leq y \leq 1$.
33. Let S denote the surface $z = h(x, y)$ for (x, y) in the region D in the xy -plane, and let γ be the angle between \mathbf{k} and the upper normal vector \mathbf{N} to S . Prove that

$$\iint_S f(x, y, z) dS = \iint_D f(x, y, h(x, y)) \sec \gamma dx dy.$$

34. Find a formula for

$$\iint_S P dy dz + Q dz dx + R dx dy$$

analogous to Eq. (20), but for the case of a surface S described explicitly by $x = h(y, z)$.

35. A uniform solid ball has radius 5, and its temperature u is proportional to the square of the distance from its center, with $u = 100$ at the boundary of the ball. If the heat conductivity of the ball is $K = 2$, find the rate of flow of heat across a concentric sphere of radius 3.
36. A uniform solid cylinder has radius 5 and height 10, and its temperature u is proportional to the square of the distance from its vertical axis, with $u = 100$ at the outer curved boundary of the cylinder. If the heat conductivity of the cylinder is $K = 2$, find the rate of flow of heat across a concentric cylinder of radius 3 and height 10.

In Problems 37 through 39, set up integrals giving the area and moment of inertia around the z -axis of the given surface S (assuming that S has constant density $\delta \equiv 1$). Use a computer algebra system to evaluate these integrals, symbolically if possible, numerically if necessary (with the numerical values $a = 4$, $b = 3$, and $c = 2$ of the given parameters).

37. S is the elliptic paraboloid $z = (x/a)^2 + (y/b)^2$ with parametrization $x = au \cos v$, $y = bu \sin v$, $z = u^2$, $0 \leq u \leq c$, $0 \leq v \leq 2\pi$.
38. S is the ellipsoid $(x/a)^2 + (y/b)^2 + (z/c)^2 = 1$ with parametrization $x = a \sin u \cos v$, $y = b \sin u \sin v$, $z = c \cos u$, $0 \leq u \leq \pi$, $0 \leq v \leq 2\pi$.
39. S is the hyperboloid $(x/a)^2 + (y/b)^2 - z^2 = 1$ with parametrization $x = a \cosh u \cos v$, $y = b \cosh u \sin v$, $z = \sinh u$, $-c \leq u \leq c$, $0 \leq v \leq 2\pi$. See Fig. 15.5.8, where the u -curves are hyperbolas and the v -curves are ellipses.

40. The Möbius strip in Fig. 15.5.9 was generated by plotting the points

$$x = (4 + t \cos \frac{1}{2}\theta) \cos \theta, \quad y = (4 + t \cos \frac{1}{2}\theta) \sin \theta,$$

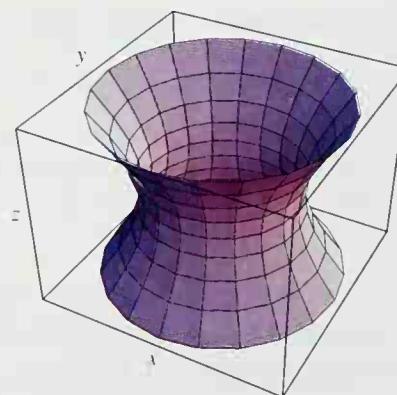


Fig. 15.5.8 The hyperboloid of Problem 39

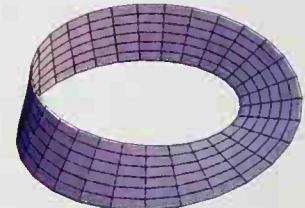


Fig. 15.5.9 The Möbius strip of Problem 40

$$z = t \sin \frac{1}{2}\theta$$

for $-1 \leq t \leq 1$, $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$. This Möbius strip has width 2 and a circular centerline of radius 4. Set up integrals giving its area and moment of inertia (assume constant density $\delta \equiv 1$) around the z -axis, and use a computer algebra system to evaluate them numerically.

41. Consider a homogeneous thin spherical shell S of radius a centered at the origin, with density δ and total mass

$M = 4\pi a^2 \delta$. A particle of mass m is located at the point $(0, 0, c)$ with $c > a$. Use the method and notation of Problem 41 of Section 14.7 to show that the gravitational force of attraction between the particle and the spherical shell is

$$F = \int \int_S \frac{Gm\delta \cos \alpha}{w^2} dS = \frac{GMm}{c^2}.$$

15.5 PROJECT: SURFACE INTEGRALS AND ROCKET NOSE CONES

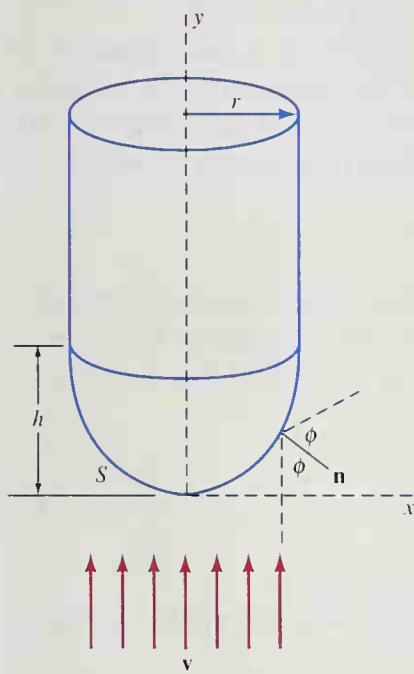


Fig. 15.5.10 The nose-cone S of height h and radius r

Figure 15.5.10 shows a (curved) nose cone S of height $h = 1$ attached to a cylindrical rocket of radius $r = 1$ that is moving downward with velocity v through air of density δ (or, equivalently, the rocket is stationary and the air is streaming upward). In the *Principia Mathematica*, Newton showed that (under plausible assumptions) the force of air resistance the rocket experiences is given by $F = 2\pi R\delta v^2$ and thus is proportional both to the density of the air and to the square of its velocity. The *drag coefficient* R is given by the surface integral

$$R = \frac{1}{\pi} \int \int_S \cos^3 \phi \, dS,$$

where ϕ is the angle between the unit normal \mathbf{n} and the direction of motion.

1. If the surface S of the nose cone is obtained by revolving the curve $y = y(x)$, with $y(0) = 0$ and $y(1) = 1$, around the y -axis, use the fact that $\cos \phi = dx/ds$ to show that

$$R = \int_0^1 \frac{2x}{1 + [y'(x)]^2} \, dx.$$

Use this integral to calculate the numerical value of R in the particular cases that follow.

2. $y = x$, so that S is an actual cone with 90° vertex angle
3. $y = 1 - \sqrt{1 - x^2}$, so that S is a hemisphere
4. $y = x^2$, so that S is a paraboloid
5. For the flat-tipped conical frustum nose cone illustrated in Fig. 15.5.11 (still with $r = h = 1$), show that

$$R = \cos^2 \alpha - 2 \cos \alpha \sin \alpha + 2 \sin^2 \alpha$$

where α is the indicated angle. Then show that this drag coefficient is minimal when $\tan 2\alpha = 2$.

If you compare your numerical results, you should find that

- ▼ the cone and hemisphere offer the same resistance;
- ▼ the paraboloid offers less resistance than either, and
- ▼ the optimal flat-tipped conical frustum offers still less!

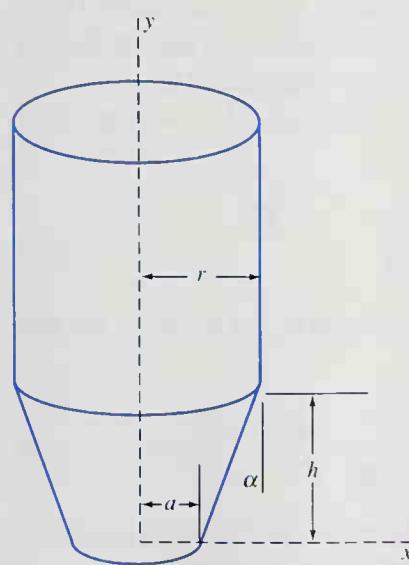


Fig. 15.5.11 The flat-tipped nose cone

In an extraordinary tour de force, Newton determined the nose cone with minimum possible air resistance, allowing both a circular flat tip and a curved surface

of revolution connecting the tip to the cylindrical body of the rocket—see C. Henry Edwards, “Newton’s Nose-Cone Problem,” *The Mathematica Journal* 7 (Winter 1997), pp. 75–82.

15.6 THE DIVERGENCE THEOREM

The *divergence theorem* is to surface integrals what Green’s theorem is to line integrals. It lets us convert a surface integral over a closed surface into a triple integral over the enclosed region, or vice versa. The divergence theorem is known also as *Gauss’s theorem*, and in some eastern European countries it is called *Ostrogradski’s theorem*. The German “prince of mathematics” Carl Friedrich Gauss (1777–1855) used it to study inverse-square force fields; the Russian Michel Ostrogradski (1801–1861) used it to study heat flow. Both did their work in the 1830s.

The surface S is called **piecewise smooth** if it consists of a finite number of smooth parametric surfaces. It is called **closed** if it is the boundary of a bounded region in space. For example, the boundary of a cube is a closed piecewise smooth surface, as are the boundary of a pyramid and the boundary of a solid cylinder.

The Divergence Theorem

Suppose that S is a closed piecewise smooth surface that bounds the space region T . Let $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$ be a vector field with component functions that have continuous first-order partial derivatives on T . Let \mathbf{n} be the *outer* unit normal vector to S . Then

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \iiint_T \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \, dV. \quad (1)$$

Equation (1) is a three-dimensional analogue of the vector form of Green’s theorem that we saw in Eq. (9) of Section 15.4:

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds = \iint_R \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \, dA,$$

where \mathbf{F} is a vector field in the plane, C is a piecewise smooth curve that bounds the plane region R , and \mathbf{n} is the outer unit normal vector to C . The left-hand side of Eq. (1) is the flux of \mathbf{F} across S in the direction of the outer unit normal vector \mathbf{n} .

Recall from Section 15.1 that the *divergence* $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$ of the vector field $\mathbf{F} = \langle P, Q, R \rangle$ is given in the three-dimensional case by

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}. \quad (2)$$

If \mathbf{n} is given in terms of its direction cosines, as $\mathbf{n} = \langle \cos \alpha, \cos \beta, \cos \gamma \rangle$, then we can write the divergence theorem in scalar form:

$$\iint_S (P \cos \alpha + Q \cos \beta + R \cos \gamma) \, dS = \iiint_T \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial z} \right) \, dV. \quad (3)$$

It is best to parametrize S so that the normal vector given by the parametrization is the outer normal. Then we can write Eq. (3) entirely in Cartesian form:

$$\iint_S P \, dy \, dz + Q \, dz \, dx + R \, dx \, dy = \iiint_T \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial z} \right) \, dV. \quad (4)$$

PROOF OF THE DIVERGENCE THEOREM We shall prove the divergence theorem only for the case in which the region T is simultaneously x -simple, y -simple, and z -simple. This guarantees that every straight line parallel to a coordinate axis intersects T , if at all, in a single point or a single line segment. It suffices for us to derive separately the equations

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S P \, dy \, dz &= \iiint_T \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \, dV, \\ \iint_S Q \, dz \, dx &= \iiint_T \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} \, dV, \quad \text{and} \\ \iint_S R \, dx \, dy &= \iiint_T \frac{\partial R}{\partial z} \, dV.\end{aligned}\tag{5}$$

Then the sum of the equations in (5) is Eq. (4).

Because T is z -simple, it has the description

$$z_1(x, y) \leq z \leq z_2(x, y)$$

for (x, y) in D , the projection of T into the xy -plane. As in Fig. 15.6.1, we denote the lower surface $z = z_1(x, y)$ of T by S_1 , the upper surface $z = z_2(x, y)$ by S_2 , and the lateral surface between S_1 and S_2 by S_3 . In the case of some simple surfaces, such as a spherical surface, there may be no S_3 to consider. But even if there is,

$$\iint_{S_3} R \, dx \, dy = \iint_{S_3} R \cos \gamma \, dS = 0,\tag{6}$$

because $\gamma = 90^\circ$ at each point of the vertical cylinder S_3 .

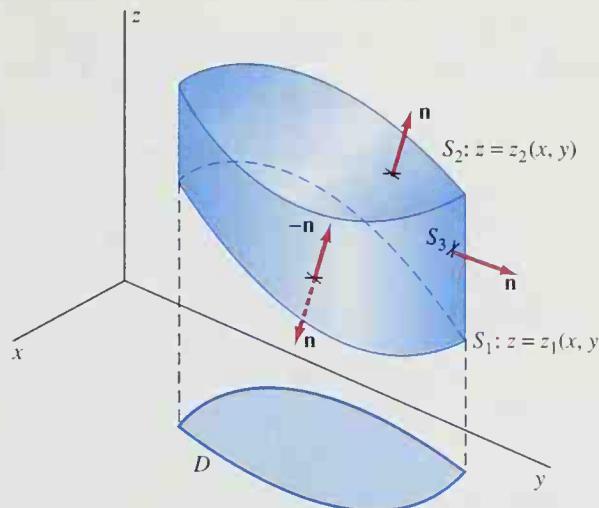


Fig. 15.6.1 A z -simple space region bounded by the surfaces S_1 , S_2 , and S_3

On the upper surface S_2 , the unit upper normal vector corresponding to the parametrization $z = z_2(x, y)$ is the given outer unit normal vector \mathbf{n} , so Eq. (20) of Section 15.5 yields

$$\iint_{S_2} R \, dx \, dy = \iint_D R(x, y, z_2(x, y)) \, dx \, dy.\tag{7}$$

But on the lower surface S_1 , the unit upper normal vector corresponding to the parametrization $z = z_1(x, y)$ is the inner normal vector $-\mathbf{n}$, so we must reverse the sign. Thus

$$\iint_{S_1} R \, dx \, dy = - \iint_D R(x, y, z_1(x, y)) \, dx \, dy. \quad (8)$$

We add Eqs. (6), (7), and (8). The result is that

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S R \, dx \, dy &= \iint_D [R(x, y, z_2(x, y)) - R(x, y, z_1(x, y))] \, dx \, dy \\ &= \iint_D \left(\int_{z_1(x, y)}^{z_2(x, y)} \frac{\partial R}{\partial z} \, dz \right) \, dx \, dy. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\iint_S R \, dx \, dy = \iiint_T \frac{\partial R}{\partial z} \, dV.$$

This is the third equation in (5), and we can derive the other two in the same way. ■

EXAMPLE 1 Let S be the surface (with outer unit normal vector \mathbf{n}) of the region T bounded by the planes $z = 0$, $y = 0$, $y = 2$, and the paraboloid $z = 1 - x^2$ (Fig. 15.6.2). Apply the divergence theorem to compute

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$$

given $\mathbf{F} = (x + \cos y)\mathbf{i} + (y + \sin z)\mathbf{j} + (z + e^x)\mathbf{k}$.

Solution Evaluating the surface integral directly would be a lengthy project. But $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3$, so we can apply the divergence theorem easily:

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \iiint_T \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \, dV = \iiint_T 3 \, dV.$$

We examine Fig. 15.6.2 to find the limits for the volume integral and thus obtain

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \int_{-1}^1 \int_0^2 \int_0^{1-x^2} 3 \, dz \, dy \, dx = 12 \int_0^1 (1 - x^2) \, dx = 8. \quad ■$$

EXAMPLE 2 Let S be the surface of the solid cylinder T bounded by the planes $z = 0$ and $z = 3$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$. Calculate the outward flux

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$$

given $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})$.

Solution If we denote by P , Q , and R the component functions of the vector field \mathbf{F} , we find that

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} = 2x \cdot x + (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \cdot 1 = 3x^2 + y^2 + z^2.$$

Similarly,

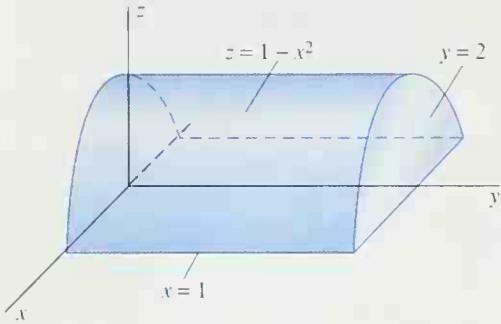


Fig. 15.6.2 The region of Example 1

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} = 3y^2 + z^2 + x^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial R}{\partial z} = 3z^2 + x^2 + y^2,$$

so $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = 5(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$. Therefore the divergence theorem yields

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \iiint_T 5(x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dV.$$

Using cylindrical coordinates to evaluate the triple integral, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^2 \int_0^3 5(r^2 + z^2)r dz dr d\theta \\ &= 10\pi \int_0^2 \left[r^3 z + \frac{1}{3} r z^3 \right]_{z=0}^3 dr \\ &= 10\pi \int_0^2 (3r^3 + 9r) dr = 10\pi \left[\frac{3}{4} r^4 + \frac{9}{2} r^2 \right]_0^2 = 300\pi. \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 3 Suppose that the region T is bounded by the closed surface S with a parametrization that gives the outer unit normal vector. Show that the volume V of T is given by

$$V = \frac{1}{3} \iint_S x dy dz + y dz dx + z dx dy. \quad (9)$$

Solution Equation (9) follows immediately from Eq. (4) if we take $P(x, y, z) = x$, $Q(x, y, z) = y$, and $R(x, y, z) = z$. For example, if S is the spherical surface $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ with volume V , surface area A , and outer unit normal vector

$$\mathbf{n} = \langle \cos \alpha, \cos \beta, \cos \gamma \rangle = \left\langle \frac{x}{a}, \frac{y}{a}, \frac{z}{a} \right\rangle,$$

then Eq. (9) yields

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \frac{1}{3} \iint_S x dy dz + y dz dx + z dx dy \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \iint_S (x \cos \alpha + y \cos \beta + z \cos \gamma) dS \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \iint_S \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{a} dS = \frac{1}{3} a \iint_S 1 dS = \frac{1}{3} a A. \end{aligned}$$

You should confirm that this result is consistent with the familiar formulas $V = \frac{4}{3}\pi a^3$ and $A = 4\pi a^2$.

EXAMPLE 4 Show that the divergence of the vector field \mathbf{F} at the point P is given by

$$\{\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\}(P) = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{V_r} \iint_{S_r} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS, \quad (10)$$

where S_r is the sphere of radius r centered at P and $V_r = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$ is the volume of the ball B_r that the sphere bounds.

Solution The divergence theorem gives

$$\iint_{S_r} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \iiint_{B_r} \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} dV.$$

Then we apply the average value property of triple integrals, a result analogous to the double integral result of Problem 50 in Section 14.2. This yields

$$\iiint_{B_r} \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} dV = V_r \cdot \{\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\}(P^*)$$

for some point P^* of B_r ; here, we write $\{\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\}(P^*)$ for the value of $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}$ at the point P^* . We assume that the component functions of \mathbf{F} have continuous first-order partial derivatives at P , so it follows that

$$\{\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\}(P^*) \rightarrow \{\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\}(P) \quad \text{as } P^* \rightarrow P.$$

Equation (10) follows after we divide both sides by V_r and then take the limit as $r \rightarrow 0$. ■

For instance, suppose that $\mathbf{F} = \delta \mathbf{v}$ is a fluid flow vector field. We can interpret Eq. (10) as saying that $\{\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\}(P)$ is the net rate per unit volume that fluid mass is flowing away (or “diverging”) from the point P . For this reason the point P is called a **source** if $\{\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\}(P) > 0$ but a **sink** if $\{\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\}(P) < 0$.

Heat in a conducting body can be treated mathematically as though it were a fluid flowing through the body. Miscellaneous Problems 25 through 27 at the end of this chapter ask you to apply the divergence theorem to show that if $u = u(x, y, z, t)$ is the temperature at the point (x, y, z) at the time t in a body through which heat is flowing, then the function u must satisfy the equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = \frac{1}{k} \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}, \quad (11)$$

where k is a constant (the *thermal diffusivity* of the body). This is a *partial differential equation* called the **heat equation**. If both the initial temperature $u(x, y, z, 0)$ and the temperature on the boundary of the body are given, then its interior temperatures at future times are determined by the heat equation. A large part of advanced applied mathematics consists of techniques for solving such partial differential equations.

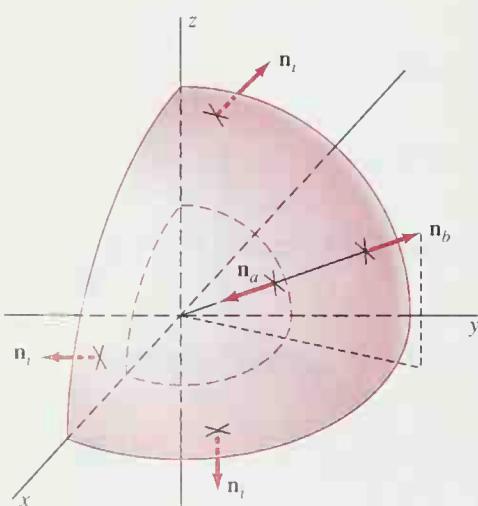


Fig. 15.6.3 One octant of the shell between S_a and S_b

More General Regions and Gauss's Law

We can establish the divergence theorem for more general regions by the device of subdividing T into simpler regions, regions for which the preceding proof holds. For example, suppose that T is the shell between the concentric spherical surfaces S_a and S_b of radii a and b , with $0 < a < b$. The coordinate planes separate T into eight regions T_1, T_2, \dots, T_8 , each shaped as in Fig. 15.6.3. Let Σ_i denote the boundary of T_i and let \mathbf{n}_i be the outer unit normal vector to Σ_i . We apply the divergence theorem to each of these eight regions and obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \iiint_T \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dV &= \sum_{i=1}^8 \iiint_{T_i} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dV \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^8 \iint_{\Sigma_i} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_i dS \quad (\text{divergence theorem}) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \iint_{S_a} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_a \, dS + \iint_{S_b} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_b \, dS.$$

Here we write \mathbf{n}_a for the inner normal vector on S_a and \mathbf{n}_b for the outer normal vector on S_b . The last equality holds because the surface integrals over the internal boundary surfaces (the surfaces in the coordinate planes) cancel in pairs—the normals are oppositely oriented there. As the boundary S of T is the union of the spherical surfaces S_a and S_b , it now follows that

$$\iiint_T \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \, dV = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS.$$

This is the divergence theorem for the spherical shell T .

In a similar manner, the divergence theorem can be established for a region T that is bounded by two smooth closed surfaces S_1 and S_2 with S_1 interior to S_2 , as in Fig. 15.6.4, where \mathbf{n}_1 and \mathbf{n}_2 denote the outward-pointing unit normal vectors to the two surfaces. Then the boundary S of T is the union of S_1 and S_2 , and the outer unit normal vector field \mathbf{n} on S consists of $-\mathbf{n}_1$ on the inner surface S_1 and \mathbf{n}_2 on the outer surface S_2 (both pointing out of T). Hence the divergence theorem takes the form

$$\iiint_T \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \, dV = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_2 \, dS - \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_1 \, dS. \quad (12)$$

For example, suppose that $\mathbf{F} = -GM\mathbf{r}/|\mathbf{r}|^3$ is the inverse-square gravitational force field of a mass M located at the origin. According to Problem 22, $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = 0$ except at the origin. If S is a smooth surface enclosing M and S_a is a small sphere of radius a within S enclosing M , it then follows from Eq. (12) that (with \mathbf{n} denoting the outer unit normal on each surface)

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS &= \iint_{S_a} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS \\ &= \iint_{S_a} -\frac{GM\mathbf{r}}{|\mathbf{r}|^3} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{r}}{|\mathbf{r}|} \, dS = -\frac{GM}{a^2} \iint_{S_a} 1 \, dS = -4\pi GM. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

Thus we have established Gauss's law [Eq. (24) in Section 15.5] for the special case of a single point mass. The more general case of a collection of point masses within S can be established by enclosing each in its own small sphere. If we replace the constant GM in Eq. (13) with $Q/4\pi\epsilon_0$, we obtain similarly Gauss's law

$$\iint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \quad (14)$$

for the inverse-square electric field $\mathbf{E} = -Q\mathbf{r}/(4\pi\epsilon_0|\mathbf{r}|^3)$ of a charge Q lying within S .

Another impressive consequence of the divergence theorem is Archimedes' law of buoyancy; see Problem 21 here and Problem 22 of Section 15.7.

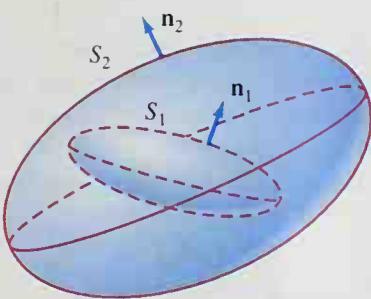


Fig. 15.6.4 Nested closed surfaces S_1 and S_2

15.6 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 5, verify the divergence theorem by direct computation of both the surface integral and the triple integral of Eq. (1).

1. $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$; S is the spherical surface with equation $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$.

2. $\mathbf{F} = |\mathbf{r}|\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$; S is the spherical surface with equation $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$.
3. $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$; S is the surface of the cube bounded by the three coordinate planes and the three planes $x = 2$, $y = 2$, and $z = 2$.

4. $\mathbf{F} = xy\mathbf{i} + yz\mathbf{j} + xz\mathbf{k}$; S is the surface of Problem 3.
 5. $\mathbf{F} = (x+y)\mathbf{i} + (y+z)\mathbf{j} + (z+x)\mathbf{k}$; S is the surface of the tetrahedron bounded by the three coordinate planes and the plane $x + y + z = 1$.

In Problems 6 through 14, use the divergence theorem to evaluate $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS$, where \mathbf{n} is the outer unit normal vector to the surface S .

6. $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} + y^2\mathbf{j} + z^2\mathbf{k}$; S is the surface of Problem 3.
 7. $\mathbf{F} = x^3\mathbf{i} + y^3\mathbf{j} + z^3\mathbf{k}$; S is the surface of the cylinder bounded by $x^2 + y^2 = 9$, $z = -1$, and $z = 4$.
 8. $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2)(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j})$; S is the surface of the region bounded by the plane $z = 0$ and the paraboloid $z = 25 - x^2 - y^2$.
 9. $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + e^{-yz})\mathbf{i} + (y + \sin xz)\mathbf{j} + (\cos xy)\mathbf{k}$; S is the surface of Problem 5.
 10. $\mathbf{F} = (xy^2 + e^{-y} \sin z)\mathbf{i} + (x^2y + e^{-y} \cos z)\mathbf{j} + (\tan^{-1} xy)\mathbf{k}$; S is the surface of the region bounded by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and the plane $z = 9$.
 11. $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})$; S is the surface of Problem 8.
 12. $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{r}/|\mathbf{r}|$, where $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$; S is the sphere $\rho = 2$ of radius 2 centered at the origin.
 13. $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$; S is the boundary of the region bounded by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and the plane $z = 4$.
 14. $\mathbf{F} = (x^3 + e^z)\mathbf{i} + x^2y\mathbf{j} + (\sin xy)\mathbf{k}$; S is the boundary of the region bounded by the paraboloid $z = 4 - x^2$ and the planes $y = 0$, $z = 0$, and $y + z = 5$.
 15. The **Laplacian** of the twice-differentiable scalar function f is defined to be $\nabla^2 f = \operatorname{div}(\operatorname{grad} f) = \nabla \cdot \nabla f$. Show that

$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2}.$$

16. Let $\partial f / \partial n = (\nabla f) \cdot \mathbf{n}$ denote the directional derivative of the scalar function f in the direction of the outer unit normal vector \mathbf{n} to the surface S that bounds the region T . Show that

$$\iint_S \frac{\partial f}{\partial n} dS = \iiint_T \nabla^2 f dV.$$

17. Suppose that $\nabla^2 f \equiv 0$ in the region T with boundary surface S . Show that

$$\iint_S f \frac{\partial f}{\partial n} dS = \iiint_T |\nabla f|^2 dV.$$

(See Problems 15 and 16 for the notation.)

18. Apply the divergence theorem to $\mathbf{F} = f \nabla g$ to establish **Green's first identity**,

$$\iint_S f \frac{\partial g}{\partial n} dS = \iiint_T (f \nabla^2 g + \nabla f \cdot \nabla g) dV.$$

19. Interchange f and g in Green's first identity (Problem 18) to establish **Green's second identity**,

$$\iint_S \left(f \frac{\partial g}{\partial n} - g \frac{\partial f}{\partial n} \right) dS = \iiint_T (f \nabla^2 g - g \nabla^2 f) dV.$$

20. Suppose that f is a differentiable scalar function defined on the region T of space and that S is the boundary of T . Prove that

$$\iint_S f \mathbf{n} dS = \iiint_T \nabla f dV.$$

(*Suggestion:* Apply the divergence theorem to $\mathbf{F} = f \mathbf{a}$, where \mathbf{a} is an arbitrary constant vector. *Note:* Integrals of vector-valued functions are defined by componentwise integration.)

21. **Archimedes' Law of Buoyancy** Let S be the surface of a body T submerged in a fluid of constant density δ . Set up coordinates so that positive values of z are measured downward from the surface. Then the pressure at depth z is $p = \delta g z$. The buoyant force exerted on the body by the fluid is

$$\mathbf{B} = - \iint_S p \mathbf{n} dS.$$

(Why?) Apply the result of Problem 20 to show that $\mathbf{B} = -W\mathbf{k}$, where W is the weight of the fluid displaced by the body. Because z is measured downward, the vector \mathbf{B} is directed upward.

22. Let $\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$, let $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$ be a fixed point, and suppose that

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \frac{\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0|^3}.$$

Show that $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = 0$ except at the point \mathbf{r}_0 .

23. Apply the divergence theorem to compute the outward flux

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS,$$

where $\mathbf{F} = |\mathbf{r}| \mathbf{r}$, $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$, and S is the surface of Problem 8. (*Suggestion:* Integrate in cylindrical coordinates, first with respect to r and then with respect to z . For the latter integration, make a trigonometric substitution and then consult Eq. (9) of Section 9.3 for the antiderivative of $\sec^5 \theta$.)

24. Assume that Gauss's law in (13) holds for a uniform solid ball of mass M centered at the origin. Also assume by symmetry that the force \mathbf{F} exerted by this mass on an exterior particle of unit mass is directed toward the origin. Apply Gauss's law with S being a sphere of radius r to show that $|\mathbf{F}| = GM/r^2$ at each point of S . Thus it follows that the solid ball acts (gravitationally) like a single point-mass M concentrated at its center.

25. Let \mathbf{F} be the gravitational force field due to a uniform distribution of mass in the shell bounded by the concentric spherical surfaces $\rho = a$ and $\rho = b > a$. Apply Gauss's law in (13), with S being the sphere $\rho = r < a$, to show that \mathbf{F} is zero at all points interior to this spherical shell.
26. Consider a solid spherical ball of radius a and constant density δ . Apply Gauss's law to show that the gravitational force on a particle of unit mass located at a distance $r < a$ from the center of the ball is given by $F = GM_r/r^2$, where $M_r = \frac{4}{3}\pi\delta r^3$ is the mass enclosed by

a sphere of radius r . Thus the mass at a greater distance from the center of the ball exerts no net gravitational force on the particle.

27. Consider an infinitely long vertical straight wire with a uniform positive charge of q coulombs per meter. Assume by symmetry that the electric field vector \mathbf{E} is at each point a horizontal radial vector directed away from the wire. Apply Gauss's law in (14), with S being a cylinder with the wire as its axis, to show that $|\mathbf{E}| = q/(2\pi\epsilon_0 r)$. Thus the electric field intensity is inversely proportional to distance r from the wire.

15.7 STOKES' THEOREM

In Section 15.4 we gave Green's theorem,

$$\oint_C P dx + Q dy = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dA, \quad (1)$$

in a vector form that is equivalent to a two-dimensional version of the divergence theorem. Another vector form of Green's theorem involves the curl of a vector field. Recall from Section 15.1 that if $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$ is a vector field, then $\text{curl } \mathbf{F}$ is the vector field given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{curl } \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F} &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ P & Q & R \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \right) \mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} \right) \mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) \mathbf{k}. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

The \mathbf{k} -component of $\nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ is the integrand of the double integral in Eq. (1). We know from Section 15.2 that we can write the line integral in Eq. (1) as

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds,$$

where \mathbf{T} is the positive-directed unit tangent vector to C . Consequently, we can rewrite Green's theorem in the form

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \iint_R (\text{curl } \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k} dA. \quad (3)$$

Stokes' theorem is the generalization of Eq. (3) that we get by replacing the plane region R with a floppy two-dimensional version: an oriented bounded surface S in three-dimensional space with boundary C that consists of one or more simple closed curves in space.

An *oriented* surface is a surface together with a chosen continuous unit normal vector field \mathbf{n} . The positive orientation of the boundary C of an oriented surface S corresponds to the unit tangent vector \mathbf{T} such that $\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{T}$ always points *into* S (Fig. 15.7.1). Check that for a plane region with unit normal vector \mathbf{k} , the positive orientation of its outer boundary is counterclockwise.

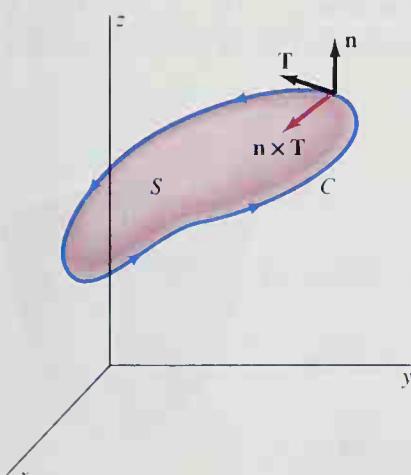


Fig. 15.7.1 Vectors, surface, and boundary curve mentioned in the statement of Stokes' theorem

Stokes' Theorem

Let S be an oriented, bounded, and piecewise smooth surface in space with positively oriented boundary C . Suppose that the components of the vector field \mathbf{F} have continuous first-order partial derivatives in a space region that contains S . Then

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \iint_S (\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS. \quad (4)$$

Thus Stokes' theorem says that *the line integral around the boundary curve of the tangential component of \mathbf{F} equals the surface integral of the normal component of $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$.* Compare Eqs. (3) and (4).

This result first appeared publicly as a problem posed by George Stokes (1819–1903) on a prize examination for Cambridge University students in 1854. It had been stated in an 1850 letter to Stokes from the physicist William Thomson (Lord Kelvin, 1824–1907).

In terms of the components of $\mathbf{F} = P\mathbf{i} + Q\mathbf{j} + R\mathbf{k}$ and those of $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$, we can recast Stokes' theorem—with the aid of Eq. (19) of Section 15.5—in its scalar form

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C P \, dx + Q \, dy + R \, dz \\ = \iint_S \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \right) dy \, dz + \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} \right) dz \, dx + \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dx \, dy. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Here, as usual, the parametrization of S must correspond to the given unit normal vector \mathbf{n} .

To prove Stokes' theorem, we need only establish the equation

$$\oint_C P \, dx = \iint_D \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} dz \, dx - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} dx \, dy \right) \quad (6)$$

and the corresponding two equations that are the Q and R “components” of Eq. (5). Equation (5) itself then follows by adding the three results.

PARTIAL PROOF Suppose first that S is the graph of a function $z = f(x, y)$, (x, y) in D , where S has an upper unit normal vector and D is a region in the xy -plane bounded by the simple closed curve J (Fig. 15.7.2). Then

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C P \, dx &= \oint_J P(x, y, f(x, y)) \, dx \\ &= \oint_J p(x, y) \, dx \quad [\text{where } p(x, y) \equiv P(x, y, f(x, y))] \\ &= - \iint_D \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} \, dx \, dy \quad (\text{by Green's theorem}). \end{aligned}$$

We now use the chain rule to compute $\partial p / \partial y$ and find that

$$\oint_C P \, dx = - \iint_D \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \right) dx \, dy. \quad (7)$$

Next, we use Eq. (20) of Section 15.5:

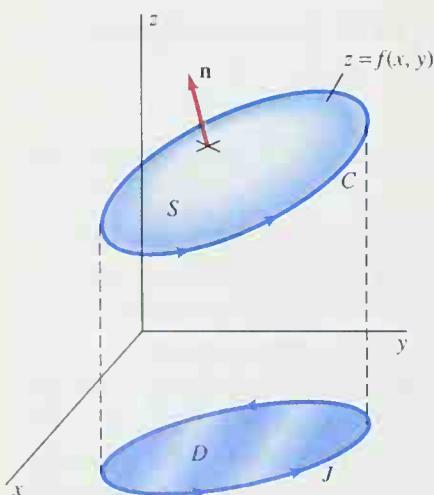


Fig. 15.7.2 The surface S

$$\iint_S P \, dy \, dz + Q \, dz \, dx + R \, dx \, dy = \iint_D \left(-P \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} - Q \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} + R \right) dx \, dy.$$

In this equation we replace P with 0, Q with $\partial P / \partial z$, and R with $-\partial P / \partial y$. This gives

$$\iint_S \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} dz \, dx - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} dx \, dy \right) = \iint_D \left(-\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dx \, dy. \quad (8)$$

Finally, we compare Eqs. (7) and (8) and see that we have established Eq. (6). If we can write the surface S in the forms $y = g(x, z)$ and $x = h(y, z)$, then we can derive the Q and R “components” of Eq. (5) in much the same way. This proves Stokes’ theorem for the special case of a surface S that can be represented as a graph in all three coordinate directions. Stokes’ theorem may then be extended to a more general oriented surface by the now-familiar method of subdividing it into simpler surfaces, to each of which the preceding proof is applicable. ■

EXAMPLE 1 Apply Stokes’ theorem to evaluate

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds,$$

where C is the ellipse in which the plane $z = y + 3$ intersects the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Orient the ellipse counterclockwise as viewed from above and take $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = 3z\mathbf{i} + 5x\mathbf{j} - 2y\mathbf{k}$.

Solution The plane, cylinder, and ellipse appear in Fig. 15.7.3. The given orientation of C corresponds to the upward unit normal vector $\mathbf{n} = (-\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})/\sqrt{2}$ to the elliptical region S in the plane $z = y + 3$ bounded by C . Now

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ 3z & 5x & -2y \end{vmatrix} = -2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k},$$

so

$$(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} = (-2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}) \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(-\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}) = \frac{-3 + 5}{\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2}.$$

Hence by Stokes’ theorem,

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \iint_S (\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \iint_S \sqrt{2} \, dS = \sqrt{2} \cdot \operatorname{area}(S) = 2\pi,$$

because we can see from Fig. 15.7.3 that S is an ellipse with semiaxes 1 and $\sqrt{2}$. Thus its area is $\pi\sqrt{2}$. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Apply Stokes’ theorem to evaluate

$$\iint_S (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS,$$

where $\mathbf{F} = 3z\mathbf{i} + 5x\mathbf{j} - 2y\mathbf{k}$ and S is the part of the surface $z = x^2 + y^2$ that lies below the plane $z = 4$ and whose orientation is given by the upper unit normal vector (Fig. 15.7.4).

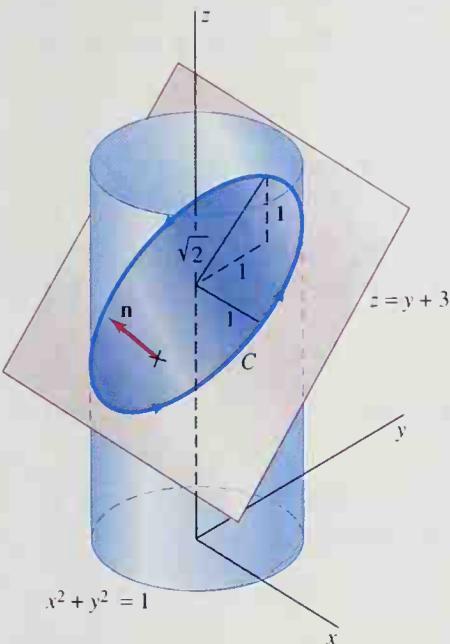


Fig. 15.7.3 The ellipse of Example 1

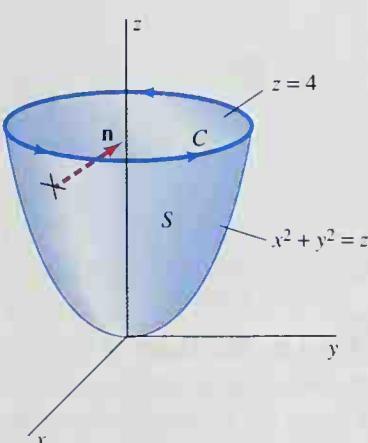


Fig. 15.7.4 The parabolic surface of Example 2

Solution We parametrize the boundary circle C of S by $x = 2 \cos t$, $y = 2 \sin t$, $z = 4$ for $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$. Then $dx = -2 \sin t dt$, $dy = 2 \cos t dt$, and $dz = 0$. So Stokes' theorem yields

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} dS &= \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \oint_C 3z \, dx + 5x \, dy - 2y \, dz \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} 3 \cdot 4 \cdot (-2 \sin t) + 5 \cdot (2 \cos t)(2 \cos t) + 2 \cdot (2 \sin t) \cdot 0 \, dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} (-24 \sin t + 20 \cos^2 t) \, dt = \int_0^{2\pi} (-24 \sin t + 10 + 10 \cos 2t) \, dt \\ &= \left[24 \cos t + 10t + 5 \sin 2t \right]_0^{2\pi} = 20\pi. \end{aligned}$$

Just as the divergence theorem yields a physical interpretation of $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}$ [Eq. (10) of Section 15.6], Stokes' theorem yields a physical interpretation of $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$. Let S_r be a circular disk of radius r , centered at the point P in space and perpendicular to the unit vector \mathbf{n} . Let C_r be the boundary circle of S_r (Fig. 15.7.5). Then Stokes' theorem and the average value property of double integrals together give

$$\oint_{C_r} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \iint_{S_r} (\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = \pi r^2 \cdot \{(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n}\}(P^\star)$$

for some point P^\star of S_r , where $\{(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n}\}(P^\star)$ denotes the value of $(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n}$ at the point P^\star . We divide this equality by πr^2 and then take the limit as $r \rightarrow 0$. This gives

$$\{(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n}\}(P) = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \oint_{C_r} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds. \quad (9)$$

Equation (9) has a natural physical meaning. Suppose that $\mathbf{F} = \delta \mathbf{v}$, where \mathbf{v} is the velocity vector field of a steady-state fluid flow with constant density δ . Then the value of the integral

$$\Gamma(C) = \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds \quad (10)$$

measures the rate of flow of fluid mass *around* the curve C and is therefore called the **circulation** of \mathbf{F} around C . We see from Eq. (9) that

$$\{(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n}\}(P^\star) \approx \frac{\Gamma(C_r)}{\pi r^2}$$

if C_r is a circle of very small radius r centered at P and perpendicular to \mathbf{n} . If it should happen that $\{(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n}\}(P) \neq 0$, it follows that $\Gamma(C_r)$ is greatest (for r fixed and small) when the unit vector \mathbf{n} points in the direction of $\{(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n}\}(P)$. Hence the line through P determined by $\{(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n}\}(P)$ is the axis about which the fluid near P is revolving the most rapidly. A tiny paddle wheel placed in the fluid at P (see Fig. 15.7.6) would rotate the fastest if its axis lay along this line. It follows from Miscellaneous Problem 32 at the end of this chapter that $|\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}| = 2\delta\omega$ in the case of a fluid revolving steadily around a fixed axis with constant angular speed ω (in radians per second). Thus $\{(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n}\}(P)$ indicates both the direction *and* rate of rotation

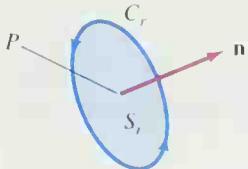


Fig. 15.7.5 A physical interpretation of the curl of a vector field

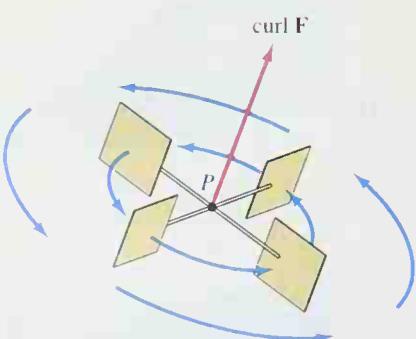


Fig. 15.7.6 The paddle-wheel interpretation of $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$

of the fluid near P . Because of this interpretation, some older books use the notation “ $\text{rot } \mathbf{F}$ ” for the curl, an abbreviation that we are happy has disappeared from general use.

If $\text{curl } \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$ everywhere, then the fluid flow and the vector field \mathbf{F} are said to be **irrotational**. An infinitesimal straw placed in an irrotational fluid flow would be translated parallel to itself without rotating. A vector field \mathbf{F} defined on a simply connected region D is irrotational if and only if it is conservative, which in turn is true if and only if the line integral

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$$

is independent of the path in D . (The region D is said to be **simply connected** if every simple closed curve in D can be continuously shrunk to a point while staying inside D . The interior of a torus is an example of a space region that is *not* simply connected. It is true, though not obvious, that any piecewise smooth simple closed curve in a simply connected region D is the boundary of a piecewise smooth oriented surface in D .)

Theorem 1 *Conservative and Irrotational Fields*

Let \mathbf{F} be a vector field with continuous first-order partial derivatives in a simply connected region D in space. Then the vector field \mathbf{F} is irrotational if and only if it is conservative; that is, $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$ if and only if $\mathbf{F} = \nabla\phi$ for some scalar function ϕ defined on D .

PARTIAL PROOF A complete proof of the *if* part of Theorem 1 is easy; by Example 8 of Section 15.1, $\nabla \times (\nabla\phi) = \mathbf{0}$ for any twice-differentiable scalar function ϕ .

Here is a description of how we might show the *only if* part of the proof of Theorem 1. Assume that \mathbf{F} is irrotational. Let $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ be a fixed point of D . Given an arbitrary point $P(x, y, z)$ of D , we would like to define

$$\phi(x, y, z) = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds, \quad (11)$$

where C_1 is a path in D from P_0 to P . But we must show that any *other* path C_2 from P_0 to P would give the same value for $\phi(x, y, z)$.

We may assume, as suggested by Fig. 15.7.7, that C_1 and C_2 intersect only at their endpoints. Then the simple closed curve $C = C_1 \cup (-C_2)$ bounds an oriented surface S in D , and Stokes' theorem gives

$$\int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds - \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \iint_S (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = 0$$

because of the hypothesis that $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} \equiv \mathbf{0}$. This shows that the line integral $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$ is *independent of path*, just as desired. In Problem 21 we ask you to complete this proof by showing that the function ϕ of Eq. (11) is the one whose existence is claimed in Theorem 1. That is, $\mathbf{F} = \nabla\phi$. ■

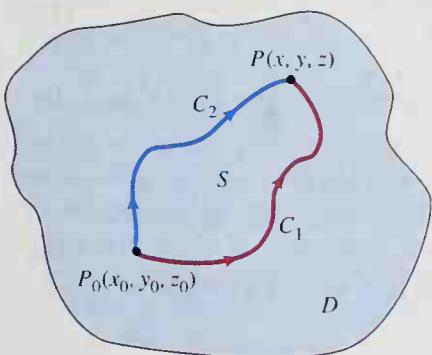


Fig. 15.7.7 Two paths from P_0 to P in the simply connected space region D

EXAMPLE 3 Show that the vector field $\mathbf{F} = 3x^2\mathbf{i} + 5z^2\mathbf{j} + 10yz\mathbf{k}$ is irrotational. Then find a potential function $\phi(x, y, z)$ such that $\nabla\phi = \mathbf{F}$.

Solution To show that \mathbf{F} is irrotational, we calculate

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ 3x^2 & 5z^2 & 10yz \end{vmatrix} = (10z - 10z)\mathbf{i} = \mathbf{0}.$$

Hence Theorem 1 implies that \mathbf{F} has a potential function ϕ . We can apply Eq. (11) to find ϕ explicitly. If C_1 is the straight line segment from $(0, 0, 0)$ to (u, v, w) that is parametrized by $x = ut$, $y = vt$, $z = wt$ for $0 \leq t \leq 1$, then Eq. (11) yields

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(u, v, w) &= \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \int_{(0, 0, 0)}^{(u, v, w)} 3x^2 \, dx + 5z^2 \, dy + 10yz \, dz \\ &= \int_{t=0}^1 (3u^2t^2)(u \, dt) + (5w^2t^2)(v \, dt) + (10vtwt)(w \, dt) \\ &= \int_{t=0}^1 (3u^3t^2 + 15vw^2t^2) \, dt = \left[u^3t^3 + 5vwt^3 \right]_{t=0}^1,\end{aligned}$$

and thus $\phi(u, v, w) = u^3 + 5vw^2$. But because (u, v, w) is an arbitrary point of space, we have found that $\phi(x, y, z) = x^3 + 5yz^2$ is a scalar potential for \mathbf{F} . As a check, we note that $\phi_x = 3x^2$, $\phi_y = 5z^2$, and $\phi_z = 10yz$, so $\nabla\phi = \mathbf{F}$, as desired. ■

APPLICATION Suppose that \mathbf{v} is the velocity field of a steady fluid flow that is both irrotational and incompressible—the density δ of the fluid is constant. Suppose that S is any closed surface that bounds a region T . Then, because of conservation of mass, the flux of \mathbf{v} across S must be zero; the mass of fluid within S remains constant. Hence the divergence theorem gives

$$\iiint_T \operatorname{div} \mathbf{v} \, dV = \iint_S \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = 0.$$

Because this holds for *any* region T , it follows from the usual average value property argument that $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{v} = 0$ everywhere. The scalar function ϕ provided by Theorem 1, for which $\mathbf{v} = \nabla\phi$, is called the **velocity potential** of the fluid flow. We substitute $\mathbf{v} = \nabla\phi$ into the equation $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{v} = 0$ and thereby obtain

$$\operatorname{div}(\nabla\phi) = \frac{\partial^2\phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2\phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2\phi}{\partial z^2} = 0. \quad (12)$$

Thus the velocity potential ϕ of an irrotational and incompressible fluid flow satisfies *Laplace's equation*.

Laplace's equation appears in numerous other applications. For example, consider a heated body whose temperature function $u = u(x, y, z)$ is independent of time t . Then $\partial u / \partial t \equiv 0$ in the heat equation, Eq. (11) of Section 15.6, shows that the “steady-state temperature” function $u(x, y, z)$ satisfies Laplace's equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0. \quad (13)$$

These brief remarks should indicate how the mathematics of this chapter forms the starting point for investigations in a number of areas, including acoustics, aerodynamics, electromagnetism, meteorology, and oceanography. Indeed, the entire subject of vector calculus stems historically from its mathematical applications

rather than from abstract mathematical considerations. The modern form of the subject is due primarily to J. Willard Gibbs (1839–1903), the first great American physicist, and the English electrical engineer Oliver Heaviside (1850–1925).

15.7 PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 5, use Stokes' theorem for the evaluation of

$$\iint_S (\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS.$$

1. $\mathbf{F} = 3y\mathbf{i} - 2x\mathbf{j} + xyz\mathbf{k}$; S is the hemispherical surface $z = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}$ with upper unit normal vector.
2. $\mathbf{F} = 2y\mathbf{i} + 3x\mathbf{j} + e^z\mathbf{k}$; S is the part of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ below the plane $z = 4$ and with upper unit normal vector.
3. $\mathbf{F} = \langle xy, -2, \arctan x^2 \rangle$; S is the part of the paraboloid $z = 9 - x^2 - y^2$ above the xy -plane and with upper unit normal vector.
4. $\mathbf{F} = yz\mathbf{i} + xz\mathbf{j} + xy\mathbf{k}$; S is the part of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ between the two planes $z = 1$ and $z = 3$ and with outer unit normal vector.
5. $\mathbf{F} = \langle yz, -xz, z^3 \rangle$; S is the part of the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ between the two planes $z = 1$ and $z = 3$ and with upper unit normal vector.

In Problems 6 through 10, use Stokes' theorem to evaluate

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds.$$

6. $\mathbf{F} = 3y\mathbf{i} - 2x\mathbf{j} + 4x\mathbf{k}$; C is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 9$, $z = 4$, oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above.
7. $\mathbf{F} = 2z\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} + 3y\mathbf{k}$; C is the ellipse in which the plane $z = x$ meets the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$, oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above.
8. $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} + z\mathbf{j} + x\mathbf{k}$; C is the boundary of the triangle with vertices $(0, 0, 0)$, $(2, 0, 0)$, and $(0, 2, 2)$, oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above.
9. $\mathbf{F} = \langle y - x, x - z, x - y \rangle$; C is the boundary of the part of the plane $x + 2y + z = 2$ that lies in the first octant, oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above.
10. $\mathbf{F} = y^2\mathbf{i} + z^2\mathbf{j} + x^2\mathbf{k}$; C is the intersection of the plane $z = y$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 2y$, oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above.

In Problems 11 through 14, first show that the given vector field \mathbf{F} is irrotational; then apply the method of Example 3 to find a potential function $\phi = \phi(x, y, z)$ for \mathbf{F} .

11. $\mathbf{F} = (3y - 2z)\mathbf{i} + (3x + z)\mathbf{j} + (y - 2x)\mathbf{k}$
12. $\mathbf{F} = (3y^3 - 10xz^2)\mathbf{i} + 9xy^2\mathbf{j} - 10x^2z\mathbf{k}$
13. $\mathbf{F} = (3e^z - 5y \sin x)\mathbf{i} + (5 \cos x)\mathbf{j} + (17 + 3xe^z)\mathbf{k}$
14. $\mathbf{F} = r^3\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ and $r = |\mathbf{r}|$
15. Suppose that $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ and that \mathbf{a} is a constant vector. Show that

- (a)
- (b)
- (c)
- (d)

16. Prove that

has the same value for all oriented surfaces S that have the same oriented boundary curve C .

17. Suppose that S is a closed surface. Prove in two different ways that

(a) by using the divergence theorem, with T the region bounded outside by S , and (b) by using Stokes' theorem, with the aid of a simple closed curve C on S .

Line integrals, surface integrals, and triple integrals of vector-valued functions are defined by componentwise integration. Such integrals appear in Problems 18 through 20.

18. Suppose that C and S are as described in the statement of Stokes' theorem and that ϕ is a scalar function. Prove that

(Suggestion: Apply Stokes' theorem with $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \phi$ where \mathbf{a} is an arbitrary constant vector.)

19. Suppose that \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{r} are as in Problem 15. Prove that

20. Suppose that S is a closed surface that bounds the region T . Prove that

(Suggestion: Apply the divergence theorem to $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{a}$ where \mathbf{a} is an arbitrary constant vector.)

REMARK The formulas of Problem 20, the divergence theorem, and Problem 20 of Section 15.6 all fit the pattern

where $*$ denotes either ordinary multiplication, the dot product, or the vector product, and either a scalar function or a vector-valued function is placed within the parentheses, as appropriate.

21. Suppose that the line integral $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$ is independent of path. If

$$\phi(x, y, z) = \int_p^P \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$$

as in Eq. (11), show that $\nabla\phi = \mathbf{F}$. (Suggestion: If L is the line segment from (x, y, z) to $(x + \Delta x, y, z)$, then

$$\phi(x + \Delta x, y, z) - \phi(x, y, z) = \int_L \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds = \int_x^{x+\Delta x} P dx.)$$

22. Let T be the submerged body of Problem 21 in Section 15.6, with centroid

$$\mathbf{r}_0 = \frac{1}{V} \iiint_T \mathbf{r} dV.$$

The torque about \mathbf{r}_0 of Archimedes' buoyant force $\mathbf{B} = -W\mathbf{k}$ is given by

$$\mathbf{L} = \iint_S (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0) \times (-\delta g z \mathbf{n}) dS.$$

(Why?) Apply the result of Problem 20 of this section to prove that $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{0}$. It follows that \mathbf{B} acts along the vertical line through the centroid \mathbf{r}_0 of the submerged body. (Why?)

CHAPTER 15 REVIEW: DEFINITIONS, CONCEPTS, RESULTS

Use the following list as a guide to concepts that you may need to review.

1. Definition and evaluation of the line integral

$$\int_C f(x, y, z) ds$$

2. Definition and evaluation of the line integral

$$\int_C P dx + Q dy + R dz$$

3. Relationship between the two types of line integrals; the line integral of the tangential component of a vector field

4. Line integrals and independence of path

5. Green's theorem

6. Flux and the vector form of Green's theorem

7. The divergence of a vector field

8. Definition and evaluation of the surface integral

$$\iint_S f(x, y, z) dS$$

9. Definition and evaluation of the surface integral

$$\iint_S P dy dz + Q dz dx + R dx dy$$

10. Relationship between the two types of surface integrals: the flux of a vector field across a surface

11. The divergence theorem in vector and in scalar notation

12. The curl of a vector field

13. Stokes' theorem in vector and in scalar notation

14. The circulation of a vector field around a simple closed curve

15. Physical interpretation of the divergence and the curl of a vector field

CHAPTER 15 MISCELLANEOUS PROBLEMS

1. Evaluate the line integral

$$\int_C (x^2 + y^2) ds,$$

where C is the straight line segment from $(0, 0)$ to $(3, 4)$.

2. Evaluate the line integral

$$\int_C y^2 dx + x^2 dy,$$

where C is the part of the graph of $y = x^2$ from $(-1, 1)$ to $(1, 1)$.

3. Evaluate the line integral

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds,$$

where $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ and C is the curve $x = e^{2t}$, $y = e^t$, $z = e^{-t}$, $0 \leq t \leq \ln 2$.

4. Evaluate the line integral

$$\int_C xyz ds,$$

where C is the path from $(1, 1, 2)$ to $(2, 3, 6)$ consisting of three straight line segments, the first parallel to the x -axis, the second parallel to the y -axis, and the third parallel to the z -axis.

5. Evaluate the line integral

$$\int_C \sqrt{z} dx + \sqrt{x} dy + y^2 dz,$$

where C is the curve $x = t, y = t^{3/2}, z = t^2, 0 \leq t \leq 4$.

6. Apply Theorem 2 of Section 15.3 to show that the line integral

$$\int_C y^2 dx + 2xy dy + z dz$$

is independent of the path C from A to B .

7. Apply Theorem 2 of Section 15.3 to show that the line integral

$$\int_C x^2 y dx + xy^2 dy$$

is not independent of the path C from $(0, 0)$ to $(1, 1)$.

8. A wire shaped like the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2, z = 0$ has constant density and total mass M . Find its moment of inertia around (a) the z -axis; (b) the x -axis.
 9. A wire shaped like the parabola $y = \frac{1}{2}x^2, 0 \leq x \leq 2$, has density function $\delta = x$. Find its mass and its moment of inertia around the y -axis.
 10. Find the work done by the force field $\mathbf{F} = z\mathbf{i} - x\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k}$ in moving a particle from $(1, 1, 1)$ to $(2, 4, 8)$ along the curve $y = x^2, z = x^3$.
 11. Apply Green's theorem to evaluate the line integral

$$\oint_C x^2 y dx + xy^2 dy,$$

where C is the boundary of the region between the two curves $y = x^2$ and $y = 8 - x^2$.

12. Evaluate the line integral

$$\oint_C x^2 dy,$$

where C is the cardioid with polar equation $r = 1 + \cos \theta$, by first applying Green's theorem and then changing to polar coordinates.

13. Let C_1 be the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and C_2 the circle $(x - 1)^2 + y^2 = 9$. Show that if $\mathbf{F} = x^2 y \mathbf{i} - xy^2 \mathbf{j}$, then

$$\oint_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds = \oint_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds.$$

14. (a) Let C be the straight line segment from (x_1, y_1) to (x_2, y_2) . Show that

$$\int_C -y dx + x dy = x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1.$$

- (b) Suppose that the vertices of a polygon are $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$, named in counterclockwise order around the polygon. Apply the result in part (a) to show that the area of the polygon is

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i y_{i+1} - x_{i+1} y_i),$$

where $x_{n+1} = x_1$ and $y_{n+1} = y_1$.

15. Suppose that the line integral $\int_C P dx + Q dy$ is independent of the path in the plane region D . Prove that

$$\oint_C P dx + Q dy = 0$$

for every piecewise smooth simple closed curve C in D .

16. Use Green's theorem to prove that

$$\oint_C P dx + Q dy = 0$$

for every piecewise smooth simple closed curve C in the plane region D if and only if $\partial P / \partial y = \partial Q / \partial x$ at each point of D .

17. Evaluate the surface integral

$$\iint_S (x^2 + y^2 + 2z) dS,$$

where S is the part of the paraboloid $z = 2 - x^2 - y^2$ that lies above the xy -plane.

18. Suppose that $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})$ and that S is the spherical surface $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$. Evaluate

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS$$

without actually performing an antiderivation.

19. Let T be the solid bounded by the paraboloids

$$z = x^2 + 2y^2 \quad \text{and} \quad z = 12 - 2x^2 - y^2,$$

and suppose that $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$. Find by evaluation of surface integrals the outward flux of \mathbf{F} across the boundary of T .

20. Give a reasonable definition—in terms of a surface integral—of the average distance of the point P from points of the surface S . Then show that the average distance of a fixed point of a spherical surface of radius a from all points of the surface is $\frac{4}{3}a$.

21. Suppose that the surface S is the graph of the equation $x = g(y, z)$ for (y, z) in the region D of the yz -plane. Prove that

$$\iint_S P dy dz + Q dz dx + R dx dy$$

$$= \iint_D \left(P - Q \frac{\partial x}{\partial y} - R \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} \right) dy dz.$$

22. Suppose that the surface S is the graph of the equation $y = g(x, z)$ for (x, z) in the region D of the xz -plane. Prove that

$$\iint_S f(x, y, z) dS = \iint_D f(x, g(x, z), z) \sec \beta dx dz,$$

where $\sec \beta = \sqrt{1 + (\partial y / \partial x)^2 + (\partial y / \partial z)^2}$.

23. Let T be a region in space with volume V , boundary surface S , and centroid $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$. Use the divergence theorem to show that

$$\bar{z} = \frac{1}{2V} \iint_S z^2 dx dy.$$

24. Apply the result of Problem 23 to find the centroid of the solid hemisphere

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq a^2, \quad z \geq 0.$$

Problems 25 through 27 outline the derivation of the heat equation for a body with temperature $u = u(x, y, z, t)$ at the point (x, y, z) at time t . Denote by K its heat conductivity and by c its heat capacity, both assumed constant, and let $k = K/c$. Let B be a small solid ball within the body, and let S denote the boundary sphere of B .

25. Deduce from the divergence theorem and Eq. (23) of Section 15.5 that the rate of heat flow across S into B is

$$R = \iint_S k \nabla^2 u dV.$$

26. The meaning of heat capacity is that, if Δu is small, then $(c \Delta u) \Delta V$ calories of heat are required to raise the temperature of the volume ΔV by Δu degrees. It follows that the rate at which the volume ΔV is absorbing heat is $c(\partial u / \partial t) \Delta V$. (Why?) Conclude that the rate of heat flow into B is

$$R = \iint_B c \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} dV.$$

27. Equate the results of Problem 25 and 26, apply the average value property of triple integrals, and then take the limit as the radius of the ball B approaches zero. You should thereby obtain the heat equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = k \nabla^2 u.$$

28. For a steady-state temperature function (one that is independent of time t), the heat equation reduces to Laplace's equation.

$$\nabla^2 u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0.$$

(a) Suppose that u_1 and u_2 are two solutions of Laplace's equation in the region T and that u_1 and u_2 agree on its boundary surface S . Apply Problem 17 of Section 15.6 to the function $f = u_1 - u_2$ to conclude that $\nabla f = \mathbf{0}$ at each point of T . (b) From the facts that $\nabla f = \mathbf{0}$ in T and $f \equiv 0$ on S , conclude that $f \equiv 0$, so $u_1 \equiv u_2$. Thus the steady-state temperatures within a region are determined by the boundary-value temperatures.

29. Suppose that $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ and that $\phi(r)$ is a scalar function of $r = |\mathbf{r}|$. Compute:

$$(a) \nabla \phi(r); \quad (b) \operatorname{div} [\phi(r)\mathbf{r}]; \quad (c) \operatorname{curl} [\phi(r)\mathbf{r}].$$

30. Let S be the upper half of the torus obtained by revolving around the z -axis the circle $(y - a)^2 + z^2 = b^2$ in the yz -plane, with upper unit normal vector. Describe how to subdivide S to establish Stokes' theorem for it. How are the two boundary circles oriented?

31. Explain why the method of subdivision is not sufficient to establish Stokes' theorem for the Möbius strip of Fig. 15.5.3.

32. (a) Suppose that a fluid or a rigid body is rotating with angular speed ω radians per second around the line through the origin determined by the unit vector \mathbf{u} . Show that the velocity of the point with position vector \mathbf{r} is $\mathbf{v} = \boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r}$, where $\boldsymbol{\omega} = \omega \mathbf{u}$ is the angular velocity vector. Note that $|\mathbf{v}| = \omega |\mathbf{r}| \sin \theta$, where θ is the angle between \mathbf{r} and $\boldsymbol{\omega}$. (b) Use the fact that $\mathbf{v} = \boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r}$, established in part(a), to show that $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{v} = 2\boldsymbol{\omega}$.

33. Consider an incompressible fluid flowing in space (no sources or sinks) with variable density $\delta(x, y, z, t)$ and velocity field $\mathbf{v}(x, y, z, t)$. Let B be a small ball with radius r and spherical surface S centered at the point (x_0, y_0, z_0) . Then the amount of fluid within S at time t is

$$Q(t) = \iiint_B \delta dV,$$

and differentiation under the integral sign yields

$$Q'(t) = \iiint_B \frac{\partial \delta}{\partial t} dV.$$

- (a) Consider fluid flow across S to get

$$Q'(t) = - \iint_S \delta \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS,$$

where \mathbf{n} is the outer unit normal vector to S . Now apply the divergence theorem to convert this into a volume integral. (b) Equate your two volume integrals for $Q'(t)$, apply the mean value theorem for integrals, and finally take limits as $r \rightarrow 0$ to obtain the **continuity equation**

$$\frac{\partial \delta}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\delta \mathbf{v}) = 0.$$

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: REAL NUMBERS AND INEQUALITIES

The **real numbers** are already familiar to you. They are just those numbers ordinarily used in most measurements. The mass, velocity, temperature, and charge of a body are measured with real numbers. Real numbers can be represented by **terminating** or **nonterminating** decimal expansions; in fact, every real number has a nonterminating decimal expansion because a terminating expansion can be padded with infinitely many zeros:

$$\frac{3}{8} = 0.375 = 0.375000000 \dots$$

Any **repeating** decimal, such as

$$\frac{7}{22} = 0.3181818181 \dots$$

represents a **rational** number, one that is the ratio of two integers. Conversely, every rational number is represented by a repeating decimal like the two displayed above. But the decimal expansion of an **irrational** number (a real number that is not rational), such as

$$\sqrt{2} = 1.414213562 \dots \quad \text{or} \quad \pi = 3.14159265358979 \dots$$

is both nonterminating and nonrepeating.

The geometric interpretation of real numbers as points on the **real line** (or *real number line*) \mathbf{R} should also be familiar to you. Each real number is represented by precisely one point of \mathbf{R} , and each point of \mathbf{R} represents precisely one real number. By convention, the positive numbers lie to the right of zero and the negative numbers to the left, as in Fig. A.1.

The following properties of inequalities of real numbers are fundamental and often used:

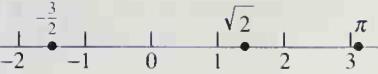


Fig. A.1 The real line \mathbf{R}

$$\text{If } a < b \text{ and } b < c, \text{ then } a < c.$$

$$\text{If } a < b, \text{ then } a + c < b + c. \tag{1}$$

$$\text{If } a < b \text{ and } c > 0, \text{ then } ac < bc.$$

$$\text{If } a < b \text{ and } c < 0, \text{ then } ac > bc.$$

The last two statements mean that an inequality is preserved when its members are multiplied by a *positive* number but is *reversed* when they are multiplied by a *negative* number.

Absolute Value

The (nonnegative) distance along the real line between zero and the real number a is the **absolute value** of a , written $|a|$. Equivalently,

$$|a| = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } a \geq 0, \\ -a & \text{if } a < 0. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

The notation $a \geq 0$ means that a is either greater than zero or equal to zero. Equation (2) implies that $|a| \geq 0$ for every real number a and that $|a| = 0$ if and only if $a = 0$.

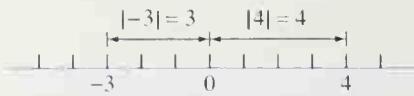


Fig. A.2 The absolute value of a real number is simply its distance from zero (Example 1).

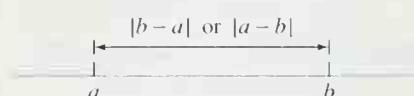


Fig. A.3 The distance between a and b

EXAMPLE 1 As Fig. A.2 shows,

$$|4| = 4 \quad \text{and} \quad |-3| = 3.$$

Moreover, $|0| = 0$ and $|\sqrt{2} - 2| = 2 - \sqrt{2}$, the latter being true because $2 > \sqrt{2}$. Thus $\sqrt{2} - 2 < 0$, and hence

$$|\sqrt{2} - 2| = -(\sqrt{2} - 2) = 2 - \sqrt{2}. \quad \blacksquare$$

The following properties of absolute values are frequently used:

$$\begin{aligned} |a| &= |-a| = \sqrt{a^2} \geq 0, \\ |ab| &= |a||b|, \\ -|a| &\leq a \leq |a|, \quad \text{and} \\ |a| &< b \quad \text{if and only if} \quad -b < a < b. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

The **distance** between the real numbers a and b is defined to be $|a - b|$ (or $|b - a|$; there's no difference). This distance is simply the length of the line segment of the real line \mathbf{R} with endpoints a and b (Fig. A.3).

The properties of inequalities and of absolute values in Eqs. (1) through (3) imply the following important theorem.

Theorem 1 *Triangle Inequality*

For all real numbers a and b ,

$$|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|. \quad (4)$$

PROOF There are several cases to consider, depending on whether the two numbers a and b are positive or negative and which has the larger absolute value. If both are positive, then so is $a + b$; in this case,

$$|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|. \quad (5)$$

If $a > 0$ but $b < 0$ and $|b| < |a|$, then

$$0 < a + b < a,$$

so

$$|a + b| = a + b < a = |a| < |a| + |b|, \quad (6)$$

as illustrated in Fig. A.4. The other cases are similar. In particular, we see that the triangle inequality is actually an equality [as in Eq. (5)] unless a and b have different signs, in which case it is a strict inequality [as in Eq. (6)]. \blacksquare



Fig. A.4 The triangle inequality with $a > 0$, $b < 0$, and $|b| < |a|$

Intervals

Suppose that S is a set (collection) of real numbers. It is common to describe S by the notation

$$S = \{x; \text{condition}\},$$

where the “condition” is true for those numbers x in S and false for those numbers x not in S . The most important sets of real numbers in calculus are **intervals**. If $a < b$, then the **open interval** (a, b) is defined to be the set

$$(a, b) = \{x; a < x < b\}$$

of real numbers, and the **closed interval** $[a, b]$ is

$$[a, b] = \{x; a \leq x \leq b\}.$$

Thus a closed interval contains its endpoints, whereas an open interval does not. We also use the **half-open intervals**

$$[a, b) = \{x; a \leq x < b\} \quad \text{and} \quad (a, b] = \{x; a < x \leq b\}.$$

Thus the open interval $(1, 3)$ is the set of those real numbers x such that $1 < x < 3$, the closed interval $[-1, 2]$ is the set of those real numbers x such that $-1 \leq x \leq 2$, and the half-open interval $(-1, 2]$ is the set of those real numbers x such that $-1 < x \leq 2$. In Fig. A.5 we show examples of such intervals as well as some **unbounded intervals**, which have forms such as

$$[a, +\infty) = \{x; x \geq a\},$$

$$(-\infty, a] = \{x; x \leq a\},$$

$$(a, +\infty) = \{x; x > a\}, \text{ and}$$

$$(-\infty, a) = \{x; x < a\}.$$

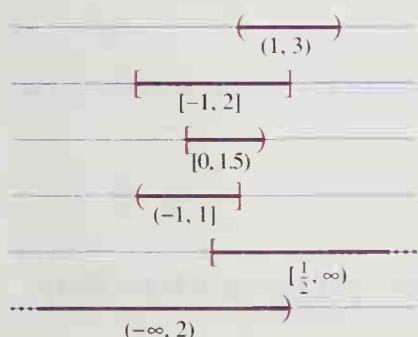


Fig. A.5 Some examples of intervals of real numbers

The symbols $+\infty$ and $-\infty$, denoting “plus infinity” and “minus infinity,” are merely notational conveniences and do *not* represent real numbers—the real line \mathbf{R} does *not* have “endpoints at infinity.” The use of these symbols is motivated by the brief and natural descriptions $[\pi, +\infty)$ and $(-\infty, 2)$ for the sets

$$\{x; x \geq \pi\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{x; x < 2\}$$

of all real numbers x such that $x \geq \pi$ and $x < 2$, respectively.

Inequalities

The set of solutions of an inequality involving a variable x is often an interval or a union of intervals, as in the next examples. The **solution set** of such an inequality is simply the set of all those real numbers x that satisfy the inequality.

EXAMPLE 2 Solve the inequality $2x - 1 < 4x + 5$.

Solution Using the properties of inequalities listed in (1), we proceed much as if we were solving an equation for x : We isolate x on one side of the inequality. Here we begin with

$$2x - 1 < 4x + 5$$

and it follows that

$$-1 < 2x + 5;$$

$$-6 < 2x;$$

$$-3 < x.$$

Hence the solution set is the unbounded interval $(-3, \infty)$. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Solve the inequality $-13 < 1 - 4x \leq 7$.

Solution We simplify the given inequality as follows:

$$-13 < 1 - 4x \leq 7;$$

$$-7 \leq 4x - 1 < 13;$$

$$-6 \leq 4x < 14;$$

$$-\frac{3}{2} \leq x < \frac{7}{2}.$$

Thus the solution set of the given inequality is the half-open interval $[-\frac{3}{2}, \frac{7}{2})$. ■

EXAMPLE 4 Solve the inequality $|3 - 5x| < 2$.

Solution From the fourth property of absolute values in (3), we see that the given inequality is equivalent to

$$-2 < 3 - 5x < 2.$$

We now simplify as in the previous two examples:

$$-5 < -5x < -1;$$

$$\frac{1}{5} < x < 1.$$

Thus the solution set is the open interval $(\frac{1}{5}, 1)$. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Solve the inequality

$$\frac{5}{|2x - 3|} < 1.$$

Solution It is usually best to begin by eliminating a denominator containing the unknown. Here we multiply each term by the *positive* quantity $|2x - 3|$ to obtain the equivalent inequality

$$|2x - 3| > 5.$$

It follows from the last property in (3) that this is so if and only if either

$$2x - 3 < -5 \quad \text{or} \quad 2x - 3 > 5.$$

The solutions of these *two* inequalities are the open intervals $(-\infty, -1)$ and $(4, \infty)$, respectively. Hence the solution set of the original inequality consists of all those numbers x that lie in *either* of these two open intervals. ■

The **union** of the two sets S and T is the set $S \cup T$ given by

$$S \cup T = \{x : \text{either } x \in S \text{ or } x \in T \text{ or both}\}.$$

Thus the solution set in Example 5 can be written in the form $(-\infty, -1) \cup (4, \infty)$.

EXAMPLE 6 In accord with Boyle's law, the pressure p (in pounds per square inch) and volume V (in cubic inches) of a certain gas satisfy the condition $pV = 100$. Suppose that $50 \leq V \leq 150$. What is the range of possible values of the pressure p ?

Solution If we substitute $V = 100/p$ in the given inequality $50 \leq V \leq 150$, we get

$$50 \leq \frac{100}{p} \leq 150.$$

It follows that *both*

$$50 \leq \frac{100}{p} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{100}{p} \leq 150;$$

that is, that *both*

$$p \leq 2 \quad \text{and} \quad p \geq \frac{2}{3}.$$

Thus the pressure p must lie in the closed interval $[\frac{2}{3}, 2]$. ■

The **intersection** of the two sets S and T is the set $S \cap T$ defined as follows:

$$S \cap T = \{x : \text{both } x \in S \text{ and } x \in T\}.$$

Thus the solution set in Example 6 is the set $(-\infty, 2] \cap [\frac{2}{3}, \infty) = [\frac{2}{3}, 2]$.

APPENDIX A PROBLEMS

Simplify the expressions in Problems 1 through 12 by writing each without using absolute value symbols.

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| 1. $ 3 - 17 $ | 2. $ -3 + 17 $ |
| 3. $ -0.25 - \frac{1}{4} $ | 4. $ 5 - -7 $ |
| 5. $ (-5)(4 - 9) $ | 6. $\frac{ -6 }{ 4 + -2 }$ |
| 7. $ (-3)^3 $ | 8. $ 3 - \sqrt{3} $ |
| 9. $ \pi - \frac{22}{7} $ | 10. $- 7 - 4 $ |
| 11. $ x - 3 $, given $x < 3$ | |
| 12. $ x - 5 + x - 10 $, given $ x - 7 < 1$ | |

Solve the inequalities in Problems 13 through 31. Write each solution set in interval notation.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 13. $2x - 7 < -3$ | 14. $1 - 4x > 2$ |
| 15. $3x - 4 \geq 17$ | 16. $2x + 5 \leq 9$ |
| 17. $2 - 3x < 7$ | 18. $6 - 5x > -9$ |
| 19. $-3 < 2x + 5 < 7$ | 20. $4 \leq 3x - 5 \leq 10$ |
| 21. $-6 \leq 5 - 2x < 2$ | 22. $3 < 1 - 5x < 7$ |
| 23. $ 3 - 2x < 5$ | 24. $ 5x + 3 \leq 4$ |
| 25. $ 1 - 3x > 2$ | 26. $1 < 7x - 1 < 3$ |

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| 27. $2 \leq 4 - 5x \leq 4$ | 28. $\frac{1}{2x + 1} > 3$ |
| 29. $\frac{2}{7 - 3x} \leq -5$ | 30. $\frac{2}{ 3x - 4 } < 1$ |
| 31. $\frac{1}{ 1 - 5x } \geq -\frac{1}{3}$ | |
| 32. Solve the inequality $x^2 - x - 6 > 0$. (Suggestion: Conclude from the factorization $x^2 - x - 6 = (x - 3)(x + 2)$ that the quantities $x - 3$ and $x + 2$ are either both positive or both negative. Consider the two cases separately to deduce that the solution set is $(-\infty, -2) \cup (3, \infty)$.) | |

Use the method of Problem 32 to solve the inequalities in Problems 33 through 36.

- | | |
|---|------------------------|
| 33. $x^2 - 2x - 8 > 0$ | 34. $x^2 - 3x + 2 < 0$ |
| 35. $4x^2 - 8x + 3 \geq 0$ | 36. $2x \geq 15 - x^2$ |
| 37. In accord with Boyle's law, the pressure p in pounds (per square inch) and volume V (in cubic inches) of a certain gas satisfy the condition $pV = 800$. What is the range of possible values of the pressure, given $100 \leq V \leq 200$? | |

38. The relationship between the Fahrenheit temperature F and the Celsius temperature C is given by $F = 32 + \frac{9}{5}C$. If the temperature on a certain day ranged from a low of 70° F to a high of 90° F, what was the range of the temperature in degrees Celsius?
39. An electrical circuit contains a battery supplying E volts in series with a resistance of R ohms, as shown in Fig. A.6. Then the current of I amperes that flows in the circuit satisfies Ohm's law, $E = IR$. If $E = 100$ and $25 < R < 50$, what is the range of possible values of I ?

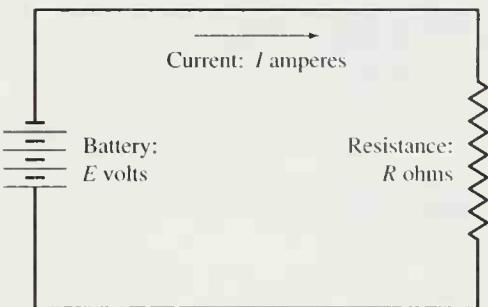


Fig. A.6 A simple electric circuit

40. The period T (in seconds) of a simple pendulum of length

L (in feet) is given by $T = 2\pi\sqrt{L/32}$. If $3 < L < 4$, when is the range of possible values of T ?

41. Use the properties of inequalities in (1) to show that the sum of two positive numbers is positive.
42. Use the properties of inequalities in (1) to show that the product of two positive numbers is positive.
43. Prove that the product of two negative numbers is positive and that the product of a positive number and a negative number is negative.
44. Suppose that $a < b$ and that a and b are either both positive or both negative. Prove that $1/a > 1/b$.
45. Apply the triangle inequality twice to show that

$$|a + b + c| \leq |a| + |b| + |c|$$

for arbitrary real numbers a , b , and c .

46. Write $a = (a - b) + b$ to deduce from the triangle inequality that

$$|a| - |b| \leq |a - b|$$

for arbitrary real numbers a and b .

47. Deduce from the definition in (2) that $|a| < b$ if and only if $-b < a < b$.

APPENDIX B: THE COORDINATE PLANE AND STRAIGHT LINES

Imagine the flat, featureless, two-dimensional plane of Euclid's geometry. Install a copy of the real number line \mathbf{R} , with the line horizontal and the positive numbers to the right. Add another copy of \mathbf{R} perpendicular to the first, with the two lines crossing where the number zero is located on each. The vertical line should have the positive numbers above the horizontal line, as in Fig. B.1; the negative numbers thus will be below it. The horizontal line is called the ***x-axis*** and the vertical line is called the ***y-axis***.

With these added features, we call the plane the **coordinate plane**, because it's now possible to locate any point there by a pair of numbers, called the *coordinates of the point*. Here's how: If P is a point in the plane, draw perpendiculars from P to the coordinate axes, as shown in Fig. B.2. One perpendicular meets the *x-axis* at the ***x-coordinate*** (or **abscissa**) of P , labeled x_1 in Fig. B.2. The other meets the *y-axis* in the ***y-coordinate*** (or **ordinate**) y_1 of P . The pair of numbers (x_1, y_1) , in that order, is called the **coordinate pair** for P , or simply the **coordinates** of P . To be concise, we speak of "the point $P(x_1, y_1)$."

This coordinate system is called the **rectangular coordinate system**, or the **Cartesian coordinate system** (because its use was popularized, beginning in the 1630s, by the French mathematician and philosopher René Descartes [1596–1650]). The plane, thus coordinatized, is denoted by \mathbf{R}^2 because two copies of \mathbf{R} are used; it is known also as the **Cartesian plane**.

Rectangular coordinates are easy to use, because $P(x_1, y_1)$ and $Q(x_2, y_2)$ denote the same point if and only if $x_1 = x_2$ and $y_1 = y_2$. Thus when you know that P and Q are two different points, you may conclude that P and Q have different abscissas, different ordinates, or both.

The point of symmetry $(0, 0)$ where the coordinate axes meet is called the **origin**. All points on the *x-axis* have coordinates of the form $(x, 0)$. Although the *real number* x is not the same as the geometric point $(x, 0)$, there are situations in which it is useful to think of the two as the same. Similar remarks apply to points $(0, y)$ on the *y-axis*.

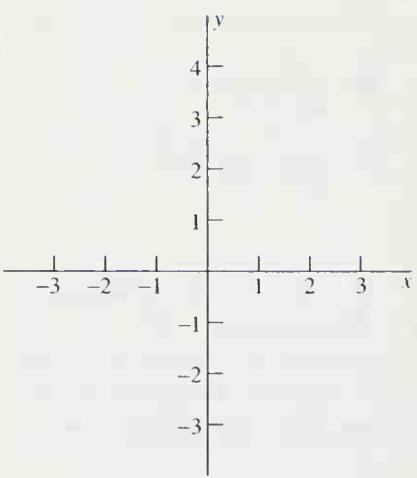


Fig. B.1 The coordinate plane

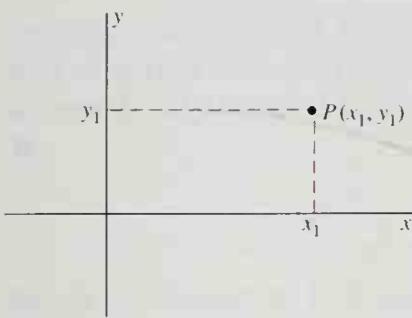


Fig. B.2 The point P has rectangular coordinates (x_1, y_1) .

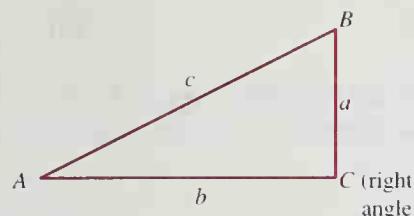


Fig. B.3 The Pythagorean theorem

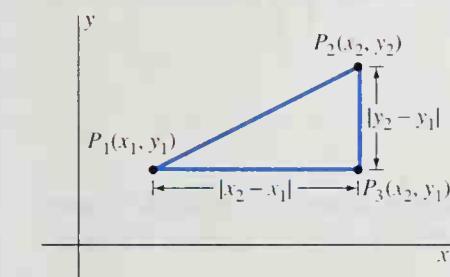


Fig. B.4 Use this triangle to deduce the distance formula.

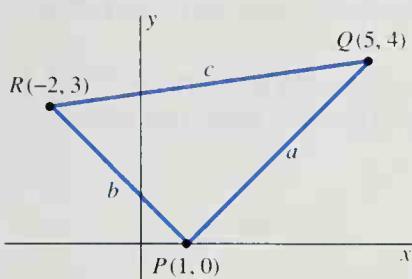


Fig. B.5 Is this a right triangle (Example 1)?

The concept of distance in the coordinate plane is based on the **Pythagorean theorem**: If ABC is a right triangle with its right angle at the point C , with hypotenuse of length c and the other two sides of lengths a and b (as in Fig. B.3), then

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2. \quad (1)$$

The converse of the Pythagorean theorem is also true: If the three sides of a given triangle satisfy the Pythagorean relation in Eq. (1), then the angle opposite side c must be a right angle.

The *distance* $d(P_1, P_2)$ between the points P_1 and P_2 is, by definition, the length of the straight-line segment joining P_1 and P_2 . The following formula gives $d(P_1, P_2)$ in terms of the coordinates of the two points.

Distance Formula

The **distance** between the two points $P_1(x_1, y_1)$ and $P_2(x_2, y_2)$ is

$$d(P_1, P_2) = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}. \quad (2)$$

PROOF If $x_1 \neq x_2$ and $y_1 \neq y_2$, then Eq. (2) follows from the Pythagorean theorem. Use the right triangle with vertices P_1, P_2 , and $P_3(x_2, y_1)$ shown in Fig. B.4.

If $x_1 = x_2$, then P_1 and P_2 lie in a vertical line. In this case

$$d(P_1, P_2) = |y_1 - y_2| = \sqrt{(y_1 - y_2)^2}.$$

This agrees with Eq. (2) because $x_1 = x_2$. The remaining case ($y_1 = y_2$) is similar. ■

EXAMPLE 1 Show that the triangle PQR with vertices $P(1, 0), Q(5, 4)$, and $R(-2, 3)$ is a right triangle (Fig. B.5).

Solution The distance formula gives

$$a^2 = [d(P, Q)]^2 = (5 - 1)^2 + (4 - 0)^2 = 32,$$

$$b^2 = [d(P, R)]^2 = (-2 - 1)^2 + (3 - 0)^2 = 18, \text{ and}$$

$$c^2 = [d(Q, R)]^2 = (-2 - 5)^2 + (3 - 4)^2 = 50.$$

Because $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$, the *converse* of the Pythagorean theorem implies that RPQ is a right angle. (The right angle is at P because P is the vertex opposite the longest side, QR .) ■

Another application of the distance formula is an expression for the coordinates of the midpoint M of the line segment P_1P_2 with endpoint P_1 and P_2 (Fig. B.6). Recall from geometry that M is the one (and only) point of the line segment P_1P_2 that is equally distant from P_1 and P_2 . The following formula tells us that the coordinates of M are the *averages* of the corresponding coordinates of P_1 and P_2 .

Midpoint Formula

The **midpoint** of the line segment with endpoints $P_1(x_1, y_1)$ and $P_2(x_2, y_2)$ is the point $M(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ with coordinates

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{2}(x_1 + x_2) \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{2}(y_1 + y_2). \quad (3)$$

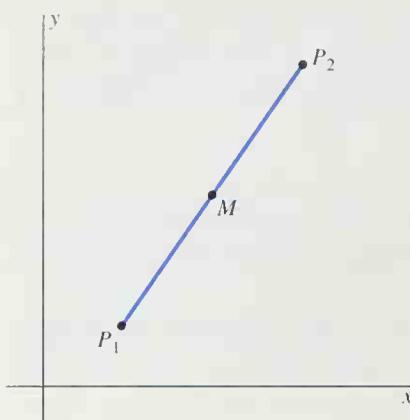


Fig. B.6 The midpoint \$M\$

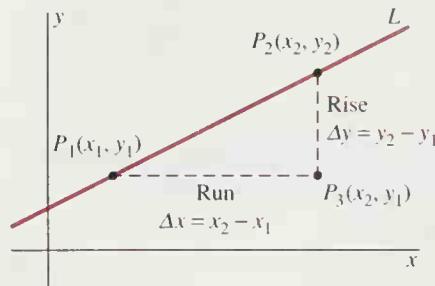


Fig. B.7 The slope of a straight line

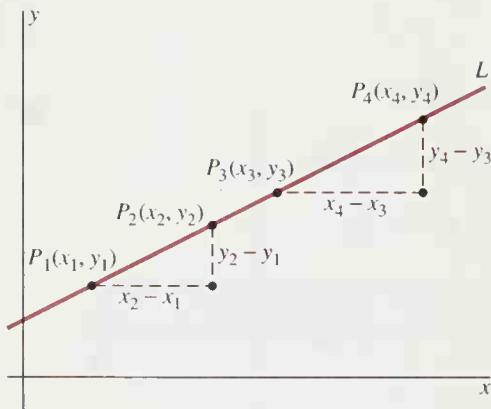


Fig. B.8 The result of the slope computation does not depend on which two points of \$L\$ are used.

PROOF If you substitute the coordinates of \$P_1\$, \$M\$, and \$P_2\$ in the distance formula, you find that \$d(P_1, M) = d(P_2, M)\$. All that remains is to show that \$M\$ lies on the line segment \$P_1P_2\$. We ask you to do this, and thus complete the proof, in Problem 31. ■

Straight Lines and Slope

We want to define the *slope* of a straight line, a measure of its rate of rise or fall from left to right. Given a nonvertical straight line \$L\$ in the coordinate plane, choose two points \$P_1(x_1, y_1)\$ and \$P_2(x_2, y_2)\$ on \$L\$. Consider the **increments** \$\Delta x\$ and \$\Delta y\$ (read “delta \$x\$” and “delta \$y\$”) in the \$x\$- and \$y\$-coordinates from \$P_1\$ to \$P_2\$. These are defined as follows:

$$\Delta x = x_2 - x_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta y = y_2 - y_1. \quad (4)$$

Engineers (and others) call \$\Delta x\$ the **run** from \$P_1\$ to \$P_2\$ and \$\Delta y\$ the **rise** from \$P_1\$ to \$P_2\$, as in Fig. B.7. The **slope** \$m\$ of the nonvertical line \$L\$ is then defined to be the ratio of the rise to the run:

$$m = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}. \quad (5)$$

This is also the definition of a line’s slope in civil engineering (and elsewhere). In a surveying text you are likely to find the memory aid

$$\text{slope} = \frac{\text{rise}}{\text{run}}.$$

Recall that corresponding sides of similar (that is, equal-angled) triangles have equal ratios. Hence, if \$P_3(x_3, y_3)\$ and \$P_4(x_4, y_4)\$ are two other points of \$L\$, then the similarity of the triangles in Fig. B.8 implies that

$$\frac{y_4 - y_3}{x_4 - x_3} = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}.$$

Therefore, the slope \$m\$ as defined in Eq. (5) does *not* depend on the particular choice of \$P_1\$ and \$P_2\$.

If the line \$L\$ is horizontal, then \$\Delta y = 0\$. In this case Eq. (5) gives \$m = 0\$. If \$L\$ is vertical, then \$\Delta x = 0\$, so the slope of \$L\$ is *not defined*. Thus we have the following statements:

- ▼ Horizontal lines have slope zero.
- ▼ Vertical lines have no defined slope.

EXAMPLE 2 (a) The slope of the line through the points \$(3, -2)\$ and \$(-1, 4)\$ is

$$m = \frac{4 - (-2)}{(-1) - 3} = \frac{6}{-4} = -\frac{3}{2}.$$

(b) The points \$(3, -2)\$ and \$(7, -2)\$ have the same \$y\$-coordinate. Therefore, the line through them is horizontal and thus has slope zero.

(c) The points \$(3, -2)\$ and \$(3, 4)\$ have the same \$x\$-coordinate. Thus the line through them is vertical, and so its slope is undefined. ■

Equations of Straight Lines

Our immediate goal is to be able to write equations of given straight lines. That is, if L is a straight line in the coordinate plane, we wish to construct a mathematical sentence—an equation—about points (x, y) in the plane. We want this equation to be *true* when (x, y) is a point on L and *false* when (x, y) is not a point on L . Clearly this equation will involve x and y and some numerical constants determined by L itself. If we are to write this equation, the concept of the slope of L is essential.

Suppose, then, that $P(x_0, y_0)$ is a fixed point on the nonvertical line L of slope m . Let $P(x, y)$ be any *other* point on L . We apply Eq. (5) with P and P_0 in place of P_1 and P_2 to find that

$$m = \frac{y - y_0}{x - x_0};$$

that is,

$$y - y_0 = m(x - x_0). \quad (6)$$

Because the point (x_0, y_0) satisfies Eq. (6), as does every other point of L , and because no other points of the plane can do so, Eq. (6) is indeed an equation for the given line L . In summary, we have the following result.

The Point-Slope Equation

The point $P(x, y)$ lies on the line with slope m through the fixed point (x_0, y_0) if and only if its coordinates satisfy the equation

$$y - y_0 = m(x - x_0). \quad (6)$$

Equation (6) is called the **point-slope** equation of L , partly because the coordinates of the point (x_0, y_0) and the slope m of L may be read directly from this equation.

EXAMPLE 3 Write an equation for the straight line L through the points $P_1(1, -1)$ and $P_2(3, 5)$.

Solution The slope m of L may be obtained from the two given points:

$$m = \frac{5 - (-1)}{3 - 1} = 3.$$

Either P_1 or P_2 will do for the fixed point. We use $P_1(1, -1)$. Then, with the aid of Eq. (6), the point-slope equation of L is

$$y + 1 = 3(x - 1).$$

If simplification is appropriate, we may write $3x - y = 4$ or $y = 3x - 4$. ■

Equation (6) can be written in the form

$$y = mx + b \quad (7)$$

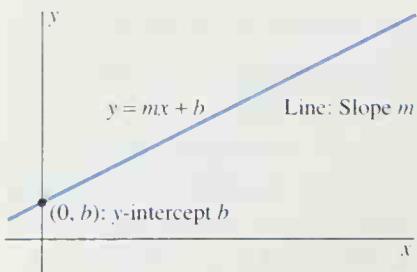


Fig. B.9 The straight line with equation $y = mx + b$ has a slope m and y-intercept b .

where $b = y_0 - mx_0$ is a constant. Because $y = b$ when $x = 0$, the **y-intercept** of L is the point $(0, b)$ shown in Fig. B.9. Equations (6) and (7) are different forms of the equation of a straight line.

The Slope-Intercept Equation

The point $P(x, y)$ lies on the line with slope m and y-intercept b if and only if the coordinates of P satisfy the equation

$$y = mx + b. \quad (7)$$

Perhaps you noticed that both Eq. (6) and Eq. (7) can be written in the form of the general linear equation

$$Ax + By = C, \quad (8)$$

where A , B , and C are constants. Conversely, if $B \neq 0$, then Eq. (8) can be written in the form of Eq. (7) if we divide each term by B . Therefore, Eq. (8) represents a straight line with its slope being the coefficient of x after solution of the equation for y . If $B = 0$, then Eq. (8) reduces to the equation of a vertical line: $x = K$ (where K is a constant). If $A = 0$ and $B \neq 0$, then Eq. (8) reduces to the equation of a horizontal line: $y = H$ (where H is a constant). Thus we see that Eq. (8) is always an equation of a straight line unless $A = B = 0$. Conversely, every straight line in the coordinate plane—even a vertical one—has an equation of the form in (8).

Parallel Lines and Perpendicular Lines

If the line L is not horizontal, then it must cross the x -axis. Then its **angle of inclination** is the angle ϕ measured counterclockwise from the positive x -axis to L . It follows that $0^\circ < \phi < 180^\circ$ if ϕ is measured in degrees. Figure B.10 makes it clear that this angle ϕ and the slope m of a nonvertical line are related by the equation

$$m = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \tan \phi. \quad (9)$$

This is true because if ϕ is an acute angle in a right triangle, then $\tan \phi$ is the ratio of the leg opposite ϕ to the leg adjacent to ϕ .

Your intuition correctly assures you that two lines are parallel if and only if they have the same angle of inclination. So it follows from Eq. (9) that two parallel nonvertical lines have the same slope and that two lines with the same slope must be parallel. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.

Theorem 1 Slopes of Parallel Lines

Two nonvertical lines are parallel if and only if they have the same slope.

Theorem 1 can also be proved without the use of the tangent function. The two lines shown in Fig. B.11 are parallel if and only if the two right triangles are similar, which is equivalent to the slopes of the lines being equal.

EXAMPLE 4 Write an equation of the line L that passes through the point $P(3, -2)$ and is parallel to the line L' with the equation $x + 2y = 6$.

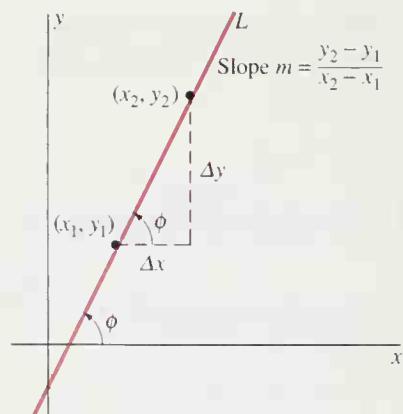


Fig. B.10 How is the angle of inclination ϕ related to the slope m ?

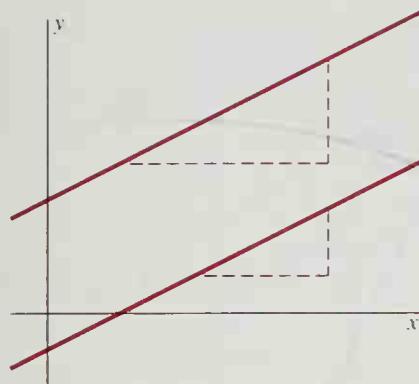


Fig. B.11 Two parallel lines

Solution When we solve the equation of L' for y , we get $y = -\frac{1}{2}x + 3$. So L' has slope $m = -\frac{1}{2}$. Because L has the same slope, its point-slope equation is then

$$y + 2 = -\frac{1}{2}(x - 3);$$

if you prefer, $x + 2y = -1$.

Theorem 2 Slopes of Perpendicular Lines

Two lines L_1 and L_2 with slopes m_1 and m_2 , respectively, are perpendicular if and only if

$$m_1 m_2 = -1. \quad (10)$$

That is, the slope of each is the *negative reciprocal* of the slope of the other.

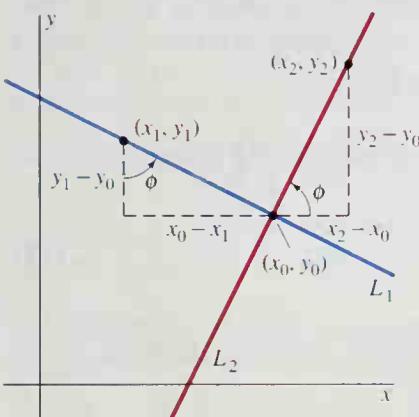


Fig. B.12 Illustration of the proof of Theorem 2

PROOF If the two lines L_1 and L_2 are perpendicular and the slope of each exists, then neither is horizontal or vertical. Thus the situation resembles the one shown in Fig. B.12, in which the two lines meet at the point (x_0, y_0) . It is easy to see that the two right triangles of the figure are similar, so equality of ratios of corresponding sides yields

$$m_2 = \frac{y_2 - y_0}{x_2 - x_0} = \frac{x_0 - x_1}{y_1 - y_0} = -\frac{x_1 - x_0}{y_1 - y_0} = -\frac{1}{m_1}.$$

Thus Eq. (10) holds if the two lines are perpendicular. This argument can be reversed to prove the converse—that the lines are perpendicular if $m_1 m_2 = -1$.

EXAMPLE 5 Write an equation of the line L through the point $P(3, -2)$ that is perpendicular to the line L' with equation $x + 2y = 6$.

Solution As we saw in Example 4, the slope of L' is $m' = -\frac{1}{2}$. By Theorem 2, the slope of L is $m = -1/m' = 2$. Thus L has the point-slope equation

$$y + 2 = 2(x - 3);$$

equivalently, $2x - y = 8$.

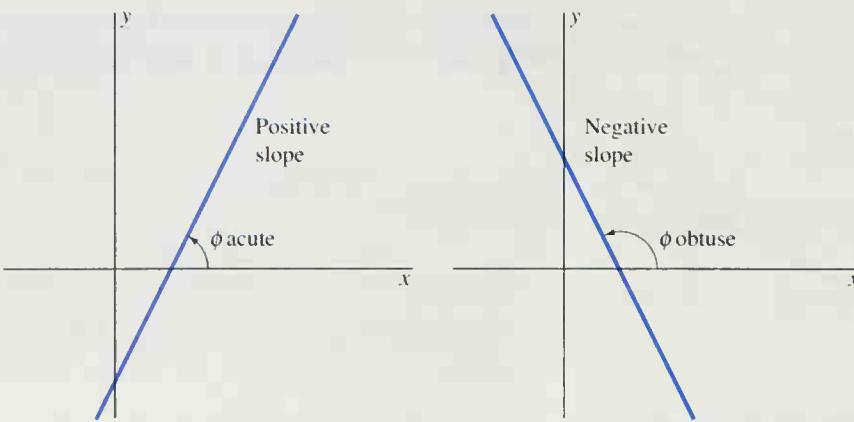
You will find it helpful to remember that the sign of the slope m of the line L indicates whether L runs upward or downward as your eyes move from left to right. If $m > 0$, then the angle of inclination ϕ of L must be an acute angle, because $m = \tan \phi$. In this case, L “runs upward” to the right. If $m < 0$, then ϕ is obtuse, so L “runs downward.” Figure B.13 shows the geometry behind these observations.

Graphical Investigation

Many mathematical problems require the simultaneous solution of a pair of linear equations of the form

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 x + b_1 y &= c_1 \\ a_2 x + b_2 y &= c_2. \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

The graph of these two equations consists of a pair of straight lines in the xy -plane. If these two lines are not parallel, then they must intersect at a single point whose

Fig. B.13 Positive and negative slope; effect on ϕ

coordinates (x_0, y_0) constitute the solution of (11). That is, $x = x_0$ and $y = y_0$ are the (only) values of x and y for which both equations in (11) are true.

In elementary algebra you studied various elimination and substitution methods for solving linear systems such as the one in (11). Example 6 illustrates an alternative *graphical method* that is sometimes useful when a graphing utility—a graphics calculator or a computer with a graphing program—is available.

EXAMPLE 6 We want to investigate the simultaneous solution of the linear equations

$$\begin{aligned} 10x - 8y &= 17 \\ 15x + 18y &= 67. \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

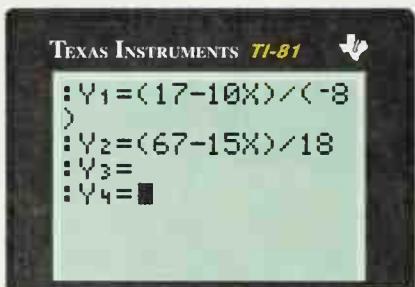


Fig. B.14 A calculator prepared to graph the lines in Eq. (12) (Example 6)

With many graphics calculators, it is necessary first to solve each equation for y :

$$\begin{aligned} y &= (17 - 10x)/(-8) \\ y &= (67 - 15x)/18. \end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

Figure B.14 shows a calculator prepared to graph the two lines represented by the equations in (12), and Fig. B.15 shows the result in the viewing window $-5 \leq x \leq 5$, $-5 \leq y \leq 5$.

Before proceeding, note that in Fig. B.15 the two lines appear to be perpendicular. But their slopes, $(-10)/(-8) = \frac{5}{4}$ and $(-15)/18 = -\frac{5}{6}$, are not negative reciprocals of each other. It follows from Theorem 2 that the two lines are not perpendicular.

Figures B.16, B.17, and B.18 show successive magnifications produced by “zooming in” on the point of intersection of the two lines. The dashed-line box in each figure is the viewing window for the next figure. Looking at Fig. B.18, we see that the intersection point is given by the approximations

$$x \approx 2.807, \quad y \approx 1.383, \tag{14}$$

rounded to three decimal places.

The result in (14) can be checked by equating the right-hand sides in (13) and solving for x . This gives $x = 421/150 \approx 2.8067$. Substitution of the exact value of x into either equation in (13) then yields $y = 83/60 \approx 1.3833$. ■

The graphical method illustrated by Example 6 typically produces approximate solutions that are sufficiently accurate for practical purposes. But the method is especially useful for *nonlinear* equations, for which exact algebraic techniques of solution may not be available.

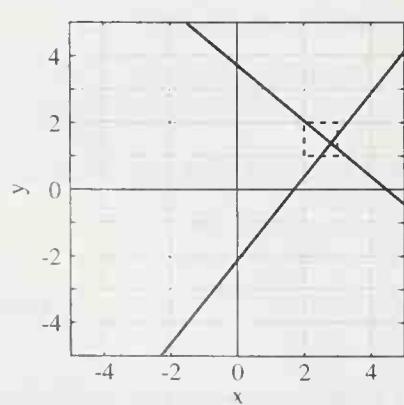


Fig. B.15 $-5 \leq x \leq 5$, $-5 \leq y \leq 5$ (Example 6)

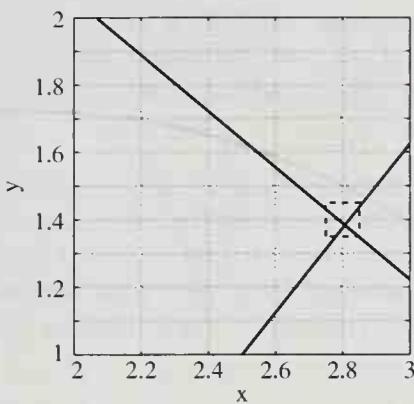


Fig. B.16 $2 \leq x \leq 3, 1 \leq y \leq 2$ (Example 6)

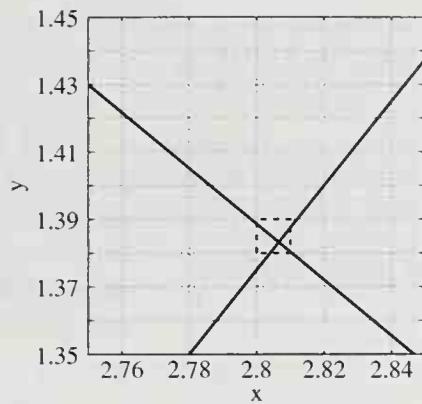


Fig. B.17 $2.75 \leq x \leq 2.85, 1.35 \leq y \leq 1.45$ (Example 6)

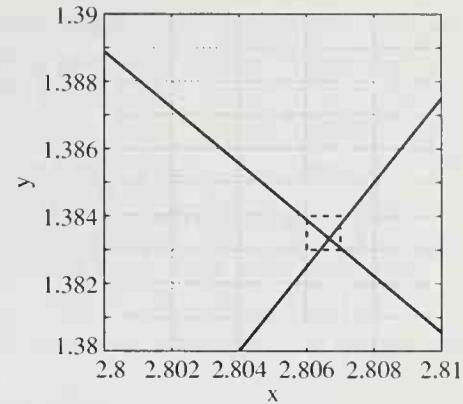


Fig. B.18 $2.80 \leq x \leq 2.81, 1.38 \leq y \leq 1.39$ (Example 6)

APPENDIX B PROBLEMS

Three points A , B , and C lie on a single straight line if and only if the slope of AB is equal to the slope of BC . In Problems 1 through 4, plot the three given points and then determine whether they lie on a single line.

1. $A(-1, -2)$, $B(2, 1)$, $C(4, 3)$
2. $A(-2, 5)$, $B(2, 3)$, $C(8, 0)$
3. $A(-1, 6)$, $B(1, 2)$, $C(4, -2)$
4. $A(-3, 2)$, $B(1, 6)$, $C(8, 14)$

In Problems 5 and 6, use the concept of slope to show that the four points given are the vertices of a parallelogram.

5. $A(-1, 3)$, $B(5, 0)$, $C(7, 4)$, $D(1, 7)$
6. $A(7, -1)$, $B(-2, 2)$, $C(1, 4)$, $D(10, 1)$

In Problems 7 and 8, show that the three given points are the vertices of a right triangle.

7. $A(-2, -1)$, $B(2, 7)$, $C(4, -4)$
8. $A(6, -1)$, $B(2, 3)$, $C(-3, -2)$

In Problems 9 through 13, find the slope m and y -intercept b of the line with the given equation. Then sketch the line.

9. $2x = 3y$
10. $x + y = 1$
11. $2x - y + 3 = 0$
12. $3x + 4y = 6$
13. $2x = 3 - 5y$

In Problems 14 through 23, write an equation of the straight line L described.

14. L is vertical and has x -intercept 7.
15. L is horizontal and passes through $(3, -5)$.
16. L has x -intercept 2 and y -intercept -3 .
17. L passes through $(2, -3)$ and $(5, 3)$.
18. L passes through $(-1, -4)$ and has slope $\frac{1}{2}$.
19. L passes through $(4, 2)$ and has angle of inclination 135° .
20. L has slope 6 and y -intercept 7.
21. L passes through $(1, 5)$ and is parallel to the line with equation $2x + y = 10$.

22. L passes through $(-2, 4)$ and is perpendicular to the line with equation $x + 2y = 17$.
23. L is the perpendicular bisector of the line segment that has endpoints $(-1, 2)$ and $(3, 10)$.
24. Find the perpendicular distance from the point $(2, 1)$ to the line with equation $y = x + 1$.
25. Find the perpendicular distance between the parallel lines $y = 5x + 1$ and $y = 5x + 9$.
26. The points $A(-1, 6)$, $B(0, 0)$, and $C(3, 1)$ are three consecutive vertices of a parallelogram. What are the coordinates of the fourth vertex? (What happens if the word *consecutive* is omitted?)
27. Prove that the diagonals of the parallelogram of Problem 26 bisect each other.
28. Show that the points $A(-1, 2)$, $B(3, -1)$, $C(6, 3)$, and $D(2, 6)$ are the vertices of a **rhombus**—a parallelogram with all four sides having the same length. Then prove that the diagonals of this rhombus are perpendicular to each other.
29. The points $A(2, 1)$, $B(3, 5)$, and $C(7, 3)$ are the vertices of a triangle. Prove that the line joining the midpoints of AB and BC is parallel to AC .
30. A **median** of a triangle is a line joining a vertex to the midpoint of the opposite side. Prove that the medians of the triangle of Problem 29 intersect in a single point.
31. Complete the proof of the midpoint formula in Eq. (3). It is necessary to show that the point M lies on the segment P_1P_2 . One way to do this is to show that the slope of MP_1 is equal to the slope of MP_2 .
32. Let $P(x_0, y_0)$ be a point of the circle with center $C(0, 0)$ and radius r . Recall that the line tangent to the circle at the point P is perpendicular to the radius CP . Prove that the equation of this tangent line is $x_0x + y_0y = r^2$.
33. The Fahrenheit temperature F and the absolute temperature K satisfy a linear equation. Moreover, $K = 273.16$ when $F = 32$, and $K = 373.16$ when $F = 212$. Express K in terms of F . What is the value of F when $K = 0$?

34. The length L (in centimeters) of a copper rod is a linear function of its Celsius temperature C . If $L = 124.942$ when $C = 20$ and $L = 125.134$ when $C = 110$, express L in terms of C .
35. The owner of a grocery store finds that she can sell 980 gal of milk each week at \$1.69/gal and 1220 gal of milk each week at \$1.49/gal. Assume a linear relationship between price and sales. How many gallons would she then expect to sell each week at \$1.56/gal?
36. Figure B.19 shows the graphs of the equations

$$17x - 10y = 57$$

$$25x - 15y = 17.$$

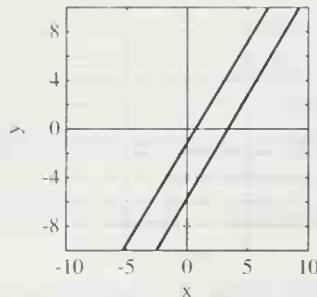


Fig. B.19 The lines of Problem 36

Are these two lines parallel? If not, find their point of intersection. If you have a graphing utility, find the solution by graphical approximation as well as by exact algebraic methods.

In Problems 37 through 46, use a graphics calculator or computer to approximate graphically (with three digits to the right of the decimal correct or correctly rounded) the solution of the given linear equation. Then check your approximate solution by solving the system by an exact algebraic method.

37. $2x + 3y = 5$ 38. $6x + 4y = 5$
 $2x + 5y = 12$ $8x - 6y = 13$
39. $3x + 3y = 17$ 40. $2x + 3y = 17$
 $3x + 5y = 16$ $2x + 5y = 20$
41. $4x + 3y = 17$ 42. $4x + 3y = 15$
 $5x + 5y = 21$ $5x + 5y = 29$
43. $5x + 6y = 16$ 44. $5x + 11y = 21$
 $7x + 10y = 29$ $4x + 10y = 19$
45. $6x + 6y = 31$ 46. $7x + 6y = 31$
 $9x + 11y = 37$ $11x + 11y = 47$
47. Justify the phrase “no other point of the plane can do so” that follows the first appearance of Eq. (6).
48. The discussion of the linear equation $Ax + By = C$ in Eq. (8) does not include a description of the graph of this equation if $A = B = 0$. What is the graph in this case?

APPENDIX C: REVIEW OF TRIGONOMETRY

In elementary trigonometry, the six basic trigonometric functions of an acute angle θ in a right triangle are defined as ratios between pairs of sides of the triangle. As in Fig. C.1, where “adj” stands for “adjacent,” “opp” for “opposite,” and “hyp” for “hypotenuse,”

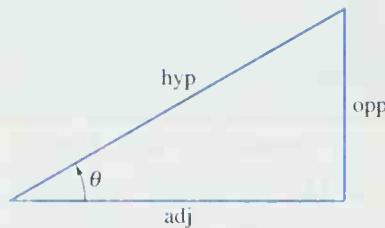


Fig. C.1 The sides and angle θ of a right triangle

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \theta &= \frac{\text{adj}}{\text{hyp}}, & \sin \theta &= \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{hyp}}, & \tan \theta &= \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{adj}}, \\ \sec \theta &= \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{adj}}, & \csc \theta &= \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{opp}}, & \cot \theta &= \frac{\text{adj}}{\text{opp}}. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

We generalize these definitions to *directed* angles of arbitrary size in the following way. Suppose that the initial side of the angle θ is the positive x -axis, so its vertex is at the origin. The angle is **directed** if a direction of rotation from its initial side to its terminal side is specified. We call θ a **positive angle** if this rotation is counterclockwise and a **negative angle** if it is clockwise.

Let $P(x, y)$ be the point at which the terminal side of θ intersects the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Then we define

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \theta &= x, & \sin \theta &= y, & \tan \theta &= \frac{y}{x}, \\ \sec \theta &= \frac{1}{x}, & \csc \theta &= \frac{1}{y}, & \cot \theta &= \frac{x}{y}. \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

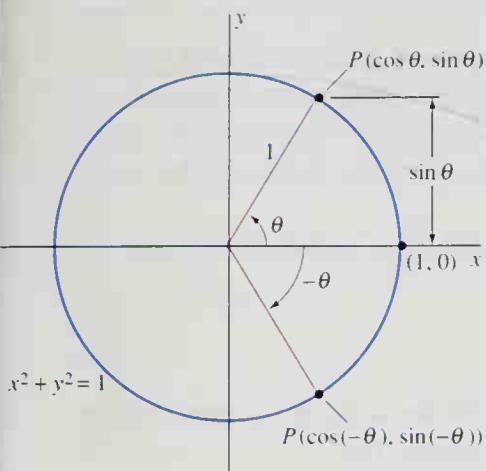
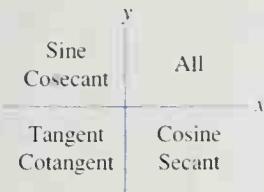


Fig. C.2 Using the unit circle to define the trigonometric functions



Positive in quadrants shown

Fig. C.3 The signs of the trigonometric functions

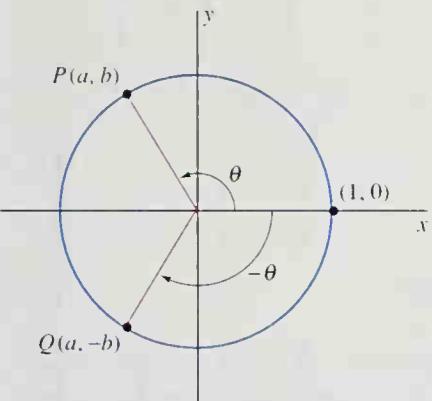


Fig. C.4 The effect of replacing θ with $-\theta$ in the sine and cosine functions

We assume that $x \neq 0$ in the case of $\tan \theta$ and $\sec \theta$ and that $y \neq 0$ in the case of $\cot \theta$ and $\csc \theta$. If the angle θ is positive and acute, then it is clear from Fig. C.2 that the definitions in (2) agree with the right triangle definitions in (1) in terms of the coordinates of P . A glance at the figure also shows which of the functions are positive for angles in each of the four quadrants. Figure C.3 summarizes this information.

Here we discuss primarily the two most basic trigonometric functions, the sine and the cosine. From (2) we see immediately that the other four trigonometric functions are defined in terms of $\sin \theta$ and $\cos \theta$ by

$$\begin{aligned}\tan \theta &= \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}, & \sec \theta &= \frac{1}{\cos \theta}, \\ \cot \theta &= \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta}, & \csc \theta &= \frac{1}{\sin \theta}.\end{aligned}\quad (3)$$

Next, we compare the angles θ and $-\theta$ in Fig. C.4. We see that

$$\cos(-\theta) = \cos \theta \quad \text{and} \quad \sin(-\theta) = -\sin \theta. \quad (4)$$

Because $x = \cos \theta$ and $y = \sin \theta$ in (2), the equation $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ of the unit circle translates immediately into the **fundamental identity of trigonometry**,

$$\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1. \quad (5)$$

Dividing each term of this fundamental identity by $\cos^2 \theta$ gives the identity

$$1 + \tan^2 \theta = \sec^2 \theta. \quad (5')$$

Similarly, dividing each term in Eq. (5) by $\sin^2 \theta$ yields the identity

$$1 + \cot^2 \theta = \csc^2 \theta. \quad (5'')$$

(See Problem 9 of this appendix.)

In Problems 15 and 16 we outline derivations of the **addition formulas**

$$\sin(\alpha + \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta, \quad (6)$$

$$\cos(\alpha + \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta. \quad (7)$$

With $\alpha = \theta = \beta$ in Eqs. (6) and (7), we get the **double-angle formulas**

$$\sin 2\theta = 2 \sin \theta \cos \theta, \quad (8)$$

$$\cos 2\theta = \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta \quad (9)$$

$$= 2 \cos^2 \theta - 1 \quad (9a)$$

$$= 1 - 2 \sin^2 \theta, \quad (9b)$$

where Eqs. (9a) and (9b) are obtained from Eq. (9) by use of the fundamental identity in Eq. (5).

If we solve Eq. (9a) for $\cos^2 \theta$ and Eq. (9b) for $\sin^2 \theta$, we get the **half-angle formulas**

$$\cos^2 \theta = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2\theta), \quad (10)$$

$$\sin^2 \theta = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2\theta). \quad (11)$$

Equations (10) and (11) are especially important in integral calculus.

Radian Measure

In elementary mathematics, angles frequently are measured in *degrees*, with 360° in one complete revolution. In calculus it is more convenient—and often essential—to measure angles in radians. The **radian measure** of an angle is the length of the arc it subtends in (that is, the arc it cuts out of) the unit circle when the vertex of the angle is at the center of the circle (Fig. C.5).

Recall that the area A and circumference C of a circle of radius r are given by the formulas

$$A = \pi r^2 \quad \text{and} \quad C = 2\pi r,$$

where the irrational number π is approximately 3.14159. Because the circumference of the unit circle is 2π and its central angle is 360° , it follows that

$$2\pi \text{ rad} = 360^\circ; \quad 180^\circ = \pi \text{ rad} \approx 3.14159 \text{ rad}. \quad (12)$$

Using Eq. (12), we can easily convert back and forth between radians and degrees:

$$1 \text{ rad} = \frac{180^\circ}{\pi} \approx 57^\circ 17' 44.8'', \quad (12a)$$

$$1^\circ = \frac{\pi}{180} \text{ rad} \approx 0.01745 \text{ rad}. \quad (12b)$$

Figure C.6 shows radian-degree conversions for some common angles.

Now consider an angle of θ radians at the center of a circle of radius r (Fig. C.7). Denote by s the length of the arc subtended by θ ; denote by A the area of the sector of the circle bounded by this angle. Then the proportions

$$\frac{s}{2\pi r} = \frac{A}{\pi r^2} = \frac{\theta}{2\pi}$$

give the formulas

$$s = r\theta \quad (\theta \text{ in radians}) \quad (13)$$

and

$$A = \frac{1}{2}r^2\theta \quad (\theta \text{ in radians}). \quad (14)$$

The definitions in (2) refer to trigonometric functions of angles rather than trigonometric functions of numbers. Suppose that t is a real number. Then the number $\sin t$ is, *by definition*, the sine of an angle of t radians—recall that a positive angle is directed counterclockwise from the positive x -axis, whereas a negative angle is directed clockwise. Briefly, $\sin t$ is the sine of an angle of t radians. The other trigonometric functions of the number t have similar definitions. Hence, when we write $\sin t$, $\cos t$, and so on, with t a real number, it is always in reference to an angle of t radians.

When we need to refer to the sine of an angle of t degrees, we will henceforth write $\sin t^\circ$. The point is that $\sin t$ and $\sin t^\circ$ are quite different functions of the variable t . For example, you would get

$$\sin 1^\circ \approx 0.0175 \quad \text{and} \quad \sin 30^\circ = 0.5$$

on a calculator set in degree mode. But in radian mode, a calculator would give

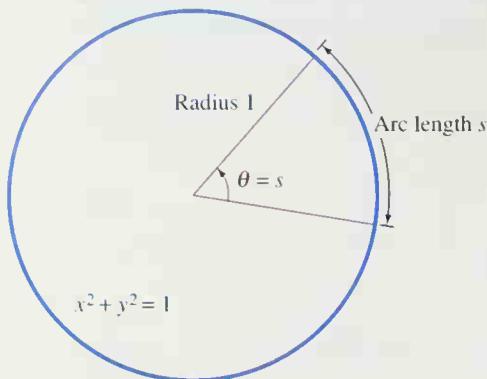


Fig. C.5 The radian measure of an angle

Radians	Degrees
0	0
$\pi/6$	30
$\pi/4$	45
$\pi/3$	60
$\pi/2$	90
$2\pi/3$	120
$3\pi/4$	135
$5\pi/6$	150
π	180
$3\pi/2$	270
2π	360
4π	720

Fig. C.6 Some radian-degree conversions

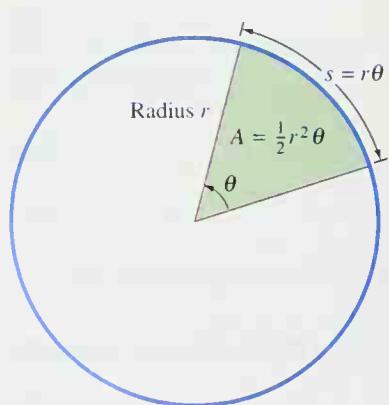


Fig. C.7 The area of a sector and arc length of a circular arc

$$\sin 1 \approx 0.8415 \quad \text{and} \quad \sin 30 \approx -0.9880.$$

The relationship between the functions $\sin t$ and $\sin t^\circ$ is

$$\sin t^\circ = \sin\left(\frac{\pi t}{180}\right). \quad (15)$$

The distinction extends even to programming languages. In FORTRAN, the function **SIN** is the radian sine function, and you must write $\sin t^\circ$ in the form **SIND(T)**. In BASIC you must write **SIN(Pi*T/180)** to get the correct value of the sine of an angle of t degrees.

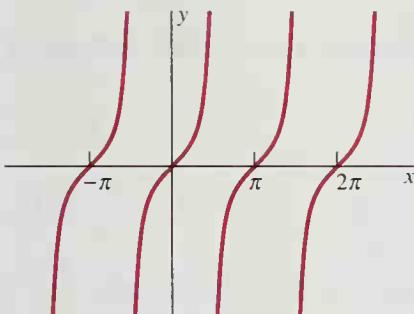
An angle of 2π rad corresponds to one revolution around the unit circle. This implies that the sine and cosine functions have **period** 2π , meaning that

$$\begin{aligned} \sin(t + 2\pi) &= \sin t, \\ \cos(t + 2\pi) &= \cos t. \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

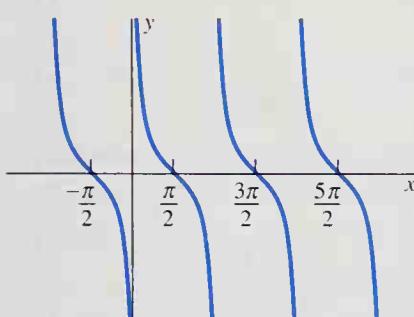
It follows from the equations in (16) that

$$\sin(t + 2n\pi) = \sin t \quad \text{and} \quad \cos(t + 2n\pi) = \cos t \quad (17)$$

for every integer n . This periodicity of the sine and cosine functions is evident in their graphs (Fig. C.8). From the equations in (3), the other four trigonometric functions also must be periodic, as their graphs in Figs. C.9 and C.10 show.



(a)



(b)

Fig. C.9 The graphs of (a) the tangent function and (b) the cotangent function

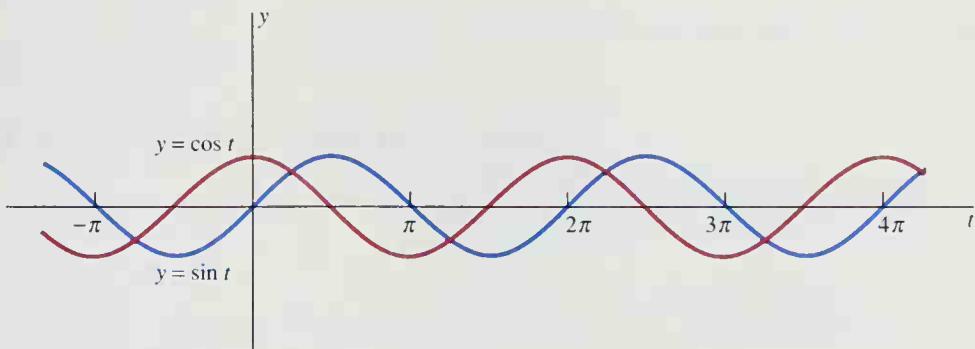
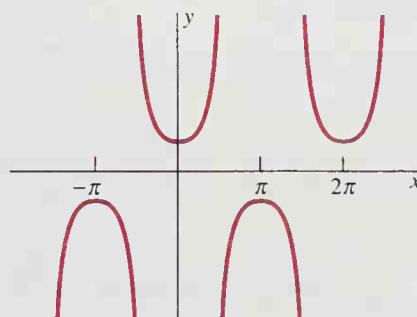
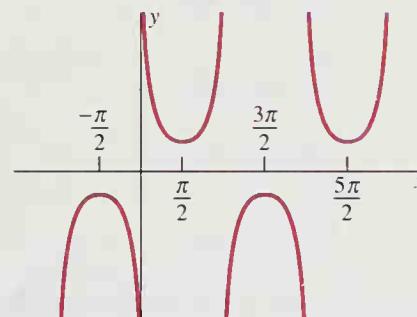


Fig. C.8 Periodicity of the sine and cosine functions



(a)



(b)

Fig. C.10 The graphs of (a) the secant function and (b) the cosecant function

We see from the equations in (2) that

$$\begin{aligned}\sin 0 &= 0, & \sin \frac{\pi}{2} &= 1, & \sin \pi &= 0, \\ (18)\end{aligned}$$

$$\cos 0 = 1, \quad \cos \frac{\pi}{2} = 0, \quad \cos \pi = -1.$$

The trigonometric functions of $\pi/6$, $\pi/4$, and $\pi/3$ (the radian equivalents of 30° , 45° , and 60° , respectively) are easy to read from the well-known triangles of Fig. C.11. For instance,

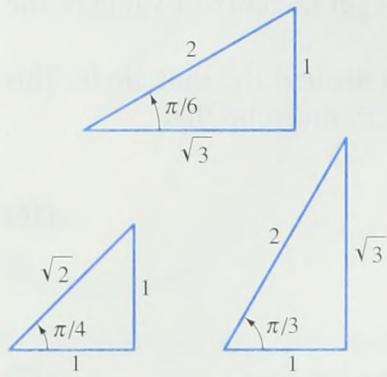


Fig. C.11 Familiar right triangles

To find the values of trigonometric functions of angles larger than $\pi/2$, we can use their periodicity and the identities

$$\sin(\pi \pm \theta) = \mp \sin \theta,$$

$$\cos(\pi \pm \theta) = -\cos \theta, \text{ and}$$

$$\tan(\pi \pm \theta) = \pm \tan \theta$$

(Problem 14) as well as similar identities for the cosecant, secant, and cotangent functions.

EXAMPLE 1

$$\sin \frac{5\pi}{4} = \sin\left(\pi + \frac{\pi}{4}\right) = -\sin \frac{\pi}{4} = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2};$$

$$\cos \frac{2\pi}{3} = \cos\left(\pi - \frac{\pi}{3}\right) = -\cos \frac{\pi}{3} = -\frac{1}{2};$$

$$\tan \frac{3\pi}{4} = \tan\left(\pi - \frac{\pi}{4}\right) = -\tan \frac{\pi}{4} = -1;$$

$$\sin \frac{7\pi}{6} = \sin\left(\pi + \frac{\pi}{6}\right) = -\sin \frac{\pi}{6} = -\frac{1}{2};$$

$$\cos \frac{5\pi}{3} = \cos\left(2\pi - \frac{\pi}{3}\right) = \cos\left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = \cos \frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{1}{2};$$

$$\sin \frac{17\pi}{6} = \sin\left(2\pi + \frac{5\pi}{6}\right) = \sin \frac{5\pi}{6}$$

$$= \sin\left(\pi - \frac{\pi}{6}\right) = \sin \frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

EXAMPLE 2 Find the solutions (if any) of the equation

$$\sin^2 x - 3 \cos^2 x + 2 = 0$$

that lie in the interval $[0, \pi]$.

Solution Using the fundamental identity in Eq. (5), we substitute $\cos^2 x = 1 - \sin^2 x$ into the given equation to obtain

$$\sin^2 x - 3(1 - \sin^2 x) + 2 = 0;$$

$$4 \sin^2 x - 1 = 0;$$

$$\sin x = \pm \frac{1}{2}.$$

Because $\sin x \geq 0$ for x in $[0, \pi]$, $\sin x = -\frac{1}{2}$ is impossible. But $\sin x = \frac{1}{2}$ for $x = \pi/6$ and for $x = \pi - \pi/6 = 5\pi/6$. These are the solutions of the given equation that lie in $[0, \pi]$. ■

APPENDIX C PROBLEMS

Express in radian measure the angles in Problems 1 through 5.

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1. 40° | 2. -270° |
| 3. 315° | 4. 210° |
| 5. -150° | |

Deduce the identities in Problems 26 and 27 from the fundamental identity

$$\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$$

and from the definitions of the other four trigonometric functions.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 26. $1 + \tan^2 \theta = \sec^2 \theta$ | |
| 27. $1 + \cot^2 \theta = \csc^2 \theta$ | |
| 28. Deduce from the addition formulas for the sine and cosine the addition formula for the tangent: | |

$$\tan(x + y) = \frac{\tan x + \tan y}{1 - \tan x \tan y}.$$

In Problems 29 through 36, use the method of Example 1 to find the indicated values.

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 29. $\sin \frac{5\pi}{6}$ | 30. $\cos \frac{7\pi}{6}$ |
| 31. $\sin \frac{11\pi}{6}$ | 32. $\cos \frac{19\pi}{6}$ |
| 33. $\sin \frac{2\pi}{3}$ | 34. $\cos \frac{4\pi}{3}$ |
| 35. $\sin \frac{5\pi}{3}$ | 36. $\cos \frac{10\pi}{3}$ |

37. Apply the addition formula for the sine, cosine, and tangent functions (the latter from Problem 28) to show that if $0 < \theta < \pi/2$, then

- (a) $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \sin \theta$; (b) $\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \cos \theta$;
 (c) $\cot\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \tan \theta$.

In Problems 11 through 14, evaluate the six trigonometric functions of x at the given values.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 11. $x = -\frac{\pi}{3}$ | 12. $x = \frac{3\pi}{4}$ |
| 13. $x = \frac{7\pi}{6}$ | 14. $x = \frac{5\pi}{3}$ |

Find all solutions x of each equation in Problems 15 through 23.

- | | |
|---|-------------------|
| 15. $\sin x = 0$ | 16. $\sin x = 1$ |
| 17. $\sin x = -1$ | 18. $\cos x = 0$ |
| 19. $\cos x = 1$ | 20. $\cos x = -1$ |
| 21. $\tan x = 0$ | 22. $\tan x = 1$ |
| 23. $\tan x = -1$ | |
| 24. Suppose that $\tan x = \frac{3}{4}$ and that $\sin x < 0$. Find the values of the other five trigonometric functions of x . | |
| 25. Suppose that $\csc x = -\frac{5}{3}$ and that $\cos x > 0$. Find the values of the other five trigonometric functions of x . | |

The prefix *co-* is an abbreviation for the adjective *complementary*, which describes two angles whose sum is $\pi/2$. For example, $\pi/6$ and $\pi/3$ are complementary angles, so (a) implies that $\cos \pi/6 = \sin \pi/3$.

Suppose that $0 < \theta < \pi/2$. Derive the identities in Problems 38 through 40.

38. $\sin(\pi \pm \theta) = \mp \sin \theta$ 39. $\cos(\pi \pm \theta) = -\cos \theta$

40. $\tan(\pi \pm \theta) = \pm \tan \theta$

41. The points $A(\cos \theta, -\sin \theta)$, $B(1, 0)$, $C(\cos \phi, \sin \phi)$, and $D(\cos(\theta + \phi), \sin(\theta + \phi))$ are shown in Fig. C.12; all are points on the unit circle. Deduce from the fact that the line segments AC and BD have the same length (because they are subtended by the same central angle $\theta + \phi$) that

$$\cos(\theta + \phi) = \cos \theta \cos \phi - \sin \theta \sin \phi.$$

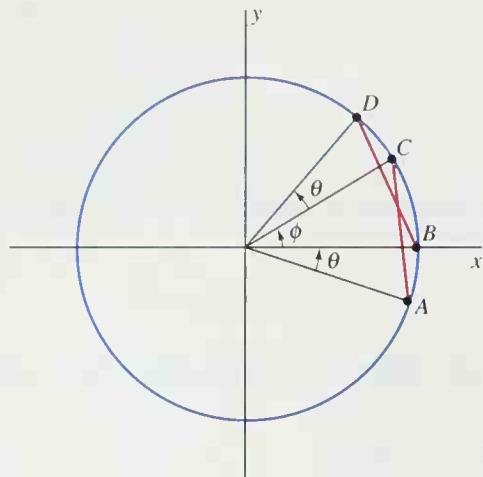


Fig. C.12 Deriving the cosine addition formula (Problem 41)

42. (a) Use the triangles shown in Fig. C.13 to deduce that

$$\sin\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \cos \theta \quad \text{and} \quad \cos\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -\sin \theta.$$

- (b) Use the results of Problem 41 and part (a) to derive the addition formula for the sine function.

In Problems 43 through 48, find all solutions of the given equation that lie in the interval $[0, \pi]$.

43. $3 \sin^2 x - \cos^2 x = 2$ 44. $\sin^2 x = \cos^2 x$

45. $2 \cos^2 x + 3 \sin^2 x = 3$ 46. $2 \sin^2 x + \cos x = 2$

47. $8 \sin^2 x \cos^2 x = 1$ 48. $\cos 2\theta - 3 \cos \theta = -2$

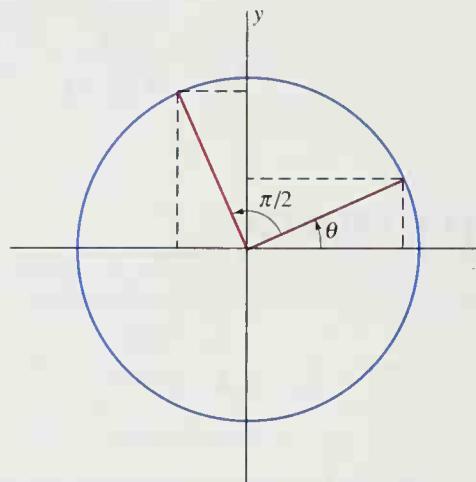


Fig. C.13 Deriving the identities of Problem 42

APPENDIX D: PROOFS OF THE LIMIT LAWS

Recall the definition of the limit:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} F(x) = L$$

provided that, given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \quad \text{implies that} \quad |F(x) - L| < \epsilon. \quad (1)$$

Note that the number ϵ comes *first*. Then a value of $\delta > 0$ must be found so that the implication in (1) holds. To prove that $F(x) \rightarrow L$ as $x \rightarrow a$, you must, in effect, be able to stop the next person you see and ask him or her to pick a positive number ϵ at random. Then you must *always* be ready to respond with a positive number δ . This number δ must have the property that the implication in (1) holds for your number δ and the given number ϵ . The **only** restriction on x is that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta,$$

as given in (1).

To do all this, you will ordinarily need to give an explicit method—a recipe or formula—for producing a value of δ that works for each value of ϵ . As Examples 1 through 3 show, the method will depend on the particular function F under study as well as the values of a and L .

EXAMPLE 1 Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} (2x - 1) = 5$.

Solution Given $\epsilon > 0$, we must find $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|(2x - 1) - 5| < \epsilon \quad \text{if } 0 < |x - 3| < \delta.$$

Now

$$|(2x - 1) - 5| = |2x - 6| = 2|x - 3|,$$

so

$$0 < |x - 3| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \text{implies that} \quad |(2x - 1) - 5| < 2 \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon.$$

Hence, given $\epsilon > 0$, it suffices to choose $\delta = \epsilon/2$. This illustrates the observation that the required number δ is generally a function of the given number ϵ . ■

EXAMPLE 2 Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (3x^2 + 5) = 17$.

Solution Given $\epsilon > 0$, we must find $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - 2| < \delta \quad \text{implies that} \quad |(3x^2 + 5) - 17| < \epsilon.$$

Now

$$|(3x^2 + 5) - 17| = |3x^2 - 12| = 3 \cdot |x + 2| \cdot |x - 2|.$$

Our problem, therefore, is to show that $|x + 2| \cdot |x - 2|$ can be made as small as we please by choosing $x - 2$ sufficiently small. The idea is that $|x + 2|$ cannot be too large if $|x - 2|$ is fairly small. For example, if $|x - 2| < 1$, then

$$|x + 2| = |(x - 2) + 4| \leq |x - 2| + 4 < 5.$$

Therefore,

$$0 < |x - 2| < 1 \quad \text{implies that} \quad |(3x^2 + 5) - 17| < 15 \cdot |x - 2|.$$

Consequently, let us choose δ to be the minimum of the two numbers 1 and $\epsilon/15$. Then

$$0 < |x - 2| < \delta \quad \text{implies that} \quad |(3x^2 + 5) - 17| < 15 \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{15} = \epsilon,$$

as desired. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Prove that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{a} \quad \text{if } a \neq 0.$$

Solution For simplicity, we will consider only the case in which $a > 0$ (the case $a < 0$ is similar).

Suppose that $\epsilon > 0$ is given. We must find a number δ such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \text{ implies that } \left| \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{a} \right| < \epsilon.$$

Now

$$\left| \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{a} \right| = \left| \frac{a - x}{ax} \right| = \frac{|x - a|}{a|x|}.$$

The idea is that $1/|x|$ cannot be too large if $|x - a|$ is fairly small. For example, if $|x - a| < a/2$, then $a/2 < x < 3a/2$. Therefore,

$$|x| > \frac{a}{2}, \text{ so } \frac{1}{|x|} < \frac{2}{a}.$$

In this case it would follow that

$$\left| \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{a} \right| < \frac{2}{a^2} \cdot |x - a|$$

if $|x - a| < a/2$. Thus, if we choose δ to be the minimum of the two numbers $a/2$ and $a^2\epsilon/2$, then

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \text{ implies that } \left| \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{a} \right| < \frac{2}{a^2} \cdot \frac{a^2\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon.$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{a} \quad \text{if } a \neq 0,$$

as desired. ■

We are now ready to give proofs of the limit laws stated in Section 2.2.

Constant Law

If $f(x) \equiv C$, a constant, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} C = C.$$

PROOF Because $|C - C| = 0$, we merely choose $\delta = 1$, regardless of the previously given value of $\epsilon > 0$. Then, if $0 < |x - a| < \delta$, it is automatic that $|C - C| < \epsilon$. ■

Addition Law

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} F(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} G(x) = M$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [F(x) + G(x)] = L + M.$$

PROOF Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. Because L is the limit of $F(x)$ as $x \rightarrow a$, there exists a number $\delta_1 > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_1 \text{ implies that } |F(x) - L| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Because M is the limit of $G(x)$ as $x \rightarrow a$, there exists a number $\delta_2 > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_2 \text{ implies that } |G(x) - M| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Let $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$. Then $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ implies that

$$|(F(x) + G(x)) - (L + M)| \leq |F(x) - L| + |G(x) - M| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon.$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [F(x) + G(x)] = L + M,$$

as desired. ■

Product Law

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} F(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} G(x) = M$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [F(x) \cdot G(x)] = L \cdot M.$$

PROOF Given $\epsilon > 0$, we must find a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \text{ implies that } |F(x) \cdot G(x) - L \cdot M| < \epsilon.$$

But first, the triangle inequality gives the result

$$\begin{aligned} |F(x) \cdot G(x) - L \cdot M| &= |F(x) \cdot G(x) - L \cdot G(x) + L \cdot G(x) - L \cdot M| \\ &\leq |G(x)| \cdot |F(x) - L| + |L| \cdot |G(x) - M|. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Because $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} F(x) = L$, there exists $\delta_1 > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_1 \text{ implies that } |F(x) - L| < \frac{\epsilon}{2(|M| + 1)}. \quad (3)$$

And because $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} G(x) = M$, there exists $\delta_2 > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_2 \text{ implies that } |G(x) - M| < \frac{\epsilon}{2(|L| + 1)}. \quad (4)$$

Moreover, there is a *third* number $\delta_3 > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_3 \text{ implies that } |G(x) - M| < 1,$$

which in turn implies that

$$|G(x)| < |M| + 1, \quad (5)$$

We now choose $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2, \delta_3\}$. Then we substitute (3), (4), and (5) into (2) and, finally, see that $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ implies that

$$\begin{aligned}|F(x) \cdot G(x) - L \cdot M| &< (|M| + 1) \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{2(|M| + 1)} + |L| \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{2(|L| + 1)} \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon,\end{aligned}$$

as desired. The use of $|M| + 1$ and $|L| + 1$ in the denominators avoids the technical difficulty that arises should either L or M be zero. ■

Substitution Law

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow L} f(x) = f(L)$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(g(x)) = f(L).$$

PROOF Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. We must find a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \text{ implies that } |f(g(x)) - f(L)| < \epsilon.$$

Because $f(y) \rightarrow f(L)$ as $y \rightarrow L$, there exists $\delta_1 > 0$ such that

$$0 < |y - L| < \delta_1 \text{ implies that } |f(y) - f(L)| < \epsilon. \quad (6)$$

Also, because $g(x) \rightarrow L$ as $x \rightarrow a$, we can find $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \text{ implies that } |g(x) - L| < \delta_1;$$

that is, such that

$$|y - L| < \delta_1,$$

where $y = g(x)$. From (6) we see that $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ implies that

$$|f(g(x)) - f(L)| = |f(y) - f(L)| < \epsilon,$$

as desired. ■

Reciprocal Law

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L$ and $L \neq 0$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{g(x)} = \frac{1}{L}.$$

PROOF Let $f(x) = 1/x$. Then, as we saw in Example 3,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{L} = f(L).$$

Hence the substitution law gives the result

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(g(x)) = f(L) = \frac{1}{L},$$

as desired. ■

Quotient Law

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} F(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} G(x) = M \neq 0$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{F(x)}{G(x)} = \frac{L}{M}.$$

PROOF It follows immediately from the product and reciprocal laws that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{F(x)}{G(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} F(x) \cdot \frac{1}{G(x)} = \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} F(x) \right) \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{G(x)} \right) = L \cdot \frac{1}{M} = \frac{L}{M},$$

as desired. ■

Squeeze Law

Suppose that $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ in some deleted neighborhood of a and that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x).$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L.$$

PROOF Given $\epsilon > 0$, we choose $\delta_1 > 0$ and $\delta_2 > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_1 \text{ implies that } |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

and

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_2 \text{ implies that } |h(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Let $\delta = \min \{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$. Then $\delta > 0$. Moreover, if $0 < |x - a| < \delta$, then both $f(x)$ and $h(x)$ are points of the open interval $(L - \epsilon, L + \epsilon)$. So

$$L - \epsilon < f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x) < L + \epsilon.$$

Thus

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \text{ implies that } |g(x) - L| < \epsilon,$$

as desired. ■

APPENDIX D PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 10, apply the definition of the limit to establish the given equality.

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$

2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} 3x = 6$

3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x + 3) = 5$

4. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} (2x + 1) = -5$

5. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x^2 = 1$

6. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x^2 = a^2$

7. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (2x^2 - 1) = 1$

8. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{x^2} = \frac{1}{a^2}$

9. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} = \frac{1}{a^2 + 1}$

10. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}$ if $a > 0$

11. Suppose that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = M.$$

Apply the definition of the limit to prove that $L = M$. Thus the limit of the function f at $x = a$ is unique if it exists.

12. Suppose that C is a constant and that $f(x) \rightarrow L$ as $x \rightarrow a$. Apply the definition of the limit to prove that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} C \cdot f(x) = C \cdot L.$$

13. Suppose that $L \neq 0$ and that $f(x) \rightarrow L$ as $x \rightarrow a$. Use the method of Example 3 and the definition of the limit to show directly that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{f(x)} = \frac{1}{L}.$$

14. Use the algebraic identity

$$x^n - a^n = (x - a)(x^{n-1} + x^{n-2}a + x^{n-3}a^2 + \cdots + xa^{n-2} + a^{n-1})$$

to show directly from the definition of the limit that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x^n = a^n$ if n is a positive integer.

15. Apply the identity

$$|\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{a}| = \frac{|x - a|}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{a}}$$

to show directly from the definition of the limit that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt{x} = \sqrt{a}$ if $a > 0$.

16. Suppose that $f(x) \rightarrow f(a) > 0$ as $x \rightarrow a$. Prove that there exists a neighborhood of a on which $f(x) > 0$; that is, prove that there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|x - a| < \delta \text{ implies that } f(x) > 0.$$

APPENDIX E: THE COMPLETENESS OF THE REAL NUMBER SYSTEM

Here we present a self-contained treatment of those consequences of the completeness of the real number system that are relevant to this text. Our principal objective is to prove the intermediate value theorem and the maximum value theorem. We begin with the least upper bound property of the real numbers, which we take to be an axiom.

Definition *Upper Bound and Lower Bound*

The set S of real numbers is said to be **bounded above** if there is a number b such that $x \leq b$ for every number x in S , and the number b is then called an **upper bound** for S . Similarly, if there is a number a such that $x \geq a$ for every number x in S , then S is said to be **bounded below**, and a is called a **lower bound** for S .

Definition *Least Upper Bound and Greatest Lower Bound*

The number λ is said to be a **least upper bound** for the set S of real numbers provided that

1. λ is an upper bound for S , and
2. If b is an upper bound for S , then $\lambda \leq b$.

Similarly, the number γ is said to be a **greatest lower bound** for S if γ is a lower bound for S and $\gamma \geq a$ for every lower bound a of S .

Exercise Prove that if the set S has a least upper bound λ , then it is unique. That is, prove that if λ and μ are least upper bounds for S , then $\lambda = \mu$.

It is easy to show that the greatest lower bound γ of a set S , if any, is also unique. At this point you should construct examples to illustrate that a set with a least upper bound λ may or may not contain λ and that a similar statement is true of the set's greatest lower bound.

We now state the *completeness axiom* of the real number system.

Least Upper Bound Axiom

If the nonempty set S of real numbers has an upper bound, then it has a least upper bound.

By working with the set T consisting of the numbers $-x$, where x is in S , it is not difficult to show the following consequence of the least upper bound axiom: If the nonempty set S of real numbers is bounded below, then S has a greatest lower bound. Because of this symmetry, we need only one axiom, not two; results for least upper bounds also hold for greatest lower bounds, provided that some attention is paid to the directions of the inequalities.

The restriction that S be nonempty is annoying but necessary. If S is the “empty” set of real numbers, then 15 is an upper bound for S , but S has no least upper bound because 14, 13, 12, . . . , 0, -1, -2, . . . are also upper bounds for S .

Definition Increasing, Decreasing, and Monotonic Sequences

The infinite sequence $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_k, \dots$ is said to be **nondecreasing** if $x_n \leq x_{n+1}$ for every $n \geq 1$. This sequence is said to be **nonincreasing** if $x_n \geq x_{n+1}$ for every $n \geq 1$. If the sequence $\{x_n\}$ is either nonincreasing or nondecreasing, then it is said to be **monotonic**.

Theorem 1 gives the **bounded monotonic sequence property** of the set of real numbers. (Recall that a set S of real numbers is said to be **bounded** if it is contained in an interval of the form $[a, b]$.)

Theorem 1 Bounded Monotonic Sequences

Every bounded monotonic sequence of real numbers converges.

PROOF Suppose that the sequence

$$S = \{x_n\} = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_k, \dots\}$$

is bounded and nondecreasing. By the least upper bound axiom, S has a least upper bound λ . We claim that λ is the limit of the sequence $\{x_n\}$. Consider an open interval centered at λ —that is, an interval of the form $I = (\lambda - \epsilon, \lambda + \epsilon)$, where $\epsilon > 0$. Some terms of the sequence must lie within I , or else $\lambda - \epsilon$ would be an upper bound for S that is less than its least upper bound λ . But if x_N is in I , then—because we are dealing with a nondecreasing sequence— $x_N \leq x_k \leq \lambda$ for all $k \geq N$. That is, x_k is in I for all $k \geq N$. Because ϵ is an arbitrary positive number, λ is by definition (Section 11.2) the limit of the sequence $\{x_n\}$. Thus we have shown that a bounded nondecreasing sequence converges. A similar proof can be constructed for nonincreasing sequences by working with the greatest lower bound. ■

Therefore, the least upper bound axiom implies the bounded monotonic sequence property of the real numbers. With just a little effort, you can prove that the two are logically equivalent. That is, if you take the bounded monotonic sequence property as an axiom, then the least upper bound property follows as a theorem. The *nested interval property* of Theorem 2 is also equivalent to the least upper bound property, but we shall prove only that it follows from the least upper

bound property, because we have chosen the latter as the fundamental completeness axiom for the real number system.

Theorem 2 Nested Interval Property of the Real Numbers

Suppose that $I_1, I_2, I_3, \dots, I_n, \dots$ is a sequence of closed intervals (so I_n is of the form $[a_n, b_n]$ for each positive integer n) such that

1. I_n contains I_{n+1} for each $n \geq 1$, and
2. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (b_n - a_n) = 0$.

Then there exists exactly one real number c such that c belongs to I_n for all n . Thus

$$\{c\} = I_1 \cap I_2 \cap I_3 \cap \dots$$

PROOF It is clear from hypothesis (2) of Theorem 2 that there is at most one such number c . The sequence $\{a_n\}$ of the left-hand endpoints of the intervals is a bounded (by b_1) nondecreasing sequence and thus has a limit a by the bounded monotonic sequence property. Similarly, the sequence $\{b_n\}$ has a limit b . Because $a_n \leq b_n$ for all n , it follows easily that $a \leq b$. It is clear that $a_n \leq a \leq b \leq b_n$ for all $n \geq 1$, so a and b belong to every interval I_n . But then hypothesis (2) of Theorem 2 implies that $a = b$, and clearly this common value—call it c —is the number satisfying the conclusion of Theorem 2. ■

We can now use these results to prove several important theorems used in the text.

Theorem 3 Intermediate Value Property of Continuous Functions

If the function f is continuous on the interval $[a, b]$ and $f(a) < K < f(b)$, then $K = f(c)$ for some number c in (a, b) .

PROOF Let $I_1 = [a, b]$. Suppose that I_n has been defined for $n \geq 1$. We describe (inductively) how to define I_{n+1} , and this shows in particular how to define I_2, I_3 , and so forth. Let a_n be the left-hand endpoint of I_n , b_n be its right-hand endpoint, and m_n be its midpoint. There are now three cases to consider: $f(m_n) > K$, $f(m_n) < K$, and $f(m_n) = K$.

If $f(m_n) > K$, then $f(a_n) < K < f(m_n)$; in this case, let $a_{n+1} = a_n$, $b_{n+1} = m_n$, and $I_{n+1} = [a_{n+1}, b_{n+1}]$.

If $f(m_n) < K$, then let $a_{n+1} = m_n$, $b_{n+1} = b_n$, and $I_{n+1} = [a_{n+1}, b_{n+1}]$.

If $f(m_n) = K$, then we simply let $c = m_n$ and the proof is complete. Otherwise, at each stage we bisect I_n and let I_{n+1} be the half of I_n on which f takes on values both above and below K .

It is easy to show that the sequence $\{I_n\}$ of intervals satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 2. Let c be the (unique) real number common to all the intervals I_n . We will show that $f(c) = K$, and this will conclude the proof.

The sequence $\{b_n\}$ has limit c , so by the continuity of f , the sequence $\{f(b_n)\}$ has limit $f(c)$. But $f(b_n) > K$ for all n , so the limit of $\{f(b_n)\}$ can be no less than K ; that is, $f(c) \geq K$. By considering the sequence $\{a_n\}$, it follows that $f(c) \leq K$ as well. Therefore, $f(c) = K$. ■

Lemma 1

If f is continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$, then f is bounded there.

PROOF Suppose by way of contradiction that f is not bounded on $I_1 = [a, b]$. Bisect I_1 and let I_2 be the half of I_1 on which f is unbounded. (If f is unbounded on both halves, let I_2 be the left half of I_1 .) In general, let I_{n+1} be a half of I_n on which f is unbounded.

Again it is easy to show that the sequence $\{I_n\}$ of closed intervals satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 2. Let c be the number common to them all. Because f is continuous, there exists a number $\epsilon > 0$ such that f is bounded on the interval $(c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon)$. But for sufficiently large values of n , I_n is a subset of $(c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon)$. This contradiction shows that f must be bounded on $[a, b]$. ■

Theorem 4 Maximum Value Property of Continuous Functions

If the function f is continuous on the closed and bounded interval $[a, b]$, then there exists a number c in $[a, b]$ such that $f(x) \leq f(c)$ for all x in $[a, b]$.

PROOF Consider the set $S = \{f(x) | a \leq x \leq b\}$. By Lemma 1, this set is bounded, and it is certainly nonempty. Let λ be the least upper bound of S . Our goal is to show that λ is a value $f(x)$ of f .

With $I_1 = [a, b]$, bisect I_1 as before. Note that λ is the least upper bound of the values of f on at least one of the two halves of I_1 ; let I_2 be that half. Having defined I_n , let I_{n+1} be the half of I_n on which λ is the least upper bound of the values of f . Let c be the number common to all these intervals. It then follows from the continuity of f , much as in the proof of Theorem 3, that $f(c) = \lambda$. And it is clear that $f(x) \leq \lambda$ for all x in $[a, b]$. ■

The technique we are using in these proofs is called the *method of bisection*. We now use it once again to establish the *Bolzano-Weierstrass property* of the real number system.

Definition Limit Point

Let S be a set of real numbers. The number p is said to be a **limit point** of S if every open interval containing p also contains points of S other than p .

Theorem 5 Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem

Every bounded infinite set of real numbers has a limit point.

PROOF Let I_0 be a closed interval containing the bounded infinite set S of real numbers. Bisect I_0 . Let I_1 be one of the resulting closed half-intervals of I_0 that contains infinitely many points of S . If I_n has been chosen, let I_{n+1} be one of the closed half-intervals of I_n containing infinitely many points of S . An application of Theorem 2 yields a number p common to all the intervals I_n . If J is an open interval containing p , then J contains I_n for some sufficiently large value of n and thus contains infinitely many points of S . Therefore p is a limit point of S . ■

Our final goal is in sight: We can now prove that a sequence of real numbers converges if and only if it is a *Cauchy sequence*.

Definition Cauchy Sequence

The sequence $\{a_n\}_1^\infty$ is said to be a **Cauchy sequence** if, for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists an integer N such that

$$|a_m - a_n| < \epsilon$$

for all $m, n \geq N$.

Lemma 2 *Convergent Subsequences*

Every bounded sequence of real numbers has a convergent subsequence.

PROOF If $\{a_n\}$ has only a finite number of values, then the conclusion of Lemma 2 follows easily. We therefore focus our attention on the case in which $\{a_n\}$ is an infinite set. It is easy to show that this set is also bounded, and thus we may apply the Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem to obtain a limit point p of $\{a_n\}$.

For each integer $k \geq 1$, let $a_{n(k)}$ be a term of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ such that

1. $n(k+1) > n(k)$ for all $k \geq 1$, and
2. $|a_{n(k)} - p| < \frac{1}{k}$.

It is then easy to show that $\{a_{n(k)}\}$ is a convergent (to p) subsequence of $\{a_n\}$. ■

Theorem 6 *Convergence of Cauchy Sequences*

A sequence of real numbers converges if and only if it is a Cauchy sequence.

PROOF It follows immediately from the triangle inequality that every convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence. Thus suppose that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence.

Choose N such that

$$|a_m - a_n| < 1$$

if $m, n \geq N$. It follows that if $n \geq N$, then a_n lies in the closed interval $[a_N - 1, a_N + 1]$. This implies that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is bounded, and thus by Lemma 2 it has a convergent subsequence $\{a_{n(k)}\}$. Let p be the limit of this subsequence.

We claim that $\{a_n\}$ itself converges to p . Given $\epsilon > 0$, choose M such that

$$|a_m - a_n| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

if $m, n \geq M$. Next choose K such that $n(K) \geq M$ and

$$|a_{n(K)} - p| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Then if $n \geq M$,

$$|a_n - p| \leq |a_n - a_{n(K)}| + |a_{n(K)} - p| < \epsilon.$$

Therefore $\{a_n\}$ converges to p by definition. ■

APPENDIX F: PROOF OF THE CHAIN RULE

To prove the chain rule, we need to show that if f is differentiable at a and g is differentiable at $f(a)$, then

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(f(a + h)) - g(f(a))}{h} = g'(f(a)) \cdot f'(a). \quad (1)$$

If the quantities h and

$$k(h) = f(a + h) - f(a) \quad (2)$$

are nonzero, then we can write the difference quotient on the left-hand side of Eq. (1) as

$$\frac{g(f(a + h)) - g(f(a))}{h} = \frac{g(f(a) + k(h)) - g(f(a))}{k(h)} \cdot \frac{k(h)}{h}. \quad (3)$$

To investigate the first factor on the right-hand side of Eq. (3), we define a new function ϕ as follows:

$$\phi(k) = \begin{cases} \frac{g(f(a) + k) - g(f(a))}{k} & \text{if } k \neq 0; \\ g'(f(a)) & \text{if } k = 0. \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

By the definition of the derivative of g , we see from Eq. (4) that ϕ is continuous at $k = 0$; that is,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow 0} \phi(k) = g'(f(a)). \quad (5)$$

Next,

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} k(h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [f(a + h) - f(a)] = 0 \quad (6)$$

because f is continuous at $x = a$, and $\phi(0) = g'(f(a))$. It therefore follows from Eq. (5) that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \phi(k(h)) = g'(f(a)). \quad (7)$$

We are now ready to assemble all this information. By Eq. (3), if $h \neq 0$, then

$$\frac{g(f(a + h)) - g(f(a))}{h} = \phi(k(h)) \cdot \frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} \quad (8)$$

even if $k(h) = 0$, because in this case both sides of Eq. (8) are zero. Hence the product rule for limits yields

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(f(a + h)) - g(f(a))}{h} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \phi(k(h)) \cdot \frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} \\ &= g'(f(a)) \cdot f'(a), \end{aligned}$$

a consequence of Eq. (7) and the definition of the derivative of the function f . We have therefore established the chain rule in the form of Eq. (1). ■

APPENDIX G: EXISTENCE OF THE INTEGRAL

When the basic computational algorithms of the calculus were discovered by Newton and Leibniz in the latter half of the seventeenth century, the logical rigor that had been a feature of the Greek method of exhaustion was largely abandoned. When computing the area A under the curve $y = f(x)$, for example, Newton took it as intuitively obvious that the area function existed, and he proceeded to compute it as the antiderivative of the height function $f(x)$. Leibniz regarded A as an infinite sum of infinitesimal area elements, each of the form $dA = f(x) dx$, but in practice computed the area

$$A = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

by antidifferentiation just as Newton did—that is, by computing

$$A = \left[D^{-1} f(x) \right]_a^b.$$

The question of the existence of the area function—of the conditions that a function f must satisfy in order for its integral to exist—did not at first seem to be of much importance. Eighteenth-century mathematicians were mainly occupied (and satisfied) with the impressive applications of calculus to the solution of real-world problems and did not concentrate on the logical foundations of the subject.

The first attempt at a precise definition of the integral and a proof of its existence for continuous functions was that of the French mathematician Augustin Louis Cauchy (1789–1857). Curiously enough, Cauchy was trained as an engineer, and much of his research in mathematics was in fields that we today regard as applications-oriented: hydrodynamics, waves in elastic media, vibrations of elastic membranes, polarization of light, and the like. But he was a prolific researcher, and his writings cover the entire spectrum of mathematics, with occasional essays into almost unrelated fields.

Around 1824, Cauchy defined the integral of a continuous function in a way that is familiar to us, as a limit of left-endpoint approximations:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_{i-1}) \Delta x.$$

This is a much more complicated sort of limit than the ones we discussed in Chapter 2. Cauchy was not entirely clear about the nature of the limit process involved in this equation, nor was he clear about the precise role that the hypothesis of the continuity of f played in proving that the limit exists.

A complete definition of the integral, as we gave in Section 5.4, was finally produced in the 1850s by the German mathematician Georg Bernhard Riemann. Riemann was a student of Gauss; he met Gauss upon his arrival at Göttingen, Germany, for the purpose of studying theology, when he was about 20 years old and Gauss was about 70. Riemann soon decided to study mathematics and became known as one of the truly great mathematicians of the nineteenth century. Like Cauchy, he was particularly interested in applications of mathematics to the real world; his research emphasized electricity, heat, light, acoustics, fluid dynamics, and—as you might infer from the fact that Wilhelm Weber was a major influence of Riemann’s education—magnetism. Riemann also made significant contributions to mathematics itself, particularly in the field of complex analysis. A major conjecture of his, involving the zeta function

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}, \quad (1)$$

remains unsolved to this day. This conjecture has important consequences in the theory of the distribution of prime numbers because

$$\zeta(k) = \prod \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^k}\right)^{-1},$$

where the product \prod is taken over all primes p . [The zeta function is defined in Eq. (1) for complex numbers s to the right of the vertical line at $x = 1$ and is extended to other complex numbers by the requirement that it be differentiable.] Riemann died of tuberculosis shortly before his fortieth birthday.

Here we give a proof of the existence of the integral of a continuous function. We will follow Riemann's approach. Specifically, suppose that the function f is continuous on the closed and bounded interval $[a, b]$. We will prove that the definite integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

exists. That is, we will demonstrate the existence of a number I that satisfies the following condition: For every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that, for every Riemann sum R associated with any partition P with $|P| < \delta$,

$$|I - R| < \epsilon.$$

(Recall that the norm $|P|$ of the partition P is the length of the longest subinterval in the partition.) In other words, every Riemann sum associated with every sufficiently "fine" partition is close to the number I . If this happens, then the definite integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

is said to **exist**, and I is its **value**.

Now we begin the proof. Suppose throughout that f is a function continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$. Given $\epsilon > 0$, we need to show the existence of a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\left| I - \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i \right| < \epsilon \quad (2)$$

for every Riemann sum associated with any partition P of $[a, b]$ with $|P| < \delta$.

Given a partition P of $[a, b]$ into n subintervals that are *not necessarily of equal length*, let p_i be a point in the subinterval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ at which f attains its minimum value $f(p_i)$. Similarly, let $f(q_i)$ be its maximum value there. These numbers exist for $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$ because of the maximum value property of continuous functions (Theorem 4 of Appendix E).

In what follows we will denote the resulting lower and upper Riemann sums associated with P by

$$L(P) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(p_i) \Delta x_i \quad (3a)$$

and

$$U(P) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(q_i) \Delta x_i, \quad (3b)$$

respectively. Then Lemma 1 is obvious.

Lemma 1

For any partition P of $[a, b]$, $L(P) \leq U(P)$.

Now we need a definition. The partition P' is called a **refinement** of the partition P if each subinterval of P' is contained in some subinterval of P . That is, P' is obtained from P by adding more points of subdivision to P .

Lemma 2

Suppose that P' is a refinement of P . Then

$$L(P) \leq L(P') \leq U(P') \leq U(P). \quad (4)$$

PROOF The inequality $L(P') \leq U(P')$ is a consequence of Lemma 1. We will show that $L(P) \leq L(P')$; the proof that $U(P') \leq U(P)$ is similar.

The refinement P' is obtained from P by adding one or more points of subdivision to P . So all we need show is that the Riemann sum $L(P)$ cannot be decreased by adding a single point of subdivision. Thus we will suppose that the partition P' is obtained from P by dividing the k th subinterval $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ of P into two subintervals $[x_{k-1}, z]$ and $[z, x_k]$ by means of the new subdivision point z .

The only resulting effect on the corresponding Riemann sum is to replace the term

$$f(p_k) \cdot (x_k - x_{k-1})$$

in $L(P)$ with the two-term sum

$$f(u) \cdot (z - x_{k-1}) + f(v) \cdot (x_k - z),$$

where $f(u)$ is the minimum of f on $[x_{k-1}, z]$ and $f(v)$ is the minimum of f on $[z, x_k]$. But

$$f(p_k) \leq f(u) \quad \text{and} \quad f(p_k) \leq f(v).$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} f(u) \cdot (z - x_{k-1}) + f(v) \cdot (x_k - z) &\geq f(p_k) \cdot (z - x_{k-1}) + f(p_k) \cdot (x_k - z) \\ &= f(p_k) \cdot (z - x_{k-1} + x_k - z) \\ &= f(p_k) \cdot (x_k - x_{k-1}). \end{aligned}$$

So the replacement of $f(p_k) \cdot (x_k - x_{k-1})$ cannot decrease the sum $L(P)$ in question, and therefore $L(P) \leq L(P')$. Because this is all we needed to show, we have completed the proof of Lemma 2. ■

To prove that all the Riemann sums for sufficiently fine partitions are close to some number I , we must first give a construction of I . This is accomplished through Lemma 3.

Lemma 3

Let P_n denote the regular partition of $[a, b]$ into 2^n subintervals of equal length. Then the (sequential) limit

$$I = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L(P_n) \quad (5)$$

exists.

PROOF We begin with the observation that each partition P_{n+1} is a refinement of P_n , so (by Lemma 2)

$$L(P_1) \leq L(P_2) \leq \cdots \leq L(P_n) \leq \cdots.$$

Therefore, $\{L(P_n)\}$ is a nondecreasing sequence of real numbers. Moreover,

$$L(P_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{2^n} f(p_i) \Delta x_i \leq M \sum_{i=1}^{2^n} \Delta x_i = M(b - a),$$

where M is the maximum value of f on $[a, b]$.

Theorem 1 of Appendix E guarantees that a bounded monotonic sequence of real numbers must converge. Thus the number

$$I = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L(P_n)$$

exists. This establishes Eq. (5), and the proof of Lemma 3 is complete. ■

It is proved in advanced calculus that if f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then—for every number $\epsilon > 0$ —there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|f(u) - f(v)| < \epsilon$$

for every two points u and v of $[a, b]$ such that

$$|u - v| < \delta.$$

This property of a function is called **uniform continuity** of f on the interval $[a, b]$. Thus the theorem from advanced calculus that we need to use states that every continuous function on a closed and bounded interval is uniformly continuous there.

Note The fact that f is continuous on $[a, b]$ means that for each number u in the interval and each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if v is a number in the interval with $|u - v| < \delta$, then $|f(u) - f(v)| < \epsilon$. But *uniform* continuity is a more stringent condition. It means that given $\epsilon > 0$, you can find not only a value δ_1 that “works” for u_1 , a value δ_2 that works for u_2 , and so on, but more: You can find a universal value of δ that works for *all* values of u in the interval. This should not be obvious when you notice the possibility that $\delta_1 = 1, \delta_2 = \frac{1}{2}, \delta_3 = \frac{1}{3}$, and so on. In any case, it is clear that uniform continuity of f on an interval implies its continuity there.

Remember that throughout we have a continuous function f defined on the closed interval $[a, b]$.

Lemma 4

Suppose that $\epsilon > 0$ is given. Then there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that if P is a partition of $[a, b]$ with $|P| < \delta$ and P' is a refinement of P , then

$$|R(P) - R(P')| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \quad (6)$$

for any two Riemann sums $R(P)$ associated with P and $R(P')$ associated with P' .

PROOF Because f must be uniformly continuous on $[a, b]$, there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that if

$$|u - v| < \delta, \text{ then } |f(u) - f(v)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3(b - a)}.$$

Suppose now that P is a partition of $[a, b]$ with $|P| < \delta$. Then

$$|U(P) - L(P)| = \sum_{i=1}^n |f(q_i) - f(p_i)| \Delta x_i < \frac{\epsilon}{3(b - a)} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x_i = \frac{\epsilon}{3}.$$

This is valid because $|p_i - q_i| < \delta$, for both p_i and q_i belong to the same subinterval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ of P , and $|P| < \delta$.

Now, as shown in Fig. G.1, we know that $L(P)$ and $U(P)$ differ by less than $\epsilon/3$. We know also that

$$L(P) \leq R(P) \leq U(P)$$

for every Riemann sum $R(P)$ associated with P . But

$$L(P) \leq L(P') \leq U(P') \leq U(P)$$

by Lemma 2, because P' is a refinement of P ; moreover,

$$L(P') \leq R(P') \leq U(P')$$

for every Riemann sum $R(P')$ associated with P' .

As Fig. G.1 shows, both the numbers $R(P)$ and $R(P')$ lie in the interval $[L(P), U(P)]$ of length less than $\epsilon/3$, so Eq. (6) follows. This concludes the proof of Lemma 4. ■

Theorem 1 Existence of the Integral

If f is continuous on the closed and bounded interval $[a, b]$, then the integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

exists.

PROOF Suppose that $\epsilon > 0$ is given. We must show the existence of a number $\delta > 0$ such that, for every partition P of $[a, b]$ with $|P| < \delta$, we have

$$|I - R(P)| < \epsilon,$$

where I is the number given in Lemma 3 and $R(P)$ is an arbitrary Riemann sum for f associated with P .

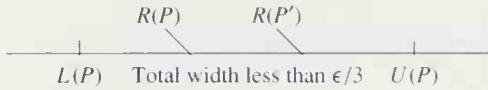


Fig. G.1 Part of the proof of Lemma 4

We choose the number δ provided by Lemma 4 such that

$$|R(P) - R(P')| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

if $|P| < \delta$ and P' is a refinement of P .

By Lemma 3, we can choose an integer N so large that

$$|P_N| < \delta \quad \text{and} \quad |L(P_N) - I| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}. \quad (7)$$

Given an arbitrary partition P such that $|P| < \delta$, let P' be a common refinement of both P and P_N . You can obtain such a partition P' , for example, by using all the points of subdivision of both P and P_N to form the subintervals of $[a, b]$ that constitute P' .

Because P' is a refinement of both P and P_N and both the latter partitions have norm less than δ , Lemma 4 implies that

$$|R(P) - R(P')| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \quad \text{and} \quad |L(P_N) - R(P')| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}. \quad (8)$$

Here $R(P)$ and $R(P')$ are (arbitrary) Riemann sums associated with P and P' , respectively.

Given an arbitrary Riemann sum $R(P)$ associated with the partition P with norm less than δ , we see that

$$\begin{aligned} |I - R(P)| &= |I - L(P_N) + L(P_N) - R(P') + R(P') - R(P)| \\ &\leq |I - L(P_N)| + |L(P_N) - R(P')| + |R(P') - R(P)|. \end{aligned}$$

In the last sum, both of the last two terms are less than $\epsilon/3$ by virtue of the inequalities in (8). We also know, by (7), that the first term is less than $\epsilon/3$. Consequently,

$$|I - R(P)| < \epsilon.$$

This establishes Theorem 1. ■

We close with an example that shows that some hypothesis of continuity is required for integrability.

Example 1: Suppose that f is defined for $0 \leq x \leq 1$ as follows:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational,} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is rational.} \end{cases}$$

Then f is not continuous anywhere. (Why?) Give a partition P of $[0, 1]$, let p_i be a rational point and q_i an irrational point of the i th subinterval of P for each i , $1 \leq i \leq n$. As before, f attains its minimum value 0 at each p_i and its maximum value 1 at each q_i . Also

$$L(P) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(p_i) \Delta x_i = 0, \quad \text{whereas} \quad U(P) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(q_i) \Delta x_i = 1.$$

Thus if we choose $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}$, then there is no number I that can lie within ϵ of both $L(P)$ and $U(P)$, no matter how small the norm of P . It follows that f is *not* integrable on $[0, 1]$. ■

REMARK This is not the end of the story of the integral. Integrals of highly discontinuous functions are important in many applications of physics, and near the beginning of the twentieth century a number of mathematicians, most notably Henri Lebesgue (1875–1941), developed more powerful integrals. The Lebesgue integral, in particular, always exists when the Riemann integral does and gives the same value; but the Lebesgue integral is sufficiently powerful to integrate even functions that are continuous nowhere. It reports that

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$$

for the function f of Example 1. Other mathematicians have developed integrals with domains far more general than sets of real numbers or subsets of the plane or space.

APPENDIX H: APPROXIMATIONS AND RIEMANN SUMS

Several times in Chapter 6 our attempt to compute some quantity Q led to the following situation. Beginning with a regular partition of an appropriate interval $[a, b]$ into n subintervals, each of length Δx , we found an approximation A_n to Q of the form

$$A_n = \sum_{i=1}^n g(u_i)h(v_i) \Delta x, \quad (1)$$

where u_i and v_i are two (generally different) points of the i th subinterval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$. For example, in our discussion of surface area of revolution that precedes Eq. (8) of Section 6.4, we found the approximation

$$\sum_{i=1}^n 2\pi f(u_i)\sqrt{1 + [f'(v_i)]^2} \Delta x \quad (2)$$

to the area of the surface generated by revolving the curve $y = f(x)$, $a \leq x \leq b$, around the x -axis. (In Section 6.4 we wrote x_i^{**} for u_i and x_i^* for v_i .) Note that the expression in (2) is the same as the right-hand side in Eq. (1); take $g(x) = 2\pi f(x)$ and $h(x) = \sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2}$.

In such a situation we observe that if u_i and v_i were the same point x_i^* of $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ for each i ($i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$), then the approximation in Eq. (1) would be a Riemann sum for the function $g(x)h(x)$ on $[a, b]$. This leads us to suspect that

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n g(u_i)h(v_i) \Delta x = \int_a^b g(x)h(x) dx. \quad (3)$$

In Section 6.4, we assumed the validity of Eq. (3) and concluded from the approximation in (2) that the surface area of revolution ought to be defined to be

$$A = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n 2\pi f(u_i)\sqrt{1 + [f'(v_i)]^2} \Delta x = \int_a^b 2\pi f(x)\sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2} dx.$$

Theorem 1 guarantees that Eq. (3) holds under mild restrictions on the functions g and h .

Theorem 1 A Generalization of Riemann Sums

Suppose that h and g' are continuous on $[a, b]$. Then

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n g(u_i)h(v_i) \Delta x = \int_a^b g(x)h(x) dx, \quad (3)$$

where u_i and v_i are arbitrary points of the i th subinterval of a regular partition of $[a, b]$ into n subintervals, each of length Δx .

PROOF Let M_1 and M_2 denote the maximum values on $[a, b]$ of $|g'(x)|$ and $|h(x)|$, respectively. Note that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n g(u_i)h(v_i) \Delta x = R_n + S_n, \quad \text{where } R_n = \sum_{i=1}^n g(v_i)h(v_i) \Delta x$$

is a Riemann sum approaching $\int_a^b g(x)h(x) dx$ as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$, and

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n [g(u_i) - g(v_i)]h(v_i) \Delta x.$$

To prove Eq. (3), it is sufficient to show that $S_n \rightarrow 0$ as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$. The mean value theorem gives

$$\begin{aligned} |g(u_i) - g(v_i)| &= |g'(\bar{x}_i)| \cdot |u_i - v_i| \quad [\bar{x}_i \text{ in } (u_i, v_i)] \\ &\leq M_1 \Delta x, \end{aligned}$$

because both u_i and v_i are points of the interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ of length Δx . Then

$$\begin{aligned} |S_n| &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |g(u_i) - g(v_i)| \cdot |h(v_i)| \Delta x \leq \sum_{i=1}^n (M_1 \Delta x) \cdot (M_2 \Delta x) \\ &= (M_1 M_2 \Delta x) \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x = M_1 M_2 (b - a) \Delta x, \end{aligned}$$

from which it follows that $S_n \rightarrow 0$ as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$, as desired. ■

As an application of Theorem 1, let us give a rigorous derivation of Eq. (2) of Section 6.3,

$$V = \int_a^b 2\pi x f(x) dx, \quad (4)$$

for the volume of the solid generated by revolving around the y -axis the region between the graph of $y = f(x)$ and the x -axis for $a \leq x \leq b$. Beginning with the usual regular partition of $[a, b]$, let $f(x_i^{\flat})$ and $f(x_i^{\sharp})$ denote the minimum and maximum values of f on the i th subinterval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$. Denote by x_i^* the midpoint of this subinterval. From Fig. H.1, we see that the part of the solid generated by revolving the region below $y = f(x)$, $x_{i-1} \leq x \leq x_i$, contains a cylindrical shell with average radius x_i^* , thickness Δx , and height $f(x_i^{\flat})$ and is contained in another cylindrical shell

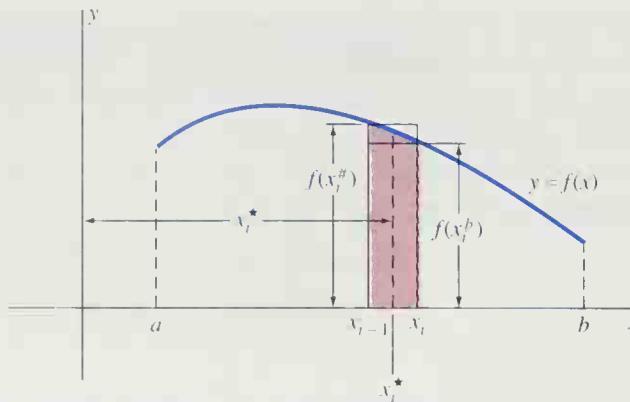


Fig. H.1 A careful estimate of the volume of a solid of revolution around the y -axis

with the same average radius and thickness but with height $f(x_i^*)$. Hence the volume ΔV_i of this part of the solid satisfies the inequalities

$$2\pi x_i^* f(x_i^*) \Delta x \leq \Delta V_i \leq 2\pi x_i^* f(x_i^*) \Delta x.$$

We add these inequalities for $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$ and find that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n 2\pi x_i^* f(x_i^*) \Delta x \leq V \leq \sum_{i=1}^n 2\pi x_i^* f(x_i^*) \Delta x.$$

Because Theorem 1 implies that both of the last two sums approach $\int_a^b 2\pi x f(x) dx$, the squeeze law of limits now implies Eq. (4).

We will occasionally need a generalization of Theorem 1 that involves the notion of a continuous function $F(x, y)$ of two variables. We say that F is *continuous* at the point (x_0, y_0) provided that the value $F(x, y)$ can be made arbitrarily close to $F(x_0, y_0)$ merely by choosing the point (x, y) sufficiently close to (x_0, y_0) . We discussed continuity of functions of two variables in Chapter 13. Here it will suffice to accept the following facts: If $g(x)$ and $h(y)$ are continuous functions of the single variables x and y , respectively, then simple combinations such as

$$g(x) \pm h(y), \quad g(x)h(y), \quad \text{and} \quad \sqrt{[g(x)]^2 + [h(y)]^2}$$

are continuous functions of the two variables x and y .

Now consider a regular partition of $[a, b]$ into n subintervals, each of length Δx , and let u_i and v_i denote arbitrary points of the i th subinterval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$. Theorem 2—we omit the proof—tells us how to find the limit as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ of a sum such as

$$\sum_{i=1}^n F(u_i, v_i) \Delta x.$$

Theorem 2 A Further Generalization

Let $F(x, y)$ be continuous for x and y both in the interval $[a, b]$. Then, in the notation of the preceding paragraph,

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(u_i, v_i) \Delta x = \int_a^b F(x, x) dx. \quad (5)$$

Theorem 1 is the special case $f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$ of Theorem 2. Moreover, the integrand $F(x, x)$ on the right in Eq. (5) is merely an ordinary function of the single variable x . As a formal matter, the integral corresponding to the sum in Eq. (5) is obtained by replacing the summation symbol with an integral sign, changing both u_i and v_i to x , replacing Δx with dx , and inserting the correct limits of integration. For example, if the interval $[a, b]$ is $[0, 4]$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n \sqrt{9u_i^2 + v_i^4} \Delta x &= \int_0^4 \sqrt{9x^2 + x^4} dx \\ &= \int_0^4 x(9 + x^2)^{1/2} dx = \left[\frac{1}{3}(9 + x^2)^{3/2} \right]_0^4 \\ &= \frac{1}{3} [(25)^{3/2} - (9)^{3/2}] = \frac{98}{3}.\end{aligned}$$

APPENDIX H PROBLEMS

In Problems 1 through 7, u_i and v_i are arbitrary points of the i th subinterval of a regular partition of $[a, b]$ into n subintervals, each of length Δx . Express the given limit as an integral from a to b , then compute the value of this integral.

1. $\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i \Delta x; \quad a = 0, b = 1$
2. $\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^n (3u_j + 5v_j) \Delta x; \quad a = -1, b = 3$
3. $\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i \sqrt{4 - v_i^2} \Delta x; \quad a = 0, b = 2$
4. $\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{u_i}{\sqrt{16 + v_i^2}} \Delta x; \quad a = 0, b = 3$

5. $\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n \sin u_i \cos v_i \Delta x; \quad a = 0, b = \pi/2$
6. $\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n \sqrt{\sin^2 u_i + \cos^2 v_i} \Delta x; \quad a = 0, b = \pi$
7. $\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n \sqrt{u_k^4 + v_k^7} \Delta x; \quad a = 0, b = 2$
8. Explain how Theorem 1 applies to show that Eq. (8) of Section 6.4 follows from the discussion that precedes it in that section.
9. Use Theorem 1 to derive Eq. (10) of Section 6.4.

APPENDIX I: L'HÔPITAL'S RULE AND CAUCHY'S MEAN VALUE THEOREM

Here we give a proof of l'Hôpital's rule,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}, \quad (1)$$

under the hypotheses of Theorem 1 in Section 8.3. The proof is based on a generalization of the mean value theorem due to the French mathematician Augustin Louis Cauchy. Cauchy used this generalization in the early nineteenth century to give rigorous proofs of several calculus results not previously established firmly.

Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem

Suppose that the functions f and g are continuous on the closed and bounded interval $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) . Then there exists a number c in (a, b) such that

$$[f(b) - f(a)]g'(c) = [g(b) - g(a)]f'(c). \quad (2)$$

REMARK 1 To see that this theorem is indeed a generalization of the (ordinary) mean value theorem, we take $g(x) = x$. Then $g'(x) \equiv 1$, and the conclusion in Eq. (2) reduces to the fact that

$$f(b) - f(a) = (b - a)f'(c)$$

for some number c in (a, b) .

REMARK 2 Equation (2) has a geometric interpretation like that of the ordinary mean value theorem. Let us think of the equations $x = g(t)$, $y = f(t)$ as describing the motion of a point $P(x, y)$ moving along a curve C in the xy -plane as t increases from a to b (Fig. I.1). That is, $P(x, y) = P(g(t), f(t))$ is the location of the point P at time t . Under the assumption that $g(b) \neq g(a)$, the slope of the line L connecting the endpoints of the curve C is

$$m = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}. \quad (3)$$

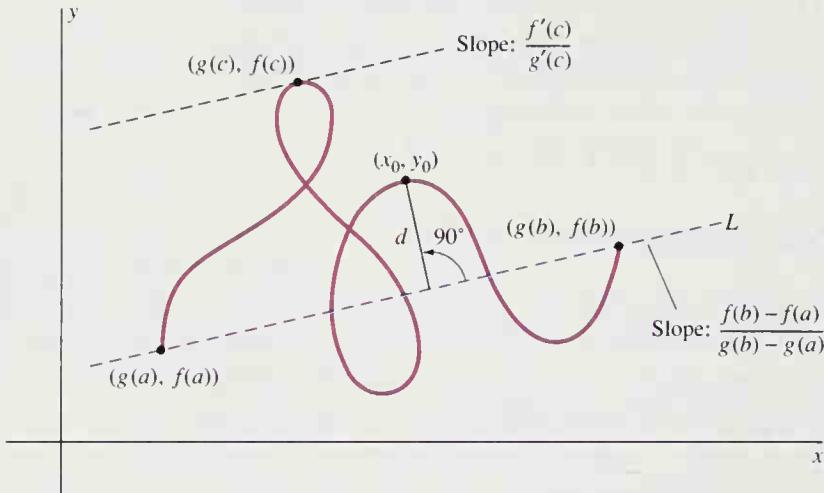


Fig. I.1 The idea of Cauchy's mean value theorem

But if $g'(c) \neq 0$, then the chain rule gives

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} \quad (4)$$

for the slope of the line tangent to the curve C at the point $(g(c), f(c))$. So if $g(b) \neq g(a)$ and $g'(c) \neq 0$, then Eq. (2) may be written in the form

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}, \quad (5)$$

so the two slopes in Eqs. (3) and (4) are equal. Thus Cauchy's mean value theorem implies that (under our assumptions) there is a point on the curve C where the tangent line is *parallel* to the line joining the endpoints of C . This is exactly what the (ordinary) mean value theorem says for an explicitly defined curve $y = f(x)$. This geometric interpretation motivates the following proof of Cauchy's mean value theorem.

PROOF The line L through the endpoints in Fig. I.1 has point-slope equation

$$y - f(a) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} [x - g(a)],$$

which can be rewritten in the form $Ax + By + C = 0$ with

$$A = f(b) - f(a), \quad B = -[g(b) - g(a)], \quad \text{and}$$

$$C = f(a)[g(b) - g(a)] - g(a)[f(b) - f(a)]. \quad (6)$$

According to Miscellaneous Problem 71 at the end of Chapter 3, the (perpendicular) distance from the point (x_0, y_0) to the line L is

$$d = \frac{|Ax_0 + By_0 + C|}{\sqrt{A^2 + B^2}}.$$

Figure I.1 suggests that the point $(g(c), f(c))$ will maximize this distance d for points on the curve C .

We are motivated, therefore, to define the auxiliary function

$$\phi(t) = Ag(t) + Bf(t) + C, \quad (7)$$

with the constants A , B , and C as defined in (6). Thus $\phi(t)$ is essentially a constant multiple of the distance from $(g(t), f(t))$ to the line L in Fig. I.1.

Now $\phi(a) = 0 = \phi(b)$ (Why?), so Rolle's theorem (Section 4.3) implies the existence of a number c in (a, b) such that

$$\phi'(c) = Ag'(c) + Bf'(c) = 0. \quad (8)$$

We substitute the values of A and B from Eq. (6) into (8) and obtain the equation

$$[f(b) - f(a)]g'(c) - [g(b) - g(a)]f'(c) = 0.$$

This is the same as Eq. (2) in the conclusion of Cauchy's mean value theorem, and the proof is complete. ■

Note Although the assumptions that $g(b) \neq g(a)$ and $g'(c) \neq 0$ were needed for our geometric interpretation of the theorem, they were not used in its proof—only in the motivation for the method of proof.

Proof of l'Hôpital's Rule

Suppose that $f(x)/g(x)$ has the indeterminate form $0/0$ at $x = a$. We may invoke continuity of f and g to allow the assumption that $f(a) = 0 = f(b)$. That is, we simply define $f(a)$ and $g(a)$ to be zero in case their values at $x = a$ are not originally given.

Now we restrict our attention to values of x in a fixed deleted neighborhood of a on which both f and g are differentiable. Choose one such value of x and hold it temporarily constant. Then apply Cauchy's mean value theorem on the interval $[a, x]$. (If $x < a$, use the interval $[x, a]$.) We find that there is a number z between a and x that behaves as c does in Eq. (2). Hence, by virtue of Eq. (2), we obtain the equation

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{g(x) - g(a)} = \frac{f'(z)}{g'(z)}.$$

Now z depends on x , but z is trapped between x and a , so z is forced to approach a as $x \rightarrow a$. We conclude that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(z)}{g'(z)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)},$$

under the assumption that the right-hand limit exists. Thus we have verified l'Hôpital's rule in the form of Eq. (1). ■

APPENDIX J: PROOF OF TAYLOR'S FORMULA

Several different proofs of Taylor's formula (Theorem 2 of Section 11.4) are known, but none of them seems very well motivated—each requires some “trick” to begin the proof. The trick we employ here (suggested by C. R. MacCluer) is to begin by introducing an auxiliary function $F(x)$, defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= f(b) - f(x) - f'(x)(b - x) - \frac{f''(x)}{2!}(b - x)^2 \\ &\quad - \dots - \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{n!}(b - x)^n - K(b - x)^{n+1}, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where the constant K is chosen so that $F(a) = 0$. To see that there *is* such a value of K , we could substitute $x = a$ on the right and $F(x) = F(a) = 0$ on the left in Eq. (1) and then solve routinely for K , but we have no need to do this explicitly.

Equation (1) makes it quite obvious that $F(b) = 0$ as well. Therefore, Rolle's theorem (Section 3.2) implies that

$$F'(z) = 0 \tag{2}$$

for some point z of the open interval (a, b) (under the assumption that $a < b$). To see what Eq. (2) means, we differentiate both sides of Eq. (1) and find that

$$\begin{aligned} F'(x) &= -f'(x) + [f'(x) - f''(x)(b - x)] \\ &\quad + \left[f''(x)(b - x) - \frac{1}{2!} f^{(3)}(x)(b - x)^2 \right] \\ &\quad + \left[\frac{1}{2!} f^{(3)}(x)(b - x)^2 - \frac{1}{3!} f^{(4)}(x)(b - x)^3 \right] \\ &\quad + \dots + \left[\frac{1}{(n-1)!} f^{(n)}(x)(b - x)^{n-1} - \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n+1)}(x)(b - x)^n \right] \\ &\quad + (n+1)K(b - x)^n. \end{aligned}$$

Upon careful inspection of this result, we see that all terms except the final two cancel in pairs. Thus the sum “telescopes” to give

$$F'(x) = (n+1)K(b - x)^n - \frac{f^{(n+1)}(x)}{n!}(b - x)^n. \tag{3}$$

Hence Eq. (2) means that

$$(n+1)K(b - z)^n - \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{n!}(b - z)^n = 0.$$

Consequently we can cancel $(b - z)^n$ and solve for

$$K = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!}. \quad (4)$$

Finally, we return to Eq. (1) and substitute $x = a$, $f(x) = 0$, and the value of K given in Eq. (4). The result is the equation

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= f(b) - f(a) - f'(a)(b-a) - \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(b-a)^2 \\ &\quad - \dots - \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(b-a)^n - \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!}(b-a)^{n+1}, \end{aligned}$$

which is equivalent to the desired Taylor's formula, Eq. (11) of Section 11.4. ■

APPENDIX K: CONIC SECTIONS AS SECTIONS OF A CONE

The parabola, hyperbola, and ellipse that we studied in Chapter 10 were originally introduced by the ancient Greek mathematicians as plane sections (traces) of a right circular cone. Here we show that the intersection of a plane and a cone is indeed one of the three conic sections as defined in Chapter 10.

Figure K.1 shows the cone with equation $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and its intersection with a plane \mathcal{P} that passes through the point $(0, 0, 1)$ and the line $x = c > 0$ in the xy -plane. The equation of \mathcal{P} is

$$z = 1 - \frac{x}{c}. \quad (1)$$

The angle between \mathcal{P} and the xy -plane is $\phi = \tan^{-1}(1/c)$. We want to show that the conic section obtained by intersecting the cone and the plane is

- A parabola if $\phi = 45^\circ$ ($c = 1$),
- An ellipse if $\phi < 45^\circ$ ($c > 1$),
- A hyperbola if $\phi > 45^\circ$ ($c < 1$).

We begin by introducing uv -coordinates in the plane \mathcal{P} as follows. The u -coordinate of the point (x, y, z) of \mathcal{P} is $u = y$. The v -coordinate of the same point is its perpendicular distance from the line $x = c$. This explains the u - and v -axes indicated in Fig. K.1. Figure K.2 shows the cross section in the plane $y = 0$ exhibiting the relation between v , x , and z . We see that

$$z = v \sin \phi = \frac{v}{\sqrt{1 + c^2}}. \quad (2)$$

Equations (1) and (2) give

$$x = c(1 - z) = c\left(1 - \frac{v}{\sqrt{1 + c^2}}\right). \quad (3)$$

We had $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ for the equation of the cone. We make the following substitution in this equation: Replace y with u , and replace z and x with the expressions on the right-hand sides of Eqs. (2) and (3), respectively. These replacements yield

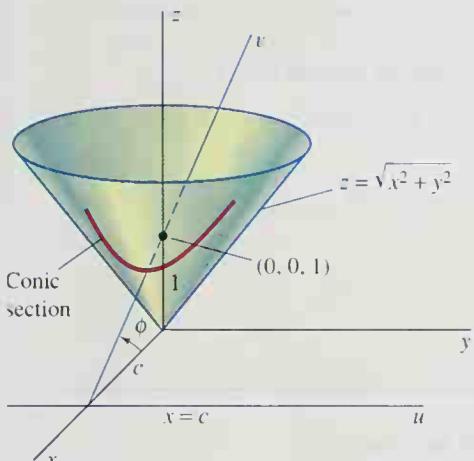


Fig. K.1 Finding an equation for a conic section

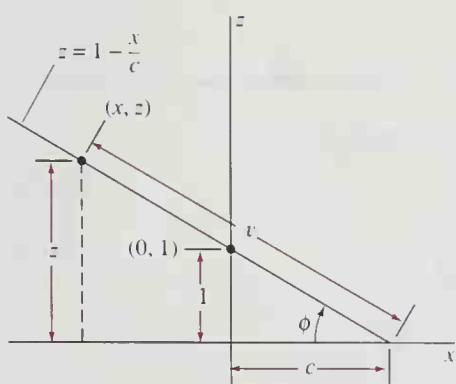


Fig. K.2 Computing coordinates in the uv -plane

$$\frac{v^2}{1+c^2} = c^2 \left(1 - \frac{v}{\sqrt{1+c^2}} \right)^2 + u^2.$$

After we simplify, this last equation takes the form

$$u^2 + \frac{c^2 - 1}{c^2 + 1} v^2 - \frac{2c^2}{\sqrt{1+c^2}} v + c^2 = 0. \quad (4)$$

This is the equation of the curve in the uv -plane. We examine the three cases for the angle ϕ .

Suppose first that $\phi = 45^\circ$. Then $c = 1$, so Eq. (4) contains a term that includes u^2 , another term that includes v , and a constant term. So the curve is a parabola; see Eq. (6) of Section 10.6.

Suppose next that $\phi < 45^\circ$. Then $c > 1$, and both the coefficients of u^2 and v^2 in Eq. (4) are positive. Thus the curve is an ellipse; see Eq. (7) of Section 10.7.

Finally, if $\phi > 45^\circ$, then $c < 1$, and the coefficients of u^2 and v^2 in Eq. (4) have opposite signs. So the curve is a hyperbola; see Eq. (8) of Section 10.8.

APPENDIX L: UNITS OF MEASUREMENT AND CONVERSION FACTORS

MKS Scientific Units

- ▼ *Length* in meters (m); *mass* in kilograms (kg), *time* in seconds (s)
- ▼ *Force* in newtons (N); a force of 1 N imparts an acceleration of 1 m/s^2 to a mass of 1 kg.
- ▼ *Work* in joules (J); 1 J is the work done by a force of 1 N acting through a distance of 1 m.
- ▼ *Power* in watts (W); 1 W is 1 J/s .

British Engineering Units (fps)

- ▼ *Length* in feet (ft), *force* in pounds (lb), *time* in seconds (s)
- ▼ *Mass* in slugs; 1 lb of force imparts an acceleration of 1 ft/s^2 to a mass of 1 slug. A mass of m slugs at the surface of the earth has a *weight* of $w = mg$ pounds (lb), where $g \approx 32.17 \text{ ft/s}^2$.
- ▼ *Work* in $\text{ft} \cdot \text{lb}$, *power* in $\text{ft} \cdot \text{lb/s}$.

Conversion Factors

$$1 \text{ in.} = 2.54 \text{ cm} = 0.0254 \text{ m}, \quad 1 \text{ m} \approx 3.2808 \text{ ft}$$

$$1 \text{ mi} = 5280 \text{ ft}; \quad 60 \text{ mi/h} = 88 \text{ ft/s}$$

$$1 \text{ lb} \approx 4.4482 \text{ N}; \quad 1 \text{ slug} \approx 14.594 \text{ kg}$$

$$1 \text{ hp} = 550 \text{ ft} \cdot \text{lb/s} \approx 745.7 \text{ W}$$

- ▼ *Gravitational acceleration*: $g \approx 32.17 \text{ ft/s}^2 = 9.807 \text{ m/s}^2$.
- ▼ *Atmospheric pressure*: 1 atm is the pressure exerted by a column of mercury 76 cm high; $1 \text{ atm} \approx 14.70 \text{ lb/in.}^2 = 1.013 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$.
- ▼ *Heat energy*: 1 Btu $\approx 778 \text{ ft} \cdot \text{lb} \approx 252 \text{ cal}$, $1 \text{ cal} \approx 4.184 \text{ J}$.

APPENDIX M: FORMULAS FROM ALGEBRA, GEOMETRY, AND TRIGONOMETRY**Laws of Exponents**

$$a^m a^n = a^{m+n}, \quad (a^m)^n = a^{mn}, \quad (ab)^n = a^n b^n, \quad a^{m/n} = \sqrt[n]{a^m};$$

in particular,

$$a^{1/2} = \sqrt{a}.$$

If $a \neq 0$, then

$$a^{m-n} = \frac{a^m}{a^n}, \quad a^{-n} = \frac{1}{a^n}, \quad \text{and} \quad a^0 = 1.$$

Quadratic Formula

The quadratic equation

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0 \quad (a \neq 0)$$

has solutions

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}.$$

Factoring

$$a^2 - b^2 = (a - b)(a + b)$$

$$a^3 - b^3 = (a - b)(a^2 + ab + b^2)$$

$$a^4 - b^4 = (a - b)(a^3 + a^2b + ab^2 + b^3)$$

$$= (a - b)(a + b)(a^2 + b^2)$$

$$a^5 - b^5 = (a - b)(a^4 + a^3b + a^2b^2 + ab^3 + b^4)$$

(The pattern continues.)

$$a^3 + b^3 = (a + b)(a^2 - ab + b^2)$$

$$a^5 + b^5 = (a + b)(a^4 - a^3b + a^2b^2 - ab^3 + b^4)$$

$$a^7 + b^7 = (a + b)(a^6 - a^5b + a^4b^2 - a^3b^3 + a^2b^4 - ab^5 + b^6)$$

(The pattern continues for odd exponents.)

Binomial Formula

$$(a + b)^n = a^n + na^{n-1}b + \frac{n(n-1)}{1 \cdot 2} a^{n-2}b^2$$

$$+ \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} a^{n-3}b^3 + \cdots + nab^{n-1} + b^n$$

if n is a positive integer.

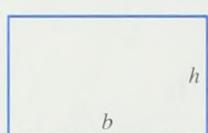
Area and Volume

In Fig. M.1, the symbols have the following meanings.

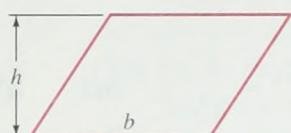
A : area b : length of base r : radius

B : area of base C : circumference V : volume

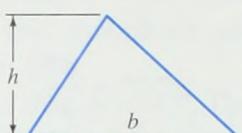
h : height l : length w : width



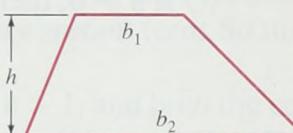
Rectangle: $A = bh$



Parallelogram: $A = bh$



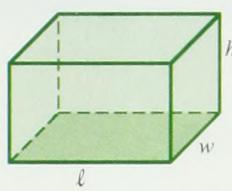
Triangle: $A = \frac{1}{2}bh$



Trapezoid: $A = \frac{1}{2}(b_1 + b_2)h$

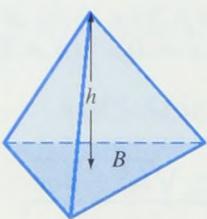


Circle: $C = 2\pi r$ and $A = \pi r^2$



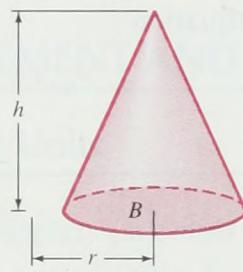
Rectangular parallelepiped:

$$V = lwh$$



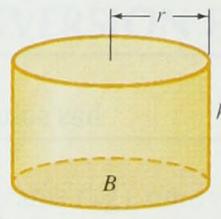
Pyramid:

$$V = \frac{1}{3}Bh$$



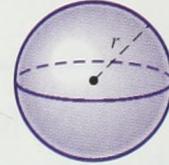
Right circular cone:

$$V = \frac{1}{3}\pi r^2 h = \frac{1}{3}Bh$$



Right circular cylinder:

$$V = \pi r^2 h = Bh$$



Sphere:

$$V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \text{ and } A = 4\pi r^2$$

Fig. M.1 The basic geometric shapes

Pythagorean Theorem

In a right triangle with legs a and b and hypotenuse c ,

$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2.$$

Formulas from Trigonometry

$$\sin(-\theta) = -\sin\theta$$

$$\cos(-\theta) = \cos\theta$$

$$\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1$$

$$\sin 2\theta = 2 \sin\theta \cos\theta$$

$$\cos 2\theta = \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta$$

$$\sin(\alpha + \beta) = \sin\alpha \cos\beta + \cos\alpha \sin\beta$$

$$\cos(\alpha + \beta) = \cos\alpha \cos\beta - \sin\alpha \sin\beta$$

$$\tan(\alpha + \beta) = \frac{\tan\alpha + \tan\beta}{1 - \tan\alpha \tan\beta}$$

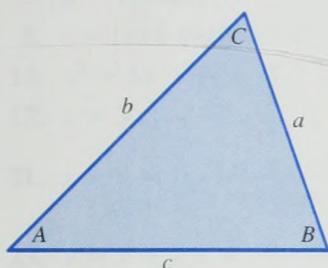


Fig. M.2 An arbitrary triangle

$$\sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{1 - \cos \theta}{2}$$

$$\cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{1 + \cos \theta}{2}$$

For an arbitrary triangle (Fig. M.2):

$$\text{Law of cosines: } c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos C.$$

$$\text{Law of sines: } \frac{\sin A}{a} = \frac{\sin B}{b} = \frac{\sin C}{c}.$$

APPENDIX N: THE GREEK ALPHABET

A	α	alpha	I	ι	iota	P	ρ	rho
B	β	beta	K	κ	kappa	Σ	σ	sigma
Γ	γ	gamma	Λ	λ	lambda	T	τ	tau
Δ	δ	delta	M	μ	mu	Υ	υ	upsilon
E	ϵ	epsilon	N	ν	nu	Φ	ϕ	phi
Z	ζ	zeta	Ξ	ξ	xi	X	χ	chi
H	η	eta	O	\circ	omicron	Ψ	ψ	psi
Θ	θ	theta	Π	π	pi	Ω	ω	omega

ANSWERS TO ODD-NUMBERED PROBLEMS

Section 10.1 (page 568)

1. $x + 2y + 3 = 0$ 3. $4y + 25 = 3x$
5. $x + y = 1$
7. Center $(-1, 0)$, radius $\sqrt{5}$
9. Center $(2, -3)$, radius 4
11. Center $(\frac{1}{2}, 0)$, radius 1
13. Center $(\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{3}{2})$, radius 3
15. Center $(-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{4}{3})$, radius 2
17. The point $(3, 2)$ 19. No points
21. $(x + 1)^2 + (y + 2)^2 = 34$
23. $(x - 6)^2 + (y - 6)^2 = \frac{4}{5}$
25. $2x + y = 13$
27. $(x - 6)^2 + (y - 11)^2 = 18$

29. $\left(\frac{x}{5}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{3}\right)^2 = 1$
31. $y - 7 + 4\sqrt{3} = (4 - 2\sqrt{3})(x - 2 + \sqrt{3})$,
 $y - 7 - 4\sqrt{3} = (4 + 2\sqrt{3})(x - 2 - \sqrt{3})$
33. $y - 1 = 4(x - 4)$ and $y + 1 = 4(x + 4)$
35. $a = \sqrt{h^2 - p^2}$, $b = a\sqrt{e^2 - 1}$, $h = \frac{p(e^2 + 1)}{1 - e^2}$

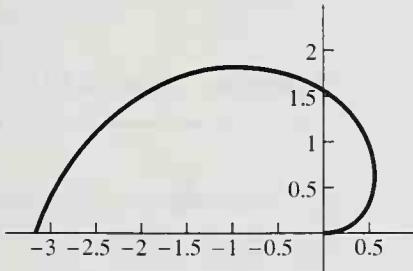
Section 10.2 (page 573)

1. (a) $(\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}, \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2})$ (b) $(1, -\sqrt{3})$
(c) $(\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3})$ (d) $(0, -3)$
(e) $(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2})$ (f) $(\sqrt{3}, -1)$ (g) $(-\sqrt{3}, 1)$

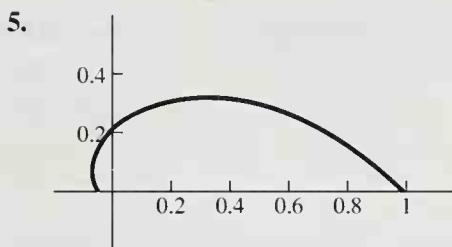
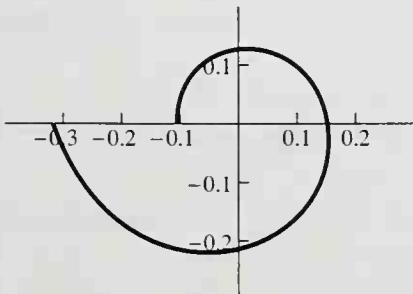
3. $r \cos \theta = 4$
 5. $\theta = \arctan\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$
 9. $r = \tan \theta \sec \theta$
 13. $x^2 + 5x + y^2 = 0$
 17. $x = 3$
 21. $x + y = 1; r = \frac{1}{\cos \theta + \sin \theta}$
 23. $y = x + 2; r = \frac{2}{\sin \theta - \cos \theta}$
 25. $x^2 + y^2 + 8y = 0; r = -8 \sin \theta$
 27. $x^2 + y^2 = 2x + 2y; r = 2(\cos \theta + \sin \theta)$
 29. Fig. 10.2.17
 31. Fig. 10.2.18
 33. Fig. 10.2.20
 35. Fig. 10.2.19
 37. Center $(\frac{1}{2}a, \frac{1}{2}b)$, radius $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ —unless $a = b = 0$, in which case the graph consists of the single point $(0, 0)$.
 39. Symmetric around the x -axis
 41. Symmetric around the x -axis
 43. Symmetric around the x -axis
 45. Symmetric around the origin
 47. Symmetric around both axes and the origin
 49. Symmetric around the x -axis
 51. Symmetric around the y -axis
 53. No points of intersection
 55. $(0, 0), (\frac{1}{2}, \pi/6), (\frac{1}{2}, 5\pi/6), (1, \pi/2)$
 57. The pole, the point $(r, \theta) = (2, \pi)$, and the two points $r = 2(\sqrt{2} - 1), |\theta| = \arccos(3 - 2\sqrt{2})$
 59. (a) $r \cos(\theta - \alpha) = p$
 61. The polar equation is $r = \pm a + b \sin \theta$: a limaçon.

Section 10.3 (page 584)

1.



3.



5. $y^2 = x^3$
 7. π
 9. $3\pi/2$
 11. $9\pi/2$
 13. 4π
 15. $19\pi/2$
 17. $\pi/2$ (one of four loops)
 19. $\pi/4$ (one of 8 loops)
 21. 2 (one of two loops)
 23. 4 (one of two loops)
 25. $\frac{1}{6}(2\pi + 3\sqrt{3})$
 27. $\frac{1}{24}(5\pi - 6\sqrt{3})$
 29. $\frac{1}{6}(39\sqrt{3} - 10\pi)$
 31. $\frac{1}{2}(2 - \sqrt{2})$
 33. $\frac{1}{6}(20\pi + 21\sqrt{3})$
 35. $\frac{1}{2}(2 + \pi)$
 37. $\pi/2$
 41. (a) $\frac{5}{2}(1 - e^{-2\pi/5})^2 \approx 1.279458764$;
 (b) $\frac{5}{2}e^{-2n\pi/5}(e^{2\pi/5} - 1)^2$
 43. The point of intersection in the second quadrant is located where $\theta = \alpha \approx 2.326839$. Using symmetry, the total area of the shaded region R is approximately

$$2 \int_0^\alpha \frac{1}{2}(e^{-t/5})^2 dt + 2 \int_\alpha^\pi \frac{1}{2}[2(1 + \cos t)]^2 dt \approx 1.58069.$$

Section 10.4 (page 592)

1. $y = 2x - 3$
 3. $y^2 = x^3$
 5. $y = 2x^2 - 5x + 2$
 7. $y = 4x^2, x > 0$
 9. $\left(\frac{x}{5}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{3}\right)^2 = 1$
 11. $\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{y}{3}\right)^2 = 1, x > 0$
 13. $x^2 + y^2 = 1$
 15. $x + y = 1, 0 \leq x \leq 1$
 17. (a) $y - 5 = \frac{9}{4}(x - 3)$; (b) $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{9}{16}t^{-1}$
 19. (a) $y = -\frac{1}{2}\pi(x - \frac{1}{2}\pi)$; (b) concave downward
 21. $\psi = \frac{1}{6}\pi$ (constant)
 23. $\psi = \frac{1}{2}\pi$
 25. There are horizontal tangents at $(1, 2)$ and $(1, -2)$. There is a vertical tangent line at $(0, 0)$. There is no tangent line at the other x -intercept $(3, 0)$ because the curve crosses itself with two different slopes there, namely the slopes $\pm\sqrt{3}$.
 27. There are horizontal tangents at the points corresponding to $\theta = \pm\pi/3$. The corresponding value of r is $\frac{3}{2}$, and the rectangular coordinates of these two points are $(\frac{3}{4}, \pm\frac{3}{4}\sqrt{3})$. There is a vertical tangent at $(2, 0)$. If a line tangent to the curve C at the point P is simply a line through P that approximates the curve's shape very well at and near P , then there is a horizontal tangent line at $(0, 0)$.
 31. $x = p/m^2, y = 2p/m$

41. Given: $x^5 + y^5 = 5x^2y^2$. Substitute $y = tx$ to obtain $x^5 + t^5x^5 = 5x^4t^2$, then solve for

$$x = \frac{5t^2}{1+t^5}, \quad y = \frac{5t^3}{1+t^5}, \quad 0 \leq t < +\infty.$$

Section 10.5 (page 600)

1. $\frac{22}{5}$
 5. $\frac{1}{2}(1 + e^\pi) \approx 12.0703$
 9. $\frac{16}{15}\pi \approx 3.35103$
 13. $\frac{1}{4}\pi\sqrt{2} \approx 1.11072$
 17. $\frac{8}{3}\pi(5\sqrt{5} - 2\sqrt{2}) \approx 69.96882$
 19. $\frac{2}{27}\pi(13\sqrt{13} - 8) \approx 9.04596$
 21. $16\pi^2 \approx 157.91367$
 23. $5\pi^2a^3$
 25. (a) $A = \pi ab$; (b) $V = \frac{4}{3}\pi ab^2$
 27. $\pi\sqrt{1 + 4\pi^2 + \frac{1}{2}\ln(2\pi + \sqrt{1 + 4\pi^2})} \approx 21.25629$
 29. $\frac{3}{8}\pi a^2$
 31. $\frac{12}{5}\pi a^2$
 33. $\frac{216}{5}\sqrt{3} \approx 78.8246$
 35. $\frac{243}{4}\pi\sqrt{3} \approx 330.5649$
 37. 4.91749
 40. $\frac{1}{2}\pi^2a$
 43. 20.04734
 47. 61.0036
 51. $S_x \approx 16.0570$, $V_x = \frac{16}{15}\pi$
 53. 24.603
3. $\frac{4}{3}$
 7. $\frac{358}{35}\pi \approx 32.13400$
 11. $\frac{74}{3}$
 15. $(e^{2\pi} - 1)\sqrt{5} \approx 1195.1597$

Section 10.6 (page 607)

1. $y^2 = 12x$
 3. $(x - 2)^2 = -8(y - 3)$
 5. $(y - 3)^2 = -8(x - 2)$
 7. $x^2 = -6(y + \frac{3}{2})$
 9. $x^2 = 4(y + 1)$
 11. $y^2 = 12x$; vertex $(0, 0)$, axis the x -axis
 13. $y^2 = -6x$; vertex $(0, 0)$, axis the x -axis
 15. $x^2 - 4x - 4y = 0$; vertex $(2, -1)$, axis the line $x = 2$
 17. $4y = -12 - (2x + 1)^2$; vertex $(-\frac{1}{2}, -3)$, axis the line $x = -\frac{1}{2}$
 23. About 0.693 days; that is, about 16 h 38 min
 27. $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}\arcsin(0.49) \approx 0.256045$ ($14^\circ 40' 13''$).
 $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}[\pi - \arcsin(0.49)] \approx 1.314751$ ($75^\circ 19' 47''$)
 29. Suggestion: $x^2 - 2xy + y^2 - 2ax - 2ay + a^2 = 0$

Section 10.7 (page 608)

1. $\left(\frac{x}{4}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{5}\right)^2 = 1$
 3. $\left(\frac{x}{15}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{17}\right)^2 = 1$
 5. $\frac{x^2}{16} + \frac{y^2}{7} = 1$
 7. $\frac{x^2}{100} + \frac{y^2}{75} = 1$

9. $\frac{x^2}{16} + \frac{y^2}{12} = 1$
 11. $\frac{(x - 2)^2}{16} + \frac{(y - 3)^2}{4} = 1$
 13. $\frac{(x - 1)^2}{25} + \frac{(y - 1)^2}{16} = 1$
 15. $\frac{(x - 1)^2}{81} + \frac{(y - 2)^2}{72} = 1$
 17. Center $(0, 0)$, foci $(\pm 2\sqrt{5}, 0)$, major axis 12, minor axis 8
 19. Center $(0, 4)$, foci $(0, 4 \pm \sqrt{5})$, major axis 6, minor axis 4
 21. (a) About 3466.36 AU—that is, about 3.22×10^{11} mi, or about 20 light-days
 27. $\frac{(x - 1)^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{16/3} = 1$

Section 10.8 (page 618)

1. $\frac{x^2}{1} - \frac{y^2}{15} = 1$
 3. $\frac{x^2}{16} - \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$
 5. $\frac{y^2}{25} - \frac{x^2}{25} = 1$
 7. $\frac{y^2}{9} - \frac{x^2}{27} = 1$
 9. $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{12} = 1$
 11. $\frac{(x - 2)^2}{9} - \frac{(y - 2)^2}{27} = 1$
 13. $\frac{(y + 2)^2}{9} - \frac{(x - 1)^2}{4} = 1$
 15. Center $(1, 2)$, foci $(1 \pm \sqrt{2}, 2)$, asymptotes $y - 2 = \pm(x - 1)$
 17. Center $(0, 3)$, foci $(0, 3 \pm 2\sqrt{3})$, asymptotes $y = 3 \pm x\sqrt{3}$
 19. Center $(-1, 1)$, foci $(-1 \pm \sqrt{13}, 1)$, asymptotes $y = \frac{1}{2}(3x + 5)$, $y = -\frac{1}{2}(3x + 1)$
 21. There are no points on the graph if $c > 15$.
 25. $16x^2 + 50xy + 16y^2 = 369$
 27. About 16.42 mi north of B and 8.66 mi west of B ; that is, about 18.56 mi from B at a bearing of $27^\circ 48'$ west of north

Chapter 10 Miscellaneous Problems (page 619)

1. Circle, center $(1, 1)$, radius 2
 3. Circle, center $(3, -1)$, radius 1
 5. Parabola, vertex $(4, -2)$, opening downward
 7. Ellipse, center $(2, 0)$, major axis 6, minor axis 4
 9. Hyperbola, center $(-1, 1)$, vertical axis, foci at $(-1, 1 \pm \sqrt{3})$
 11. There are no points on the graph.
 13. Hyperbola, center $(1, 0)$, horizontal axis
 15. Circle, center $(4, 1)$, radius 1
 17. The graph consists of the line $y = -x$ together with the isolated point $(2, 2)$.
 19. Circle, center $(1, 0)$, radius 1

21. The straight line $y = x + 1$
 23. The horizontal line $y = 3$
 25. Two ovals tangent to each other and to the y -axis at $(0, 0)$
 27. Apple-shaped curve, symmetric around the y -axis
 29. Ellipse, one focus at $(0, 0)$, directrix $x = 4$, eccentricity $e = \frac{1}{2}$
 31. $\frac{1}{2}(\pi - 2)$
 33. $\frac{1}{6}(39\sqrt{3} - 10\pi) \approx 6.02234$
 35. 2
 37. $\frac{5}{4}\pi$
 39. The straight line $y = x + 2$
 41. The circle $(x - 2)^2 + (y - 1)^2 = 1$
 43. Equation: $y^2 = (x - 1)^3$
 45. $y - 2\sqrt{2} = -\frac{4}{3}(x - \frac{3}{2}\sqrt{2})$
 47. $2\pi y + 4x = \pi^2$
 49. 24
 51. 3π
 53. $\frac{1}{27}(13\sqrt{13} - 8) \approx 1.4397$
 55. $\frac{43}{6}$
 57. $\frac{1}{8}(4\pi - 3\sqrt{3}) \approx 0.92128$
 59. $\frac{471.295}{1024}\pi \approx 1445.915$
 61. $\frac{1}{2}\pi(e^\pi + 1)\sqrt{5} \approx 84.7919$
 63. $x = a\theta - b \sin \theta$, $y = a - b \cos \theta$
 65. Suggestion: Compute $r^2 = x^2 + y^2$.
 67. $6\pi^3 a^3$
 69. $r = 2p \cos(\theta - \alpha)$
 71. If $a > b$, then the maximum is $2a$ and the minimum is $2b$.
 73. $b^2 y = 4hx(b - x)$; alternatively,

$$r = b \sec \theta - \frac{b^2}{4h} \sec \theta \tan \theta.$$

75. Suggestion: Let θ be the angle that QR makes with the x -axis.
 79. The curve is a hyperbola with one focus at the origin, directrix $x = -\frac{3}{2}$, and eccentricity $e = 2$.

81. $\frac{3}{2}$

Section 11.2 (page 632)

1. $a_n = n^2$
 3. $a_n = \frac{1}{3^n}$
 5. $a_n = \frac{1}{3n - 1}$
 7. $a_n = 1 + (-1)^n$
 9. $\frac{2}{5}$
 11. 0
 15. Does not converge
 19. 0
 25. 0
 31. 0
 37. 2
 13. 1
 17. 0
 21. 0
 27. 0
 33. e
 39. 1

41. Does not converge
 45. 2
 57. (b) 4
 43. 1
 49. π

Section 11.3 (page 642)

1. $\frac{3}{2}$
 7. 6
 13. Diverges
 19. $\frac{1}{12}$
 25. $\frac{65}{12}$
 31. Diverges
 35. $\frac{\arctan 1}{1 - \arctan 1} \approx 3.659792$
 37. Diverges
 41. $\frac{41}{333}$
 45. $-3 < x < 3$; $\frac{x}{3 - x}$
 49. $-2 < x < 2$; $\frac{5x^2}{16 - 4x^2}$
 53. $S_n = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{16n + 4}$; $\frac{1}{4}$
 55. $S_n = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{2n + 2} - \frac{1}{2n + 4}$; $\frac{3}{4}$
 57. $S_n = 2 - \frac{1}{n + 1} - \frac{1}{2n + 1}$; 2
 59. $S_n = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{n + 1} + \frac{2}{n + 2} - \frac{1}{n + 3}$; $\frac{1}{3}$
 65. 4.5 s
 67. (a) $M_n = (0.95)^n M_0$; (b) 0
 69. Peter $\frac{4}{7}$, Paul $\frac{2}{7}$, Mary $\frac{1}{7}$
 71. $\frac{1}{12}$

Section 11.4 (page 657)

1. $e^{-x} = 1 - \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} e^{-z}$
 for some z between 0 and x .
 3. $\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^5}{5!} \sin z$
 for some z between 0 and x .
 5. $\sqrt{1 + x} = 1 + \frac{x}{1!2} - \frac{x^2}{2!4} + \frac{3x^3}{3!8} - \frac{5x^4}{4!16} (1 + z)^{-7/2}$
 for some z between 0 and x .
 7. $\tan x = \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{2x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} (16 \sec^4 z \tan z + 8 \sec^2 z \tan^3 z)$
 for some z between 0 and x .

9. $\sin^{-1}x = \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} \cdot \frac{1+2z^2}{(1-z^2)^{5/2}}$
for some z between 0 and x .

11. $e^x = e + \frac{e}{1!}(x-1) + \frac{e}{2!}(x-1)^2 + \frac{e}{3!}(x-1)^3 + \frac{e}{4!}(x-1)^4 + \frac{e^z}{5!}(x-1)^5$ for some z between 1 and x .

13. $\sin x = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{1!2}(x - \frac{1}{6}\pi) - \frac{1}{2!2}(x - \frac{1}{6}\pi)^2 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3!2}(x - \frac{1}{6}\pi)^3 + \frac{\sin z}{4!}(x - \frac{1}{6}\pi)^4$ for some z between $\frac{1}{6}\pi$ and x .

15. $\frac{1}{(x-4)^2} = 1 - 2(x-5) + 3(x-5)^2 - 4(x-5)^3 + 5(x-5)^4 - 6(x-5)^5 + \frac{7}{(z-4)^8}(x-5)^6$ for some z between 5 and x .

17. $\cos x = -1 + \frac{(x-\pi)^2}{2!} - \frac{(x-\pi)^4}{4!} + \frac{(x-\pi)^6}{5!} \sin z$
for some z between π and x .

19. $x^{3/2} = 1 + \frac{3(x-1)}{2} + \frac{3(x-1)^2}{8} - \frac{(x-1)^3}{16} + \frac{3(x-1)^4}{128} - \frac{3(x-1)^5}{256z^{7/2}}$ for some z between 1 and x .

21. $e^{-x} = 1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots$

23. $e^{-3x} = 1 - 3x + \frac{9x^2}{2!} - \frac{27x^3}{3!} + \frac{81x^4}{4!} - \dots$

25. $\sin 2x = 2x - \frac{(2x)^3}{3!} + \frac{(2x)^5}{5!} - \frac{(2x)^7}{7!} + \frac{(2x)^9}{9!} - \dots$
 $= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 2^{2n+1} x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = 2x - \frac{4x^3}{3} + \frac{4x^5}{15} - \frac{8x^7}{315} + \frac{4x^9}{2835} - \dots$

27. $\sin x^2 = x^2 - \frac{x^6}{3!} + \frac{x^{10}}{5!} - \frac{x^{14}}{7!} + \frac{x^{18}}{9!} - \dots$

29. $\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots$

31. $e^{-x} = 1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots$

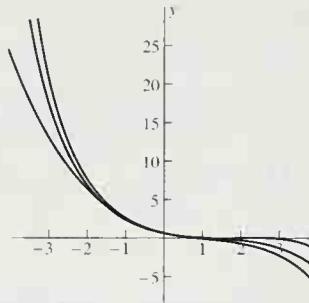
33. $\ln x = (x-1) - \frac{(x-1)^2}{2} + \frac{(x-1)^3}{3} - \frac{(x-1)^4}{4} + \dots$

35. $\cos x = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{1!2}(x - \frac{1}{4}\pi) - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2!2}(x - \frac{1}{4}\pi)^2 + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{3!2}(x - \frac{1}{4}\pi)^3 + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4!2}(x - \frac{1}{4}\pi)^4 - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{5!2}(x - \frac{1}{4}\pi)^5 - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{6!2}(x - \frac{1}{4}\pi)^6 + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{7!2}(x - \frac{1}{4}\pi)^7 + \dots$

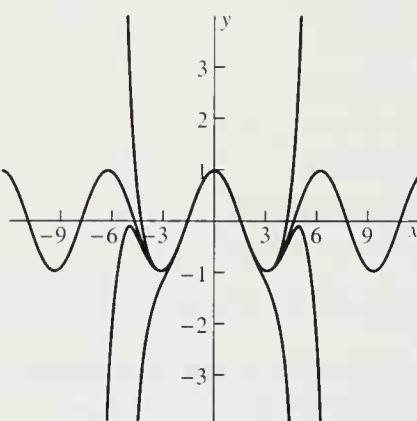
37. $\frac{1}{x} = 1 - (x-1) + (x-1)^2 - (x-1)^3 + (x-1)^4 - \dots$

39. $\sin x = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \left[1 + (x - \frac{1}{4}\pi) - \frac{1}{2!}(x - \frac{1}{4}\pi)^2 + \frac{1}{3!}(x - \frac{1}{4}\pi)^3 + \frac{1}{4!}(x - \frac{1}{4}\pi)^4 + \dots \right]$

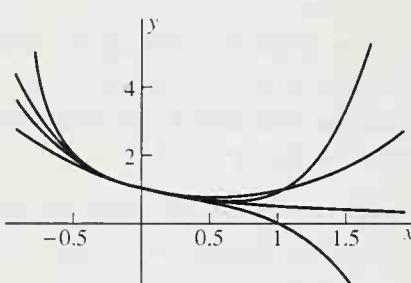
45. Here is a plot of e^{-x} and its Taylor polynomials, center zero, of degrees 3, 5, and 7.



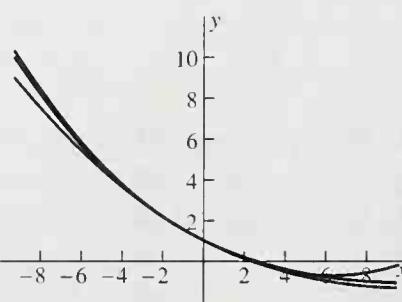
47. Here is a plot of $\cos x$ and its Taylor polynomials, center zero, of degrees 3, 4, and 5.



49. Here is a plot of $1/(1+x)$ and its Taylor polynomials, center zero, of degrees 2, 3, and 4.



51. Here is a plot of $g(x)$ and the partial sums of the series for $f(x)$ of degrees 2, 3, and 4.



59. The first column of the table gives the degree of the partial sum, the second column its value using the Maclaurin series of Problem 56, and the third column its value using the Maclaurin series of the second series of Problem 58. It is clear that the latter series converges much more rapidly to $\ln 2$.

5	0.783333333	0.693146047
10	0.645634921	0.693147181
15	0.725371850	0.693147181
20	0.668771403	0.693147181
25	0.712747500	0.693147181
30	0.676758138	0.693147181

Section 11.5 (page 665)

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Diverges | 3. Diverges | 5. Converges |
| 7. Diverges | 9. Converges | 11. Converges |
| 13. Converges | 15. Converges | 17. Diverges |
| 19. Converges | 21. Diverges | 23. Diverges |
| 25. Converges | 27. Converges | 29. Converges |
| 31. The terms are not nonnegative. | | |
| 33. The terms are not decreasing. | | |
| 35. $ p > 1$ | 37. $p > 1$ | 39. $n > 10000$ |
| 41. $n > 100$ | 43. 2.62 | 45. 1.03693 |
| 47. $p > 1$ | | 49. About a million centuries |

Section 11.6 (page 672)

- | | | |
|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| 1. Converges | 3. Diverges | 5. Converges |
| 7. Diverges | 9. Converges | 11. Converges |
| 13. Diverges | 15. Converges | 17. Converges |
| 19. Converges | 21. Converges | 23. Converges |
| 25. Converges | 27. Diverges | 29. Diverges |
| 31. Converges | 33. Converges | 35. Diverges |
| 37. 0.98; 0.10 | 39. 0.53; 0.05 | 41. 10; 0.68 |
| 43. 4; 0.10 | | |

Section 11.7 (page 680)

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Converges | 3. Diverges | 5. Diverges |
| 7. Diverges | 9. Converges | 11. Converges |
| 13. Converges | 15. Converges | 17. Diverges |
| 19. Diverges | | 21. Converges absolutely |
| 23. Converges conditionally | | |
| 25. Converges absolutely | 27. Converges absolutely | |
| 29. Diverges | 31. Converges absolutely | |

- | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--------------|
| 33. Converges conditionally | 35. Diverges | 37. Diverges |
| 39. Converges absolutely | 41. Converges absolutely | |
| 43. 0.90 | 45. 0.632 | |
| 47. 0.7 | 49. $n = 6; 0.947$ | |
| 51. $n = 5$ (six terms); 0.6065 | | |
| 53. $n = 4$ (five terms); 0.86603 | | |
| 63. $1 + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{13} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{15} + \dots$ | | |
| 65. The sum of the first 100,000 terms of the series is approximately -0.0000031249414 , which (correctly) suggests that the sum of the series is zero. | | |

Section 11.8 (page 691)

- | | | |
|---|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. $(-1, 1)$ | 3. $(-2, 2)$ | 5. $\{0\}$ |
| 7. $[-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}]$ | 9. $(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ | 11. $[-2, 2]$ |
| 13. $(-3, 3)$ | 15. $(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{4}{5})$ | 17. $[\frac{5}{2}, \frac{7}{2}]$ |
| 19. Converges only for $x = 0$ | | 21. $(-4, 2)$ |
| 23. $[2, 4]$ | 25. Converges only for $x = 5$ | |
| 27. $(-1, 1)$ | 29. $(-\infty, +\infty)$ | |
| 31. $x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots; (-1, 1)$ | | |
| 33. $x^2 - \frac{3x^3}{1!} + \frac{3^2x^4}{2!} - \frac{3^3x^5}{3!} + \dots; (\infty, +\infty)$ | | |
| 35. $x^2 - \frac{x^6}{3!} + \frac{x^{10}}{5!} - \frac{x^{14}}{7!} + \dots; (-\infty, +\infty)$ | | |
| 37. $(1-x)^{1/3} = 1 - \frac{x}{3} - \frac{2x^2}{2!3^2} - \frac{2 \cdot 5x^3}{3!3^3} - \frac{2 \cdot 5 \cdot 8x^4}{4!3^4} - \dots;$
$R = 1$ | | |
| 39. $f(x) = 1 - 3x + 6x^2 - 10x^3 + 15x^4 - \dots;$
$R = 1$ | | |
| 41. $f(x) = 1 - \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{3} - \frac{x^3}{4} + \frac{x^4}{5} - \dots;$
$R = 1$ | | |
| 43. $f(x) = \frac{x^4}{4} - \frac{x^{10}}{3!10} + \frac{x^{16}}{5!16} - \frac{x^{22}}{7!22} + \dots$
$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)!(6n+4)} x^{6n+4}$ | | |
| 45. $f(x) = x - \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^7}{2!7} - \frac{x^{10}}{3!10} + \frac{x^{13}}{4!13} - \dots$
$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!(3n+1)} x^{3n+1}$ | | |
| 47. $f(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{2!3} + \frac{x^5}{3!5} - \frac{x^7}{4!7} + \frac{x^9}{5!9} - \dots$
$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n!(2n-1)} x^{2n-1}$ | | |
| 49. $\frac{x}{(1-x)^2}$ | | |

51. $\frac{x(1+x)}{(1-x)^3}$

63. Using six terms: $3.14130878 < \pi < 3.1416744$

Section 11.9 (page 700)

1. $65^{1/3} = 4 \cdot (1 + \frac{1}{64})^{1/3}$. The first four terms of the binomial series give $65^{1/3} \approx 4.020726$; answer: 4.021.
3. Three terms of the usual sine series give 0.479427 with error less than 0.000002; answer: 0.479.
5. Five terms of the usual arctangent series give 0.463684 with error less than 0.000045; answer: 0.464.
7. 0.309 9. 0.174 11. 0.9461
13. 0.4872 15. 0.09761 17. 0.4438
19. 0.7468 21. 0.5133 23. $-\frac{1}{2}$
25. $\frac{1}{2}$ 27. 0 29. 0.9848
31. 0.681998 33. Six places 35. Five places
37. 1.3956 41. 8.9105 43. 15.3162
49. The first five coefficients are 1, 0, $\frac{1}{2}$, 0, and $\frac{5}{24}$.

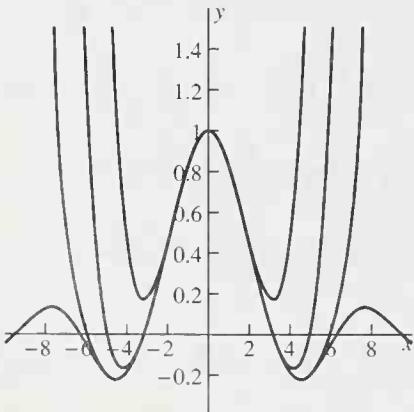
55. *Mathematica* Version 2.2.2 gives

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^{1/2} \frac{1}{1+x^2+x^4} dx \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \arctan\left(\frac{2x-1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \arctan\left(\frac{2x+1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \right. \\ & \quad \left. + \frac{1}{4} \ln\left(\frac{x^2+x+1}{x^2-x+1}\right) \right]_0^{1/2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \arctan\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + \frac{1}{4} \ln\left(\frac{7}{3}\right) \approx 0.45924. \end{aligned}$$

A series approximation is

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^{1/2} \frac{1}{1+x^2+x^4} dx \\ &= \int_0^{1/2} (1 - x^2 + x^6 - x^8 + x^{12} - x^{14} + \dots + x^{60} - x^{62}) dx \\ &\approx 0.459239825. \end{aligned}$$

57. The polynomial approximations are the graphs approaching $+\infty$ as $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$; they are the Taylor polynomials of degree 2, 4, and 6.



59. We used

$$\sin x - \tan x \approx -\frac{1}{2}x^3 - \frac{1}{8}x^5 - \frac{13}{240}x^7$$

and

$$\arcsin x - \arctan x \approx \frac{1}{2}x^3 - \frac{1}{8}x^5 + \frac{3}{16}x^7$$

to obtain

$$\frac{\sin x - \tan x}{\arcsin x - \arctan x} \approx \frac{120 + 30x^2 + 13x^4}{-120 + 30x^2 - 45x^4} \rightarrow -1$$

as $x \rightarrow 0$.

Chapter 11 Miscellaneous Problems (page 703)

1. 1 3. 10 5. 0
7. 0 9. No limit 11. 0
13. $+\infty$ (or "no limit") 15. 1
17. Converges 19. Converges 21. Converges
23. Diverges 25. Converges 27. Converges
29. Diverges 31. $(-\infty, +\infty)$ 33. $[-2, 4)$
35. $[-1, 1]$ 37. Converges only for $x = 0$
39. $(-\infty, +\infty)$ 41. Converges for no x
43. Converges for all x
51. Seven terms of the binomial series give 1.084.
53. 0.461 55. 0.797
65. $\sqrt{5} = 2 + \cfrac{1}{4 + \cfrac{1}{4 + \cfrac{1}{4 + \cfrac{1}{4 + \cfrac{1}{4 + \cdots}}}}}$

Section 12.1 (page 713)

1. $\mathbf{v} = \langle 2, 3 \rangle$ 3. $\mathbf{v} = \langle -10, -20 \rangle$
5. $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \langle 4, 2 \rangle$ 7. $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = 5\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j}$
9. $\sqrt{5}, 2\sqrt{13}, 4\sqrt{2}, \langle -2, 0 \rangle, \langle 9, -10 \rangle$
11. $2\sqrt{2}, 10, \sqrt{5}, \langle -5, -6 \rangle, \langle 0, 2 \rangle$
13. $\sqrt{10}, 2\sqrt{29}, \sqrt{65}; 3\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j}; -\mathbf{i} + 19\mathbf{j}$
15. $4, 14, \sqrt{65}; 4\mathbf{i} - 7\mathbf{j}, 12\mathbf{i} + 14\mathbf{j}$
17. $\mathbf{u} = \langle -\frac{3}{5}, -\frac{4}{5} \rangle; \mathbf{v} = \langle \frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5} \rangle$
19. $\mathbf{u} = \frac{8}{17}\mathbf{i} + \frac{15}{17}\mathbf{j}; \mathbf{v} = -\frac{8}{17}\mathbf{i} - \frac{15}{17}\mathbf{j}$
21. $-4\mathbf{j}$ 23. $8\mathbf{i} - 14\mathbf{j}$ 25. Yes
27. No 29. $\mathbf{i} = 3\mathbf{b} - 4\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{j} = 3\mathbf{a} - 2\mathbf{b}$
31. $\mathbf{c} = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a} + \frac{5}{2}\mathbf{b}$ 33. (a) $15\mathbf{i} - 21\mathbf{j}$; (b) $\frac{5}{3}\mathbf{i} - \frac{7}{3}\mathbf{j}$

35. (a) $\frac{35}{58}\mathbf{i}\sqrt{58} - \frac{15}{58}\mathbf{j}\sqrt{58}$; (b) $-\frac{40}{89}\mathbf{i}\sqrt{89} - \frac{25}{89}\mathbf{j}\sqrt{89}$

37. $c = 0$

43. The tension in each cable is 100 lb.

45. The tension in the right-hand cable is approximately 71.970925645 lb, and the tension in the left-hand cable is approximately 96.121326055 lb.

47. $\mathbf{v}_a = (500 + 25\sqrt{2})\mathbf{i} + 25\mathbf{j}\sqrt{2}$

49. $\mathbf{v}_a = -225\mathbf{i}\sqrt{2} + 275\mathbf{j}\sqrt{2}$

55. To rotate the vector \mathbf{a} counterclockwise through an angle of 90° , add $\pi/2$ to θ .

Section 12.2 (page 723)

1. (a) $\langle 5, 8, -11 \rangle$; (b) $\langle 2, 23, 0 \rangle$; (c) 4; (d) $\sqrt{51}$; (e) $(\frac{1}{15}\sqrt{5})\langle 2, 5, -4 \rangle$

3. (a) $2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$; (b) $3\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 7\mathbf{k}$; (c) 0; (d) $\sqrt{5}$; (e) $(\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{3})(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})$

5. (a) $4\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$; (b) $6\mathbf{i} - 7\mathbf{j} + 12\mathbf{k}$; (c) -1; (d) $\sqrt{17}$; (e) $(\frac{1}{5}\sqrt{5})(2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j})$

7. 81° 9. 90° 11. 98°

13. $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{a} = \frac{2}{7}\sqrt{14}$, $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b} = \frac{4}{15}\sqrt{5}$

15. $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{a} = 0$, $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b} = 0$

17. $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{a} = -\frac{1}{10}\sqrt{10}$, $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b} = -\frac{1}{5}\sqrt{5}$

19. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 6x - 2y - 4z = 11$

21. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 10x - 8y + 2z + 33 = 0$

23. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 4z = 0$

25. Center $(-2, 3, 0)$, radius $\sqrt{13}$

27. Center $(0, 0, 3)$, radius 5

29. The xy -plane

31. The horizontal plane (parallel to the xy -plane) meeting the z -axis at the point $(0, 0, 10)$

33. All points on any of the three coordinate planes

35. The origin $(0, 0, 0)$

37. The single point $(3, -4, 0)$

39. They are parallel: $\mathbf{b} = \frac{3}{2}\mathbf{a}$.

41. They are parallel: $\mathbf{b} = -\frac{3}{4}\mathbf{a}$.

43. Yes, on one line, because $\overrightarrow{QR} = 3\overrightarrow{PQ}$.

45. All angles 60° exactly

47. $79^\circ, 64^\circ, 37^\circ$

49. [Approximately] $74.2068^\circ, 47.1240^\circ, 47.1240^\circ$

51. [Approximately] $64.8959^\circ, 55.5501^\circ$; [exactly] 45°

53. 3

55. Approximately 7323.385 calories

57. If there's no friction, the work done is mgh .

61. $\mathbf{w} = \langle w_1, -\frac{7}{2}w_1, -2w_1 \rangle$ where w_1 is arbitrary but nonzero

67. $2x + 9y - 5z = 23$; the plane through the midpoint of the segment AB perpendicular to AB

69. 60°

Section 12.3 (page 732)

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. $\langle 0, -14, 7 \rangle$ | 3. $\langle -10, -7, 1 \rangle$ |
| 5. $\langle 0, 0, 22 \rangle$ | 7. $\pm \frac{1}{13}\langle 12, -3, 4 \rangle$ |
| 11. $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{c} = \langle -1, 1, 0 \rangle$, $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \langle 0, 0, -1 \rangle$ | 15. $A = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2546} \approx 25.229$ |
| 17. (a) 55; (b) $\frac{55}{6}$ | 19. Coplanar |
| 23. $4395.657 \text{ (m}^2)$ | 21. Not coplanar; 1 |
| 29. (b) $\frac{1}{38}\sqrt{9842} \approx 2.6107$ | 25. $31271.643 \text{ (ft}^2)$ |

Section 12.4 (page 740)

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. $x = t, y = 2t, z = 3t$ | 3. $x = 4 + 2t, y = 13, z = -3 - 3t$ |
| 5. $x = -6t, y = 3t, z = 5t$ | 7. $x = 3 + 3t, y = 5, z = 7 - 3t$ |
| 9. $x = 2 + t, y = 3 - t, z = -4 - 2t$
$x - 2 = -y + 3 = \frac{-z - 4}{2}$ | 11. $x = 1, y = 1, z = 1 + t$
$x - 1 = 0 = y - 1, z \text{ arbitrary}$ |
| 13. $x = 2 + 2t, y = -3 - t, z = 4 + 3t$
$\frac{x - 2}{2} = -y - 3 = \frac{z - 4}{3}$ | 15. The lines meet at the single point $(2, -1, 3)$. |
| 17. These are skew lines. | 19. These lines are parallel (and do not intersect). |
| 21. $x + 2y + 3z = 0$ | 23. $x - z + 8 = 0$ |
| 25. $y = 7$ | 27. $7x + 11y = 114$ |
| 29. $3x + 4y - z = 0$ | 31. $2x - y - z = 0$ |
| 33. $2x - 7y + 17z = 78$ | 35. The line and the plane are parallel (and do not intersect). |
| 37. They meet at the single point $(\frac{9}{2}, \frac{9}{4}, \frac{17}{4})$. | 39. $\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \approx 54.736^\circ$ |
| 41. The planes are parallel: $\theta = 10^\circ$ | 43. Technically, the line doesn't have symmetric equations; elimination of the parameter yields the Cartesian equations $x = 10, y + z = 10$. |
| 45. The two planes are parallel and do not coincide, so there is no line of intersection. | 47. $\frac{x - 3}{2} = y - 3 = \frac{-z + 1}{5}$ |
| 49. $3x + 2y + z = 6$ | 51. $7x - 5y - 2z = 9$ |
| 53. $x - 2y + 4z = 3$ | 55. $\frac{10}{3}\sqrt{3}$ |
| 59. (b) $\frac{133}{\sqrt{501}} \approx 5.942$ | 61. L and P are parallel (and have no points in common). |

63. L and \mathcal{P} meet at the single point $(7, 1, 1)$. The angle between them is approximately 40.367° .
65. The planes coincide.
67. The planes meet at an angle of about 33.41° . Parametric equations of their line of intersection are $x = -39t$, $y = 235t$, $z = 64t$.

Section 12.5 (page 753)

1. Matches Fig. 12.5.17. 3. Matches Fig. 12.5.16.
5. $\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0}$ 7. $2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}, 4\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$ 9. $6\pi\mathbf{i}, 12\pi^2\mathbf{j}$
11. $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + 2t\mathbf{j} + 3t^2\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{j} + 6t\mathbf{k}$,
 $v = \sqrt{1 + 4t^2 + 9t^4}$
13. $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + 3e^t\mathbf{j} + 4e^t\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{a} = 3e^t\mathbf{j} + 4e^t\mathbf{k}$,
 $v = \sqrt{1 + 25e^{2t}}$
15. $\mathbf{v} = (-3 \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (3 \cos t)\mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k}$,
 $\mathbf{a} = (-3 \cos t)\mathbf{i} - (3 \sin t)\mathbf{j}$, $v = 5$
17. $\frac{1}{2}(2 - \sqrt{2})\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}\sqrt{2}$ 19. $\frac{484}{15}\mathbf{i}$
21. 11 23. 0
25. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 1, 0, t \rangle$ 27. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + 10t\mathbf{j} - 2t^2\mathbf{k}$
29. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 2\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + (5t - t^3)\mathbf{k}$
31. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (10 + \frac{1}{6}t^3)\mathbf{i} + (10t + \frac{1}{12}t^4)\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{20}t^5\mathbf{k}$
33. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 - t - \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (1 + t - \sin t)\mathbf{j} + 5t\mathbf{k}$
35. $\mathbf{v} = (3\sqrt{2})(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}) + 8\mathbf{k}$, $v = 10$, $\mathbf{a} = (6\sqrt{2})(-\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$
39. Suggestion: Compute $\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r})$.
41. 100 (ft), $\sqrt{64 + 25} \approx 9.434$ (ft/s)
43. $v_0 = 32\sqrt{165} \approx 411.047$ (ft/s)
47. (a) 100 ft, $400\sqrt{3}$ ft; (b) 200, 800; (c) 300, $400\sqrt{3}$
49. $70\sqrt{10} \approx 221.36$ (m/s)
51. Inclination angle
 $\alpha = \arctan\left(\frac{8049 - 280\sqrt{20}}{8000}\right) \approx 0.730293$ (about $41^\circ 50' 34''$); initial velocity
 $v_0 = \frac{5600}{(20\sqrt{10} - 7) \cos \alpha} \approx 133.64595$ (m/s)
55. Begin with $\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = 0$.
57. A repulsive force acting directly away from the origin, with magnitude proportional to distance from the origin.
63. 5 ft
65. (a) $\mathbf{v}(t) = \langle 2t, 200, 160 - 32t \rangle$; $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, 200t, 384 + 160t - 16t^2 \rangle$. (b) 12 s. (c) 2400 ft north, 144 ft east. (d) 784 ft.

Section 12.6 (page 770)

1. 10π 3. $19(e - 1) \approx 32.647$
5. $2 + \frac{9}{10}\ln 3 \approx 2.9888$ 7. 0 9. 1

11. $\frac{40\sqrt{2}}{41\sqrt{41}} \approx 0.2155$ 13. At $(-\frac{1}{2}\ln 2, \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2})$
15. Maximum curvature $\frac{5}{9}$ at $(\pm 5, 0)$, minimum curvature $\frac{3}{25}$ at $(0, \pm 3)$
17. $\mathbf{T} = (\frac{1}{10}\sqrt{10})(\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j})$, $\mathbf{N} = (\frac{1}{10}\sqrt{10})(3\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j})$
19. $\mathbf{T} = (\frac{1}{57}\sqrt{57})(3\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j}\sqrt{3})$,
 $\mathbf{N} = (\frac{1}{57}\sqrt{57})(-4\mathbf{i}\sqrt{3} - 3\mathbf{j})$
21. $\mathbf{T} = (-\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2})(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$, $\mathbf{N} = (\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2})(-\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$
23. $a_T = \frac{18t}{\sqrt{9t^2 + 1}}$, $a_N = \frac{6}{\sqrt{9t^2 + 1}}$
25. $a_T = \frac{t}{\sqrt{1 + t^2}}$, $a_N = \frac{2 + t^2}{\sqrt{1 + t^2}}$
27. $\frac{1}{a}$ 29. $x^2 + (y - \frac{1}{2})^2 = \frac{1}{4}$
31. $(x - 2)^2 + (y - 2)^2 = 2$
33. $\frac{1}{2}$ 35. $\frac{1}{3}e^{-t}\sqrt{2}$
37. $a_T = 0 = a_N$
39. $a_T = \frac{4t + 18t^3}{\sqrt{1 + 4t^2 + 9t^4}}$,
 $a_N = \frac{2\sqrt{1 + 9t^2 + 9t^4}}{\sqrt{1 + 4t^2 + 9t^4}}$
41. $a_T = \frac{t}{\sqrt{t^2 + 2}}$, $a_N = \frac{\sqrt{t^4 + 5t^2 + 8}}{\sqrt{t^2 + 2}}$
43. $\mathbf{T} = (\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2})\langle 1, \cos t, -\sin t \rangle$, $\mathbf{N} = \langle 0, -\sin t, -\cos t \rangle$; at $(0, 0, 1)$, $\mathbf{T} = (\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2})\langle 1, 1, 0 \rangle$, $\mathbf{N} = \langle 0, 0, -1 \rangle$
45. $\mathbf{T} = (\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{3})(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})$, $\mathbf{N} = (\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2})(-\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$
47. $x = 2 + \frac{4}{13}s$, $y = 1 - \frac{12}{13}s$, $z = 3 + \frac{3}{13}s$
49. $x(s) = 3 \cos \frac{1}{5}s$, $y(s) = 3 \sin \frac{1}{5}s$, $z(s) = \frac{4}{5}s$
51. Begin with $\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v})$. 53. $\frac{1}{|t|}$
55. $A = 3$, $B = -8$, $C = 6$, $D = E = F = 0$
57. 36.65 mi/s, 24.13 mi/s 59. 0.672 mi/s, 0.602 mi/s
61. Approximately -795 mi, and thus it's not possible
63. About 1.962 h

Section 12.7 (page 782)

1. A plane with intercepts $(\frac{20}{3}, 0, 0)$, $(0, 10, 0)$, and $(0, 0, 2)$
3. A vertical circular cylinder with radius 3
5. A vertical cylinder intersecting the xy -plane in the rectangular hyperbola $xy = 4$
7. An elliptical paraboloid opening upward from its vertex at the origin
9. A circular paraboloid opening downward from its vertex at $(0, 0, 4)$
11. A paraboloid opening upward, vertex at the origin, axis the z -axis
13. A cone, vertex the origin, axis the z -axis (both nappes)

15. A parabolic cylinder perpendicular to the xz -plane, its trace there the parabola opening upward with axis the z -axis and vertex at $(x, z) = (0, -2)$
17. An elliptical cylinder perpendicular to the xy -plane, its trace there the ellipse with center $(0, 0)$ and intercepts $(\pm 1, 0)$ and $(0, \pm 2)$
19. An elliptical cone, vertex $(0, 0, 0)$, axis the x -axis
21. A paraboloid opening downward, vertex at the origin, axis the z -axis
23. A hyperbolic paraboloid, saddle point at the origin, meeting the xz -plane in a parabola with vertex the origin and opening downward, meeting the xy -plane in a parabola with vertex the origin and opening upward, meeting each plane parallel to the yz -plane in a hyperbola with directrices parallel to the y -axis
25. A hyperboloid of one sheet, axis the z -axis, trace in the xy -plane the circle with center $(0, 0)$ and radius 3, traces in parallel planes larger circles, and traces in planes parallel to the z -axis hyperbolas
27. An elliptical paraboloid, axis the y -axis, vertex at the origin
29. A hyperboloid of two sheets, axis the y -axis
31. A paraboloid, axis the x -axis, vertex at the origin, equation $x = 2(y^2 + z^2)$
33. Hyperboloid of one sheet, equation $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 1$
35. A paraboloid, vertex at the origin, axis the x -axis, equation $y^2 + z^2 = 4x$
37. The surface resembles a rug covering a turtle; highest point $(0, 0, 1)$; $z \rightarrow 0$ from above as $|x|$ or $|y|$ (or both) increase without bound; equation $z = \exp(-x^2 - y^2)$.
39. A circular cone with axis of symmetry the z -axis
41. Ellipses with semiaxes 2 and 1
43. Circles
45. Parabolas opening upward
47. Parabolas opening upward if $k > 0$, downward if $k < 0$
51. The projection of the intersection has equation $x^2 + y^2 = y$; it is the circle with center $(0, \frac{1}{2})$ and radius $\frac{1}{2}$.
53. Equation: $5x^2 + 8xy + 8y^2 - 8x - 8y = 0$. The roots $\lambda_1 \approx 2.23$ and $\lambda_2 \approx 10.77$ are both positive, so by Theorem 1 the curve is a rotated ellipse.
55. $\lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = 4$; ellipse 57. $\lambda_1 = 5, \lambda_2 = 10$; ellipse
59. $\lambda_1 = 25, \lambda_2 = 50$; ellipse
61. $\lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = 4$; elliptic paraboloid
63. $\lambda_1 = -5, \lambda_2 = 5$; hyperbolic paraboloid
65. $\lambda_1 = 17, \lambda_2 = 34$; elliptic paraboloid
67. $\lambda_1 = -2, \lambda_2 = 2, \lambda_3 = 4$; hyperboloid
69. $\lambda_1 = -5, \lambda_2 = 0, \lambda_3 = 5$; hyperbolic cylinder
71. $\lambda_1 \approx -1.14644, \lambda_2 \approx 1.78156, \lambda_3 \approx 6.36488$; hyperboloid
7. $(0, 0, 2)$ 9. $(-3, 0, 0)$ 11. $(0, -\sqrt{3}, 1)$
13. $(0, 0, 5)_{\text{cyl}}, (5, 0, 0)_{\text{sph}}$
15. $\left(\sqrt{2}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 0\right)_{\text{cyl}}, \left(\sqrt{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{4}\right)_{\text{sph}}$
17. $\left(\sqrt{2}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1\right)_{\text{cyl}}, \left(\sqrt{3}, \tan^{-1}\sqrt{2}, \frac{\pi}{4}\right)_{\text{sph}}$
19. $(\sqrt{5}, \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{2}, -2)_{\text{cyl}},$
 $\left(3, \frac{\pi}{2} + \tan^{-1}(\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{5}), \tan^{-1}(\frac{1}{2})\right)_{\text{sph}}$
21. $(5, \tan^{-1}\frac{4}{3}, 12)_{\text{cyl}}, (13, \tan^{-1}\frac{5}{12}, \tan^{-1}\frac{4}{3})_{\text{sph}}$
23. A cylinder, radius 5, axis the z -axis
25. The plane $y = x$
27. The upper nappe of the cone $x^2 + y^2 = 3z^2$
29. The xy -plane
31. An ellipsoidal surface centered at $(0, 0, 0)$
33. The vertical circular cylinder $(x - 2)^2 + y^2 = 2^2$
35. Two cylinders concentric around the z -axis, one of radius 1, the other of radius 3
37. Because $z = \pm r^2$, we have two paraboloids symmetric around the z -axis, each with vertex at $(0, 0, 0)$, one opening upward, the other downward.
39. $r^2 + z^2 = 25; \rho = 5$
41. $r(\cos \theta + \sin \theta) + z = 1;$
 $\rho(\sin \phi \cos \theta + \sin \phi \sin \theta + \cos \phi) = 1$
43. $r^2 + z^2 = r(\cos \theta + \sin \theta) + z;$
 $\rho = \sin \phi \cos \theta + \sin \phi \sin \theta + \cos \phi$
45. The segment of the vertical cylinder $r = 3$ between the horizontal planes $z = -1$ and $z = 1$. One way to see this surface: Execute the *Mathematica* command
- ```
ParametricPlot3D[{3*Cos[t], 3*Sin[t], z}, {t, 0, 2*Pi}, {z, -1, 1}];
```
47. The segment of the spherical surface with radius 2 and center  $(0, 0, 0)$  that lies between the horizontal planes  $z = -1$  and  $z = 1$ . One way to see this surface: Execute the *Mathematica* command
- ```
ParametricPlot3D[ {2*Sin[phi]*Cos[theta], 2*Sin[phi]*Sin[theta], 2*Cos[phi]}, {phi, Pi/3, 2*Pi/3}, {theta, 0, 2*Pi}];
```
49. The region between the concentric cylinders $r = 1$ and $r = 3$ and between the horizontal planes $z = -2$ and $z = 2$. One way to see this solid: Execute the *Mathematica* commands
- ```
p1 = ParametricPlot3D[{3*Cos[t], 3*Sin[t], z}, {t, 0, 2*Pi}, {z, -2, 2}];
p2 = ParametricPlot3D[{r*Cos[t], r*Sin[t], 2}, {t, 0, 2*Pi}, {r, 1, 3}];
p3 = ParametricPlot3D[{Cos[t], Sin[t], z}, {t, 0, 2*Pi}, {z, -2, 2}];
Show[p1, p2, p3]
```
51. This is the solid region between two spherical surfaces centered at the origin, the inner surface of radius 3, the

### Section 12.8 (page 789)

1.  $(0, 1, 2)$     3.  $(-\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}, 3)$     5.  $(1, \sqrt{3}, -5)$

outer of radius 5. To see the bottom half of this solid, execute the *Mathematica* commands

```
p1 = ParametricPlot3D[{3*Sin[phi]*Cos[theta],
3*Sin[phi]*Sin[theta], 3*Cos[phi]}, {phi,
Pi/2, Pi}, {theta, 0, 2*Pi}];

p2 = ParametricPlot3D[{5*Sin[phi]*Cos[theta],
5*Sin[phi]*Sin[theta], 5*Cos[phi]}, {phi,
Pi/2, Pi}, {theta, 0, 2*Pi}];

p3 = ParametricPlot3D[{r*Cos[theta],
r*Sin[theta], 0}, {r, 3, 5}, {t, 0, 2*Pi}];
Show[p1, p2, p3]
```

53.  $z = r^2$

55. (a)  $1 \leq r^2 \leq 4 - z^2$ ; (b)  $\csc \phi \leq \rho \leq 2$  (and, as a consequence,  $\frac{1}{6}\pi \leq \phi \leq \frac{5}{6}\pi$ )

57. About 3821 mi (about 6149 km)

59. Just under 50 km (about 31 mi)

61.  $0 \leq \rho \leq H \sec \phi, 0 \leq \phi \leq \arctan(R/H), \theta$  arbitrary

### Chapter 12 Miscellaneous Problems (page 791)

7.  $x = 1 + 2t, y = -1 + 3t, z = 2 - 3t;$

$$\frac{x-1}{2} = \frac{y+1}{3} = \frac{-z+2}{3}$$

9.  $-13x + 22y + 6z = -23$

11.  $x - y + 2z = 3$       15. 3

21. Two solutions:  $\alpha \approx 0.033364$  rad (about  $1^\circ 54' 53''$ ) and  $\alpha \approx 1.29116$  rad (about  $73^\circ 58' 40''$ )

23.  $\frac{1}{9}; a_T = 2, a_N = 1$

27.  $3x - 3y + z = 1$

33.  $\rho = 2 \cos \phi$

35.  $\rho^2 = 2 \cos 2\phi$ ; shaped like an hourglass with rounded ends

43. The curvature is zero when  $x$  is an integral multiple of  $\pi$  and reaches the maximum value 1 when  $x$  is an odd integral multiple of  $\pi/2$ .

45.  $\mathbf{N} = -\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi^2 + 4}} \mathbf{i} - \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{\pi^2 + 4}} \mathbf{j}$ ,

$$\mathbf{T} = -\frac{\pi}{\sqrt{\pi^2 + 4}} \mathbf{i} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi^2 + 4}} \mathbf{j}$$

49.  $A = \frac{15}{8}, B = -\frac{5}{4}, C = \frac{3}{8}$

51. This is a variation of Problem 36.

9. All  $(x, y)$

11. All points of the  $xy$ -plane for which  $y > x$ ; that is, all points above the line with equation  $y = x$

13. Except on the coordinate axes  $x = 0$  and  $y = 0$

15. Except on the lines  $y = \pm x$

17. Except at the origin  $(0, 0, 0)$

19. All points  $(x, y, z)$  of space for which  $x^2 + y^2 < z$ ; that is, all points below the paraboloid with equation  $z = x^2 + y^2$

21. The horizontal plane with equation  $z = 10$

23. A plane that makes a  $45^\circ$  angle with the  $xy$ -plane, intersecting it in the line  $x + y = 0$

25. A circular paraboloid opening upward from its vertex at the origin

27. The upper hemispherical surface of radius 2 centered at the origin

29. A circular cone opening downward from its vertex at  $(0, 0, 10)$

31. Straight lines of slope 1

33. Ellipses centered at  $(0, 0)$ , each with major axis twice the minor axis and lying on the  $x$ -axis

35. Vertical ( $y$ -direction) translates of the curve  $y = x^3$

37. Circles centered at the point  $(2, 0)$

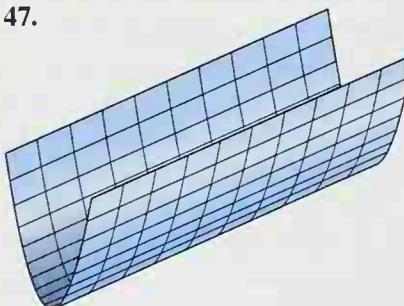
39. Circles centered at the origin

41. Circular paraboloids opening upward, each with its vertex on the  $z$ -axis

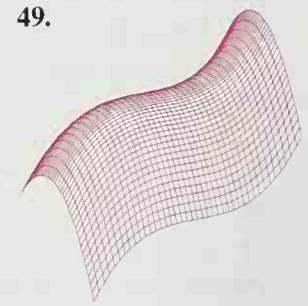
43. Spheres centered at  $(2, 1, 3)$

45. Elliptical cylinders, each with axis the vertical line through  $(2, 1, 0)$  and with the length of the  $x$ -semiaxis twice that of the  $y$ -semiaxis

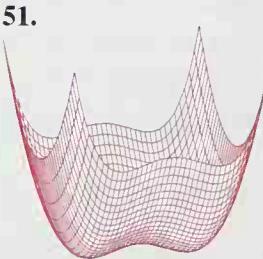
47.



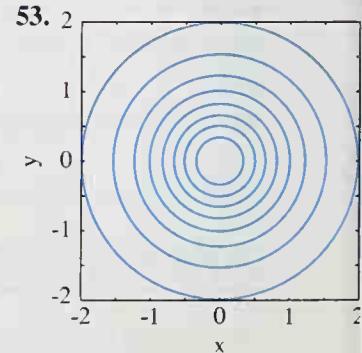
49.



51.



53. 2



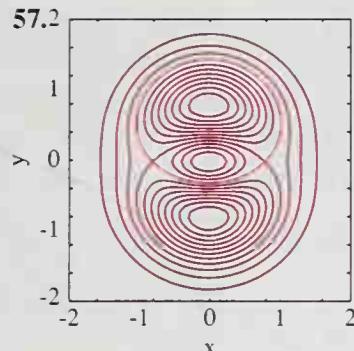
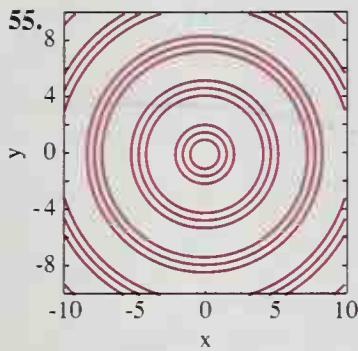
### Section 13.2 (page 803)

1. The  $xy$ -plane

3. All points of the  $xy$ -plane other than  $(0, 0)$

5. All points of the  $xy$ -plane

7. All points  $(x, y)$  such that  $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$ ; that is, all points on and within the unit circle centered at the origin



### Section 13.3 (pages 811)

1. 7      3.  $e$       5.  $\frac{5}{3}$       7. 0  
 9. 1      11.  $-\frac{3}{2}$       13. 1      15.  $-4$   
 17.  $y, x$       19.  $y^2, 2xy$       21. 0      23.  $\frac{1}{3}$   
 25. 0      27. 1      29. 0

31. All points above (not "on") the graph of  $y = -x$   
 33. All points *outside* the circle with equation  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$   
 35. All points in the  $xy$ -plane other than the origin  $(0, 0)$   
 41. This limit does not exist.  
 43. This limit does not exist.

### Section 13.4 (page 820)

1.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 4x^3 - 3x^2y + 2xy^2 - y^3$ ,  
 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = -x^3 + 2x^2y - 3xy^2 + 4y^3$   
 3.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = e^x(\cos y - \sin y)$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = -e^x(\cos y + \sin y)$   
 5.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = -\frac{2y}{(x-y)^2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{2x}{(x-y)^2}$   
 7.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{2x}{x^2+y^2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{2y}{x^2+y^2}$   
 9.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = yx^{y-1}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x^y \ln x$   
 11.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2xy^3z^4$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 3x^2y^2z^4$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = 4x^2y^3z^3$   
 13.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = yze^{xyz}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = xze^{xyz}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = xy e^{xyz}$   
 15.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2xe^y \ln z$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x^2e^y \ln z$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = \frac{x^2e^y}{z}$   
 17.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial r} = \frac{4rs^2}{(r^2+s^2)^2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial s} = -\frac{4r^2s}{(r^2+s^2)^2}$   
 19.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u} = e^v + we^u$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial v} = e^w + ue^v$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial w} = e^u + ve^w$   
 21.  $z_{xy} = z_{yx} \equiv -4$   
 23.  $z_{xy} = z_{yx} = -4xy \exp(-y^2)$

25.  $z_{xy} = z_{yx} = \frac{1}{(x+y)^2}$

27.  $z_{xy} = z_{yx} = 3e^{-3x} \sin y$

29.  $z_{xy} = z_{yx} = -4xy^{-3} \sinh(y^{-2})$

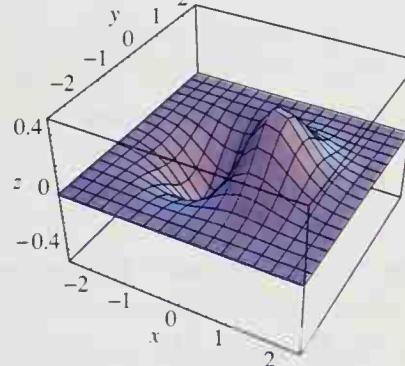
31.  $6x + 8y - z = 25$       33.  $z \equiv 1$

35.  $27x - 12y - z = 38$       37.  $x - y + z = 1$

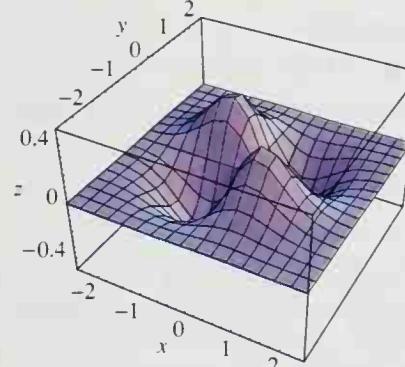
39.  $10x - 16y - z = 9$       41.  $f(x, y) = x^2y^3 + C$

43. There is no such function  $f$ .

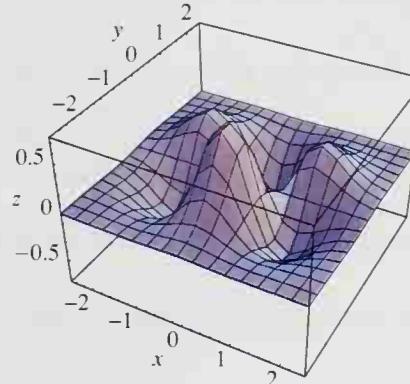
45.



47.



49.



53.  $f_{xyz}(x, y, z) = (x^2y^2z^2 + 3xyz + 1)e^{xyz}$

65.  $(10, -7, -58)$

67. (a) A decrease of about  $2750 \text{ cm}^3$ ; (b) an increase of about  $82.5 \text{ cm}^3$

71. (a) Descending at an angle of  $45^\circ$ ; (b) ascending at an angle of  $45^\circ$

## Section 13.5 (page 831)

1. None                    3.  $(0, 0, 5)$   
 5.  $(3, -1, -5)$             7.  $(-2, 0, -4)$   
 9.  $(-2, 0, -7)$  and  $(-2, 1, -9)$   
 11.  $(0, 0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0, 2/e)$ ,  $(-1, 0, 2/e)$ ,  $(0, 1, 3/e)$ , and  
 $(0, -1, 3/e)$   
 13. Minimum value:  $f(1, 1) = 1$   
 15. Maximum value:  $f(1, \pm 1) = 2$   
 17. Minimum value:  $f(2, 3) = -50$   
 19. Minimum value:  $f(4, -2) = f(-4, 2) = -16$   
 21. Maximum value:  $f(1, -2) = e^5$   
 23. Maximum value:  $f(1, 1) = 3$ ; minimum value:  
 $f(-1, -1) = -3$   
 25. Maximum value:  $f(0, 2) = 4$ ; minimum value:  
 $f(1, 0) = -1$   
 27. Let  $t = 1/\sqrt{2}$ . Maximum value:  $f(t, t) = f(-t, -t) = 1$ ;  
minimum value:  $f(t, -t) = f(-t, t) = -1$   
 29.  $(12, 4, 3)$                     31.  $(15, 5, 4)$   
 33.  $(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}, 1)$             35. 64000  
 37. 10 in. along each edge  
 39. Base 10 by 10 in., height 6 in.  
 41. 15 in. wide, 10 in. deep, and 5 in. high  
 43. Height 10 ft, front and back 40 ft wide, sides 20 ft deep  
 45.  $\frac{1331}{367} \approx 2.347443$             47. 11664 in.<sup>3</sup>  
 49.  $\frac{1}{2}$                             51.  $(18\pi\sqrt{5}V^2)^{1/3}$   
 53.  $(\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3})$   
 55. Each triangular end should have height  $h = 2^{-1/6}V^{1/3}$  and  
base  $b = 2h$ ; the depth of the A-frame should be  $h\sqrt{2}$ .  
 59. Maximum when

$$x = \frac{7 - \sqrt{5}}{22}L \quad \text{and} \quad \theta = \frac{2}{5}\pi;$$

the maximum value of the area is approximately  $(0.130534)L^2$ .

61. (a)  $x = \frac{45}{11}$ , about \$4.09, and  $y = \frac{48}{11}$ , about \$4.36, for weekly profits of \$19107 and \$33942, respectively. (b)  $x = \frac{37}{5}$ , exactly \$7.40, and  $y = \frac{98}{15}$ , about \$6.53, for total weekly profit of \$67533, much greater than the sum of the profits in part (a).  
 63. Raise 40 hogs and 40 head of cattle per unit of land, and no sheep.

## Section 13.6 (page 841)

1.  $dw = (6x + 4y)dx + (4x - 6y^2)dy$   
 3.  $dw = \frac{x dx + y dy}{\sqrt{1+x^2+y^2}}$             5.  $dw = \frac{y dx - x dy}{x^2 + y^2}$

7.  $dw = \frac{2x dx + 2y dy + 2z dz}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$   
 9.  $dw = (\tan yz)dx + (xz \sec^2 yz)dy + (xy \sec^2 yz)dz$   
 11.  $dw = -e^{-xyz}(yz dx + xz dy + xy dz)$   
 13.  $dw = \exp(-v^2)(2u du - 2u^2 v dv)$   
 15.  $dw = \frac{x dx + y dy + z dz}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$   
 17.  $\Delta f \approx 0.014$  (true value: about 0.01422975)  
 19.  $\Delta f \approx -0.0007$                     21.  $\Delta f \approx \frac{53}{1300} \approx 0.04077$   
 23.  $\Delta f \approx 0.06$                             25. 191.1  
 27. 1.4                                    29. 12.8077  
 31. 2.08                                    33. 2.5 cm<sup>2</sup>  
 35. 8.18 in.<sup>3</sup>                            37. 0.022 acres  
 39. The period increases by about 0.0278 s.  
 41. About 303.8 ft  
 47. Note that  $f_x(0, 0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(0+h, 0) - f(0, 0)}{h} = 1$ .

## Section 13.7 (page 851)

1.  $-(2t+1)\exp(-t^2-t)$             3.  $6t^5 \cos t^6$   
 5.  $\frac{\partial w}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial t} = \frac{2}{s+t}$             7.  $\frac{\partial w}{\partial s} \equiv 0, \frac{\partial w}{\partial t} = 5e^t$   
 9.  $\frac{\partial r}{\partial x} = (y+z)\exp(yz+xy+xz),$   
 $\frac{\partial r}{\partial y} = (x+z)\exp(yz+xy+xz),$   
 $\frac{\partial r}{\partial z} = (x+y)\exp(yz+xy+xz)$   
 11.  $\frac{\partial r}{\partial x} = \frac{(2y+3z)\sqrt{xy^2z^3}}{2x(x+2y+3z)^{3/2}} \cos \frac{\sqrt{xy^2z^3}}{\sqrt{x+2y+3z}},$   
 $\frac{\partial r}{\partial y} = \frac{(x+y+3z)\sqrt{xy^2z^3}}{y(x+2y+3z)^{3/2}} \cos \frac{\sqrt{xy^2z^3}}{\sqrt{x+2y+3z}},$   
 $\frac{\partial r}{\partial z} = \frac{(3x+6y+6z)\sqrt{xy^2z^3}}{2z(x+2y+3z)^{3/2}} \cos \frac{\sqrt{xy^2z^3}}{\sqrt{x+2y+3z}},$   
 13.  $\frac{\partial p}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial u},$   
 $\frac{\partial p}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v},$   
 $\frac{\partial p}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial w} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial w},$   
 15.  $\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial p}{\partial u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial v} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial w} \frac{\partial w}{\partial x},$   
 $\frac{\partial p}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial p}{\partial u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial v} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial w} \frac{\partial w}{\partial y},$   
 $\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial p}{\partial u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial v} \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial w} \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}.$

17.  $\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = \frac{dp}{dw} \frac{\partial w}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} = \frac{dp}{dw} \frac{\partial w}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = \frac{dp}{dw} \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial p}{\partial u} = \frac{dp}{dw} \frac{\partial w}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial p}{\partial v} = \frac{dp}{dw} \frac{\partial w}{\partial v}$

19.  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -\left(\frac{z}{x}\right)^{1/3}, \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -\left(\frac{z}{y}\right)^{1/3}$

21.  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -\frac{yz(e^{xy} + e^{xz}) + (xy + 1)e^{xy}}{e^{xy} + xye^{yz}},$   
 $\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -\frac{x(x + z)e^{xy} + e^{xz}}{xye^{xz} + e^{xy}}$

23.  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -\frac{c^2 x}{a^2 z}, \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -\frac{c^2 y}{b^2 z}$

25.  $w_x = 6x$  and  $w_y = 6y$ .

27.  $w_x = y \ln(\sqrt{x^3 + y^3} + \sqrt[3]{x^2 + y^2})$   
 $+ \frac{2x^2 y}{3(\sqrt{x^3 + y^3} + \sqrt[3]{x^2 + y^2})(x^2 + y^2)^{2/3}}$   
 $+ \frac{3x^3 y}{2(\sqrt{x^3 + y^3} + \sqrt[3]{x^2 + y^2})\sqrt{x^3 + y^3}},$   
 $w_y = x \ln(\sqrt{x^3 + y^3} + \sqrt[3]{x^2 + y^2})$   
 $+ \frac{2xy^2}{3(\sqrt{x^3 + y^3} + \sqrt[3]{x^2 + y^2})(x^2 + y^2)^{2/3}}$   
 $+ \frac{3xy^3}{2(\sqrt{x^3 + y^3} + \sqrt[3]{x^2 + y^2})\sqrt{x^3 + y^3}}.$

29.  $x + 2y + 2z = 9$

31.  $x - y - z = 0$

33.  $-2880$  (in.<sup>3</sup>/h)

35. Increasing at  $\frac{26}{5}\pi$  (ft<sup>3</sup>/min)

37. Decreasing at  $\frac{14}{3}$  L/min

41.  $\frac{\partial w}{\partial x} = f'(u) \cdot \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = f'(u)$ , and so on.

43. Show that  $w_u = w_x + w_y$ . Then note that

$$w_{uv} = \frac{\partial}{\partial v} w_u = \frac{\partial w_u}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial w_u}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}.$$

57. A 5°C-increase in temperature multiplies the initial pressure (1 atm) by  $\frac{3000}{13} \approx 230.77$ , so the bulb will burst.

59.  $T'(\rho, \phi, \theta) = \rho^2 \sin \phi$

### Section 13.8 (Page 861)

1.  $\langle 3, -7 \rangle$       3.  $\langle 0, 0 \rangle$       5.  $\langle 0, 6, -4 \rangle$

7.  $\langle 1, 1, 1 \rangle$       9.  $\langle 2, -\frac{3}{2}, -2 \rangle$       11.  $8\sqrt{2}$

13.  $\frac{12}{13}\sqrt{13}$       15.  $-\frac{13}{20}$       17.  $-\frac{1}{6}$

19.  $-6\sqrt{2}$

21. Maximum:  $\sqrt{170}$ ; direction:  $\langle 7, 11 \rangle$

23. Maximum:  $\frac{2}{5}$ ; direction:  $\langle 3, 4 \rangle$

25. Maximum:  $14\sqrt{2}$ ; direction:  $\langle 3, 5, -8 \rangle$

27. Maximum:  $2\sqrt{14}$ ; direction:  $\langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle$

29.  $3x + 4y = 25$

31.  $29(x - 2) - 4(y + 3) = 0$

33. (a)  $\frac{34}{3}$  °C/ft; (b) 13 °C/ft and (4, 3, 12)

35. (a)  $z = \frac{3}{10}x + \frac{1}{5}y - \frac{2}{5}$ ; (b) 0.44 (true value: 0.448)

37.  $x - 2y + z + 10 = 0$

39. Compass heading about 36.87°; climbing at 45°

41. Compass heading about 203.2°; climbing at about 75.29°

43. (a) Descending at about 8.049467°; (b) Descending at about 3.627552°

45.  $\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{d\phi}{dt} \rho \cos \phi \cos \theta + \frac{d\rho}{dt} \sin \phi \cos \theta - \frac{d\theta}{dt} \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta,$

$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{d\phi}{dt} \rho \cos \phi \sin \theta + \frac{d\rho}{dt} \sin \phi \sin \theta + \frac{d\theta}{dt} \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta,$

$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{d\rho}{dt} \cos \phi - \frac{d\phi}{dt} \rho \sin \phi.$

### Section 13.9 (pages 870)

1. Maximum:  $\sqrt{5}$ , at  $(\frac{2}{5}\sqrt{5}, \frac{1}{5}\sqrt{5})$ ;  
minimum:  $-\sqrt{5}$ , at  $(-\frac{2}{5}\sqrt{5}, -\frac{1}{5}\sqrt{5})$

3. Maximum: 4, at  $(\pm 2, 0)$ ; minimum: -4, at  $(0, \pm 2)$

5. Maximum: 3, at  $(\frac{3}{2}\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2})$  and  $(-\frac{3}{2}\sqrt{2}, -\sqrt{2})$ ;  
minimum: -3 at  $(-\frac{3}{2}\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2})$  and  $(\frac{3}{2}\sqrt{2}, -\sqrt{2})$

7. Minimum:  $\frac{18}{7}$ , at  $(\frac{9}{7}, \frac{6}{7}, \frac{3}{7})$ ; no maximum

9. Maximum: 7, at  $(\frac{36}{7}, \frac{9}{7}, \frac{4}{7})$ ;  
minimum: -7, at  $(-\frac{36}{7}, -\frac{9}{7}, -\frac{4}{7})$

11. Maximum: 20, at  $(4, 4, 2)$  and at  $(-4, -4, 2)$ ; minimum: -20, at  $(-4, 4, -2)$  and at  $(4, -4, -2)$

13. Maximum:  $\frac{81}{4}$ , at all eight of the critical points  $(\pm 3, \pm \frac{3}{2}, \pm 1)$ . Minimum: Zero, at all points on the ellipses in which the ellipsoid intersects the coordinate planes.

15. Minimum:  $\frac{25}{3}$ , at  $(-\frac{5}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{7}{3})$ . There is no maximum because, in effect, we seek the extrema of the square of the distance between the origin and a point  $(x, y, z)$  on an unbounded straight line.

17. Maximum:  $1 + \sqrt{2}$ , at  $(-1/\sqrt{2}, -1/\sqrt{2}, 1 + \sqrt{2})$ ;  
minimum:  $1 - \sqrt{2}$ , at  $(1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2}, 1 - \sqrt{2})$

19. (12, 16)      21. (12, 4, 3)      23. (15, 5, 4)

25.  $(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}, 1)$       27. 64000      29. A 10-in. cube

31. Base 10 in. by 10 in., height 6 in.

33. Base 15 in. by 10 in., height 5 in.

35.  $(2, -2, 1)$  and  $(-2, 2, 1)$       39.  $(2, 3)$  and  $(-2, -3)$

31. Base 10 in. by 10 in., height 6 in.

33. Base 15 in. by 10 in., height 5 in.

35.  $(2, -2, 1)$  and  $(-2, 2, 1)$       39.  $(2, 3)$  and  $(-2, -3)$

41. Highest:  $(\frac{2}{5}\sqrt{5}, \frac{1}{5}\sqrt{5}, \sqrt{5} - 4)$ ; lowest:  
 $(-\frac{2}{5}\sqrt{5}, -\frac{1}{5}\sqrt{5}, -\sqrt{5} - 4)$

43. Farthest:  $x = -\frac{1}{20}(15 + 9\sqrt{5})$ ,  $y = 2x$ ,  $z = \frac{1}{4}(9 + 3\sqrt{5})$ ;  
nearest:  $x = -\frac{1}{20}(15 - 9\sqrt{5})$ ,  $y = 2x$ ,  $z = \frac{1}{4}(9 - 3\sqrt{5})$

47.  $\frac{1}{4}(3 - 2\sqrt{2})P^2$     51. (0.4102, 0.3478)    53. (4, 6)  
 55. The point of the sphere closest to (0, 0, 0) is approximately  
 $(-0.60357, -1.20713, -1.81070)$ ,  
 at approximate distance 2.25834, and the point farthest  
 from (0, 0, 0) is approximately  
 $(2.60357, 5.20713, 7.81070)$ ,  
 at approximate distance 9.74166.  
 57. The point  $(x, y) \approx (2.49615, 1.10940)$  is closest, at  
 approximate distance 3.48501 from the point  $(u, v) \approx$   
 $(5.69338, 4.30662)$  of the line. The point  $(x, y) \approx$   
 $(-2.49615, -1.10940)$  is farthest, at approximate dis-  
 tance 6.94268 from the point  $(u, v) \approx$   
 $(4.30662, 5.69338)$  of the line.  
 59.  $\frac{81}{4}\sqrt{2} \approx 28.637825$

**Section 13.10 (page 879)**

1. Minimum  $(-1, 2, -1)$ , no other extrema
3. Saddle point  $(-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{29}{4})$ . no extrema
5. Minimum  $(-3, 4, -9)$ , no other extrema
7. Saddle point  $(0, 0, 3)$ , local maximum  $(-1, -1, 4)$
9. No extrema
11. Saddle point  $(0, 0, 0)$ , local minima  $(-1, -1, -2)$  and  $(1, 1, -2)$
13. Saddle point  $(-1, 1, 5)$ , local minimum  $(3, -3, -27)$
15. Saddle point  $(0, -2, 32)$ , local minimum  $(-5, 3, -93)$
17. Saddle point  $(0, 0, 0)$ , local maxima  $(1, 2, 2)$  and  $(-1, -2, 2)$
19. Saddle point  $(-1, 0, 17)$ , local minimum  $(2, 0, -10)$
21. Saddle point  $(0, 0, 0)$ , local (actually, global) maxima  
 $\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, \frac{1}{2e}\right)$  and  $\left(-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, \frac{1}{2e}\right)$ ,  
 local (actually, global) minima  
 $\left(-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, -\frac{1}{2e}\right)$  and  $\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, -\frac{1}{2e}\right)$
23. Local (actually, global) minimum
25. Local (actually, global) maximum
27. Minimum value 3 at  $(1, 1)$  and at  $(-1, -1)$
29. See Problem 57 of Section 13.5 and its answer
31. The critical points are those of the form  $(m, n)$ , where both  $m$  and  $n$  are even integers or odd integers. The critical point  $(m, n)$  is a saddle point if both  $m$  and  $n$  are even, but a local maximum if both  $m$  and  $n$  are of the form  $4k + 1$  or of the form  $4k + 3$ . It is a local minimum in the remaining cases.
35. Local minima at  $(-1.8794, 0)$  and  $(1.5321, 0)$ , saddle point at  $(0.3473, 0)$
37. Local minima at  $(-1.8794, 1.8794)$  and  $(1.5321, -1.5321)$  and a saddle point at the point  $(0.3473, -0.3473)$
39. Local minima at  $(3.6247, 3.9842)$  and  $(3.6247, -3.9842)$ , saddle point at  $(0, 0)$

**Chapter 13 Miscellaneous Problems (page 881)**

3. On the line  $y = x$ ,  $g(x, y) \equiv \frac{1}{2}$ , except that  $g(0, 0) = 0$
5.  $f(x, y) = x^2y^3 + e^x \sin y + y + C$
7. All points of the form  $(a, b, \frac{1}{2})$  (so  $a^2 + b^2 = \frac{1}{2}$ ) together with  $(0, 0, 0)$
9. The normal to the cone at the point  $(a, b, \sqrt{a^2 + b^2})$  meets the  $z$ -axis at the point  $(0, 0, 2\sqrt{a^2 + b^2})$ .
15. Base  $2\sqrt[3]{3} \times 2\sqrt[3]{3}$  ft, height  $5\sqrt[3]{3}$  ft
17.  $200 \pm 2 \Omega$     19. 3%
21.  $(\pm 4, 0, 0)$ ,  $(0, \pm 2, 0)$ , and  $(0, 0, \pm \frac{4}{3})$
25. Parallel to the vector  $\langle 4, -3 \rangle$ ; that is, at an approximate bearing of either  $126.87^\circ$  or  $306.87^\circ$
27. 1    31. Semiaxes 1 and 2
33. There is no such triangle of minimum perimeter, unless we consider as a triangle the figure with all sides of length zero—a single point on the circumference of the circle. The triangle of maximum perimeter is equilateral, with perimeter  $3\sqrt{3}$ .
35. Closest:  $(\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{6}, \frac{1}{6}\sqrt{6})$ ; farthest:  $(-\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{6}, -\frac{1}{6}\sqrt{6})$
39. Maximum: 1; minimum:  $-\frac{1}{2}$
41. Local minimum  $-1$  at  $(1, 1)$  and at  $(-1, -1)$ ; horizontal tangent plane (but no extrema) at  $(0, 0, 0)$ ,  $(\sqrt{3}, 0, 0)$ , and  $(-\sqrt{3}, 0, 0)$
43. Local minimum  $-8$  at  $(2, 2)$ , horizontal tangent plane at  $(0, 0, 0)$
45. Local maximum  $\frac{1}{432}$  at  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3})$ . All points on the intervals  $(-\infty, 0)$  and  $(1, +\infty)$  on the  $x$ -axis are local minima (value: 0), and all points on the interval  $(0, 1)$  on the  $x$ -axis are local maxima (value: 0). There is a saddle point at  $(0, 1)$ . There is a horizontal tangent plane at the origin, but it isn't really a saddle point.
47. There is a saddle point at  $(0, 0)$ ; each point on the hyperbola  $xy = \ln 2$  yields a global minimum.
49. There are no extrema, only saddle points at  $(1, 1)$  and  $(-1, -1)$ .

**Section 14.1 (page 891)**

- |                               |                                               |                    |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. 198; 480                   | 3. 8                                          | 5. 88              |
| 7. $\frac{1}{2}\pi^2$         | 9. $L \leq M \leq U$                          | 11. 80             |
| 13. -78                       | 15. $\frac{513}{4}$                           | 17. $-\frac{9}{2}$ |
| 19. 1                         | 21. $\frac{1}{2}(e - 1)$                      | 23. $2(e - 1)$     |
| 25. $2\pi + \frac{1}{4}\pi^4$ | 27. 1                                         | 29. $2\ln 2$       |
| 31. -32                       | 33. $\frac{4}{15}(9\sqrt{3} - 8\sqrt{2} + 1)$ |                    |

**Section 14.2 (page 898)**

- |                    |                          |                    |                   |
|--------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| 1. $\frac{5}{6}$   | 3. $\frac{1}{2}$         | 5. $\frac{1}{12}$  | 7. $\frac{1}{20}$ |
| 9. $-\frac{1}{18}$ | 11. $\frac{1}{2}(e - 2)$ | 13. $\frac{61}{3}$ | 15. 0             |

17. 0      19.  $\pi$       21. 1      23. 2

25.  $\int_0^4 \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} x^2 y \, dx \, dy = \frac{512}{21}$

27.  $\int_0^1 \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} x \, dx \, dy + \int_1^9 \int_{(y-3)/2}^{\sqrt{y}} x \, dx \, dy = \frac{32}{3}$

29.  $\int_0^4 \int_{2-\sqrt{4-y}}^{y/2} 1 \, dx \, dy = \frac{4}{3}$

31.  $\int_0^\pi \int_0^y \frac{\sin y}{y} \, dx \, dy = 2$

33.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^x \frac{1}{1+x^4} \, dy \, dx = \frac{\pi}{8}$

35. The curves bound two bounded plane regions. The area of the one on the left is approximately 0.02767; the area of the region on the right is approximately 7.92408.

37. 0      39. 0      41. 0      43. 0

### Section 14.3 (page 903)

- |                                                     |                                                           |                      |                     |                    |
|-----------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1. $\frac{1}{6}$                                    | 3. $\frac{32}{3}$                                         | 5. $\frac{5}{6}$     | 7. $\frac{32}{3}$   | 9. $2 \ln 2$       |
| 11. 2                                               | 13. $2e$                                                  | 15. $\frac{1}{3}$    | 17. $\frac{41}{60}$ | 19. $\frac{4}{15}$ |
| 21. $\frac{10}{3}$                                  | 23. 19                                                    | 25. $\frac{4}{3}$    | 27. 6               | 29. 24             |
| 31. $\pi$                                           | 33. $\left(\frac{32}{3} - 4\sqrt{3}\right)\pi$            | 35. $\frac{1}{6}abc$ | 37. $\frac{2}{3}$   |                    |
| 41. $\frac{625}{2}\pi$                              | 43. $\frac{1}{6}(2\pi + 3\sqrt{3})R^3 \approx (1.913)R^3$ | 45. $\frac{256}{15}$ |                     |                    |
| 47. $\frac{208}{9} - \pi^2 \approx 13.241506710022$ |                                                           |                      |                     |                    |

### Section 14.4 (page 911)

- |                                                           |                                                    |                            |                       |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| 3. $\frac{3}{2}\pi$                                       | 5. $\frac{1}{6}(4\pi - 3\sqrt{3}) \approx 1.22837$ |                            |                       |
| 7. $\frac{1}{2}(2\pi - 3\sqrt{3}) \approx 0.5435$         |                                                    |                            |                       |
| 9. $\frac{16}{3}\pi$                                      | 11. $\frac{23}{8}\pi$                              | 13. $\frac{1}{4}\pi \ln 2$ | 15. $\frac{16}{5}\pi$ |
| 17. $\frac{1}{4}\pi(1 - \cos 1) \approx 0.36105$          |                                                    |                            |                       |
| 19. $2\pi$                                                | 21. $4\pi$                                         | 27. $2\pi$                 |                       |
| 29. $\frac{1}{3}\pi(2 - \sqrt{2})a^3 \approx (0.6134)a^3$ |                                                    |                            |                       |
| 31. $\frac{1}{4}\pi$                                      | 35. $2\pi^2 a^2 b$                                 | 37. $8\pi$                 | 39. $24\pi$           |

### Section 14.5 (page 920)

- |                                                                                               |                                                             |                                                           |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. $(2, 3)$                                                                                   | 3. $(1, 1)$                                                 | 5. $\left(\frac{4}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right)$                |
| 7. $\left(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{6}{5}\right)$                                                    | 9. $\left(0, -\frac{8}{5}\right)$                           | 11. $\frac{1}{24}; \left(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{2}{5}\right)$ |
| 13. $\frac{256}{15}, \left(0, \frac{16}{7}\right)$                                            | 15. $\frac{1}{12}, \left(\frac{9}{14}, \frac{9}{14}\right)$ | 17. $\frac{8}{3}, \left(0, \frac{43}{25}\right)$          |
| 19. $2, \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{8}\pi\right)$                                             | 21. $a^3, \left(\frac{7}{12}a, \frac{7}{12}a\right)$        | 23. $\frac{128}{5}, \left(0, \frac{20}{7}\right)$         |
| 25. $\pi; \bar{x} = \frac{\pi^2 - 4}{\pi} \approx 1.87, \bar{y} = \frac{\pi}{8} \approx 0.39$ |                                                             |                                                           |

27.  $\frac{1}{3}\pi a^3; \bar{x} = 0, \bar{y} = \frac{3a}{2\pi}$

29.  $\frac{2}{3}\pi + \frac{1}{4}\sqrt{3}; \bar{x} = 0, \bar{y} = \frac{36\pi + 33\sqrt{3}}{32\pi + 12\sqrt{3}} \approx 1.4034$

31.  $\frac{2\pi a^{n+4}}{n+4}$

33.  $\frac{3}{2}\pi k$

35.  $\frac{1}{9}$

37.  $\hat{x} = \frac{2}{21}\sqrt{105}, \hat{y} = \frac{4}{3}\sqrt{5}$

39.  $\hat{x} = \hat{y} = \frac{1}{10}a\sqrt{30}$

41.  $\left(\frac{4r}{3\pi}, \frac{4r}{3\pi}\right)$

43.  $\left(\frac{2r}{\pi}, \frac{2r}{\pi}\right)$

51. (a)  $\bar{x} = 0, \bar{y} = \frac{4a^2 + 3\pi ab + 6b^2}{3\pi a + 12b};$   
 (b)  $\frac{1}{3}\pi a(4a^2 + 2\pi ab + 6b^2)$

53.  $\left(1, \frac{1}{4}\right)$

55.  $\frac{484}{3}k$

57. Mass  $\pi, \bar{x} = 0, \bar{y} = \frac{5}{4}$

59. Mass  $\frac{1}{2}\pi, \bar{x} = \frac{5}{4}, \bar{y} = 4/(3\pi)$

### Section 14.6 (page 930)

- |                                                                                                 |                                                                  |                                                 |                         |       |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------|
| 1. 18                                                                                           | 3. 128                                                           | 5. $\frac{1}{60}$                               | 7. 0                    | 9. 12 |
| 11. $V = \int_0^3 \int_0^{3-(2x/3)} \int_0^{6-2x-2y} 1 \, dz \, dy \, dx = 6$                   |                                                                  |                                                 |                         |       |
| 13. $\frac{128}{5}$                                                                             | 15. $\frac{332}{105}$                                            | 17. $\frac{256}{15}$                            | 19. $\frac{11}{30}$     |       |
| 21. $\left(0, \frac{20}{7}, \frac{10}{7}\right)$                                                |                                                                  | 23. $\left(0, \frac{8}{7}, \frac{12}{7}\right)$ |                         |       |
| 25. $\bar{x} = 0, \bar{y} = \frac{44 - 9\pi}{72 - 9\pi}, \bar{z} = \frac{9\pi - 16}{72 - 9\pi}$ |                                                                  |                                                 |                         |       |
| 27. $\frac{8}{7}$                                                                               | 29. $\frac{1}{30}$                                               | 33. $\frac{2}{3}a^5$                            | 35. $\frac{38}{45}ka^7$ |       |
| 37. $\frac{1}{3}k$                                                                              | 39. $\left(\frac{9}{64}\pi, \frac{9}{64}\pi, \frac{3}{8}\right)$ |                                                 | 41. $24\pi$             |       |
| 43. $\frac{1}{6}\pi$                                                                            | 47. $\frac{3}{2}$                                                | 49. $\frac{1}{4}$                               | 51. $\frac{49}{10}$     |       |

### Section 14.7 (page 938)

- |                                                                                                      |                                                |                             |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. $8\pi$                                                                                            | 5. $\frac{4}{3}\pi(8 - 3\sqrt{3})$             | 7. $\frac{1}{2}\pi a^2 h^2$ |
| 9. $\frac{1}{4}\pi a^4 h^2$                                                                          | 11. $\frac{81}{2}\pi, (0, 0, 3)$               | 13. $24\pi$                 |
| 15. $\frac{1}{6}\pi(8\sqrt{2} - 7)$                                                                  | 17. $\frac{1}{12}\pi\delta a^2 h(3a^2 + 4h^2)$ |                             |
| 19. $\frac{1}{3}\pi$                                                                                 | 21. $(0, 0, \frac{3}{8}a)$                     |                             |
| 23. $\frac{1}{3}\pi$                                                                                 |                                                |                             |
| 25. $\frac{1}{3}\pi a^3(2 - \sqrt{2}); \bar{x} = 0 = \bar{y}, \bar{z} = \frac{3}{16}(2 + \sqrt{2})a$ |                                                |                             |
| 27. $\frac{7}{5}ma^2$                                                                                |                                                |                             |

29. The surface obtained by rotating the circle in the  $xz$ -plane with center  $(a, 0)$  and radius  $a$  around the  $z$ -axis—a doughnut with an infinitesimal hole;  $2\pi^2 a^3$
31.  $\frac{2}{15}(128 - 51\sqrt{3})\pi a^5$
33.  $\frac{37}{48}\pi a^4, \bar{z} = \frac{105}{74}a$
35. The gaseous star has mass  $\frac{8}{15}k\pi a^3$ .
37. The value of the integral in part (a) is  $\frac{4}{3}\pi[1 - \exp(-a^3)]$ .
39.  $\frac{3}{4}a$

## Section 14.8 (page 945)

1.  $6\pi\sqrt{11}$       3.  $\frac{1}{6}\pi(17\sqrt{17} - 1)$   
 5.  $3\sqrt{2} + \frac{1}{2}\ln(3 + 2\sqrt{2}) \approx 5.124$   
 7.  $3\sqrt{14}$       9.  $\frac{2}{3}\pi(2\sqrt{2} - 1) \approx 3.829$   
 11.  $\frac{1}{6}\pi(65\sqrt{65} - 1)$       15.  $8a^2$   
 25. (a) 7.4463; (b) 3.0046      27. (a) 5.1232; (b) 2.3023  
 29. 111.5458

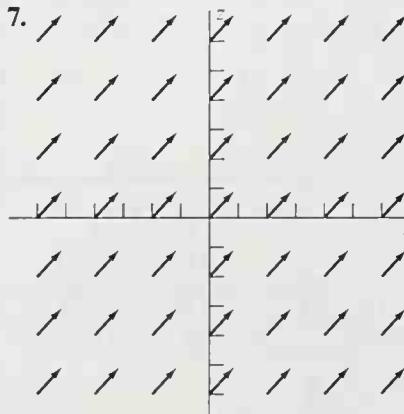
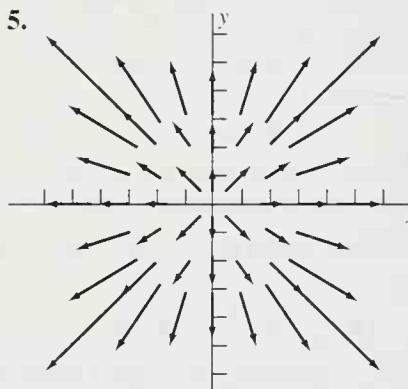
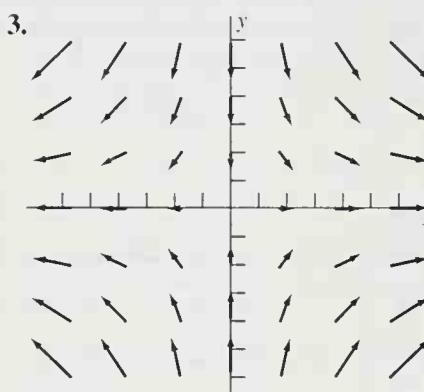
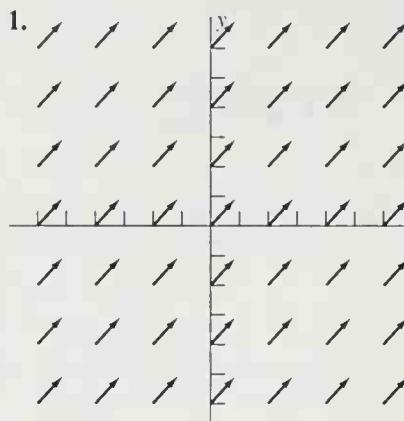
## Section 14.9 (page 953)

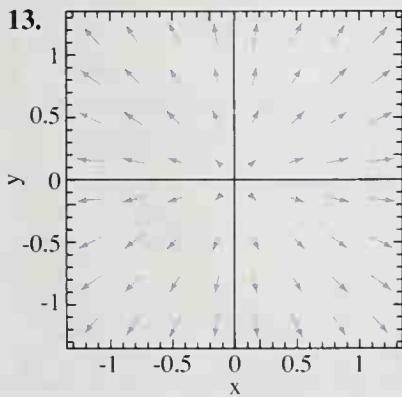
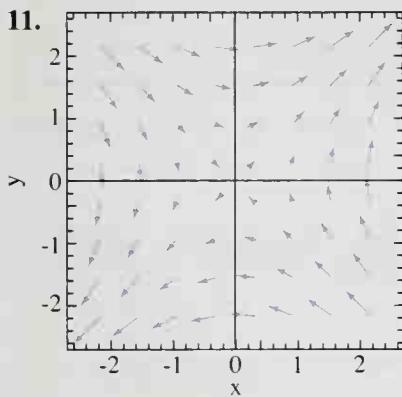
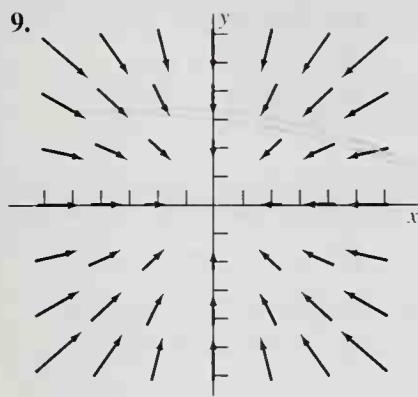
1.  $x = \frac{1}{2}(u + v)$ ,  $y = \frac{1}{2}(u - v)$ ;  $J = -\frac{1}{2}$   
 3.  $x = \sqrt{u/v}$ ,  $y = \sqrt{uv}$ ;  $J = 1/(2v)$   
 5.  $x = \frac{1}{2}(u + v)$ ,  $y = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{u - v}$ ;  $J = -\frac{1}{4}(u - v)^{-1/2}$   
 7.  $\frac{3}{5}$       9.  $\ln 2$       11.  $\frac{1}{8}(2 - \sqrt{2})$   
 13.  $\frac{39}{2}\pi$       15. 8  
 17.  $S$  is the region  $3u^2 + v^2 \leq 3$ ; the value of the integral is  $\frac{2\pi(e^3 - 1)\sqrt{3}}{3e^3}$ .  
 23.  $\bar{x} \approx 2.5707$   
 $\bar{y} \approx 1.2126$   
 25.  $I_x = \frac{1}{5}M(b^2 + c^2)$ ,  $I_y = \frac{1}{5}M(a^2 + c^2)$ , and  $I_z = \frac{1}{5}M(a^2 + b^2)$ , where  $M$  is the mass of the ellipsoid  
 27.  $\frac{1}{V} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \int_0^1 (abc\rho^2 \sin \phi)\rho \sqrt{(a \sin \phi \cos \theta)^2 + (b \sin \phi \sin \theta)^2 + (c \cos \phi)^2} d\rho d\phi d\theta$  where  $V$  is the volume of the ellipsoid. If  $a = 4$ ,  $b = 3$ , and  $c = 2$ , the value of this expression is approximately 2.30027.

## Chapter 14 Miscellaneous Problems (page 955)

1.  $\frac{1}{3}(2 - \sqrt{2})$       3.  $\frac{e-1}{2e}$       5.  $\frac{1}{4}(e^4 - 1)$   
 7.  $\frac{4}{3}$       9.  $9\pi$ ;  $\bar{z} = \frac{9}{16}$       11.  $4\pi$   
 13.  $4\pi$       15.  $\frac{1}{16}(\pi - 2)$       17.  $\frac{128}{15}, (\frac{32}{7}, 0)$   
 19.  $k\pi, (1, 0)$       21.  $\bar{y} = \frac{4b}{3\pi}$       23.  $(0, \frac{8}{5})$   
 25.  $\frac{10}{3}\pi(\sqrt{5} - 2) \approx 2.4721$   
 27.  $\frac{3}{10}Ma^2$       29.  $\frac{1}{5}M(b^2 + c^2)$   
 31.  $\frac{128}{225}\delta(15\pi - 26) \approx (12.017)\delta$ , where  $\delta$  is the (constant) density  
 33.  $\frac{8}{3}\pi$   
 35.  $\frac{1}{4}M(3a^2 + 4b^2)$ , where  $M$  is the mass of the torus  
 41.  $\frac{18}{7}$       43.  $\frac{1}{6}\pi(37\sqrt{37} - 17\sqrt{17}) \approx 81.1418$   
 47.  $4\sqrt{2}$       48. Approximately 3.49608  
 51.  $3\delta$       53.  $\frac{8}{15}\pi abc$

## Section 15.1 (page 964)





15.  $3; \mathbf{0}$       17.  $0; \mathbf{0}$

19.  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2; \langle -2yz, -2xz, -2xy \rangle$

21.  $0; \langle 2y - 2z, 2z - 2x, 2x - 2y \rangle$

23.  $3; \langle x \cos xy - x \cos xz, y \cos yz - y \cos xy, z \cos xz - z \cos yz \rangle$

### Section 15.2 (page 974)

1.  $\frac{310}{3}, \frac{248}{3}, 62$

7.  $\frac{6}{5}$

13.  $\pi + 2\pi^2$

17.  $\frac{1}{6}(14\sqrt{14} - 1) \approx 8.563867$

21.  $10k\pi, (0, 0, 4\pi)$

23.  $\frac{1}{2}ka^3, \left(\frac{2}{3}a, \frac{2}{3}a\right), I_x = I_y = \frac{1}{4}ka^5$

25.  $I_0 = 3k = \frac{1}{2}m$  where  $m$  is the mass of the wire

27.  $4a/\pi$

33. (a)  $\frac{1}{2}k \ln 2$ ; (b)  $-\frac{1}{2}k \ln 2$

3.  $3\sqrt{2}, 3, 3$

9. 315

11.  $\frac{19}{60}$

15. 28

19.  $(0, 2a/\pi)$

31.  $\frac{1}{2}$

41. 20000 ft·lb

### Section 15.3 (page 982)

1.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + 3xy + y^2$     3.  $f(x, y) = x^3 + 2xy^2 + 2y^3$

5. Not conservative

7.  $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \frac{1}{3}y^3 + y \ln x$

9.  $f(x, y) = \sin x + x \ln y + e^y$

11. Not conservative

13.  $f(x, y) = x^3y^3 + xy^4 + \frac{1}{5}y^5$

15.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{y} + \frac{y^2}{x^3} + 2\sqrt{y}$

21. 6      23.  $\frac{1}{e}$       25.  $-\pi$       27.  $f(x, y, z) = xyz$

29.  $f(x, y, z) = xy \cos z - yze^x$

31.  $\mathbf{F}$  is not conservative on any region containing  $(0, 0)$ .

33.  $Q_z = 0 \neq 2y = R_y$

37.  $W \approx 8.04 \times 10^{10} \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}$

### Section 15.4 (page 991)

1. 0      3. 3      5.  $\frac{3}{10}$       7. 2      9. 0

11.  $\frac{16}{105}$       13.  $\pi a^2$       15.  $\frac{3}{8}\pi$       33.  $\frac{3}{2}$

### Section 15.5 (page 1001)

1.  $\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{3}$       3.  $27\pi\sqrt{14}$

5.  $\frac{1}{6}\pi(17\sqrt{17} - 1)$       7.  $\frac{81}{2}\pi\sqrt{3}$

9.  $\frac{10}{3}\pi$

11.  $520\pi \approx 544.54272662$

13.  $36\pi$       15.  $24\pi$       17. 0      19.  $\phi = 6$

21. 0      23. Net flux:  $1458\pi$

27.  $\bar{z} = \frac{1 + (24a^4 + 2a^2 - 1)\sqrt{1 + 4a^2}}{10[(1 + 4a^2)^{3/2} - 1]},$

$I_z = \frac{1}{60}\pi\delta[1 + (24a^4 + 2a^2 - 1)\sqrt{1 + 4a^2}]$

29.  $\bar{x} = \frac{4}{3\pi - 6} \approx 1.16796, \bar{y} = 0,$

$\bar{z} = \frac{\pi}{2\pi - 4} \approx 1.13797$

31.  $I_z = \frac{115}{12}\sqrt{17} + \frac{13}{48}\sinh^{-1}4$

35.  $-1728\pi$

37. Area approximately 194.703,  $I_z \approx 5157.17$

39. Area approximately 1057.35,  $I_z \approx 98546.9$

### Section 15.6 (page 1009)

1. Both values:  $4\pi$     3. Both values: 24

5. Both values:  $\frac{1}{2}$     7.  $\frac{2385}{2}\pi$     9.  $\frac{1}{4}$

11.  $\frac{703.125}{4}\pi$       13.  $16\pi$   
 23.  $\frac{1}{48}\pi(482,620 + 29403 \ln 11) \approx 36201.967$

**Section 15.7 (page 1017)**

1.  $-20\pi$     3. 0    5.  $-52\pi$     7.  $-8\pi$     9. -2  
 11.  $\phi(x, y, z) = yz - 2xz + 3xy$   
 13.  $\phi(x, y, z) = 3xe^z + 5y \cos x + 17z$

**Chapter 15 Miscellaneous Problems (page 1018)**

1.  $\frac{125}{3}$   
 3.  $\frac{69}{8}$  (Use the fact that  $\int \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} ds$  is independent of the path.)  
 5.  $\frac{2148}{5}$   
 9.  $\frac{1}{3}(5\sqrt{5} - 1) \approx 3.3934$ ;  $I_y = \frac{1}{15}(2 + 50\sqrt{5}) \approx 7.5869$   
 11.  $\frac{2816}{7}$       17.  $\frac{371}{30}\pi$       19.  $72\pi$   
 29. (a)  $\phi'(r)\frac{\mathbf{r}}{r}$ ; (b)  $3\phi(r) + r\phi'(r)$ ; (c) 0

**Appendix A (page A-5)**

1. 14      3.  $\frac{1}{2}$       5. 25  
 7. 27      9.  $\frac{22}{7} - \pi \approx 0.001264489$   
 11.  $3 - x$       13.  $(-\infty, 2)$       15.  $[7, \infty)$   
 17.  $(-\frac{5}{3}, \infty)$       19.  $(-4, 1)$       21.  $(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{11}{2})$   
 23.  $(-1, 4)$       25.  $(-\infty, -\frac{1}{3}) \cup (1, \infty)$   
 27.  $\left[0, \frac{2}{5}\right] \cup \left[\frac{6}{5}, \frac{8}{5}\right]$       29.  $\left(\frac{7}{3}, \frac{37}{15}\right]$   
 31.  $(-\infty, \frac{1}{5}) \cup (\frac{1}{5}, \infty)$       33.  $(-\infty, -2) \cup (4, \infty)$   
 35.  $(-\infty, \frac{1}{2}] \cup [\frac{3}{2}, \infty)$       37.  $4 \leq p \leq 8$   
 39.  $2 < I < 4$

**Appendix B (page A-13)**

1.  $AB$  and  $BC$  have slope 1.  
 3.  $AB$  has slope  $-2$ , but  $BC$  has slope  $-\frac{4}{3}$ .  
 5.  $AB$  and  $CD$  have slope  $-\frac{1}{2}$ ;  $BC$  and  $DA$  have slope 2.  
 7.  $AB$  has slope 2, and  $AC$  has slope  $-\frac{1}{2}$ .  
 9.  $m = \frac{2}{3}, b = 0$       11.  $m = 2, b = 3$

13.  $m = -\frac{2}{5}, b = \frac{3}{5}$       15.  $y = -5$   
 17.  $y - 3 = 2(x - 5)$       19.  $y - 2 = 4 - x$   
 21.  $y - 5 = -2(x - 1)$       23.  $x + 2y = 13$   
 25.  $\frac{4}{13}\sqrt{26} \approx 1.568929$   
 33.  $K = \frac{125F + 57461}{225}; F = -459.688$  when  $K = 0$ .  
 35. 1136 gal/week      37.  $x = -2.75, y = 3.5$   
 39.  $x = \frac{37}{6}, y = -\frac{1}{2}$       41.  $x = \frac{22}{5}, y = -\frac{1}{5}$   
 43.  $x = -\frac{7}{4}, y = \frac{33}{8}$       45.  $x = \frac{119}{12}, y = -\frac{19}{4}$

**Appendix C (page A-19)**

1.  $2\pi/9$     3.  $7\pi/4$     5.  $-5\pi/6$     7.  $72^\circ$     9.  $675^\circ$   
 11.  $\sin x = -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}, \cos x = \frac{1}{2}, \tan x = -\sqrt{3}, \csc x = -2/\sqrt{3}, \sec x = 2, \cot x = -1/\sqrt{3}$   
 13.  $\sin x = -\frac{1}{2}, \cos x = -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}, \cot x = \sqrt{3}, \csc x = -2, \sec x = -2/\sqrt{3}, \tan x = 1/\sqrt{3}$   
 15.  $x = n\pi$  ( $n$  any integer)  
 17.  $x = \frac{3}{2}\pi + 2n\pi$  ( $n$  any integer)  
 19.  $x = 2n\pi$  ( $n$  any integer)  
 21.  $x = n\pi$  ( $n$  any integer)  
 23.  $x = \frac{3}{4}\pi + n\pi$  ( $n$  any integer)  
 25.  $\sin x = -\frac{3}{5}, \cos x = \frac{4}{5}, \tan x = -\frac{3}{4}, \sec x = \frac{5}{4}, \cot x = -\frac{4}{3}$   
 29.  $\frac{1}{2}$       31.  $-\frac{1}{2}$       33.  $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}$       35.  $-\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}$   
 43.  $\pi/3, 2\pi/3$       45.  $\pi/2$   
 47.  $\pi/8, 3\pi/8, 5\pi/8, 7\pi/8$

**Appendix H (page A-41)**

1.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}$   
 3.  $\int_0^2 x\sqrt{4-x^2} dx = \frac{8}{3}$   
 5.  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin x \cos x dx = \frac{1}{2}$   
 7.  $\int_0^2 \sqrt{x^4 + x^7} dx = \frac{52}{9}$

# REFERENCES FOR FURTHER STUDY

References 2, 3, 7, and 10 may be consulted for historical topics pertinent to calculus. Reference 14 provides a more theoretical treatment of single-variable calculus topics than ours. References 4, 5, 8, and 15 include advanced topics in multivariable calculus. Reference 11 is a standard work on infinite series. References 1, 9, and 13 are differential equations textbooks. Reference 6 discusses topics in calculus together with computing and programming in BASIC. Those who would like to pursue the topic of fractals should look at Reference 12.

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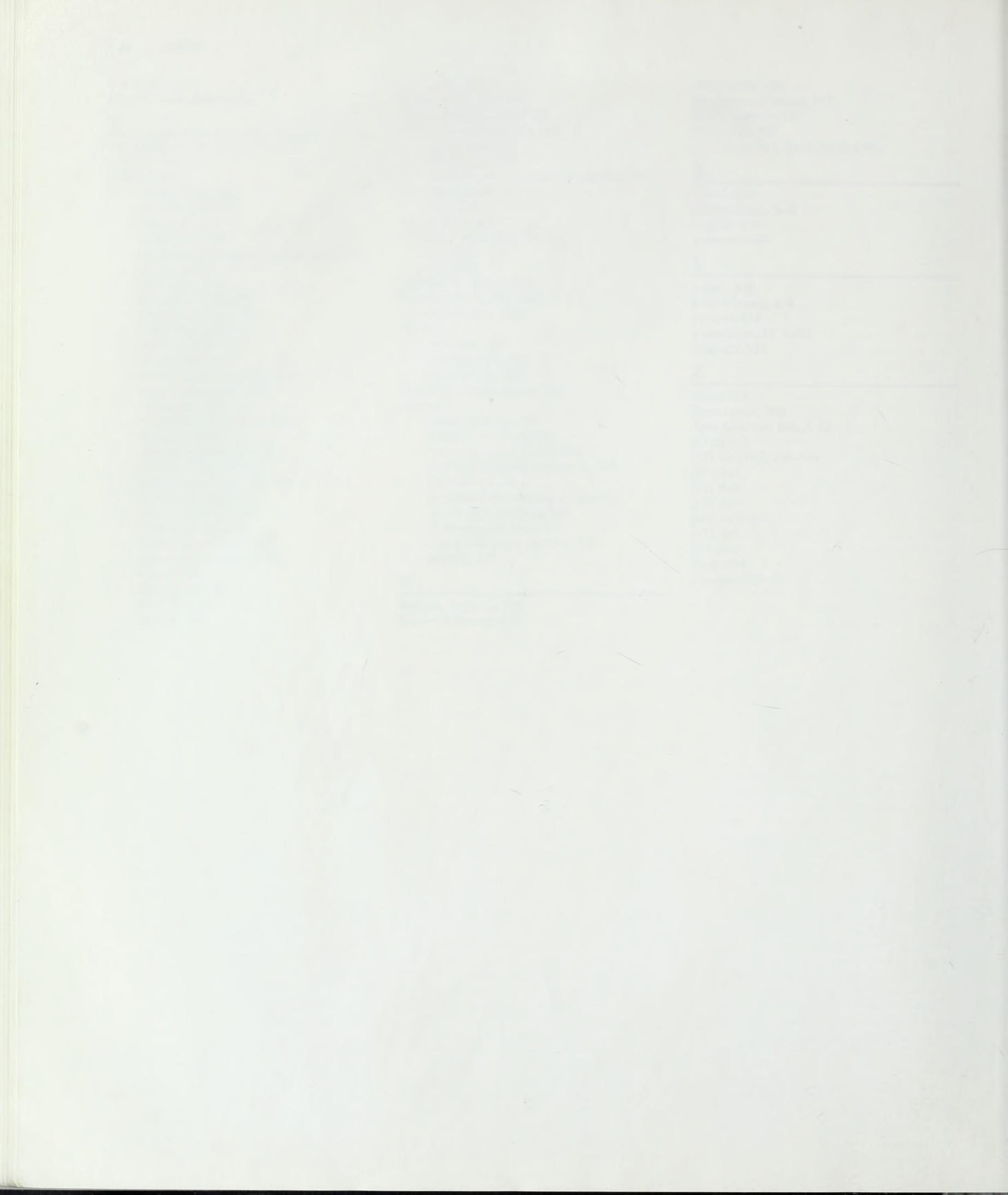
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**FORMS INVOLVING  $\sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}$**

$$45 \int \frac{du}{\sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}} = \ln|u + \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}| + C$$

$$47 \int \frac{\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}}{u} du = \sqrt{u^2 - a^2} - a \sec^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C$$

$$49 \int \frac{u^2 du}{\sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}} = \frac{u}{2} \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2} \mp \frac{a^2}{2} \ln|u + \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}| + C$$

$$51 \int \frac{\sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}}{u^2} du = -\frac{\sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}}{u} + \ln|u + \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}| + C$$

$$53 \int (u^2 \pm a^2)^{3/2} du = \frac{u}{8} (2u^2 \pm 5a^2) \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2} + \frac{3a^4}{8} \ln|u + \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}| + C$$

$$44 \int \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2} du = \frac{u}{2} \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2} \pm \frac{a^2}{2} \ln|u + \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}| + C$$

$$46 \int \frac{\sqrt{u^2 + a^2}}{u} du = \sqrt{u^2 + a^2} - a \ln\left(\frac{a + \sqrt{u^2 + a^2}}{u}\right) + C$$

$$48 \int u^2 \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2} du = \frac{u}{8} (2u^2 \pm a^2) \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2} - \frac{a^4}{8} \ln|u + \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}| + C$$

$$50 \int \frac{du}{u^2 \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}} = \mp \frac{\sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}}{a^2 u} + C$$

$$52 \int \frac{du}{(u^2 \pm a^2)^{3/2}} = \pm \frac{u}{a^2 \sqrt{u^2 \pm a^2}} + C$$

**FORMS INVOLVING  $\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}$**

$$55 \int \frac{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}{u} du = \sqrt{a^2 - u^2} - a \ln\left|\frac{a + \sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}{u}\right| + C$$

$$57 \int u^2 \sqrt{a^2 - u^2} du = \frac{u}{8} (2u^2 - a^2) \sqrt{a^2 - u^2} + \frac{a^4}{8} \sin^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C$$

$$59 \int \frac{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}{u^2} du = -\frac{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}{u} - \sin^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C$$

$$61 \int \frac{du}{(a^2 - u^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{u}{a^2 \sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} + C$$

$$54 \int \sqrt{a^2 - u^2} du = \frac{u}{2} \sqrt{a^2 - u^2} + \frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C$$

$$56 \int \frac{u^2 du}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = -\frac{u}{2} \sqrt{a^2 - u^2} + \frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C$$

$$58 \int \frac{du}{u^2 \sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = -\frac{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}{a^2 u} + C$$

$$60 \int \frac{du}{u \sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = -\frac{1}{a} \ln\left|\frac{a + \sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}{u}\right| + C$$

$$62 \int (a^2 - u^2)^{3/2} du = \frac{u}{8} (5a^2 - 2u^2) \sqrt{a^2 - u^2} + \frac{3a^4}{8} \sin^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C$$

**EXPONENTIAL AND LOGARITHMIC FORMS**

$$64 \int u^n e^u du = u^n e^u - n \int u^{n-1} e^u du$$

$$66 \int u^n \ln u du = \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} \ln u - \frac{u^{n+1}}{(n+1)^2} + C$$

$$68 \int e^{au} \cos bu du = \frac{e^{au}}{a^2 + b^2} (a \cos bu + b \sin bu) + C$$

$$63 \int ue^u du = (u-1)e^u + C$$

$$65 \int \ln u du = u \ln u - u + C$$

$$67 \int e^{au} \sin bu du = \frac{e^{au}}{a^2 + b^2} (a \sin bu - b \cos bu) + C$$

**INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FORMS**

$$70 \int \tan^{-1} u du = u \tan^{-1} u - \frac{1}{2} \ln(1+u^2) + C$$

$$72 \int u \sin^{-1} u du = \frac{1}{4} (2u^2 - 1) \sin^{-1} u + \frac{u}{4} \sqrt{1-u^2} + C$$

$$74 \int u \sec^{-1} u du = \frac{u^2}{2} \sec^{-1} u - \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{u^2 - 1} + C$$

$$76 \int u^n \tan^{-1} u du = \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} \tan^{-1} u - \frac{1}{n+1} \int \frac{u^{n+1}}{1+u^2} du \text{ if } n \neq -1$$

$$69 \int \sin^{-1} u du = u \sin^{-1} u + \sqrt{1-u^2} + C$$

$$71 \int \sec^{-1} u du = u \sec^{-1} u - \ln|u + \sqrt{u^2 - 1}| + C$$

$$73 \int u \tan^{-1} u du = \frac{1}{2} (u^2 + 1) \tan^{-1} u - \frac{u}{2} + C$$

$$75 \int u^n \sin^{-1} u du = \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} \sin^{-1} u - \frac{1}{n+1} \int \frac{u^{n+1}}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} du \text{ if } n \neq -1$$

$$77 \int u^n \sec^{-1} u du = \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} \sec^{-1} u - \frac{1}{n+1} \int \frac{u^n}{\sqrt{u^2 - 1}} du \text{ if } n \neq -1$$

(Table of Integrals continues from previous page)

### HYPERBOLIC FORMS

$$80 \int \tanh u \, du = \ln(\cosh u) + C$$

$$83 \int \operatorname{csch} u \, du = \ln \left| \tanh \frac{u}{2} \right| + C$$

$$86 \int \tanh^2 u \, du = u - \tanh u + C$$

$$89 \int \operatorname{csch}^2 u \, du = -\coth u + C$$

$$78 \int \sinh u \, du = \cosh u + C$$

$$81 \int \coth u \, du = \ln |\sinh u| + C$$

$$84 \int \sinh^2 u \, du = \frac{1}{4} \sinh 2u - \frac{u}{2} + C$$

$$87 \int \coth^2 u \, du = u - \coth u + C$$

$$90 \int \operatorname{sech} u \tanh u \, du = -\operatorname{sech} u + C$$

$$79 \int \cosh u \, du = \sinh u + C$$

$$82 \int \operatorname{sech} u \, du = \tan^{-1} |\sinh u| + C$$

$$85 \int \cosh^2 u \, du = \frac{1}{4} \sinh 2u + \frac{u}{2} + C$$

$$88 \int \operatorname{sech}^2 u \, du = \tanh u + C$$

$$91 \int \operatorname{csch} u \coth u \, du = -\operatorname{csch} u + C$$

### MISCELLANEOUS ALGEBRAIC FORMS

$$93 \int u(au+b)^{-2} \, du = \frac{1}{a^2} \left( \ln |au+b| + \frac{b}{au+b} \right) + C$$

$$95 \int \frac{du}{(a^2 \pm u^2)^n} = \frac{1}{2a^2(n-1)} \left( \frac{u}{(a^2 \pm u^2)^{n-1}} + (2n-3) \int \frac{du}{(a^2 \pm u^2)^{n-1}} \right) \text{ if } n \neq 1$$

$$96 \int u \sqrt{au+b} \, du = \frac{2}{15a^2} (3au-2b)(au+b)^{3/2} + C$$

$$98 \int \frac{u \, du}{\sqrt{au+b}} = \frac{2}{3a^2} (au-2b) \sqrt{au+b} + C$$

$$100a \int \frac{du}{u \sqrt{au+b}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{b}} \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{au+b} - \sqrt{b}}{\sqrt{au+b} + \sqrt{b}} \right| + C \text{ if } b > 0$$

$$101 \int \frac{du}{u^n \sqrt{au+b}} = -\frac{\sqrt{au+b}}{b(n-1)u^{n-1}} - \frac{(2n-3)a}{(2n-2)b} \int \frac{du}{u^{n-1} \sqrt{au+b}} \text{ if } n \neq 1$$

$$102 \int \sqrt{2au-u^2} \, du = \frac{u-a}{2} \sqrt{2au-u^2} + \frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \frac{u-a}{a} + C$$

$$104 \int u^n \sqrt{2au-u^2} \, du = -\frac{u^{n-1}(2au-u^2)^{3/2}}{n+2} + \frac{(2n+1)a}{n+2} \int u^{n-1} \sqrt{2au-u^2} \, du$$

$$105 \int \frac{u^n \, du}{\sqrt{2au-u^2}} = -\frac{u^{n-1}}{n} \sqrt{2au-u^2} + \frac{(2n-1)a}{n} \int \frac{u^{n-1} \, du}{\sqrt{2au-u^2}}$$

$$107 \int \frac{\sqrt{2au-u^2} \, du}{u^n} = \frac{(2au-u^2)^{3/2}}{(3-2n)au^n} + \frac{n-3}{(2n-3)a} \int \frac{\sqrt{2au-u^2} \, du}{u^{n-1}}$$

$$109 \int (\sqrt{2au-u^2})^n \, du = \frac{u-a}{n+1} (2au-u^2)^{n/2} + \frac{na^2}{n+1} \int (\sqrt{2au-u^2})^{n-2} \, du$$

$$110 \int \frac{du}{(\sqrt{2au-u^2})^n} = \frac{u-a}{(n-2)a^2} + (\sqrt{2au-u^2})^{2-n} + \frac{n-3}{(n-2)a^2} \int \frac{du}{(\sqrt{2au-u^2})^{n-2}}$$

$$92 \int u(au+b)^{-1} \, du = \frac{u}{a} - \frac{b}{a^2} \ln |au+b| + C$$

$$94 \int u(au+b)^n \, du = \frac{(au+b)^{n+1}}{a^2} \left( \frac{au+b}{n+2} - \frac{b}{n+1} \right) + C \text{ if } n \neq -1, -2$$

$$97 \int u^n \sqrt{au+b} \, du = \frac{2}{a(2n+3)} \left( u^n (au+b)^{3/2} - nb \int u^{n-1} \sqrt{au+b} \, du \right)$$

$$99 \int \frac{u^n \, du}{\sqrt{au+b}} = \frac{2}{a(2n+1)} \left( u^n \sqrt{au+b} - nb \int \frac{u^{n-1} \, du}{\sqrt{au+b}} \right)$$

$$100b \int \frac{du}{u \sqrt{au+b}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{-b}} \tan^{-1} \frac{\sqrt{au+b}}{-b} + C \text{ if } b < 0$$

$$103 \int \frac{du}{\sqrt{2au-u^2}} = \sin^{-1} \frac{u-a}{a} + C$$

$$106 \int \frac{\sqrt{2au-u^2} \, du}{u} = \sqrt{2au-u^2} + a \sin^{-1} \frac{u-a}{a} + C$$

$$108 \int \frac{du}{u^n \sqrt{2au-u^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{2au-u^2}}{a(1-2n)u^n} + \frac{n-1}{(2n-1)a} \int \frac{du}{u^{n-1} \sqrt{2au-u^2}}$$

### DEFINITE INTEGRALS

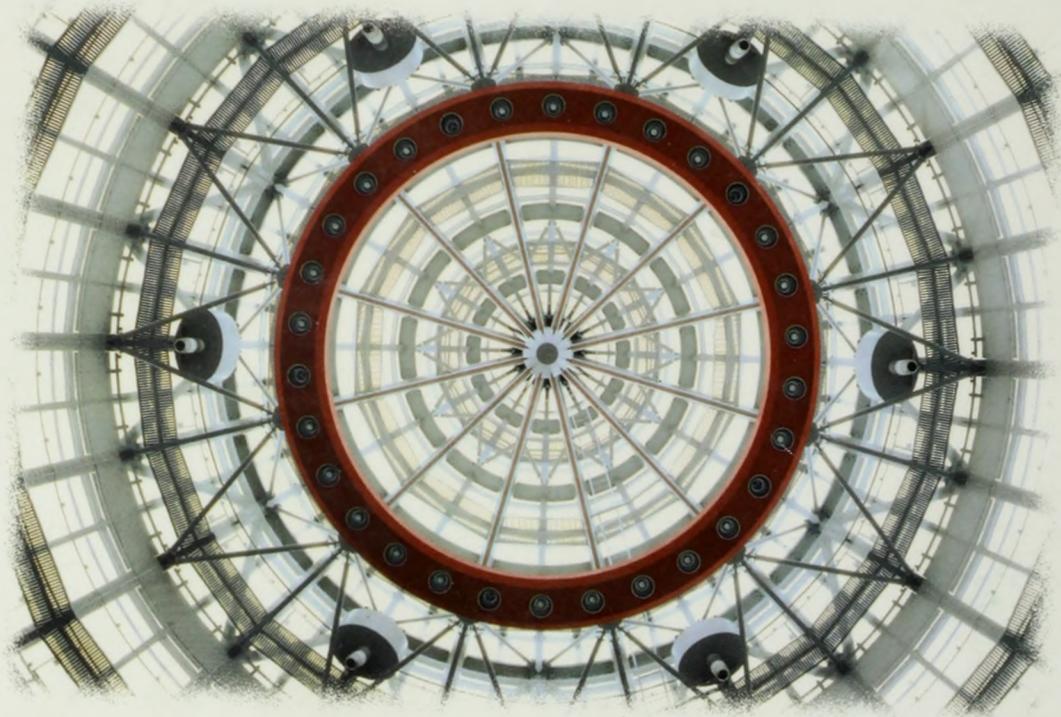
$$113 \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n u \, du = \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^n u \, du = \begin{cases} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (n-1)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots n} \frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } n \text{ is an even integer and } n \geq 2 \\ \frac{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots (n-1)}{3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdots n} & \text{if } n \text{ is an odd integer and } n \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

$$111 \int_0^\infty u^n e^{-u} \, du = \Gamma(n+1) = n! \quad (n \geq 0)$$

$$112 \int_0^\infty e^{-au^2} \, du = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{a}} \quad (a > 0)$$







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