METRIC VERSION

CALCULUS

METRIC VERSION | 9E

Multivariable Calculus

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REFERENCE page 1

ALGEBRA

Arithmetic Operations

$$a(b+c) = ab + ac \qquad \frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad+bc}{bd}$$

$$\frac{a+c}{b} = \frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{b} \qquad \frac{\dfrac{a}{b}}{\dfrac{c}{d}} = \frac{a}{b} \times \frac{d}{c} = \frac{ad}{bc}$$

Exponents and Radicals

$$x^m x^n = x^{m+n} \qquad \frac{x^m}{x^n} = x^{m-n}$$

$$(x^m)^n = x^{mn} \qquad x^{-n} = \frac{1}{x^n}$$

$$(xy)^n = x^n y^n \qquad \left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^n = \frac{x^n}{y^n}$$

$$x^{1/n} = \sqrt[n]{x} \qquad x^{m/n} = \sqrt[n]{x^m} = \left(\sqrt[n]{x}\right)^m$$

$$\sqrt[n]{xy} = \sqrt[n]{x}\,\sqrt[n]{y} \qquad \sqrt[n]{\frac{x}{y}} = \frac{\sqrt[n]{x}}{\sqrt[n]{y}}$$

Factoring Special Polynomials

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

$$x^3 + y^3 = (x+y)(x^2 - xy + y^2)$$

$$x^3 - y^3 = (x-y)(x^2 + xy + y^2)$$

Binomial Theorem

$$(x+y)^2 = x^2 + 2xy + y^2 \qquad (x-y)^2 = x^2 - 2xy + y^2$$

$$(x+y)^3 = x^3 + 3x^2y + 3xy^2 + y^3$$

$$(x-y)^3 = x^3 - 3x^2y + 3xy^2 - y^3$$

$$(x+y)^n = x^n + nx^{n-1}y + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}x^{n-2}y^2 + \cdots + \binom{n}{k}x^{n-k}y^k + \cdots + nxy^{n-1} + y^n$$

where $\displaystyle\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)}{1\cdot 2\cdot 3\cdot \cdots \cdot k}$

Quadratic Formula

If $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$, then $x = \dfrac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$.

Inequalities and Absolute Value

If $a < b$ and $b < c$, then $a < c$.

If $a < b$, then $a + c < b + c$.

If $a < b$ and $c > 0$, then $ca < cb$.

If $a < b$ and $c < 0$, then $ca > cb$.

If $a > 0$, then

$|x| = a$ means $x = a$ or $x = -a$

$|x| < a$ means $-a < x < a$

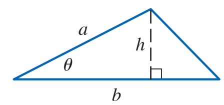
$|x| > a$ means $x > a$ or $x < -a$

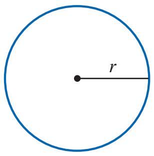
GEOMETRY

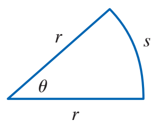
Geometric Formulas

Formulas for area A, circumference C, and volume V:

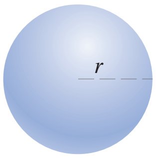
Triangle	Circle	Sector of Circle
$A = \frac{1}{2}bh$	$A = \pi r^2$	$A = \frac{1}{2}r^2\theta$
$= \frac{1}{2}ab\sin\theta$	$C = 2\pi r$	$s = r\theta$ (θ in radians)

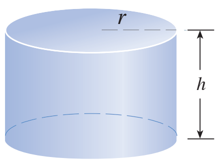


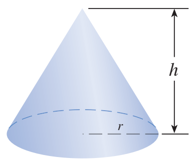




Sphere	Cylinder	Cone
$V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$	$V = \pi r^2 h$	$V = \frac{1}{3}\pi r^2 h$
$A = 4\pi r^2$		$A = \pi r\sqrt{r^2 + h^2}$







Distance and Midpoint Formulas

Distance between $P_1(x_1, y_1)$ and $P_2(x_2, y_2)$:

$$d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

Midpoint of $\overline{P_1P_2}$: $\left(\dfrac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \dfrac{y_1 + y_2}{2}\right)$

Lines

Slope of line through $P_1(x_1, y_1)$ and $P_2(x_2, y_2)$:

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$$

Point-slope equation of line through $P_1(x_1, y_1)$ with slope m:

$$y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$$

Slope-intercept equation of line with slope m and y-intercept b:

$$y = mx + b$$

Circles

Equation of the circle with center (h, k) and radius r:

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

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TRIGONOMETRY

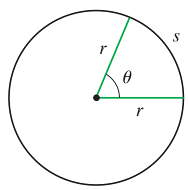
Angle Measurement

π radians $= 180°$

$1° = \dfrac{\pi}{180}$ rad $\qquad$ 1 rad $= \dfrac{180°}{\pi}$

$s = r\theta$

(θ in radians)

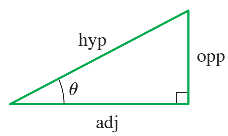


Right Angle Trigonometry

$\sin\theta = \dfrac{\text{opp}}{\text{hyp}}$ $\qquad$ $\csc\theta = \dfrac{\text{hyp}}{\text{opp}}$

$\cos\theta = \dfrac{\text{adj}}{\text{hyp}}$ $\qquad$ $\sec\theta = \dfrac{\text{hyp}}{\text{adj}}$

$\tan\theta = \dfrac{\text{opp}}{\text{adj}}$ $\qquad$ $\cot\theta = \dfrac{\text{adj}}{\text{opp}}$

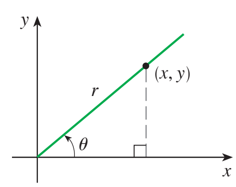


Trigonometric Functions

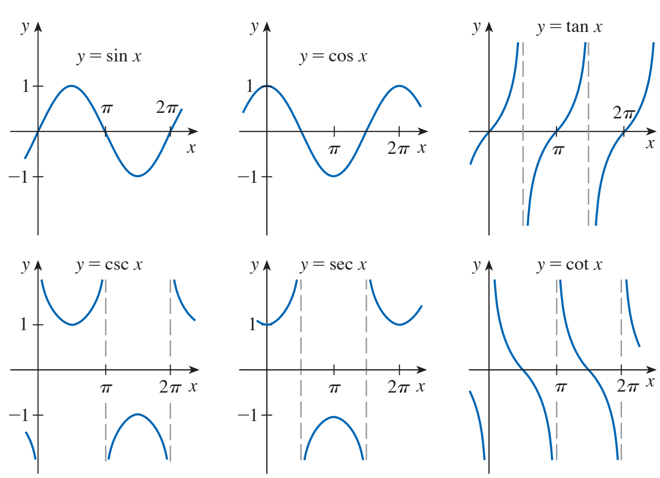
$\sin\theta = \dfrac{y}{r}$ $\qquad$ $\csc\theta = \dfrac{r}{y}$

$\cos\theta = \dfrac{x}{r}$ $\qquad$ $\sec\theta = \dfrac{r}{x}$

$\tan\theta = \dfrac{y}{x}$ $\qquad$ $\cot\theta = \dfrac{x}{y}$



Graphs of Trigonometric Functions



Trigonometric Functions of Important Angles

θ	radians	$\sin\theta$	$\cos\theta$	$\tan\theta$
$0°$	0	0	1	0
$30°$	$\pi/6$	$1/2$	$\sqrt{3}/2$	$\sqrt{3}/3$
$45°$	$\pi/4$	$\sqrt{2}/2$	$\sqrt{2}/2$	1
$60°$	$\pi/3$	$\sqrt{3}/2$	$1/2$	$\sqrt{3}$
$90°$	$\pi/2$	1	0	—

Fundamental Identities

$\csc\theta = \dfrac{1}{\sin\theta}$ $\qquad$ $\sec\theta = \dfrac{1}{\cos\theta}$

$\tan\theta = \dfrac{\sin\theta}{\cos\theta}$ $\qquad$ $\cot\theta = \dfrac{\cos\theta}{\sin\theta}$

$\cot\theta = \dfrac{1}{\tan\theta}$ $\qquad$ $\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1$

$1 + \tan^2\theta = \sec^2\theta$ $\qquad$ $1 + \cot^2\theta = \csc^2\theta$

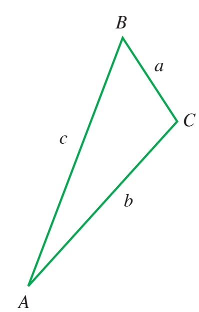
$\sin(-\theta) = -\sin\theta$ $\qquad$ $\cos(-\theta) = \cos\theta$

$\tan(-\theta) = -\tan\theta$ $\qquad$ $\sin\left(\dfrac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \cos\theta$

$\cos\left(\dfrac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \sin\theta$ $\qquad$ $\tan\left(\dfrac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \cot\theta$

The Law of Sines

$$\frac{\sin A}{a} = \frac{\sin B}{b} = \frac{\sin C}{c}$$



The Law of Cosines

$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc\cos A$

$b^2 = a^2 + c^2 - 2ac\cos B$

$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos C$

Addition and Subtraction Formulas

$\sin(x + y) = \sin x\cos y + \cos x\sin y$

$\sin(x - y) = \sin x\cos y - \cos x\sin y$

$\cos(x + y) = \cos x\cos y - \sin x\sin y$

$\cos(x - y) = \cos x\cos y + \sin x\sin y$

$\tan(x + y) = \dfrac{\tan x + \tan y}{1 - \tan x\tan y}$

$\tan(x - y) = \dfrac{\tan x - \tan y}{1 + \tan x\tan y}$

Double-Angle Formulas

$\sin 2x = 2\sin x\cos x$

$\cos 2x = \cos^2 x - \sin^2 x = 2\cos^2 x - 1 = 1 - 2\sin^2 x$

$\tan 2x = \dfrac{2\tan x}{1 - \tan^2 x}$

Half-Angle Formulas

$\sin^2 x = \dfrac{1 - \cos 2x}{2}$ $\qquad$ $\cos^2 x = \dfrac{1 + \cos 2x}{2}$

MULTIVARIABLE CALCULUS

NINTH EDITION

Metric Version

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***Multivariable Calculus*, Ninth Edition, Metric Version**

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ISBN:978-0-357-11350-9

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Printed in China
Print Number: 01 Print Year: 2019

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Preface

> *A great discovery solves a great problem but there is a grain of discovery in the solution of any problem. Your problem may be modest; but if it challenges your curiosity and brings into play your inventive faculties, and if you solve it by your own means, you may experience the tension and enjoy the triumph of discovery.*
>
> GEORGE POLYA

The art of teaching, Mark Van Doren said, is the art of assisting discovery. In this Ninth Edition, Metric Version, as in all of the preceding editions, we continue the tradition of writing a book that, we hope, assists students in discovering calculus—both for its practical power and its surprising beauty. We aim to convey to the student a sense of the utility of calculus as well as to promote development of technical ability. At the same time, we strive to give some appreciation for the intrinsic beauty of the subject. Newton undoubtedly experienced a sense of triumph when he made his great discoveries. We want students to share some of that excitement.

The emphasis is on understanding concepts. Nearly all calculus instructors agree that conceptual understanding should be the ultimate goal of calculus instruction; to implement this goal we present fundamental topics graphically, numerically, algebraically, and verbally, with an emphasis on the relationships between these different representations. Visualization, numerical and graphical experimentation, and verbal descriptions can greatly facilitate conceptual understanding. Moreover, conceptual understanding and technical skill can go hand in hand, each reinforcing the other.

We are keenly aware that good teaching comes in different forms and that there are different approaches to teaching and learning calculus, so the exposition and exercises are designed to accommodate different teaching and learning styles. The features (including projects, extended exercises, principles of problem solving, and historical insights) provide a variety of enhancements to a central core of fundamental concepts and skills. Our aim is to provide instructors and their students with the tools they need to chart their own paths to discovering calculus.

Alternate Versions

The Stewart *Calculus* series includes several other calculus textbooks that might be preferable for some instructors. Most of them also come in single variable and multivariable versions.

- *Calculus*, Ninth Edition, Metric Version, includes the material in this book as well as the single-variable calculus chapters. The exponential, logarithmic, and inverse trigonometric functions are covered after the chapter on integration.

- *Calculus: Early Transcendentals*, Ninth Edition, Metric Version, includes the material in this book in addition to single-variable calculus. The exponential, logarithmic, and inverse trigonometric functions are covered early, before the chapter on integration.

- *Essential Calculus*, Second Edition, is a much briefer book (840 pages), though it contains almost all of the topics in *Calculus*, Ninth Edition. The relative brevity is achieved through briefer exposition of some topics and putting some features on the website.
- *Essential Calculus: Early Transcendentals*, Second Edition, resembles *Essential Calculus*, but the exponential, logarithmic, and inverse trigonometric functions are covered in Chapter 3.
- *Calculus: Concepts and Contexts*, Fourth Edition, emphasizes conceptual understanding even more strongly than this book. The coverage of topics is not encyclopedic and the material on transcendental functions and on parametric equations is woven throughout the book instead of being treated in separate chapters.
- *Brief Applied Calculus* is intended for students in business, the social sciences, and the life sciences.
- *Biocalculus: Calculus for the Life Sciences* is intended to show students in the life sciences how calculus relates to biology.
- *Biocalculus: Calculus, Probability, and Statistics for the Life Sciences* contains all the content of *Biocalculus: Calculus for the Life Sciences* as well as three additional chapters covering probability and statistics.

What's New in the Ninth Edition, Metric Version?

The overall structure of the text remains largely the same, but we have made many improvements that are intended to make the Ninth Edition, Metric Version even more usable as a teaching tool for instructors and as a learning tool for students. The changes are a result of conversations with our colleagues and students, suggestions from users and reviewers, insights gained from our own experiences teaching from the book, and from the copious notes that James Stewart entrusted to us about changes that he wanted us to consider for the new edition. In all the changes, both small and large, we have retained the features and tone that have contributed to the success of this book.

- More than 20% of the exercises are new:

  Basic exercises have been added, where appropriate, near the beginning of exercise sets. These exercises are intended to build student confidence and reinforce understanding of the fundamental concepts of a section. (See, for instance, Exercises 11.4.3–6.)

  Some new exercises include graphs intended to encourage students to understand how a graph facilitates the solution of a problem; these exercises complement subsequent exercises in which students need to supply their own graph. (See Exercises 10.4.43–46 as well as 53–54, 15.5.1–2, 15.6.9–12, 16.7.15 and 24, 16.8.9 and 13.)

  Some exercises have been structured in two stages, where part (a) asks for the setup and part (b) is the evaluation. This allows students to check their answer to part (a) before completing the problem. (See Exercises 15.2.7–10.)

  Some challenging and extended exercises have been added toward the end of selected exercise sets (such as Exercises 11.2.79–81 and 11.9.47).

Titles have been added to selected exercises when the exercise extends a concept discussed in the section. (See, for example, Exercises 10.1.55–57 and 15.2.80–81.)

Some of our favorite new exercises are 10.5.69, 15.1.38, and 15.4.3–4. In addition, Problem 4 in the Problems Plus following Chapter 15 is interesting and challenging.

- New examples have been added, and additional steps have been added to the solutions of some existing examples. (See, for instance, Example 10.1.5, Examples 14.8.1 and 14.8.4, and Example 16.3.4.)
- Several sections have been restructured and new subheads added to focus the organization around key concepts. (Good illustrations of this are Sections 11.1, 11.2, and 14.2.)
- Many new graphs and illustrations have been added, and existing ones updated, to provide additional graphical insights into key concepts.
- A few new topics have been added and others expanded (within a section or in extended exercises) that were requested by reviewers. (See, for example, the subsection on torsion in Section 13.3.)
- New projects have been added and some existing projects have been updated. (For instance, see the Discovery Project following Section 12.2, *The Shape of a Hanging Chain*.)
- Alternating series and absolute convergence are now covered in one section (11.5).
- The chapter on Second-Order Differential Equations, as well as the associated appendix section on complex numbers, has been moved to the website.

Features

Each feature is designed to complement different teaching and learning practices. Throughout the text there are historical insights, extended exercises, projects, problem-solving principles, and many opportunities to experiment with concepts by using technology. We are mindful that there is rarely enough time in a semester to utilize all of these features, but their availability in the book gives the instructor the option to assign some and perhaps simply draw attention to others in order to emphasize the rich ideas of calculus and its crucial importance in the real world.

Conceptual Exercises

The most important way to foster conceptual understanding is through the problems that the instructor assigns. To that end we have included various types of problems. Some exercise sets begin with requests to explain the meanings of the basic concepts of the section (see, for instance, the first few exercises in Sections 11.2, 14.2, and 14.3) and most exercise sets contain exercises designed to reinforce basic understanding (such as Exercises 11.4.3–6). Other exercises test conceptual understanding through graphs or tables (see Exercises 10.1.30–33, 13.2.1–2, 13.3.37–43, 14.1.41–44, 14.3.2, 14.3.4–6, 14.6.1–2, 14.7.3–4, 15.1.6–8, 16.1.13–22, 16.2.19–20, and 16.3.1–2).

Many exercises provide a graph to aid in visualization (see for instance Exercises 10.4.43–46, 15.5.1–2, 15.6.9–12, and 16.7.24). In addition, all the review sections begin with a Concept Check and a True-False Quiz.

We particularly value problems that combine and compare different approaches (see Exercises 14.2.3–4, 14.7.3–4, 14.8.2, 15.4.3–4, and 16.3.13).

Graded Exercise Sets

Each exercise set is carefully graded, progressing from basic conceptual exercises, to skill-development and graphical exercises, and then to more challenging exercises that often extend the concepts of the section, draw on concepts from previous sections, or involve applications or proofs.

Real-World Data

Real-world data provide a tangible way to introduce, motivate, or illustrate the concepts of calculus. As a result, many of the examples and exercises deal with functions defined by such numerical data or graphs. These real-world data have been obtained by contacting companies and government agencies as well as researching on the Internet and in libraries. See, for instance, Example 3 in Section 14.4 (the heat index), Figure 1 in Section 14.6 (temperature contour map), Example 9 in Section 15.1 (snowfall in Colorado), and Figure 1 in Section 16.1 (velocity vector fields of wind in San Francisco Bay).

Projects

One way of involving students and making them active learners is to have them work (perhaps in groups) on extended projects that give a feeling of substantial accomplishment when completed. There are three kinds of projects in the text.

Applied Projects involve applications that are designed to appeal to the imagination of students. The project after Section 14.8 uses Lagrange multipliers to determine the masses of the three stages of a rocket so as to minimize the total mass while enabling the rocket to reach a desired velocity.

Discovery Projects anticipate results to be discussed later or encourage discovery through pattern recognition. Several discovery projects explore aspects of geometry: tetrahedra (after Section 12.4), hyperspheres (after Section 15.6), and intersections of three cylinders (after Section 15.7). Additionally, the project following Section 12.2 uses the geometric definition of the derivative to find a formula for the shape of a hanging chain. Some projects make substantial use of technology; the one following Section 10.2 shows how to use Bézier curves to design shapes that represent letters for a laser printer.

The *Writing Project* following Section 11.10 asks students to compare present-day methods with those of the founders of calculus. Suggested references are supplied.

More projects can be found in the *Instructor's Guide*. There are also extended exercises that can serve as smaller projects. (See Exercise 13.3.75 on the evolute of a curve, Exercise 14.7.61 on the method of least squares, or Exercise 16.3.42 on inverse square fields.)

Technology

When using technology, it is particularly important to clearly understand the concepts that underlie the images on the screen or the results of a calculation. When properly used, graphing calculators and computers are powerful tools for discovering and understanding those concepts. This textbook can be used either with or without technology—we use two special symbols to indicate clearly when a particular type of assistance from technology is required. The icon indicates an exercise that definitely requires the use of graphing software or a graphing calculator to aid in sketching a graph. (That is not to say that the technology can't be used on the other exercises as well.) The symbol $\boxed{T}$ means that the assistance of software or a graphing calculator is needed beyond just graphing to complete the exercise. Freely available websites such as WolframAlpha.com or Symbolab.com are often suitable. In cases where the full resources of a computer algebra system, such as Maple or Mathematica, are needed, we state this in the exercise. Of course, technology doesn't make pencil and paper obsolete. Hand calculation and sketches are often preferable to technology for illustrating and reinforcing some concepts. Both instructors and students need to develop the ability to decide where using technology is appropriate and where more insight is gained by working out an exercise by hand.

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Stewart Website

Visit StewartCalculus.com for these additional materials:

- Homework Hints
- Solutions to the Concept Checks (from the review section of each chapter)
- Algebra and Analytic Geometry Review
- Lies My Calculator and Computer Told Me
- History of Mathematics, with links to recommended historical websites
- Additional Topics (complete with exercise sets): Fourier Series, Rotation of Axes, Formulas for the Remainder Theorem in Taylor Series
- Additional chapter on second-order differential equations, including the method of series solutions, and an appendix section reviewing complex numbers and complex exponential functions
- Instructor Area that includes archived problems (drill exercises that appeared in previous editions, together with their solutions)
- Challenge Problems (some from the Problems Plus sections from prior editions)
- Links, for particular topics, to outside Web resources

Content

10 Parametric Equations and Polar Coordinates

This chapter introduces parametric and polar curves and applies the methods of calculus to them. Parametric curves are well suited to projects that require graphing with technology; the two presented here involve families of curves and Bézier curves. A brief treatment of conic sections in polar coordinates prepares the way for Kepler's Laws in Chapter 13.

11 Sequences, Series, and Power Series

The convergence tests have intuitive justifications (see Section 11.3) as well as formal proofs. Numerical estimates of sums of series are based on which test was used to prove convergence. The emphasis is on Taylor series and polynomials and their applications to physics.

12 Vectors and the Geometry of Space

The material on three-dimensional analytic geometry and vectors is covered in this and the next chapter. Here we deal with vectors, the dot and cross products, lines, planes, and surfaces.

13 Vector Functions

This chapter covers vector-valued functions, their derivatives and integrals, the length and curvature of space curves, and velocity and acceleration along space curves, culminating in Kepler's laws.

14 Partial Derivatives

Functions of two or more variables are studied from verbal, numerical, visual, and algebraic points of view. In particular, partial derivatives are introduced by looking at a specific column in a table of values of the heat index (perceived air temperature) as a function of the actual temperature and the relative humidity.

15 Multiple Integrals

Contour maps and the Midpoint Rule are used to estimate the average snowfall and average temperature in given regions. Double and triple integrals are used to compute volumes, surface areas, and (in projects) volumes of hyperspheres and volumes of intersections of three cylinders. Cylindrical and spherical coordinates are introduced in the context of evaluating triple integrals. Several applications are considered, including computing mass, charge, and probabilities.

16 Vector Calculus

Vector fields are introduced through pictures of velocity fields showing San Francisco Bay wind patterns. The similarities among the Fundamental Theorem for line integrals, Green's Theorem, Stokes' Theorem, and the Divergence Theorem are emphasized.

17 Second-Order Differential Equations

Since first-order differential equations are covered in Chapter 9, this online chapter deals with second-order linear differential equations, their application to vibrating springs and electric circuits, and series solutions.

Ancillaries

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Acknowledgments

One of the main factors aiding in the preparation of this edition is the cogent advice from a large number of reviewers, all of whom have extensive experience teaching calculus. We greatly appreciate their suggestions and the time they spent to understand the approach taken in this book. We have learned something from each of them.

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We thank all those who have contributed to this edition—and there are many—as well as those whose input in previous editions lives on in this new edition. We thank Marigold Ardren, David Behrman, George Bergman, R. B. Burckel, Bruce Colletti, John Dersch, Gove Effinger, Bill Emerson, Alfonso Gracia-Saz, Jeffery Hayen, Dan Kalman, Quyan Khan, John Khoury, Allan MacIsaac, Tami Martin, Monica Nitsche, Aaron Peterson, Lamia Raffo, Norton Starr, Jim Trefzger, Aaron Watson, and Weihua Zeng for their suggestions; Joseph Bennish, Craig Chamberlin, Kent Merryfield, and Gina Sanders for insightful conversations on calculus; Al Shenk and Dennis Zill for permission to use exercises from their calculus texts; COMAP for permission to use project material; David Bleecker, Victor Kaftal, Anthony Lam, Jamie Lawson, Ira Rosenholtz, Paul Sally, Lowell Smylie, Larry Wallen, and Jonathan Watson for ideas for exercises; Dan Drucker for the roller derby project; Thomas Banchoff, Tom Farmer, Fred Gass, John Ramsay, Larry Riddle, Philip Straffin, and Klaus Volpert for ideas for projects; Josh Babbin, Scott Barnett, and Gina Sanders for solving the new exercises and suggesting ways to improve them; Jeff Cole for overseeing all the solutions to the exercises and ensuring their correctness; Mary Johnson and Marv Riedesel for accuracy in proofreading, and Doug Shaw for accuracy checking. In addition, we thank Dan Anderson, Ed Barbeau, Fred Brauer, Andy Bulman-Fleming, Bob Burton, David Cusick, Tom DiCiccio, Garret Etgen, Chris Fisher, Barbara Frank, Leon Gerber, Stuart Goldenberg, Arnold Good, Gene Hecht, Harvey Keynes, E. L. Koh, Zdislav Kovarik, Kevin Kreider, Emile LeBlanc, David Leep, Gerald Leibowitz, Larry Peterson, Mary Pugh, Carl Riehm, John Ringland, Peter Rosenthal, Dusty Sabo, Dan Silver, Simon Smith, Alan Weinstein, and Gail Wolkowicz.

We are grateful to Phyllis Panman for assisting us in preparing the manuscript, solving the exercises and suggesting new ones, and for critically proofreading the entire manuscript.

We are deeply indebted to our friend and colleague Lothar Redlin who began working with us on this revision shortly before his untimely death in 2018. Lothar's deep insights into mathematics and its pedagogy, and his lightning fast problem-solving skills, were invaluable assets.

We especially thank Kathi Townes of TECHarts, our production service and copyeditor (for this as well as the past several editions). Her extraordinary ability to recall any detail of the manuscript as needed, her facility in simultaneously handling different editing tasks, and her comprehensive familiarity with the book were key factors in its accuracy and timely production. We also thank Lori Heckelman for the elegant and precise rendering of the new illustrations.

At Cengage Learning we thank Timothy Bailey, Teni Baroian, Diane Beasley, Carly Belcher, Vernon Boes, Laura Gallus, Stacy Green, Justin Karr, Mark Linton, Samantha Lugtu, Ashley Maynard, Irene Morris, Lynh Pham, Jennifer Risden, Tim Rogers, Mark Santee, Angela Sheehan, and Tom Ziolkowski. They have all done an outstanding job.

This textbook has benefited greatly over the past three decades from the advice and guidance of some of the best mathematics editors: Ron Munro, Harry Campbell, Craig Barth, Jeremy Hayhurst, Gary Ostedt, Bob Pirtle, Richard Stratton, Liz Covello, Neha Taleja, and now Gary Whalen. They have all contributed significantly to the success of this book. Prominently, Gary Whalen's broad knowledge of current issues in the teaching of mathematics and his continual research into creating better ways of using technology as a teaching and learning tool were invaluable resources in the creation of this edition.

JAMES STEWART

DANIEL CLEGG

SALEEM WATSON

Technology in the Ninth Edition

Graphing and computing devices are valuable tools for learning and exploring calculus, and some have become well established in calculus instruction. Graphing calculators are useful for drawing graphs and performing some numerical calculations, like approximating solutions to equations or numerically evaluating derivatives or definite integrals. Mathematical software packages called computer algebra systems (CAS, for short) are more powerful tools. Despite the name, algebra represents only a small subset of the capabilities of a CAS. In particular, a CAS can do mathematics symbolically rather than just numerically. It can find exact solutions to equations and exact formulas for derivatives and integrals.

We now have access to a wider variety of tools of varying capabilities than ever before. These include Web-based resources (some of which are free of charge) and apps for smartphones and tablets. Many of these resources include at least some CAS functionality, so some exercises that may have typically required a CAS can now be completed using these alternate tools.

In this edition, rather than refer to a specific type of device (a graphing calculator, for instance) or software package (such as a CAS), we indicate the type of capability that is needed to work an exercise.

Graphing Icon

The appearance of this icon beside an exercise indicates that you are expected to use a machine or software to help you draw the graph. In many cases, a graphing calculator will suffice. Websites such as Desmos.com provide similar capability. If the graph is in 3D (see Chapters 12–16), WolframAlpha.com is a good resource. There are also many graphing software applications for computers, smartphones, and tablets. If an exercise asks for a graph but no graphing icon is shown, then you are expected to draw the graph by hand.

T Technology Icon

This icon is used to indicate that software or a device with abilities beyond just graphing is needed to complete the exercise. Many graphing calculators and software resources can provide numerical approximations when needed. For working with mathematics symbolically, websites like WolframAlpha.com or Symbolab.com are helpful, as are more advanced graphing calculators such as the Texas Instrument TI-89 or TI-Nspire CAS. If the full power of a CAS is needed, this will be stated in the exercise, and access to software packages such as Mathematica, Maple, MATLAB, or SageMath may be required. If an exercise does not include a technology icon, then you are expected to evaluate limits, derivatives, and integrals, or solve equations by hand, arriving at exact answers. No technology is needed for these exercises beyond perhaps a basic scientific calculator.

To the Student

Reading a calculus textbook is different from reading a story or a news article. Don't be discouraged if you have to read a passage more than once in order to understand it. You should have pencil and paper and calculator at hand to sketch a diagram or make a calculation.

Some students start by trying their homework problems and read the text only if they get stuck on an exercise. We suggest that a far better plan is to read and understand a section of the text before attempting the exercises. In particular, you should look at the definitions to see the exact meanings of the terms. And before you read each example, we suggest that you cover up the solution and try solving the problem yourself.

Part of the aim of this course is to train you to think logically. Learn to write the solutions of the exercises in a connected, step-by-step fashion with explanatory sentences—not just a string of disconnected equations or formulas.

The answers to the odd-numbered exercises appear at the back of the book, in Appendix H. Some exercises ask for a verbal explanation or interpretation or description. In such cases there is no single correct way of expressing the answer, so don't worry that you haven't found the definitive answer. In addition, there are often several different forms in which to express a numerical or algebraic answer, so if your answer differs from the given one, don't immediately assume you're wrong. For example, if the answer given in the back of the book is $\sqrt{2} - 1$ and you obtain $1/(1 + \sqrt{2})$, then you're correct and rationalizing the denominator will show that the answers are equivalent.

The icon indicates an exercise that definitely requires the use of either a graphing calculator or a computer with graphing software to help you sketch the graph. But that doesn't mean that graphing devices can't be used to check your work on the other exercises as well. The symbol T indicates that technological assistance beyond just graphing is needed to complete the exercise. (See Technology in the Ninth Edition for more details.)

You will also encounter the symbol, which warns you against committing an error. This symbol is placed in the margin in situations where many students tend to make the same mistake.

Homework Hints are available for many exercises. These hints can be found on StewartCalculus.com as well as in WebAssign. The homework hints ask you questions that allow you to make progress toward a solution without actually giving you the answer. If a particular hint doesn't enable you to solve the problem, you can click to reveal the next hint.

We recommend that you keep this book for reference purposes after you finish the course. Because you will likely forget some of the specific details of calculus, the book will serve as a useful reminder when you need to use calculus in subsequent courses. And, because this book contains more material than can be covered in any one course, it can also serve as a valuable resource for a working scientist or engineer.

Calculus is an exciting subject, justly considered to be one of the greatest achievements of the human intellect. We hope you will discover that it is not only useful but also intrinsically beautiful.

The photo shows comet Hale-Bopp as it passed the earth in 1997, due to return in 4380. One of the brightest comets of the past century, Hale-Bopp could be observed in the night sky by the naked eye for about 18 months. It was named after its discoverers Alan Hale and Thomas Bopp, who first obse ved it by telescope in 1995 (Hale in New Mexico and Bopp in Arizona). In Section 10.6 you will see how polar coordinates provide a convenient equation for the elliptical path of the comet's orbit.

Jeff Schneiderman / Moment Open / Getty Images

10 Parametric Equations and Polar Coordinates

SO FAR WE HAVE DESCRIBED plane curves by giving y as a function of x $[y = f(x)]$ or x as a function of y $[x = g(y)]$ or by giving a relation between x and y that defines y implicitly as a function of x $[f(x, y) = 0]$. In this chapter we discuss two new methods for describing curves.

Some curves, such as the cycloid, are best handled when both x and y are given in terms of a third variable t called a parameter $[x = f(t), y = g(t)]$. Other curves, such as the cardioid, have their most convenient description when we use a new coordinate system, called the polar coordinate system.

10.1 Curves Defined by Parametric Equations

Imagine that a particle moves along the curve C shown in Figure 1. It is impossible to describe C by an equation of the form $y = f(x)$ because C fails the Vertical Line Test. But the x- and y-coordinates of the particle are functions of time t and so we can write $x = f(t)$ and $y = g(t)$. Such a pair of equations is often a convenient way of describing a curve.

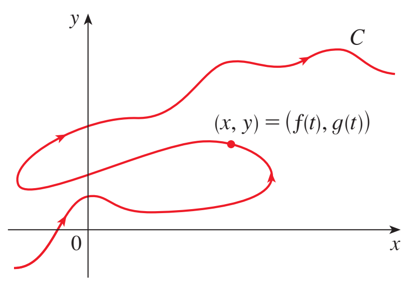


FIGURE 1

Parametric Equations

Suppose that x and y are both given as functions of a third variable t, called a **parameter**, by the equations

$$x = f(t) \qquad y = g(t)$$

which are called **parametric equations**. Each value of t determines a point (x, y), which we can plot in a coordinate plane. As t varies, the point $(x, y) = (f(t), g(t))$ varies and traces out a curve called a **parametric curve**. The parameter t does not necessarily represent time and, in fact, we could use a letter other than t for the parameter. But in many applications of parametric curves, t does denote time and in this case we can interpret $(x, y) = (f(t), g(t))$ as the position of a moving object at time t.

EXAMPLE 1 Sketch and identify the curve defined by the parametric equations

$$x = t^2 - 2t \qquad y = t + 1$$

SOLUTION Each value of t gives a point on the curve, as shown in the table. For instance, if $t = 1$, then $x = -1$, $y = 2$ and so the corresponding point is $(-1, 2)$. In Figure 2 we plot the points (x, y) determined by several values of the parameter and we join them to produce a curve.

t	x	y
-2	8	-1
-1	3	0
0	0	1
1	-1	2
2	0	3
3	3	4
4	8	5

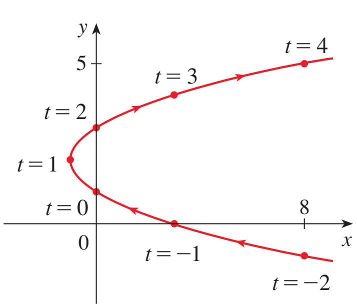


FIGURE 2

A particle whose position at time t is given by the parametric equations moves along the curve in the direction of the arrows as t increases. Notice that the consecutive points marked on the curve appear at equal time intervals but not at equal distances. That is because the particle slows down and then speeds up as t increases.

It appears from Figure 2 that the curve traced out by the particle may be a parabola. In fact, from the second equation we obtain $t = y - 1$ and substitution into the first equation gives

$$x = t^2 - 2t = (y - 1)^2 - 2(y - 1) = y^2 - 4y + 3$$

Since the equation $x = y^2 - 4y + 3$ is satisfied for all pairs of x- and y-values generated by the parametric equations, every point (x, y) on the parametric curve must lie on the parabola $x = y^2 - 4y + 3$ and so the parametric curve coincides with at least part of this parabola. Because t can be chosen to make y any real number, we know that the parametric curve is the entire parabola. ■

It is not always possible to eliminate the parameter from parametric equations. There are many parametric curves that don't have an equivalent representation as an equation in x and y.

In Example 1 we found a Cartesian equation in x and y whose graph coincided with the curve represented by parametric equations. This process is called **eliminating the parameter**; it can be helpful in identifying the shape of the parametric curve, but we lose some information in the process. The equation in x and y describes the curve the particle travels along, whereas the parametric equations have additional advantages—they tell us *where* the particle is at any given *time* and indicate the *direction* of motion. If you think of the graph of an equation in x and y as a road, then the parametric equations could track the motion of a car traveling along the road.

No restriction was placed on the parameter t in Example 1, so we assumed that t could be any real number (including negative numbers). But sometimes we restrict t to lie in a particular interval. For instance, the parametric curve

$$x = t^2 - 2t \qquad y = t + 1 \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 4$$

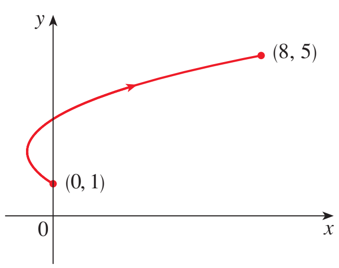


FIGURE 3

shown in Figure 3 is the part of the parabola in Example 1 that starts at the point $(0, 1)$ and ends at the point $(8, 5)$. The arrowhead indicates the direction in which the curve is traced as t increases from 0 to 4.

In general, the curve with parametric equations

$$x = f(t) \qquad y = g(t) \qquad a \leqslant t \leqslant b$$

has **initial point** $(f(a), g(a))$ and **terminal point** $(f(b), g(b))$.

EXAMPLE 2 What curve is represented by the following parametric equations?

$$x = \cos t \qquad y = \sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

SOLUTION If we plot points, it appears that the curve is a circle. We can confirm this by eliminating the parameter t. Observe that

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

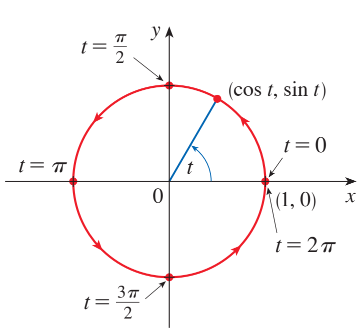


FIGURE 4

Because $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is satisfied for all pairs of x- and y-values generated by the parametric equations, the point (x, y) moves along the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Notice that in this example the parameter t can be interpreted as the angle (in radians) shown in Figure 4. As t increases from 0 to 2π, the point $(x, y) = (\cos t, \sin t)$ moves once around the circle in the counterclockwise direction starting from the point $(1, 0)$. ■

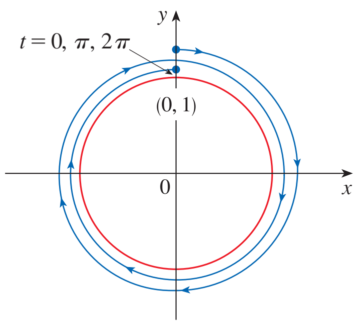


FIGURE 5

EXAMPLE 3 What curve is represented by the given parametric equations?

$$x = \sin 2t \qquad y = \cos 2t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

SOLUTION Again we have

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

so the parametric equations again represent the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. But as t increases from 0 to 2π, the point $(x, y) = (\sin 2t, \cos 2t)$ starts at $(0, 1)$ and moves *twice* around the circle in the clockwise direction as indicated in Figure 5. ■

EXAMPLE 4 Find parametric equations for the circle with center (h, k) and radius r.

SOLUTION One way is to take the parametric equations of the unit circle in Example 2 and multiply the expressions for x and y by r, giving $x = r\cos t$, $y = r\sin t$. You can verify that these equations represent a circle with radius r and center the origin, traced counterclockwise. We now shift h units in the x-direction and k units in the y-direction and obtain parametric equations of the circle (Figure 6) with center (h, k) and radius r:

$$x = h + r\cos t \qquad y = k + r\sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$ ■

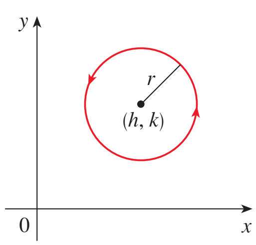


FIGURE 6
$x = h + r\cos t,\ y = k + r\sin t$

NOTE Examples 2 and 3 show that different parametric equations can represent the same curve. Thus we distinguish between a *curve*, which is a set of points, and a *parametric curve*, in which the points are traced out in a particular way.

In the next example we use parametric equations to describe the motions of four different particles traveling along the same curve but in different ways.

EXAMPLE 5 Each of the following sets of parametric equations gives the position of a moving particle at time t.

(a) $x = t^3, \quad y = t$ (b) $x = -t^3, \quad y = -t$

(c) $x = t^{3/2}, \quad y = \sqrt{t}$ (d) $x = e^{-3t}, \quad y = e^{-t}$

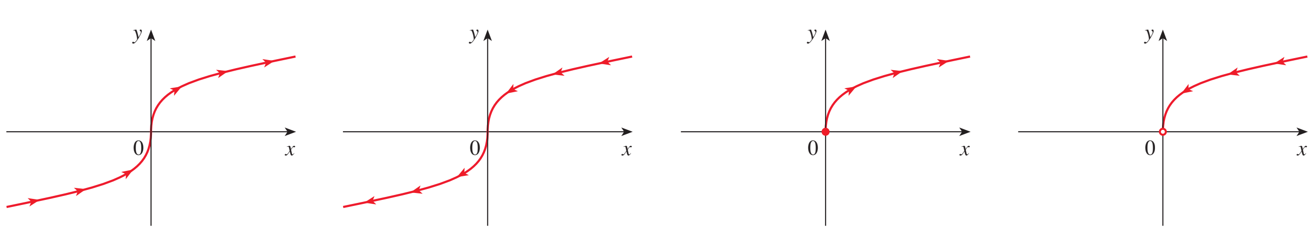
In each case, eliminating the parameter gives $x = y^3$, so each particle moves along the cubic curve $x = y^3$; however, the particles move in different ways, as illustrated in Figure 7.

(a) The particle moves from left to right as t increases.

(b) The particle moves from right to left as t increases.

(c) The equations are defined only for $t \geqslant 0$. The particle starts at the origin (where $t = 0$) and moves to the right as t increases.

(d) Here $x > 0$ and $y > 0$ for all t. The particle moves from right to left and approaches the point (1,1) as t increases (through negative values) toward 0. As t further increases, the particle approaches, but does not reach, the origin.



(a) $x = t^3$, $y = t$ (b) $x = -t^3$, $y = -t$ (c) $x = t^{3/2}$, $y = \sqrt{t}$ (d) $x = e^{-3t}$, $y = e^{-t}$

FIGURE 7 ■

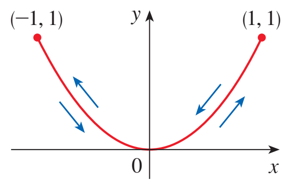
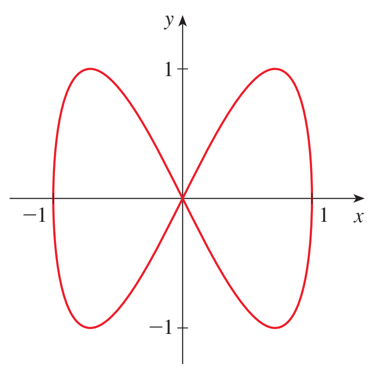


FIGURE 8

EXAMPLE 6 Sketch the curve with parametric equations $x = \sin t$, $y = \sin^2 t$.

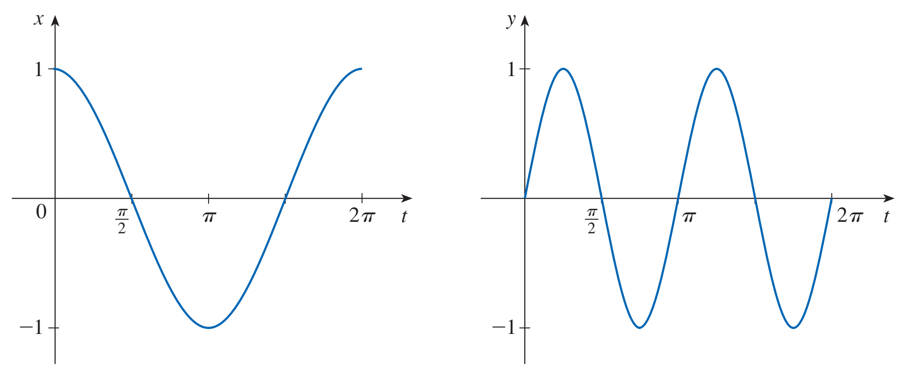
SOLUTION Observe that $y = (\sin t)^2 = x^2$ and so the point (x, y) moves on the parabola $y = x^2$. But note also that, since $-1 \leqslant \sin t \leqslant 1$, we have $-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$, so the parametric equations represent only the part of the parabola for which $-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$. Since $\sin t$ is periodic, the point $(x, y) = (\sin t, \sin^2 t)$ moves back and forth infinitely often along the parabola from $(-1, 1)$ to $(1, 1)$. (See Figure 8.) ■

EXAMPLE 7 The curve represented by the parametric equations $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin 2t$ is shown in Figure 9. It is an example of a *Lissajous figure* (see Exercise 63). It is possible to eliminate the parameter, but the resulting equation $(y^2 = 4x^2 - 4x^4)$ isn't very helpful. Another way to visualize the curve is to first draw graphs of x and y individually as functions of t, as shown in Figure 10.



$x = \cos t$, $y = \sin 2t$

FIGURE 9



$x = \cos t$ $y = \sin 2t$

FIGURE 10

We see that as t increases from 0 to $\pi/2$, x decreases from 1 to 0 while y starts at 0, increases to 1, and then returns to 0. Together these descriptions produce the portion of the parametric curve that we see in the first quadrant. If we proceed similarly, we get the complete curve. (See Exercises 31–33 for practice with this technique.) ■

■ Graphing Parametric Curves with Technology

Most graphing software applications and graphing calculators can graph curves defined by parametric equations. In fact, it's instructive to watch a parametric curve being drawn by a graphing calculator because the points are plotted in order as the corresponding parameter values increase.

The next example shows that parametric equations can be used to produce the graph of a Cartesian equation where x is expressed as a function of y. (Some calculators, for instance, require y to be expressed as a function of x.)

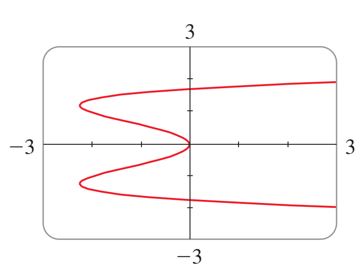


FIGURE 11

EXAMPLE 8 Use a calculator or computer to graph the curve $x = y^4 - 3y^2$.

SOLUTION If we let the parameter be $t = y$, then we have the equations

$$x = t^4 - 3t^2 \qquad y = t$$

Using these parametric equations to graph the curve, we obtain Figure 11. It would be possible to solve the given equation $(x = y^4 - 3y^2)$ for y as four functions of x and graph them individually, but the parametric equations provide a much easier method. ■

In general, to graph an equation of the form $x = g(y)$, we can use the parametric equations

$$x = g(t) \qquad y = t$$

In the same spirit, notice that curves with equations $y = f(x)$ (the ones we are most familiar with—graphs of functions) can also be regarded as curves with parametric equations

$$x = t \qquad y = f(t)$$

Graphing software is particularly useful for sketching complicated parametric curves. For instance, the curves shown in Figures 12, 13, and 14 would be virtually impossible to produce by hand.

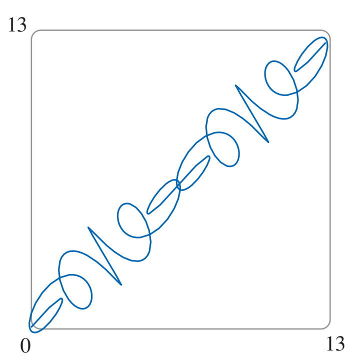


FIGURE 12
$x = t + \sin 5t$
$y = t + \sin 6t$

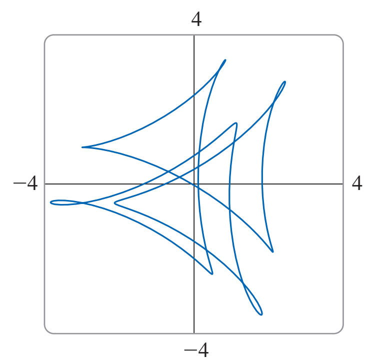


FIGURE 13
$x = \cos t + \cos 6t + 2 \sin 3t$
$y = \sin t + \sin 6t + 2 \cos 3t$

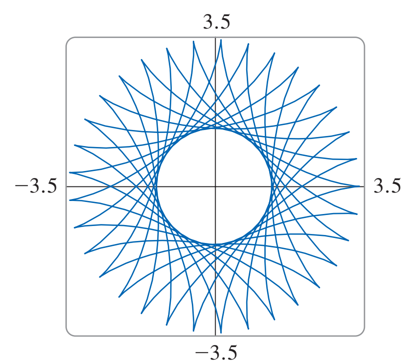


FIGURE 14
$x = 2.3 \cos 10t + \cos 23t$
$y = 2.3 \sin 10t - \sin 23t$

One of the most important uses of parametric curves is in computer-aided design (CAD). In the Discovery Project after Section 10.2 we will investigate special parametric curves, called **Bézier curves**, that are used extensively in manufacturing, especially in the automotive industry. These curves are also employed in specifying the shapes of letters and other symbols in PDF documents and laser printers.

The Cycloid

EXAMPLE 9 The curve traced out by a point P on the circumference of a circle as the circle rolls along a straight line is called a **cycloid**. (Think of the path traced out by a pebble stuck in a car tire; see Figure 15.) If the circle has radius r and rolls along the x-axis and if one position of P is the origin, find parametric equations for the cycloid.

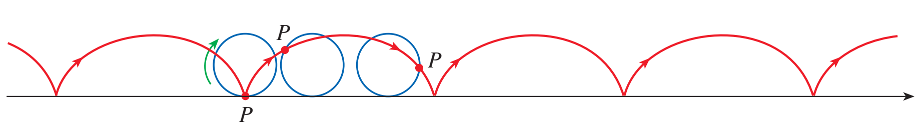


FIGURE 15

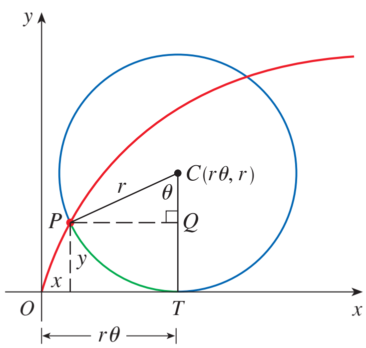


FIGURE 16

SOLUTION We choose as parameter the angle of rotation θ of the circle ($\theta = 0$ when P is at the origin). Suppose the circle has rotated through θ radians. Because the circle has been in contact with the line, we see from Figure 16 that the distance it has rolled from the origin is

$$|OT| = \text{arc } PT = r\theta$$

Therefore the center of the circle is $C(r\theta, r)$. Let the coordinates of P be (x, y). Then from Figure 16 we see that

$$x = |OT| - |PQ| = r\theta - r\sin\theta = r(\theta - \sin\theta)$$

$$y = |TC| - |QC| = r - r\cos\theta = r(1 - \cos\theta)$$

Therefore parametric equations of the cycloid are

$$\boxed{1} \qquad x = r(\theta - \sin\theta) \qquad y = r(1 - \cos\theta) \qquad \theta \in \mathbb{R}$$

One arch of the cycloid comes from one rotation of the circle and so is described by $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$. Although Equations 1 were derived from Figure 16, which illustrates the case where $0 < \theta < \pi/2$, it can be seen that these equations are still valid for other values of θ (see Exercise 48).

Although it is possible to eliminate the parameter θ from Equations 1, the resulting Cartesian equation in x and y is very complicated [$x = r\cos^{-1}(1 - y/r) - \sqrt{2ry - y^2}$ gives just half of one arch] and not as convenient to work with as the parametric equations. ■

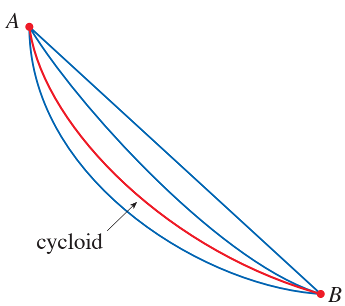


FIGURE 17

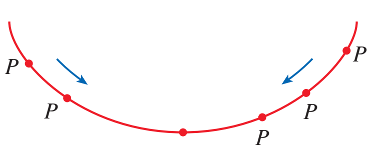


FIGURE 18

One of the first people to study the cycloid was Galileo; he proposed that bridges be built in the shape of cycloids and tried to find the area under one arch of a cycloid. Later this curve arose in connection with the **brachistochrone problem**: Find the curve along which a particle will slide in the shortest time (under the influence of gravity) from a point A to a lower point B not directly beneath A. The Swiss mathematician John Bernoulli, who posed this problem in 1696, showed that among all possible curves that join A to B, as in Figure 17, the particle will take the least time sliding from A to B if the curve is part of an inverted arch of a cycloid.

The Dutch physicist Huygens had already shown by 1673 that the cycloid is also the solution to the **tautochrone problem**; that is, no matter where a particle P is placed on an inverted cycloid, it takes the same time to slide to the bottom (see Figure 18). Huygens proposed that pendulum clocks (which he invented) should swing in cycloidal arcs because then the pendulum would take the same time to make a complete oscillation whether it swings through a wide arc or a small arc.

Families of Parametric Curves

EXAMPLE 10 Investigate the family of curves with parametric equations

$$x = a + \cos t \qquad y = a\tan t + \sin t$$

What do these curves have in common? How does the shape change as a increases?

SOLUTION We use a graphing calculator (or computer) to produce the graphs for the cases $a = -2, -1, -0.5, -0.2, 0, 0.5, 1$, and 2 shown in Figure 19. Notice that all of these curves (except the case $a = 0$) have two branches, and both branches approach the vertical asymptote $x = a$ as x approaches a from the left or right.

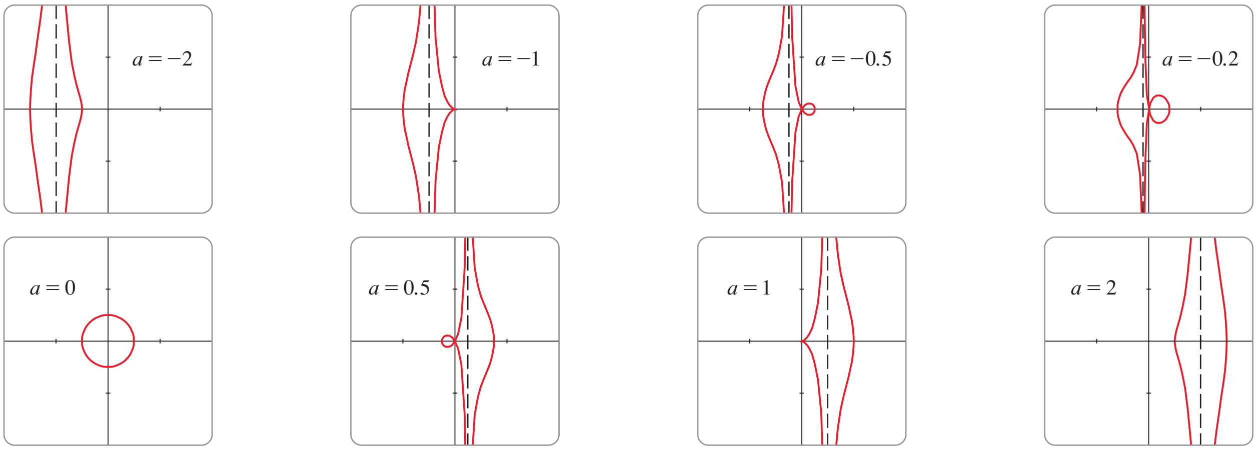


FIGURE 19
Members of the family $x = a + \cos t$, $y = a \tan t + \sin t$, all graphed in the viewing rectangle $[-4, 4]$ by $[-4, 4]$

When $a < -1$, both branches are smooth; but when a reaches -1, the right branch acquires a sharp point, called a *cusp*. For a between -1 and 0 the cusp turns into a loop, which becomes larger as a approaches 0. When $a = 0$, both branches come together and form a circle (see Example 2). For a between 0 and 1, the left branch has a loop, which shrinks to become a cusp when $a = 1$. For $a > 1$, the branches become smooth again, and as a increases further, they become less curved. Notice that the curves with a positive are reflections about the y-axis of the corresponding curves with a negative.

These curves are called **conchoids of Nicomedes** after the ancient Greek scholar Nicomedes. He called them conchoids because the shape of their outer branches resembles that of a conch shell or mussel shell. ■

10.1 Exercises

1–2 For the given parametric equations, find the points (x, y) corresponding to the parameter values $t = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2$.

1. $x = t^2 + t, \quad y = 3^{t+1}$

2. $x = \ln(t^2 + 1), \quad y = t/(t + 4)$

3–6 Sketch the curve by using the parametric equations to plot points. Indicate with an arrow the direction in which the curve is traced as t increases.

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

4. $x = t^3 + t, \quad y = t^2 + 2, \quad -2 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

5. $x = 2^t - t, \quad y = 2^{-t} + t, \quad -3 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$

6. $x = \cos^2 t, \quad y = 1 + \cos t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$

7–12
(a) Sketch the curve by using the parametric equations to plot points. Indicate with an arrow the direction in which the curve is traced as t increases.
(b) Eliminate the parameter to find a Cartesian equation of the curve.

7. $x = 2t - 1, \quad y = \frac{1}{2}t + 1$

8. $x = 3t + 2, \quad y = 2t + 3$

9. $x = t^2 - 3, \quad y = t + 2, \quad -3 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$

10. $x = \sin t, \quad y = 1 - \cos t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$

11. $x = \sqrt{t}, \quad y = 1 - t$

12. $x = t^2, \quad y = t^3$

13–22
(a) Eliminate the parameter to find a Cartesian equation of the curve.
(b) Sketch the curve and indicate with an arrow the direction in which the curve is traced as the parameter increases.

13. $x = 3\cos t, \quad y = 3\sin t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$

14. $x = \sin 4\theta, \quad y = \cos 4\theta, \quad 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/2$

15. $x = \cos\theta, \quad y = \sec^2\theta, \quad 0 \leqslant \theta < \pi/2$

16. $x = \csc t, \quad y = \cot t, \quad 0 < t < \pi$

17. $x = e^{-t}, \quad y = e^{t}$

18. $x = t + 2, \quad y = 1/t, \quad t > 0$

19. $x = \ln t, \quad y = \sqrt{t}, \quad t \geqslant 1$

20. $x = |t|, \quad y = |1 - |t||$

21. $x = \sin^2 t, \quad y = \cos^2 t$

22. $x = \sinh t, \quad y = \cosh t$

23–24 The position of an object in circular motion is modeled by the given parametric equations, where t is measured in seconds. How long does it take to complete one revolution? Is the motion clockwise or counterclockwise?

23. $x = 5\cos t, \quad y = -5\sin t$

24. $x = 3\sin\left(\dfrac{\pi}{4}t\right), \quad y = 3\cos\left(\dfrac{\pi}{4}t\right)$

25–28 Describe the motion of a particle with position (x, y) as t varies in the given interval.

25. $x = 5 + 2\cos \pi t, \quad y = 3 + 2\sin \pi t, \quad 1 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

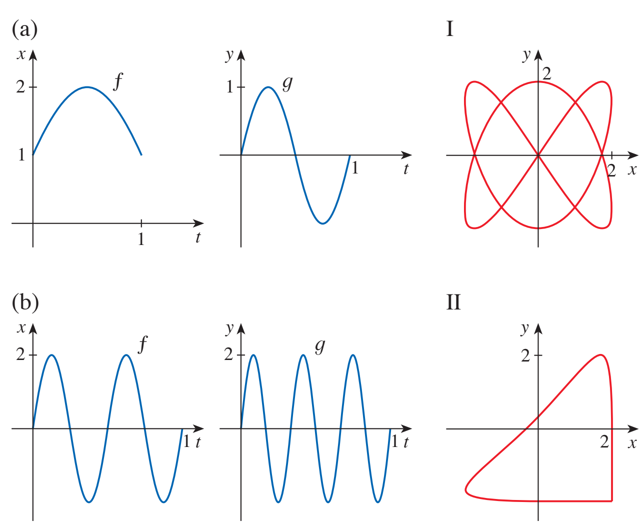
26. $x = 2 + \sin t, \quad y = 1 + 3\cos t, \quad \pi/2 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$

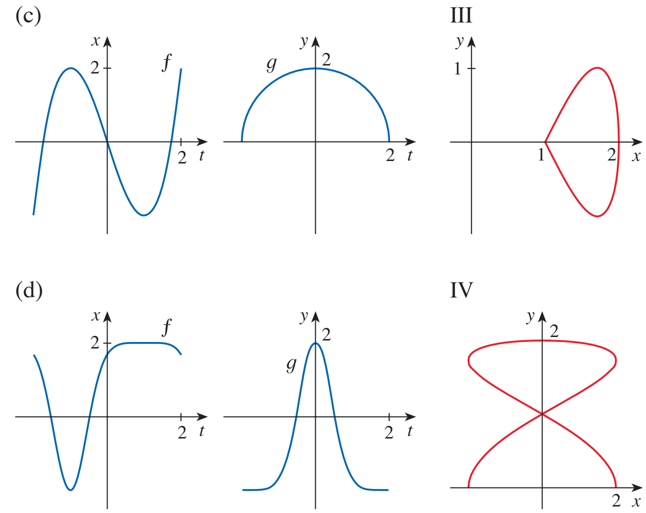
27. $x = 5\sin t, \quad y = 2\cos t, \quad -\pi \leqslant t \leqslant 5\pi$

28. $x = \sin t, \quad y = \cos^2 t, \quad -2\pi \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$

29. Suppose a curve is given by the parametric equations $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, where the range of f is $[1, 4]$ and the range of g is $[2, 3]$. What can you say about the curve?

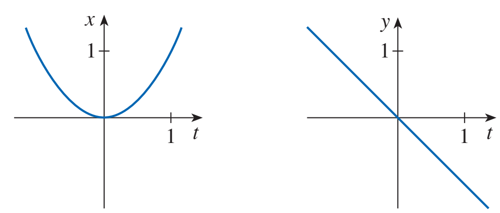
30. Match each pair of graphs of equations $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$ in (a)–(d) with one of the parametric curves $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$ labeled I–IV. Give reasons for your choices.





31–33 Use the graphs of $x = f(t)$ and $y = g(t)$ to sketch the parametric curve $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$. Indicate with arrows the direction in which the curve is traced as t increases.

31.



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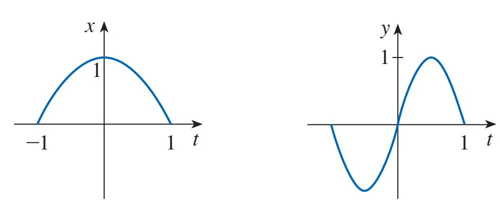
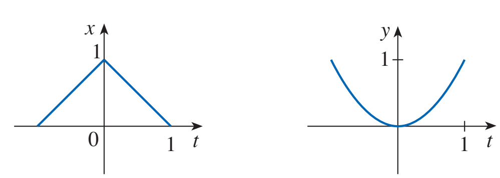


33.



34. Match the parametric equations with the graphs labeled I–VI. Give reasons for your choices.

(a) $x = t^4 - t + 1, \quad y = t^2$

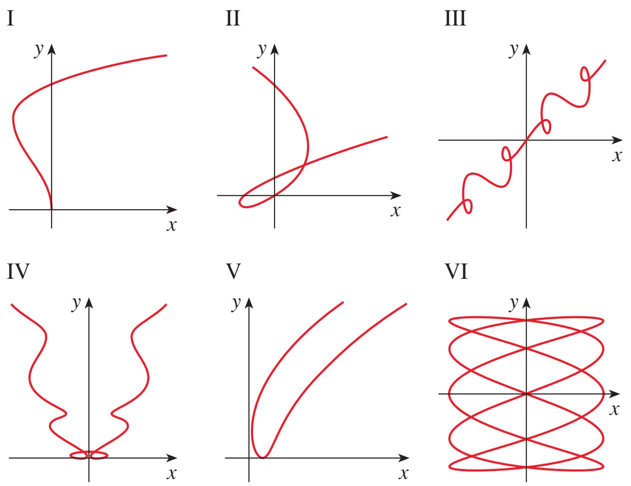
(b) $x = t^2 - 2t, \quad y = \sqrt{t}$

(c) $x = t^3 - 2t, \quad y = t^2 - t$

(d) $x = \cos 5t, \quad y = \sin 2t$

(e) $x = t + \sin 4t, \quad y = t^2 + \cos 3t$

(f) $x = t + \sin 2t, \quad y = t + \sin 3t$



35. Graph the curve $x = y - 2\sin \pi y$.

36. Graph the curves $y = x^3 - 4x$ and $x = y^3 - 4y$ and find their points of intersection correct to one decimal place.

37. (a) Show that the parametric equations

$$x = x_1 + (x_2 - x_1)t \qquad y = y_1 + (y_2 - y_1)t$$

where $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$, describe the line segment that joins the points $P_1(x_1, y_1)$ and $P_2(x_2, y_2)$.

(b) Find parametric equations to represent the line segment from $(-2, 7)$ to $(3, -1)$.

38. Use a graphing calculator or computer and the result of Exercise 37(a) to draw the triangle with vertices $A(1, 1)$, $B(4, 2)$, and $C(1, 5)$.

39–40 Find parametric equations for the position of a particle moving along a circle as described.

39. The particle travels clockwise around a circle centered at the origin with radius 5 and completes a revolution in 4π seconds.

40. The particle travels counterclockwise around a circle with center $(1, 3)$ and radius 1 and completes a revolution in three seconds.

41. Find parametric equations for the path of a particle that moves along the circle $x^2 + (y - 1)^2 = 4$ in the manner described.

(a) Once around clockwise, starting at $(2, 1)$

(b) Three times around counterclockwise, starting at $(2, 1)$

(c) Halfway around counterclockwise, starting at $(0, 3)$

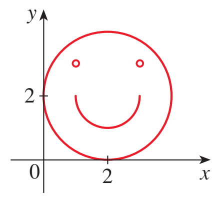
42. (a) Find parametric equations for the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$. [*Hint:* Modify the equations of the circle in Example 2.]

(b) Use these parametric equations to graph the ellipse when $a = 3$ and $b = 1, 2, 4$, and 8.

(c) How does the shape of the ellipse change as b varies?

43–44 Use a graphing calculator or computer to reproduce the picture.

43.



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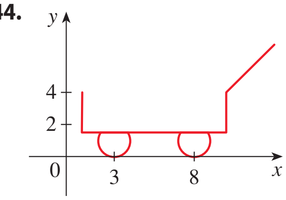


45. (a) Show that the points on all four of the given parametric curves satisfy the same Cartesian equation.

(i) $x = t^2, \quad y = t$ (ii) $x = t, \quad y = \sqrt{t}$

(iii) $x = \cos^2 t, \quad y = \cos t$ (iv) $x = 3^{2t}, \quad y = 3^t$

(b) Sketch the graph of each curve in part (a) and explain how the curves differ from one another.

46–47 Compare the curves represented by the parametric equations. How do they differ?

46. (a) $x = t, \quad y = t^{-2}$ (b) $x = \cos t, \quad y = \sec^2 t$

(c) $x = e^t, \quad y = e^{-2t}$

47. (a) $x = t^3, \quad y = t^2$ (b) $x = t^6, \quad y = t^4$

(c) $x = e^{-3t}, \quad y = e^{-2t}$

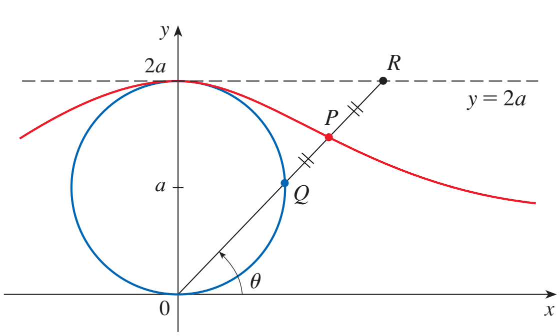
48. Derive Equations 1 for the case $\pi/2 < \theta < \pi$.

49. Let P be a point at a distance d from the center of a circle of radius r. The curve traced out by P as the circle rolls along a straight line is called a **trochoid**. (Think of the motion of a point on a spoke of a bicycle wheel.) The cycloid is the special case of a trochoid with $d = r$. Using the same parameter θ as for the cycloid, and assuming the line is the x-axis and $\theta = 0$ when P is at one of its lowest points, show that parametric equations of the trochoid are

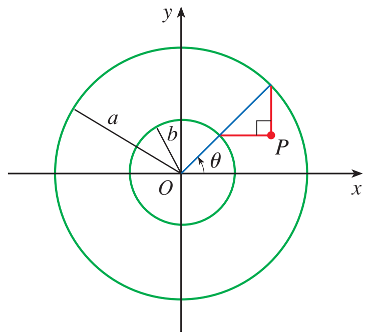
$$x = r\theta - d\sin\theta \qquad y = r - d\cos\theta$$

Sketch the trochoid for the cases $d < r$ and $d > r$.

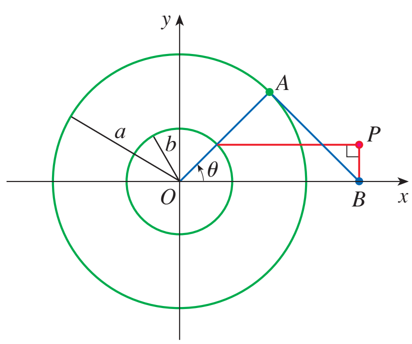
50. In the figure, the circle of radius a is stationary, and for every θ, the point P is the midpoint of the segment QR. The curve traced out by P for $0 < \theta < \pi$ is called the **longbow curve**. Find parametric equations for this curve.



51. If a and b are fixed numbers, find parametric equations for the curve that consists of all possible positions of the point P in the figure, using the angle θ as the parameter. Then eliminate the parameter and identify the curve.



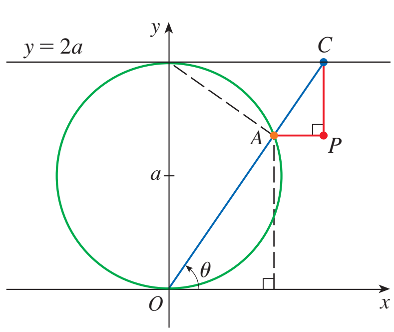
52. If a and b are fixed numbers, find parametric equations for the curve that consists of all possible positions of the point P in the figure, using the angle θ as the parameter. The line segment AB is tangent to the larger circle.



53. A curve, called a **witch of Maria Agnesi**, consists of all possible positions of the point P in the figure. Show that parametric equations for this curve can be written as

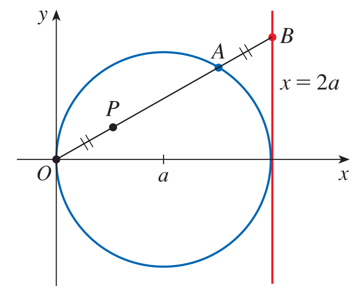
$$x = 2a \cot\theta \qquad y = 2a \sin^2\theta$$

Sketch the curve.



54. (a) Find parametric equations for the set of all points P as shown in the figure such that $|OP| = |AB|$. (This curve is called the **cissoid of Diocles** after the Greek scholar Diocles, who introduced the cissoid as a graphical method for constructing the edge of a cube whose volume is twice that of a given cube.)

(b) Use the geometric description of the curve to draw a rough sketch of the curve by hand. Check your work by using the parametric equations to graph the curve.



55–57 Intersection and Collision Suppose that the position of each of two particles is given by parametric equations. A *collision point* is a point where the particles are at the same place at the same time. If the particles pass through the same point but at different times, then the paths intersect but the particles don't collide.

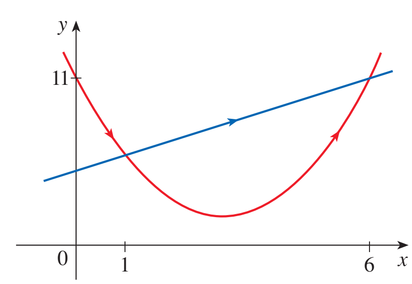
55. The position of a red particle at time t is given by

$$x = t + 5 \qquad y = t^2 + 4t + 6$$

and the position of a blue particle is given by

$$x = 2t + 1 \qquad y = 2t + 6$$

Their paths are shown in the graph.



(a) Verify that the paths of the particles intersect at the points (1, 6) and (6, 11). Is either of these points a collision point? If so, at what time do the particles collide?

(b) Suppose that the position of a green particle is given by

$$x = 2t + 4 \qquad y = 2t + 9$$

Show that this particle moves along the same path as the blue particle. Do the red and green particles collide? If so, at what point and at what time?

56. The position of one particle at time t is given by

$$x = 3 \sin t \qquad y = 2 \cos t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

and the position of a second particle is given by

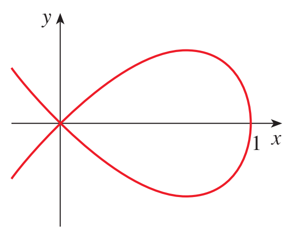
$$x = -3 + \cos t \qquad y = 1 + \sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

(a) Graph the paths of both particles. At how many points do the graphs intersect?

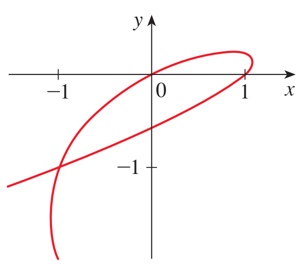
(b) Do the particles collide? If so, find the collision points.
(c) Describe what happens if the path of the second particle is given by

$$x = 3 + \cos t \qquad y = 1 + \sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

57. Find the point at which the parametric curve intersects itself and the corresponding values of t.
(a) $x = 1 - t^2$, $y = t - t^3$



(b) $x = 2t - t^3$, $y = t - t^2$



58. If a projectile is fired from the origin with an initial velocity of v_0 meters per second at an angle α above the horizontal and air resistance is assumed to be negligible, then its position after t seconds is given by the parametric equations

$$x = (v_0 \cos \alpha)t \qquad y = (v_0 \sin \alpha)t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2$$

where g is the acceleration due to gravity (9.8 m/s^2).
(a) If a gun is fired with $\alpha = 30°$ and $v_0 = 500$ m/s, when will the bullet hit the ground? How far from the gun will it hit the ground? What is the maximum height reached by the bullet?
(b) Use a graph to check your answers to part (a). Then graph the path of the projectile for several other values of the angle α to see where it hits the ground. Summarize your findings.
(c) Show that the path is parabolic by eliminating the parameter.

59. Investigate the family of curves defined by the parametric equations $x = t^2$, $y = t^3 - ct$. How does the shape change as c increases? Illustrate by graphing several members of the family.

60. The **swallowtail catastrophe curves** are defined by the parametric equations $x = 2ct - 4t^3$, $y = -ct^2 + 3t^4$. Graph several of these curves. What features do the curves have in common? How do they change when c increases?

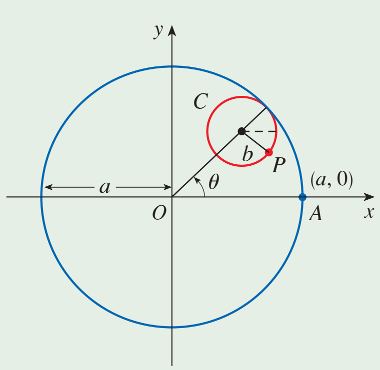
61. Graph several members of the family of curves with parametric equations $x = t + a \cos t$, $y = t + a \sin t$, where $a > 0$. How does the shape change as a increases? For what values of a does the curve have a loop?

62. Graph several members of the family of curves $x = \sin t + \sin nt$, $y = \cos t + \cos nt$, where n is a positive integer. What features do the curves have in common? What happens as n increases?

63. The curves with equations $x = a \sin nt$, $y = b \cos t$ are called **Lissajous figures**. Investigate how these curves vary when a, b, and n vary. (Take n to be a positive integer.)

64. Investigate the family of curves defined by the parametric equations $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t - \sin ct$, where $c > 0$. Start by letting c be a positive integer and see what happens to the shape as c increases. Then explore some of the possibilities that occur when c is a fraction.

DISCOVERY PROJECT | RUNNING CIRCLES AROUND CIRCLES



In this project we investigate families of curves, called *hypocycloids* and *epicycloids*, that are generated by the motion of a point on a circle that rolls inside or outside another circle.

1. A **hypocycloid** is a curve traced out by a fixed point P on a circle C of radius b as C rolls on the inside of a circle with center O and radius a. Show that if the initial position of P is $(a, 0)$ and the parameter θ is chosen as in the figure, then parametric equations of the hypocycloid are

$$x = (a - b)\cos\theta + b\cos\left(\frac{a - b}{b}\,\theta\right) \qquad y = (a - b)\sin\theta - b\sin\left(\frac{a - b}{b}\,\theta\right)$$

2. Use a graphing calculator or computer to draw the graphs of hypocycloids with a a positive integer and $b = 1$. How does the value of a affect the graph? Show that if we take $a = 4$, then the parametric equations of the hypocycloid reduce to

$$x = 4\cos^3\theta \qquad y = 4\sin^3\theta$$

This curve is called a **hypocycloid of four cusps**, or an **astroid**.

3. Now try $b = 1$ and $a = n/d$, a fraction where n and d have no common factor. First let $n = 1$ and try to determine graphically the effect of the denominator d on the shape of the graph. Then let n vary while keeping d constant. What happens when $n = d + 1$?

4. What happens if $b = 1$ and a is irrational? Experiment with an irrational number like $\sqrt{2}$ or $e - 2$. Take larger and larger values for θ and speculate on what would happen if we were to graph the hypocycloid for all real values of θ.

5. If the circle C rolls on the *outside* of the fixed circle, the curve traced out by P is called an **epicycloid**. Find parametric equations for the epicycloid.

6. Investigate the possible shapes for epicycloids. Use methods similar to Problems 2–4.

10.2 Calculus with Parametric Curves

Having seen how to represent curves by parametric equations, we now apply the methods of calculus to these parametric curves. In particular, we solve problems involving tangents, areas, arc length, speed, and surface area.

Tangents

Suppose f and g are differentiable functions and we want to find the tangent line at a point on the parametric curve $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, where y is also a differentiable function of x. Then the Chain Rule gives

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

If $dx/dt \neq 0$, we can solve for dy/dx:

If we think of the curve as being traced out by a moving particle, then dy/dt and dx/dt are the vertical and horizontal velocities of the particle and Formula 1 says that the slope of the tangent is the ratio of these velocities.

1
$$\boxed{\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\dfrac{dy}{dt}}{\dfrac{dx}{dt}} \qquad \text{if} \quad \frac{dx}{dt} \neq 0}$$

Equation 1 (which you can remember by thinking of canceling the dt's) enables us to find the slope dy/dx of the tangent to a parametric curve without having to eliminate the parameter t. We see from (1) that the curve has a horizontal tangent when $dy/dt = 0$, provided that $dx/dt \neq 0$, and it has a vertical tangent when $dx/dt = 0$, provided that $dy/dt \neq 0$. (If both $dx/dt = 0$ and $dy/dt = 0$, then we would need to use other methods to determine the slope of the tangent.) This information is useful for sketching parametric curves.

As we have learned, it is also often useful to consider d^2y/dx^2. This can be found by replacing y by dy/dx in Equation 1:

Note that $\dfrac{d^2y}{dx^2} \neq \dfrac{\dfrac{d^2y}{dt^2}}{\dfrac{d^2x}{dt^2}}$

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

EXAMPLE 1 A curve C is defined by the parametric equations $x = t^2$, $y = t^3 - 3t$.

(a) Show that C has two tangents at the point (3, 0) and find their equations.
(b) Find the points on C where the tangent is horizontal or vertical.
(c) Determine where the curve is concave upward or downward.
(d) Sketch the curve.

SOLUTION

(a) Notice that $x = 3$ for $t = \pm\sqrt{3}$ and, in both cases, $y = t(t^2 - 3) = 0$. Therefore the point (3, 0) on C arises from two values of the parameter, $t = \sqrt{3}$ and $t = -\sqrt{3}$. This indicates that C crosses itself at (3, 0). Since

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt} = \frac{3t^2 - 3}{2t}$$

the slope of the tangent when $t = \sqrt{3}$ is $dy/dx = 6/(2\sqrt{3}) = \sqrt{3}$, and when $t = -\sqrt{3}$ the slope is $dy/dx = -6/(2\sqrt{3}) = -\sqrt{3}$. Thus we have two different tangent lines at (3, 0) with equations

$$y = \sqrt{3}\,(x - 3) \qquad \text{and} \qquad y = -\sqrt{3}\,(x - 3)$$

(b) C has a horizontal tangent when $dy/dx = 0$, that is, when $dy/dt = 0$ and $dx/dt \neq 0$. Since $dy/dt = 3t^2 - 3$, this happens when $t^2 = 1$, that is, $t = \pm 1$. The corresponding points on C are $(1, -2)$ and $(1, 2)$. C has a vertical tangent when $dx/dt = 2t = 0$, that is, $t = 0$. (Note that $dy/dt \neq 0$ there.) The corresponding point on C is (0, 0).

(c) To determine concavity we calculate the second derivative:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{\dfrac{d}{dt}\left(\dfrac{dy}{dx}\right)}{\dfrac{dx}{dt}} = \frac{\dfrac{d}{dt}\left(\dfrac{3t^2-3}{2t}\right)}{\dfrac{dx}{dt}} = \frac{\dfrac{6t^2+6}{4t^2}}{2t} = \frac{3t^2+3}{4t^3}$$

Thus the curve is concave upward when $t > 0$ and concave downward when $t < 0$.

(d) Using the information from parts (b) and (c), we sketch C in Figure 1. ■

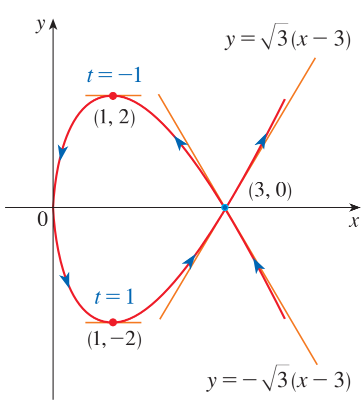


FIGURE 1

EXAMPLE 2

(a) Find the tangent to the cycloid $x = r(\theta - \sin\theta)$, $y = r(1 - \cos\theta)$ at the point where $\theta = \pi/3$. (See Example 10.1.9.)
(b) At what points is the tangent horizontal? When is it vertical?

SOLUTION

(a) The slope of the tangent line is

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/d\theta}{dx/d\theta} = \frac{r\sin\theta}{r(1-\cos\theta)} = \frac{\sin\theta}{1-\cos\theta}$$

When $\theta = \pi/3$, we have

$$x = r\left(\frac{\pi}{3} - \sin\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = r\left(\frac{\pi}{3} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) \qquad y = r\left(1 - \cos\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = \frac{r}{2}$$

and $$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\sin(\pi/3)}{1-\cos(\pi/3)} = \frac{\sqrt{3}/2}{1-\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{3}$$

Therefore the slope of the tangent is $\sqrt{3}$ and its equation is

$$y - \frac{r}{2} = \sqrt{3}\left(x - \frac{r\pi}{3} + \frac{r\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) \qquad \text{or} \qquad \sqrt{3}\,x - y = r\left(\frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}} - 2\right)$$

The tangent is sketched in Figure 2.

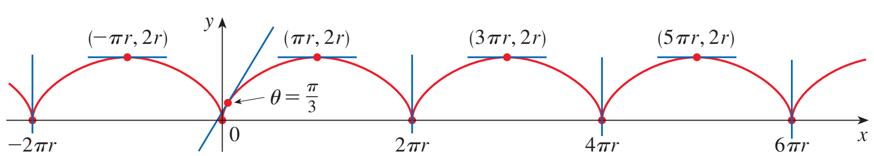


FIGURE 2

(b) The tangent is horizontal when $dy/dx = 0$, which occurs when $\sin\theta = 0$ and $1 - \cos\theta \neq 0$, that is, $\theta = (2n-1)\pi$, n an integer. The corresponding point on the cycloid is $((2n-1)\pi r, 2r)$.

When $\theta = 2n\pi$, both $dx/d\theta$ and $dy/d\theta$ are 0. It appears from the graph that there are vertical tangents at those points. We can verify this by using l'Hospital's Rule as follows:

$$\lim_{\theta\to 2n\pi^+} \frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{\theta\to 2n\pi^+} \frac{\sin\theta}{1-\cos\theta} = \lim_{\theta\to 2n\pi^+} \frac{\cos\theta}{\sin\theta} = \infty$$

A similar computation shows that $dy/dx \to -\infty$ as $\theta \to 2n\pi^-$, so indeed there are vertical tangents when $\theta = 2n\pi$, that is, when $x = 2n\pi r$. (See Figure 2.) ■

■ Areas

We know that the area under a curve $y = F(x)$ from a to b is $A = \int_a^b F(x)\,dx$, where $F(x) \geqslant 0$. If the curve is traced out once by the parametric equations $x = f(t)$ and $y = g(t)$, $\alpha \leqslant t \leqslant \beta$, then we can calculate an area formula by using the Substitution Rule for Definite Integrals as follows:

The limits of integration for t are found as usual with the Substitution Rule. When $x = a$, t is either α or β. When $x = b$, t is the remaining value.

$$A = \int_a^b y\,dx = \int_\alpha^\beta g(t)f'(t)\,dt \qquad \left[\text{or} \quad \int_\beta^\alpha g(t)f'(t)\,dt\right]$$

EXAMPLE 3 Find the area under one arch of the cycloid

$$x = r(\theta - \sin\theta) \qquad y = r(1 - \cos\theta)$$

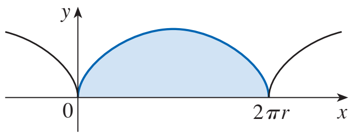


FIGURE 3

The result of Example 3 says that the area under one arch of the cycloid is three times the area of the rolling circle that generates the cycloid (see Example 10.1.9). Galileo guessed this result but it was first proved by the French mathematician Roberval and the Italian mathematician Torricelli.

SOLUTION One arch of the cycloid (shown in Figure 3) is given by $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$. Using the Substitution Rule with $y = r(1 - \cos\theta)$ and $dx = r(1 - \cos\theta)\,d\theta$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
A &= \int_0^{2\pi r} y\,dx = \int_0^{2\pi} r(1 - \cos\theta)\,r(1 - \cos\theta)\,d\theta \\
&= r^2 \int_0^{2\pi} (1 - \cos\theta)^2\,d\theta = r^2 \int_0^{2\pi} (1 - 2\cos\theta + \cos^2\theta)\,d\theta \\
&= r^2 \int_0^{2\pi} \left[1 - 2\cos\theta + \tfrac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2\theta)\right] d\theta \\
&= r^2 \left[\tfrac{3}{2}\theta - 2\sin\theta + \tfrac{1}{4}\sin 2\theta\right]_0^{2\pi} \\
&= r^2\left(\tfrac{3}{2} \cdot 2\pi\right) = 3\pi r^2
\end{aligned}$$

Arc Length

We already know how to find the length L of a curve C given in the form $y = F(x)$, $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$. Formula 8.1.3 says that if F' is continuous, then

$$\boxed{2} \qquad L = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}\,dx$$

Suppose that C can also be described by the parametric equations $x = f(t)$ and $y = g(t)$, $\alpha \leqslant t \leqslant \beta$, where $dx/dt = f'(t) > 0$. This means that C is traversed once, from left to right, as t increases from α to β and $f(\alpha) = a$, $f(\beta) = b$. Putting Formula 1 into Formula 2 and using the Substitution Rule, we obtain

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}\,dx = \int_\alpha^\beta \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt}\right)^2}\,\frac{dx}{dt}\,dt$$

Since $dx/dt > 0$, we have

$$\boxed{3} \qquad L = \int_\alpha^\beta \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}\,dt$$

Even if C can't be expressed in the form $y = F(x)$, Formula 3 is still valid but we obtain it by polygonal approximations. We divide the parameter interval $[\alpha, \beta]$ into n subintervals of equal width Δt. If $t_0, t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n$ are the endpoints of these subintervals, then $x_i = f(t_i)$ and $y_i = g(t_i)$ are the coordinates of points $P_i(x_i, y_i)$ that lie on C and the polygonal path with vertices $P_0, P_1, \ldots, P_n$ approximates C. (See Figure 4.)

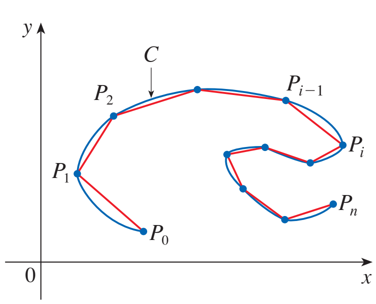


FIGURE 4

As in Section 8.1, we define the length L of C to be the limit of the lengths of these approximating polygonal paths as $n \to \infty$:

$$L = \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |P_{i-1}P_i|$$

The Mean Value Theorem, when applied to f on the interval $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$, gives a number t_i^* in (t_{i-1}, t_i) such that

$$f(t_i) - f(t_{i-1}) = f'(t_i^*)(t_i - t_{i-1})$$

Let $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$ and $\Delta y_i = y_i - y_{i-1}$. Then the preceding equation becomes

$$\Delta x_i = f'(t_i^*)\,\Delta t$$

Similarly, when applied to g, the Mean Value Theorem gives a number t_i^{**} in (t_{i-1}, t_i) such that

$$\Delta y_i = g'(t_i^{**})\,\Delta t$$

Therefore

$$|P_{i-1}P_i| = \sqrt{(\Delta x_i)^2 + (\Delta y_i)^2} = \sqrt{[f'(t_i^*)\,\Delta t]^2 + [g'(t_i^{**})\,\Delta t]^2}$$
$$= \sqrt{[f'(t_i^*)]^2 + [g'(t_i^{**})]^2}\;\Delta t$$

and so

4
$$L = \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sqrt{[f'(t_i^*)]^2 + [g'(t_i^{**})]^2}\;\Delta t$$

The sum in (4) resembles a Riemann sum for the function $\sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2}$ but it is not exactly a Riemann sum because $t_i^* \neq t_i^{**}$ in general. Nevertheless, if f' and g' are continuous, it can be shown that the limit in (4) is the same as if t_i^* and t_i^{**} were equal, namely,

$$L = \int_\alpha^\beta \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2}\;dt$$

Thus, using Leibniz notation, we have the following result, which has the same form as Formula 3.

5 Theorem If a curve C is described by the parametric equations $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, $\alpha \leqslant t \leqslant \beta$, where f' and g' are continuous on $[\alpha, \beta]$ and C is traversed exactly once as t increases from α to β, then the length of C is

$$L = \int_\alpha^\beta \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}\;dt$$

Notice that the formula in Theorem 5 is consistent with the general formula $L = \int ds$ of Section 8.1, where

6
$$ds = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}\;dt$$

EXAMPLE 4 If we use the representation of the unit circle given in Example 10.1.2,

$$x = \cos t \qquad y = \sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

then $dx/dt = -\sin t$ and $dy/dt = \cos t$, so Theorem 5 gives

$$L = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}\;dt = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t}\;dt = \int_0^{2\pi} dt = 2\pi$$

as expected. If, on the other hand, we use the representation given in Example 10.1.3,

$$x = \sin 2t \qquad y = \cos 2t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

then $dx/dt = 2\cos 2t$, $dy/dt = -2\sin 2t$, and the integral in Theorem 5 gives

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}\;dt = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{4\cos^2(2t) + 4\sin^2(2t)}\;dt = \int_0^{2\pi} 2\,dt = 4\pi$$

Notice that the integral gives twice the arc length of the circle because as t increases from 0 to 2π, the point $(\sin 2t, \cos 2t)$ traverses the circle twice. In general, when finding the length of a curve C from a parametric representation, we have to be careful to ensure that C is traversed only once as t increases from α to β. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Find the length of one arch of the cycloid $x = r(\theta - \sin\theta)$, $y = r(1 - \cos\theta)$.

SOLUTION From Example 3 we see that one arch is described by the parameter interval $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$. Since

$$\frac{dx}{d\theta} = r(1 - \cos\theta) \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{dy}{d\theta} = r\sin\theta$$

we have

$$L = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{d\theta}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{d\theta}\right)^2}\, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{r^2(1 - \cos\theta)^2 + r^2\sin^2\theta}\, d\theta$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{r^2(1 - 2\cos\theta + \cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta)}\, d\theta$$

$$= r\int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{2(1 - \cos\theta)}\, d\theta$$

The result of Example 5 says that the length of one arch of a cycloid is eight times the radius of the generating circle (see Figure 5). This was first proved in 1658 by Sir Christopher Wren, who later became the architect of St. Paul's Cathedral in London.

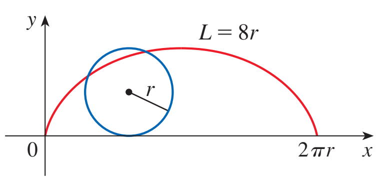


FIGURE 5

To evaluate this integral we use the identity $\sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x)$ with $\theta = 2x$, which gives $1 - \cos\theta = 2\sin^2(\theta/2)$. Since $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$, we have $0 \leqslant \theta/2 \leqslant \pi$ and so $\sin(\theta/2) \geqslant 0$. Therefore

$$\sqrt{2(1 - \cos\theta)} = \sqrt{4\sin^2(\theta/2)} = 2\left|\sin(\theta/2)\right| = 2\sin(\theta/2)$$

and so

$$L = 2r\int_0^{2\pi} \sin(\theta/2)\, d\theta = 2r\Big[-2\cos(\theta/2)\Big]_0^{2\pi}$$

$$= 2r[2 + 2] = 8r$$ ■

The arc length function and speed

Recall that the arc length function (Formula 8.1.5) gives the length of a curve from an initial point to any other point on the curve. For a parametric curve C given by $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, where f' and g' are continuous, we let $s(t)$ be the arc length along C from an initial point $(f(\alpha), g(\alpha))$ to a point $(f(t), g(t))$ on C. By Theorem 5, the **arc length function** s for parametric curves is

7
$$s(t) = \int_\alpha^t \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{du}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{du}\right)^2}\, du$$

(We have replaced the variable of integration by u so that t does not have two meanings.)

If parametric equations describe the position of a moving particle (with t representing time), then the **speed** of the particle at time t, $v(t)$, is the rate of change of distance traveled (arc length) with respect to time: $s'(t)$. By Equation 7 and Part 1 of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, we have

8
$$\boxed{v(t) = s'(t) = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}}$$

EXAMPLE 6 The position of a particle at time t is given by the parametric equations $x = 2t + 3$, $y = 4t^2$, $t \geqslant 0$. Find the speed of the particle when it is at the point $(5, 4)$.

SOLUTION By Equation 8, the speed of the particle at any time t is

$$v(t) = \sqrt{2^2 + (8t)^2} = 2\sqrt{1 + 16t^2}$$

The particle is at the point $(5, 4)$ when $t = 1$, so its speed at that point is $v(1) = 2\sqrt{17} \approx 8.25$. (If distance is measured in meters and time in seconds, then the speed is approximately 8.25 m/s.) ■

Surface Area

In the same way as for arc length, we can adapt Formula 8.2.5 to obtain a formula for surface area. Suppose a curve C is given by the parametric equations $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, $\alpha \leqslant t \leqslant \beta$, where f', g' are continuous, $g(t) \geqslant 0$, and C is traversed exactly once as t increases from α to β. If C is rotated about the x-axis, then the area of the resulting surface is given by

9 $$S = \int_\alpha^\beta 2\pi y \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}\, dt$$

The general symbolic formulas $S = \int 2\pi y\, ds$ and $S = \int 2\pi x\, ds$ (Formulas 8.2.7 and 8.2.8) are still valid, where ds is given by Formula 6.

EXAMPLE 7 Show that the surface area of a sphere of radius r is $4\pi r^2$.

SOLUTION The sphere is obtained by rotating the semicircle

$$x = r\cos t \qquad y = r\sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$$

about the x-axis. Therefore, from Formula 9, we get

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \int_0^\pi 2\pi r\sin t\,\sqrt{(-r\sin t)^2 + (r\cos t)^2}\, dt \\ &= 2\pi \int_0^\pi r\sin t\,\sqrt{r^2(\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t)}\, dt = 2\pi \int_0^\pi r\sin t \cdot r\, dt \\ &= 2\pi r^2 \int_0^\pi \sin t\, dt = 2\pi r^2(-\cos t)\Big]_0^\pi = 4\pi r^2 \end{aligned}$$ ■

10.2 Exercises

1–4 Find dx/dt, dy/dt, and dy/dx.

1. $x = 2t^3 + 3t$, $y = 4t - 5t^2$

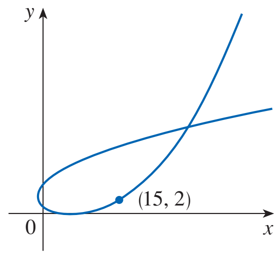
2. $x = t - \ln t$, $y = t^2 - t^{-2}$

3. $x = te^t$, $y = t + \sin t$

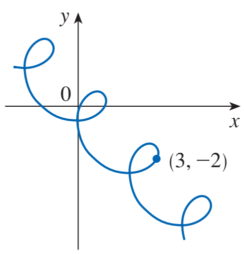
4. $x = t + \sin(t^2 + 2)$, $y = \tan(t^2 + 2)$

5–6 Find the slope of the tangent to the parametric curve at the indicated point.

5. $x = t^2 + 2t, \quad y = 2^t - 2t$



6. $x = t + \cos \pi t, \quad y = -t + \sin \pi t$



7–10 Find an equation of the tangent to the curve at the point corresponding to the given value of the parameter.

7. $x = t^3 + 1, \quad y = t^4 + t; \quad t = -1$

8. $x = \sqrt{t}, \quad y = t^2 - 2t; \quad t = 4$

9. $x = \sin 2t + \cos t, \quad y = \cos 2t - \sin t; \quad t = \pi$

10. $x = e^t \sin \pi t, \quad y = e^{2t}; \quad t = 0$

11–12 Find an equation of the tangent to the curve at the given point by two methods: (a) without eliminating the parameter and (b) by first eliminating the parameter.

11. $x = \sin t, \quad y = \cos^2 t; \quad \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}\right)$

12. $x = \sqrt{t + 4}, \quad y = 1/(t + 4); \quad \left(2, \frac{1}{4}\right)$

13–14 Find an equation of the tangent to the curve at the given point. Then graph the curve and the tangent.

13. $x = t^2 - t, \quad y = t^2 + t + 1; \quad (0, 3)$

14. $x = \sin \pi t, \quad y = t^2 + t; \quad (0, 2)$

15–20 Find dy/dx and d^2y/dx^2. For which values of t is the curve concave upward?

15. $x = t^2 + 1, \quad y = t^2 + t$

16. $x = t^3 + 1, \quad y = t^2 - t$

17. $x = e^t, \quad y = te^{-t}$

18. $x = t^2 + 1, \quad y = e^t - 1$

19. $x = t - \ln t, \quad y = t + \ln t$

20. $x = \cos t, \quad y = \sin 2t, \quad 0 < t < \pi$

21–24 Find the points on the curve where the tangent is horizontal or vertical. You may want to use a graph from a calculator or computer to check your work.

21. $x = t^3 - 3t, \quad y = t^2 - 3$

22. $x = t^3 - 3t, \quad y = t^3 - 3t^2$

23. $x = \cos \theta, \quad y = \cos 3\theta$

24. $x = e^{\sin \theta}, \quad y = e^{\cos \theta}$

25. Use a graph to estimate the coordinates of the rightmost point on the curve $x = t - t^6$, $y = e^t$. Then use calculus to find the exact coordinates.

26. Use a graph to estimate the coordinates of the lowest point and the leftmost point on the curve $x = t^4 - 2t$, $y = t + t^4$. Then find the exact coordinates.

27–28 Graph the curve in a viewing rectangle that displays all the important aspects of the curve.

27. $x = t^4 - 2t^3 - 2t^2, \quad y = t^3 - t$

28. $x = t^4 + 4t^3 - 8t^2, \quad y = 2t^2 - t$

29. Show that the curve $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t \cos t$ has two tangents at $(0, 0)$ and find their equations. Graph the curve.

30. Graph the curve $x = -2 \cos t$, $y = \sin t + \sin 2t$ to discover where it crosses itself. Then find equations of both tangents at that point.

31. (a) Find the slope of the tangent line to the trochoid $x = r\theta - d \sin \theta$, $y = r - d \cos \theta$ in terms of θ. (See Exercise 10.1.49.)
(b) Show that if $d < r$, then the trochoid does not have a vertical tangent.

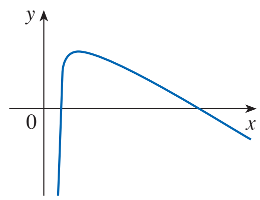
32. (a) Find the slope of the tangent to the astroid $x = a \cos^3\theta$, $y = a \sin^3\theta$ in terms of θ. (Astroids are explored in the Discovery Project following Section 10.1.)
(b) At what points is the tangent horizontal or vertical?
(c) At what points does the tangent have slope 1 or -1?

33. At what point(s) on the curve $x = 3t^2 + 1$, $y = t^3 - 1$ does the tangent line have slope $\frac{1}{2}$?

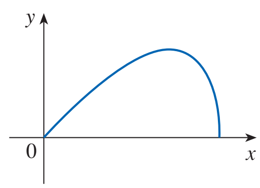
34. Find equations of the tangents to the curve $x = 3t^2 + 1$, $y = 2t^3 + 1$ that pass through the point $(4, 3)$.

35–36 Find the area enclosed by the given parametric curve and the x-axis.

35. $x = t^3 + 1, \quad y = 2t - t^2$

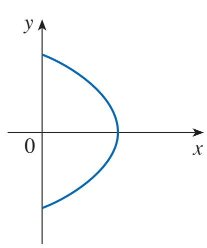


36. $x = \sin t, \quad y = \sin t \cos t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/2$

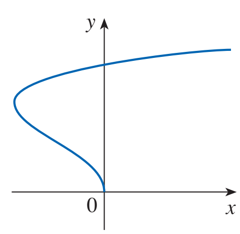


37–38 Find the area enclosed by the given parametric curve and the y-axis.

37. $x = \sin^2 t,$
$y = \cos t$



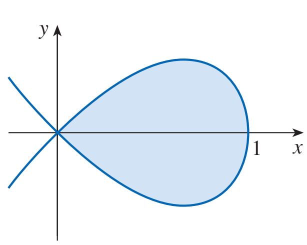
38. $x = t^2 - 2t,$
$y = \sqrt{t}$



39. Use the parametric equations of an ellipse, $x = a \cos \theta$, $y = b \sin \theta$, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$, to find the area that it encloses.

40. Find the area of the region enclosed by the loop of the curve

$$x = 1 - t^2, \quad y = t - t^3$$

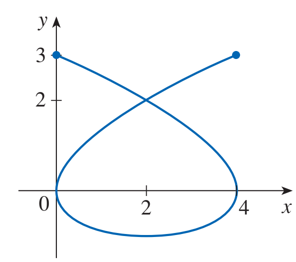


41. Find the area under one arch of the trochoid of Exercise 10.1.49 for the case $d < r$.

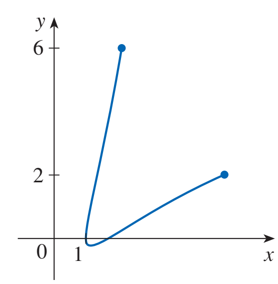
42. Let $\mathcal{R}$ be the region enclosed by the loop of the curve in Example 1.
(a) Find the area of $\mathcal{R}$.
(b) If $\mathcal{R}$ is rotated about the x-axis, find the volume of the resulting solid.
(c) Find the centroid of $\mathcal{R}$.

T **43–46** Set up an integral that represents the length of the part of the parametric curve shown in the graph. Then use a calculator (or computer) to find the length correct to four decimal places.

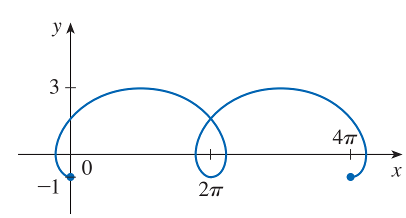
43. $x = 3t^2 - t^3, \quad y = t^2 - 2t$



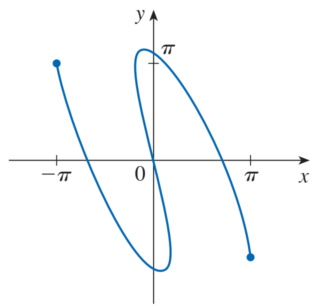
44. $x = t + e^{-t}, \quad y = t^2 + t$



45. $x = t - 2 \sin t, \quad y = 1 - 2 \cos t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 4\pi$



46. $x = t\cos t, \quad y = t - 5\sin t$



47–50 Find the exact length of the curve.

47. $x = \frac{2}{3}t^3, \quad y = t^2 - 2, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$

48. $x = e^t - t, \quad y = 4e^{t/2}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

49. $x = t\sin t, \quad y = t\cos t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

50. $x = 3\cos t - \cos 3t, \quad y = 3\sin t - \sin 3t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$

51–52 Graph the curve and find its exact length.

51. $x = e^t \cos t, \quad y = e^t \sin t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$

52. $x = \cos t + \ln\left(\tan \frac{1}{2}t\right), \quad y = \sin t, \quad \pi/4 \leqslant t \leqslant 3\pi/4$

53. Graph the curve $x = \sin t + \sin 1.5t$, $y = \cos t$ and find its length correct to four decimal places.

54. Find the length of the loop of the curve $x = 3t - t^3$, $y = 3t^2$.

55–56 Find the distance traveled by a particle with position (x, y) as t varies in the given time interval. Compare with the length of the curve.

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

56. $x = \cos^2 t, \quad y = \cos t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 4\pi$

57–60 The parametric equations give the position (in meters) of a moving particle at time t (in seconds). Find the speed of the particle at the indicated time or point.

57. $x = 2t - 3, \quad y = 2t^2 - 3t + 6; \quad t = 5$

58. $x = 2 + 5\cos\left(\dfrac{\pi}{3}t\right), \quad y = -2 + 7\sin\left(\dfrac{\pi}{3}t\right); \quad t = 3$

59. $x = e^t, \quad y = te^t; \quad (e, e)$

60. $x = t^2 + 1, \quad y = t^4 + 2t^2 + 1; \quad (2, 4)$

61. A projectile is fired from the point $(0, 0)$ with an initial velocity of v_0 m/s at an angle α above the horizontal. (See Exercise 10.1.58.) If we assume that air resistance is negligible, then the position (in meters) of the projectile after t seconds is given by the parametric equations

$$x = (v_0 \cos\alpha)t \qquad y = (v_0 \sin\alpha)t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2$$

where $g = 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$ is the acceleration due to gravity.
(a) Find the speed of the projectile when it hits the ground.
(b) Find the speed of the projectile at its highest point.

62. Show that the total length of the ellipse $x = a\sin\theta$, $y = b\cos\theta$, $a > b > 0$, is

$$L = 4a\int_0^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1 - e^2\sin^2\theta}\, d\theta$$

where e is the eccentricity of the ellipse $\left(e = c/a,\right.$ where $\left.c = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2}\right)$.

63. (a) Graph the **epitrochoid** with equations

$$x = 11\cos t - 4\cos(11t/2)$$
$$y = 11\sin t - 4\sin(11t/2)$$

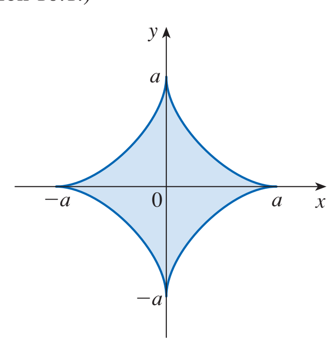
What parameter interval gives the complete curve?
(b) Use a calculator or computer to find the approximate length of this curve.

64. A curve called **Cornu's spiral** is defined by the parametric equations

$$x = C(t) = \int_0^t \cos(\pi u^2/2)\, du$$
$$y = S(t) = \int_0^t \sin(\pi u^2/2)\, du$$

where C and S are the Fresnel functions that were introduced in Chapter 5.
(a) Graph this curve. What happens as $t \to \infty$ and as $t \to -\infty$?
(b) Find the length of Cornu's spiral from the origin to the point with parameter value t.

65–66 The curve shown in the figure is the astroid $x = a\cos^3\theta$, $y = a\sin^3\theta$. (Astroids are explored in the Discovery Project following Section 10.1.)



65. Find the area of the region enclosed by the astroid.

66. Find the perimeter of the astroid.

67–70 Set up an integral that represents the area of the surface obtained by rotating the given curve about the x-axis. Then use a calculator or computer to find the surface area correct to four decimal places.

67. $x = t\sin t, \quad y = t\cos t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/2$

68. $x = \sin t, \quad y = \sin 2t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/2$

69. $x = t + e^t, \quad y = e^{-t}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

70. $x = t^2 - t^3, \quad y = t + t^4, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

71–73 Find the exact area of the surface obtained by rotating the given curve about the x-axis.

71. $x = t^3, \quad y = t^2, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

72. $x = 2t^2 + 1/t, \quad y = 8\sqrt{t}, \quad 1 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$

73. $x = a\cos^3\theta, \quad y = a\sin^3\theta, \quad 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/2$

74. Graph the curve

$$x = 2\cos\theta - \cos 2\theta$$
$$y = 2\sin\theta - \sin 2\theta$$

If this curve is rotated about the x-axis, find the exact area of the resulting surface. (Use your graph to help find the correct parameter interval.)

75–76 Find the surface area generated by rotating the given curve about the y-axis.

75. $x = 3t^2, \quad y = 2t^3, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 5$

76. $x = e^t - t, \quad y = 4e^{t/2}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

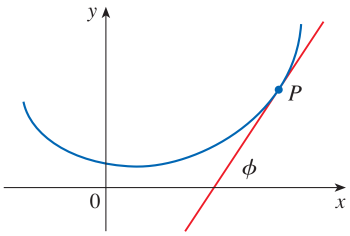
77. If f' is continuous and $f'(t) \neq 0$ for $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, show that the parametric curve $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, can be put in the form $y = F(x)$. [*Hint:* Show that f^{-1} exists.]

78. Use Formula 1 to derive Formula 9 from Formula 8.2.5 for the case in which the curve can be represented in the form $y = F(x)$, $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$.

79–83 Curvature The *curvature* at a point P of a curve is defined as

$$\kappa = \left| \frac{d\phi}{ds} \right|$$

where ϕ is the angle of inclination of the tangent line at P, as shown in the figure. Thus the curvature is the absolute value of the rate of change of ϕ with respect to arc length. It can be regarded as a measure of the rate of change of direction of the curve at P and will be studied in greater detail in Chapter 13.



79. For a parametric curve $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$, derive the formula

$$\kappa = \frac{|\dot{x}\ddot{y} - \ddot{x}\dot{y}|}{[\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2]^{3/2}}$$

where the dots indicate derivatives with respect to t, so $\dot{x} = dx/dt$. [*Hint:* Use $\phi = \tan^{-1}(dy/dx)$ and Formula 2 to find $d\phi/dt$. Then use the Chain Rule to find $d\phi/ds$.]

80. By regarding a curve $y = f(x)$ as the parametric curve $x = x$, $y = f(x)$ with parameter x, show that the formula in Exercise 79 becomes

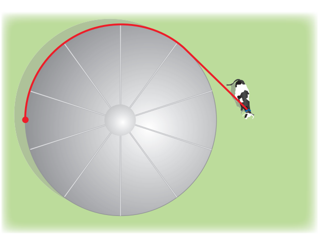
$$\kappa = \frac{|d^2y/dx^2|}{[1 + (dy/dx)^2]^{3/2}}$$

81. Use the formula in Exercise 79 to find the curvature of the cycloid $x = \theta - \sin\theta$, $y = 1 - \cos\theta$ at the top of one of its arches.

82. (a) Use the formula in Exercise 80 to find the curvature of the parabola $y = x^2$ at the point $(1, 1)$.
(b) At what point does this parabola have maximum curvature?

83. (a) Show that the curvature at each point of a straight line is $\kappa = 0$.
(b) Show that the curvature at each point of a circle of radius r is $\kappa = 1/r$.

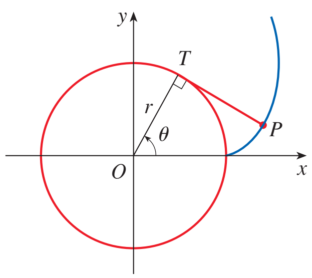
84. A cow is tied to a silo with radius r by a rope just long enough to reach the opposite side of the silo. Find the grazing area available for the cow.



85. A string is wound around a circle and then unwound while being held taut. The curve traced by the point P at the end of the string is called the **involute** of the circle. If the circle has radius r and center O and the initial position of P is $(r, 0)$, and if the parameter θ is chosen as in the figure, show that parametric equations of the involute are

$$x = r(\cos\theta + \theta\sin\theta)$$

$$y = r(\sin\theta - \theta\cos\theta)$$



DISCOVERY PROJECT | BÉZIER CURVES

Bézier curves are used in computer-aided design (CAD) and are named after the French mathematician Pierre Bézier (1910–1999), who worked in the automotive industry. A cubic Bézier curve is determined by four *control points*, $P_0(x_0, y_0)$, $P_1(x_1, y_1)$, $P_2(x_2, y_2)$, and $P_3(x_3, y_3)$, and is defined by the parametric equations

$$x = x_0(1 - t)^3 + 3x_1t(1 - t)^2 + 3x_2t^2(1 - t) + x_3t^3$$

$$y = y_0(1 - t)^3 + 3y_1t(1 - t)^2 + 3y_2t^2(1 - t) + y_3t^3$$

where $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$. Notice that when $t = 0$ we have $(x, y) = (x_0, y_0)$ and when $t = 1$ we have $(x, y) = (x_3, y_3)$, so the curve starts at P_0 and ends at P_3.

1. Graph the Bézier curve with control points $P_0(4, 1)$, $P_1(28, 48)$, $P_2(50, 42)$, and $P_3(40, 5)$. Then, on the same screen, graph the line segments P_0P_1, P_1P_2, and P_2P_3. (Exercise 10.1.37 shows how to do this.) Notice that the middle control points P_1 and P_2 don't lie on the curve; the curve starts at P_0, heads toward P_1 and P_2 without reaching them, and ends at P_3.

2. From the graph in Problem 1, it appears that the tangent at P_0 passes through P_1 and the tangent at P_3 passes through P_2. Prove it.

3. Try to produce a Bézier curve with a loop by changing the second control point in Problem 1.

4. Some laser printers use Bézier curves to represent letters and other symbols. Experiment with control points until you find a Bézier curve that gives a reasonable representation of the letter C.

5. More complicated shapes can be represented by piecing together two or more Bézier curves. Suppose the first Bézier curve has control points P_0, P_1, P_2, P_3 and the second one has control points P_3, P_4, P_5, P_6. If we want these two pieces to join together smoothly, then the tangents at P_3 should match and so the points P_2, P_3, and P_4 all have to lie on this common tangent line. Using this principle, find control points for a pair of Bézier curves that represent the letter S.

10.3 Polar Coordinates

A coordinate system represents a point in the plane by an ordered pair of numbers called coordinates. Usually we use Cartesian coordinates, which are directed distances from two perpendicular axes. Here we describe a coordinate system introduced by Newton, called the *polar coordinate system*, which is more convenient for many purposes.

The Polar Coordinate System

We choose a point in the plane that is called the **pole** (or origin) and is labeled O. Then we draw a ray (half-line) starting at O called the **polar axis**. This axis is usually drawn horizontally to the right and corresponds to the positive x-axis in Cartesian coordinates.

If P is any other point in the plane, let r be the distance from O to P and let θ be the angle (usually measured in radians) between the polar axis and the line OP as in Figure 1. Then the point P is represented by the ordered pair (r, θ) and r, θ are called **polar coordinates** of P. We use the convention that an angle is positive if measured in the counterclockwise direction from the polar axis and negative in the clockwise direction. If $P = O$, then $r = 0$ and we agree that $(0, \theta)$ represents the pole for any value of θ.

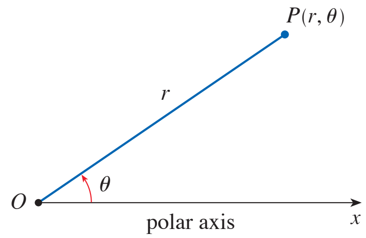


FIGURE 1

We extend the meaning of polar coordinates (r, θ) to the case in which r is negative by agreeing that, as in Figure 2, the points $(-r, \theta)$ and (r, θ) lie on the same line through O and at the same distance $|r|$ from O, but on opposite sides of O. If $r > 0$, the point (r, θ) lies in the same quadrant as θ; if $r < 0$, it lies in the quadrant on the opposite side of the pole. Notice that $(-r, \theta)$ represents the same point as $(r, \theta + \pi)$.

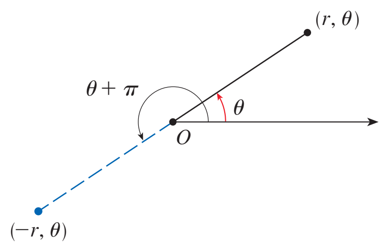


FIGURE 2

EXAMPLE 1 Plot the points whose polar coordinates are given.

(a) $(1, 5\pi/4)$ (b) $(2, 3\pi)$ (c) $(2, -2\pi/3)$ (d) $(-3, 3\pi/4)$

SOLUTION The points are plotted in Figure 3. In part (d) the point $(-3, 3\pi/4)$ is located three units from the pole in the fourth quadrant because the angle $3\pi/4$ is in the second quadrant and $r = -3$ is negative. ■

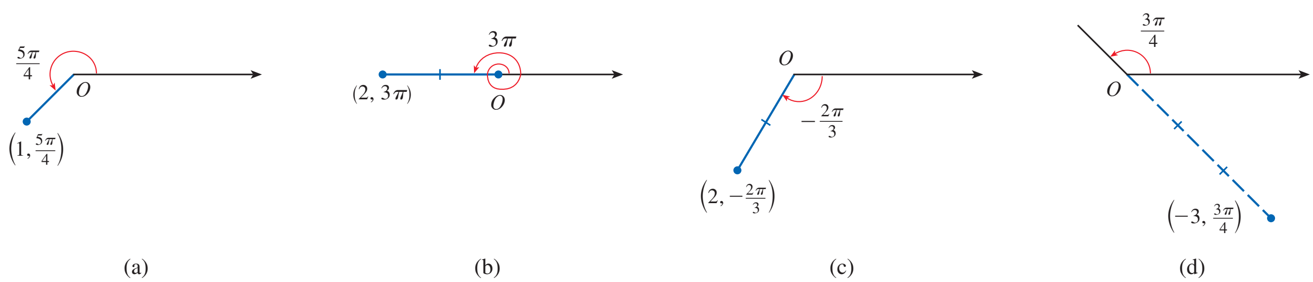


FIGURE 3

In the Cartesian coordinate system every point has only one representation, but in the polar coordinate system each point has many representations. For instance, the point $(1, 5\pi/4)$ in Example 1(a) could be written as $(1, -3\pi/4)$ or $(1, 13\pi/4)$ or $(-1, \pi/4)$. (See Figure 4.)

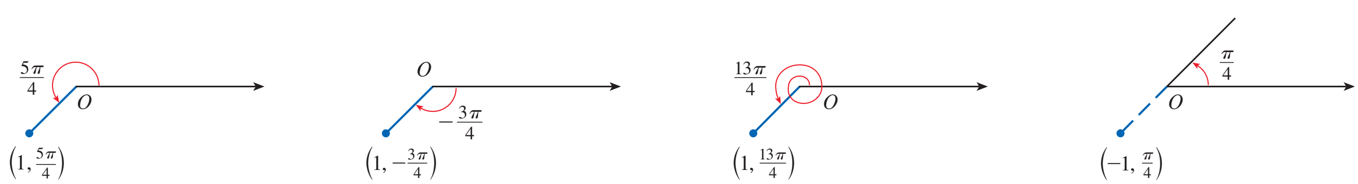


FIGURE 4

In fact, since a complete counterclockwise rotation is given by an angle 2π, the point represented by polar coordinates (r, θ) is also represented by

$$(r, \theta + 2n\pi) \qquad \text{and} \qquad (-r, \theta + (2n + 1)\pi)$$

where n is any integer.

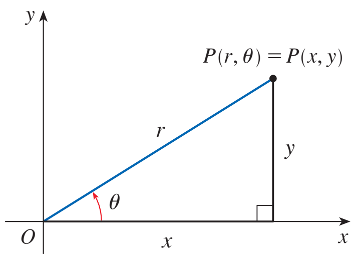


FIGURE 5

Relationship between Polar and Cartesian Coordinates

The connection between polar and Cartesian coordinates can be seen from Figure 5, in which the pole corresponds to the origin and the polar axis coincides with the positive x-axis. If the point P has Cartesian coordinates (x, y) and polar coordinates (r, θ), then, from the figure, we have $\cos\theta = x/r$ and $\sin\theta = y/r$. So to find the Cartesian coordinates (x, y) when the polar coordinates (r, θ) are known, we use the equations

1 $$\boxed{x = r\cos\theta \qquad y = r\sin\theta}$$

To find polar coordinates (r, θ) when the Cartesian coordinates (x, y) are known, we use the equations

2 $$\boxed{r^2 = x^2 + y^2 \qquad \tan\theta = \frac{y}{x}}$$

which can be deduced from Equations 1 or simply read from Figure 5.

Although Equations 1 and 2 were deduced from Figure 5, which illustrates the case where $r > 0$ and $0 < \theta < \pi/2$, these equations are valid for all values of r and θ. (See the general definition of $\sin\theta$ and $\cos\theta$ in Appendix D.)

EXAMPLE 2 Convert the point $(2, \pi/3)$ from polar to Cartesian coordinates.

SOLUTION Since $r = 2$ and $\theta = \pi/3$, Equations 1 give

$$x = r\cos\theta = 2\cos\frac{\pi}{3} = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

$$y = r\sin\theta = 2\sin\frac{\pi}{3} = 2 \cdot \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = \sqrt{3}$$

Therefore the point is $(1, \sqrt{3})$ in Cartesian coordinates. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Represent the point with Cartesian coordinates $(1, -1)$ in terms of polar coordinates.

SOLUTION If we choose r to be positive, then Equations 2 give

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \sqrt{1^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{2}$$

$$\tan\theta = \frac{y}{x} = -1$$

Since the point $(1, -1)$ lies in the fourth quadrant, we can choose $\theta = -\pi/4$ or $\theta = 7\pi/4$. Thus one possible answer is $(\sqrt{2}, -\pi/4)$; another is $(\sqrt{2}, 7\pi/4)$. ■

NOTE Equations 2 do not uniquely determine θ when x and y are given because, as θ increases through the interval $0 \leqslant \theta < 2\pi$, each value of $\tan\theta$ occurs twice. Therefore, in converting from Cartesian to polar coordinates, it's not good enough just to find r and θ that satisfy Equations 2. As in Example 3, we must choose θ so that the point (r, θ) lies in the correct quadrant.

Polar Curves

The **graph of a polar equation** $r = f(\theta)$, or more generally $F(r, \theta) = 0$, consists of all points P that have at least one polar representation (r, θ) whose coordinates satisfy the equation.

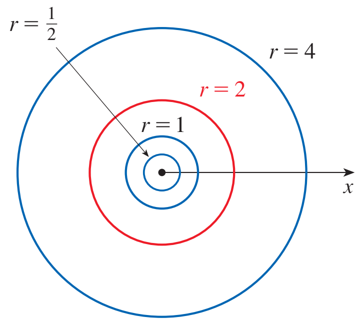


FIGURE 6

EXAMPLE 4 What curve is represented by the polar equation $r = 2$?

SOLUTION The curve consists of all points (r, θ) with $r = 2$. Since r represents the distance from the point to the pole, the curve $r = 2$ represents the circle with center O and radius 2. In general, the equation $r = a$ represents a circle with center O and radius $|a|$. (See Figure 6.) ■

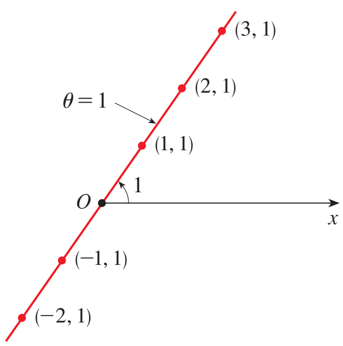


FIGURE 7

EXAMPLE 5 Sketch the polar curve $\theta = 1$.

SOLUTION This curve consists of all points (r, θ) such that the polar angle θ is 1 radian. It is the straight line that passes through O and makes an angle of 1 radian with the polar axis (see Figure 7). Notice that the points $(r, 1)$ on the line with $r > 0$ are in the first quadrant, whereas those with $r < 0$ are in the third quadrant. ■

EXAMPLE 6

(a) Sketch the curve with polar equation $r = 2 \cos \theta$.

(b) Find a Cartesian equation for this curve.

SOLUTION

(a) In Figure 8 we find the values of r for some convenient values of θ and plot the corresponding points (r, θ). Then we join these points to sketch the curve, which appears to be a circle. We have used only values of θ between 0 and π, because if we let θ increase beyond π, we obtain the same points again.

θ	$r = 2\cos\theta$
0	2
$\pi/6$	$\sqrt{3}$
$\pi/4$	$\sqrt{2}$
$\pi/3$	1
$\pi/2$	0
$2\pi/3$	-1
$3\pi/4$	$-\sqrt{2}$
$5\pi/6$	$-\sqrt{3}$
π	-2

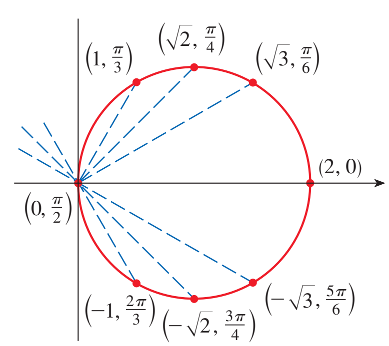


FIGURE 8
Table of values and graph of $r = 2\cos\theta$

(b) To convert the given equation to a Cartesian equation we use Equations 1 and 2. From $x = r \cos \theta$ we have $\cos \theta = x/r$, so the equation $r = 2 \cos \theta$ becomes $r = 2x/r$, which gives

$$2x = r^2 = x^2 + y^2 \qquad \text{or} \qquad x^2 + y^2 - 2x = 0$$

Completing the square, we obtain

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

which is an equation of a circle with center $(1, 0)$ and radius 1. ■

Figure 9 shows a geometric illustration that the circle in Example 6 has the equation $r = 2\cos\theta$. The angle OPQ is a right angle (why?) and so $r/2 = \cos\theta$.

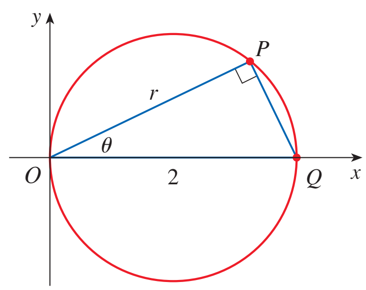


FIGURE 9

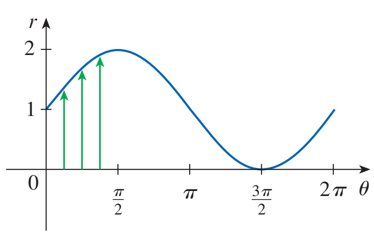


FIGURE 10
$r = 1 + \sin\theta$ in Cartesian coordinates, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$

EXAMPLE 7 Sketch the curve $r = 1 + \sin\theta$.

SOLUTION Instead of plotting points as in Example 6, we first sketch the graph of $r = 1 + \sin\theta$ in *Cartesian* coordinates in Figure 10 by shifting the sine curve up one unit. This enables us to read at a glance the values of r that correspond to increasing values of θ. For instance, we see that as θ increases from 0 to $\pi/2$, r (the distance from O) increases from 1 to 2 (see the corresponding green arrows in Figures 10 and 11), so we sketch the corresponding part of the polar curve in Figure 11(a). As θ increases from $\pi/2$ to π, Figure 10 shows that r decreases from 2 to 1, so we sketch the next part of the curve as in Figure 11(b). As θ increases from π to $3\pi/2$, r decreases from 1 to 0 as shown in part (c). Finally, as θ increases from $3\pi/2$ to 2π, r increases from 0 to 1 as shown in part (d). If we let θ increase beyond 2π or decrease beyond 0, we would simply retrace this path. Putting together the parts of the curve from Figure 11(a)–(d), we sketch the complete curve in part (e). It is called a **cardioid** because it's shaped like a heart.

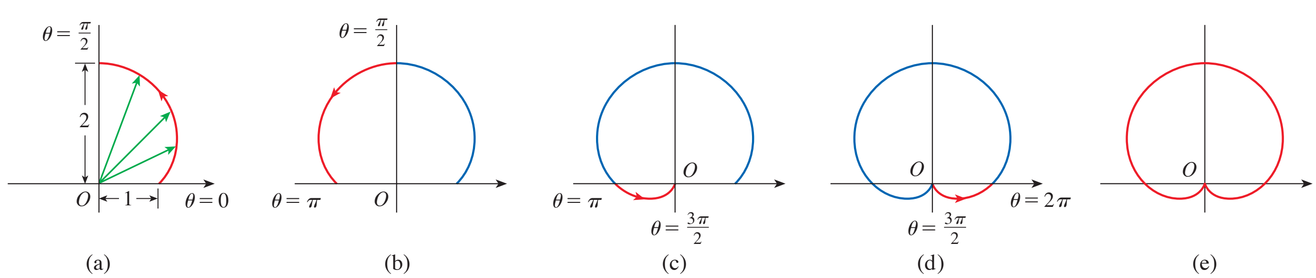


FIGURE 11 Stages in sketching the cardioid $r = 1 + \sin\theta$ ■

EXAMPLE 8 Sketch the curve $r = \cos 2\theta$.

SOLUTION As in Example 7, we first sketch $r = \cos 2\theta$, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$, in Cartesian coordinates in Figure 12. As θ increases from 0 to $\pi/4$, Figure 12 shows that r decreases from 1 to 0 and so we draw the corresponding portion of the polar curve in Figure 13 (indicated by ①). As θ increases from $\pi/4$ to $\pi/2$, r decreases from 0 to -1. This means that the distance from O increases from 0 to 1, but instead of being in the first quadrant this portion of the polar curve (indicated by ②) lies on the opposite side of the pole in the third quadrant. The remainder of the curve is drawn in a similar fashion, with the arrows and numbers indicating the order in which the portions are traced out. The resulting curve has four loops and is called a **four-leaved rose**.

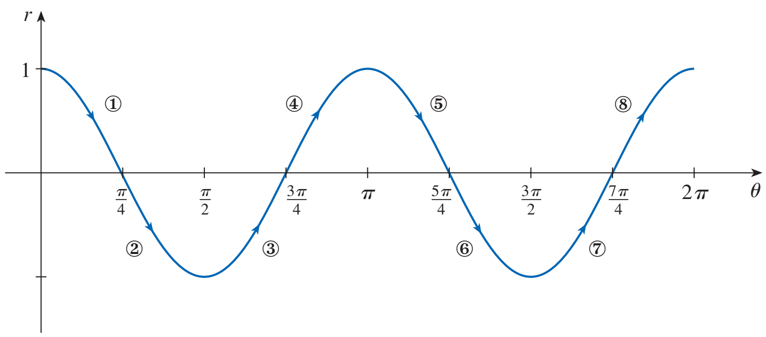


FIGURE 12
$r = \cos 2\theta$ in Cartesian coordinates

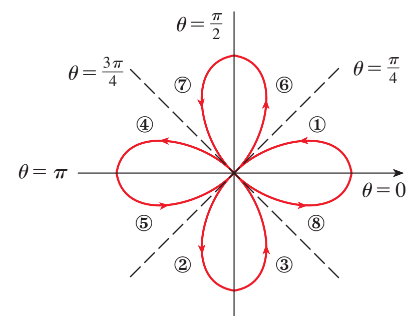


FIGURE 13
Four-leaved rose $r = \cos 2\theta$

Symmetry

When we sketch polar curves it is sometimes helpful to take advantage of symmetry. The following three rules are explained by Figure 14.

(a) If a polar equation is unchanged when θ is replaced by $-\theta$, the curve is symmetric about the polar axis.

(b) If the equation is unchanged when r is replaced by $-r$, or when θ is replaced by $\theta + \pi$, the curve is symmetric about the pole. (This means that the curve remains unchanged if we rotate it through 180° about the origin.)

(c) If the equation is unchanged when θ is replaced by $\pi - \theta$, the curve is symmetric about the vertical line $\theta = \pi/2$.

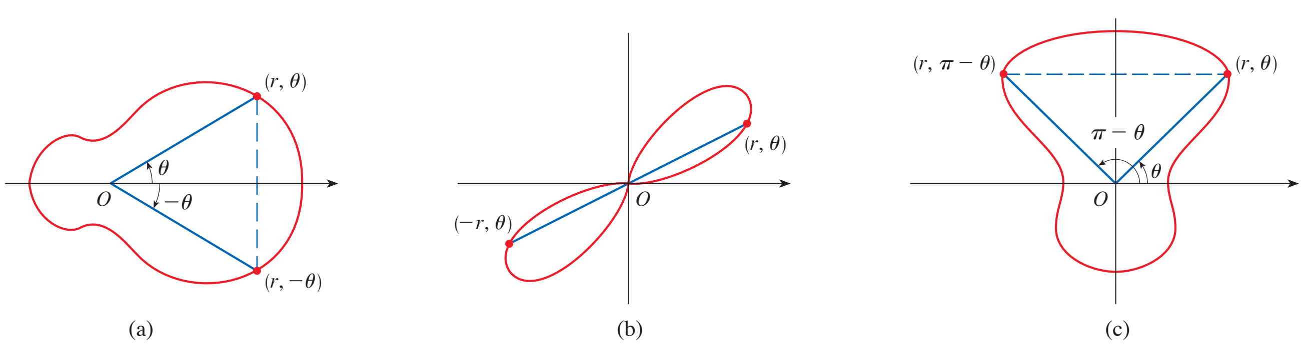


FIGURE 14

The curves sketched in Examples 6 and 8 are symmetric about the polar axis, since $\cos(-\theta) = \cos\theta$. The curves in Examples 7 and 8 are symmetric about $\theta = \pi/2$ because $\sin(\pi - \theta) = \sin\theta$ and $\cos[2(\pi - \theta)] = \cos 2\theta$. The four-leaved rose is also symmetric about the pole. We could have used these symmetry properties in sketching the curves. For instance, in Example 6 we need only have plotted points for $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/2$ and then reflected about the polar axis to obtain the complete circle.

Graphing Polar Curves with Technology

Although it's useful to be able to sketch simple polar curves by hand, we need to use a graphing calculator or computer when we are faced with a curve as complicated as the ones shown in Figures 15 and 16.

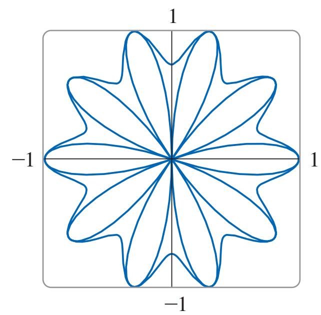


FIGURE 15
$r = \sin^3(2.5\theta) + \cos^3(2.5\theta)$

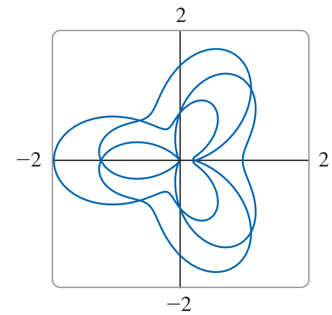


FIGURE 16
$r = \sin^2(3\theta/2) + \cos^2(2\theta/3)$

EXAMPLE 9 Graph the curve $r = \sin(8\theta/5)$.

SOLUTION First we need to determine the domain for θ. So we ask ourselves: how many complete rotations are required until the curve starts to repeat itself? If the answer is n, then

$$\sin \frac{8(\theta + 2n\pi)}{5} = \sin\left(\frac{8\theta}{5} + \frac{16n\pi}{5}\right) = \sin \frac{8\theta}{5}$$

and so we require that $16n\pi/5$ be an even multiple of π. This will first occur when $n = 5$. Therefore we will graph the entire curve if we specify that $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 10\pi$. Figure 17 shows the resulting curve. Notice that this curve has 16 loops. ■

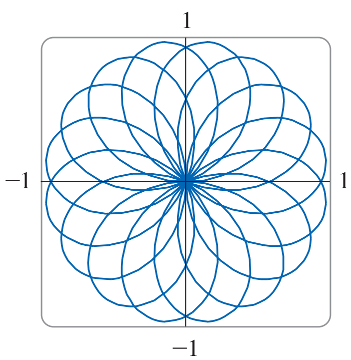


FIGURE 17
$r = \sin(8\theta/5)$

EXAMPLE 10 Investigate the family of polar curves given by $r = 1 + c \sin\theta$. How does the shape change as c changes? (These curves are called **limaçons**, after a French word for snail, because of the shape of the curves for certain values of c.)

SOLUTION Figure 18 shows computer-drawn graphs for various values of c. (Note that we obtain the complete graph for $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$.) For $c > 1$ there is a loop that decreases

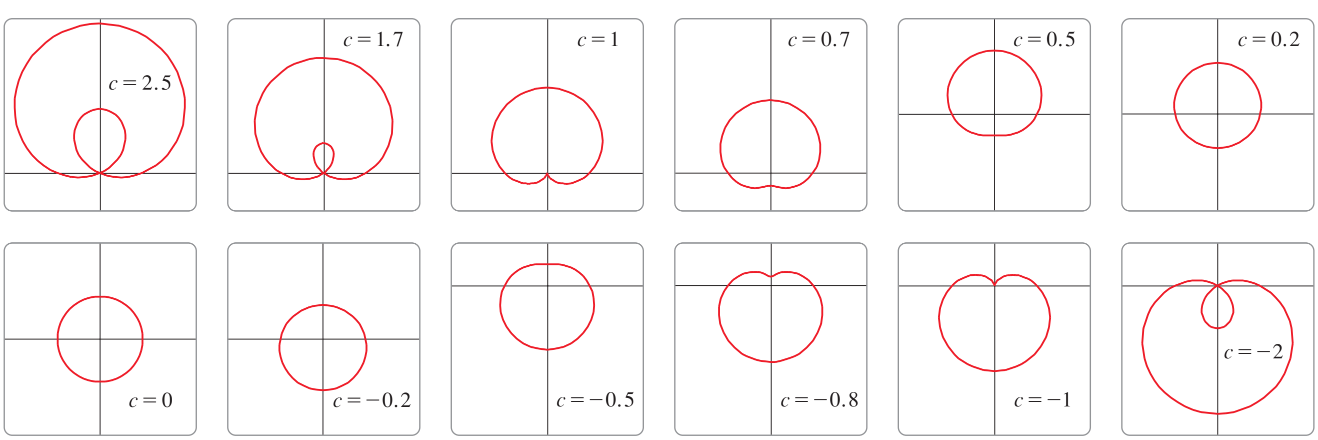


FIGURE 18 Members of the family of limaçons $r = 1 + c \sin\theta$

in size as c decreases. When $c = 1$ the loop disappears and the curve becomes the cardioid that we sketched in Example 7. For c between 1 and $\frac{1}{2}$ the cardioid's cusp is smoothed out and becomes a "dimple." When c decreases from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 0, the limaçon is shaped like an oval. This oval becomes more circular as $c \to 0$, and when $c = 0$ the curve is just the circle $r = 1$.

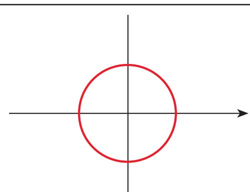
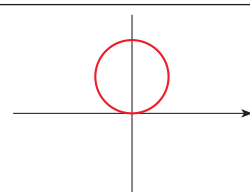
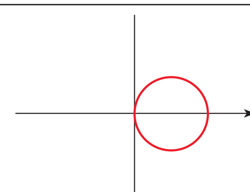
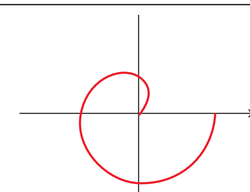
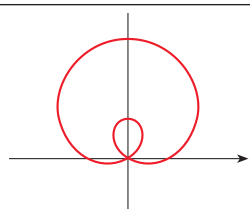
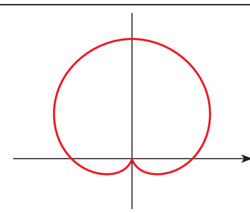
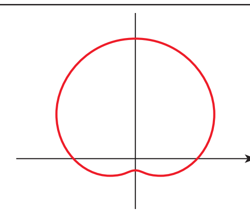
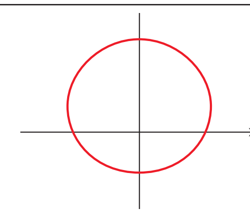
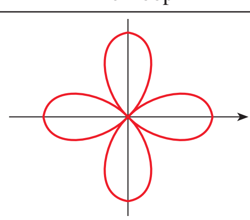
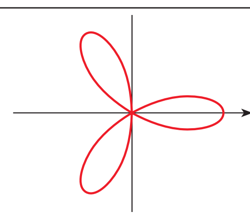
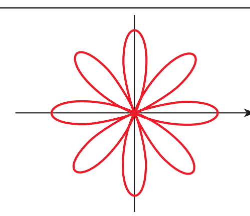
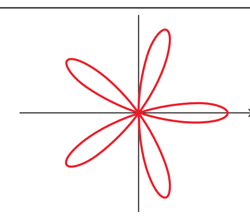
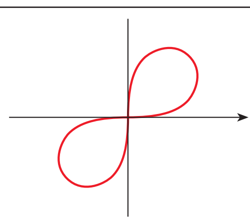
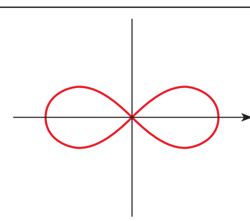
In Exercise 55 you are asked to prove analytically what we have discovered from the graphs in Figure 18.

The remaining parts of Figure 18 show that as c becomes negative, the shapes change in reverse order. In fact, these curves are reflections about the horizontal axis of the corresponding curves with positive c. ■

Limaçons arise in the study of planetary motion. In particular, the trajectory of Mars, as viewed from the planet Earth, has been modeled by a limaçon with a loop, as in the parts of Figure 18 with $|c| > 1$.

Table 1 gives a summary of some common polar curves.

Table 1 Common Polar Curves

Circles and Spiral	 $r = a$ circle	 $r = a \sin \theta$ circle	 $r = a \cos \theta$ circle	 $r = a\theta$ spiral
Limaçons $r = a \pm b \sin \theta$ $r = a \pm b \cos \theta$ $(a > 0, b > 0)$ Orientation depends on the trigonometric function (sine or cosine) and the sign of b	 $a < b$ limaçon with inner loop	 $a = b$ cardioid	 $a > b$ dimpled limaçon	 $a \geqslant 2b$ convex limaçon
Roses $r = a \sin n\theta$ $r = a \cos n\theta$ n-leaved if n is odd $2n$-leaved if n is even	 $r = a \cos 2\theta$ four-leaved rose	 $r = a \cos 3\theta$ three-leaved rose	 $r = a \cos 4\theta$ eight-leaved rose	 $r = a \cos 5\theta$ five-leaved rose
Lemniscates Figure-eight-shaped curves	 $r^2 = a^2 \sin 2\theta$ lemniscate	 $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$ lemniscate		

10.3 Exercises

1–2 Plot the point whose polar coordinates are given. Then find two other pairs of polar coordinates of this point, one with $r > 0$ and one with $r < 0$.

1. (a) $(1, \pi/4)$ (b) $(-2, 3\pi/2)$ (c) $(3, -\pi/3)$

2. (a) $(2, 5\pi/6)$ (b) $(1, -2\pi/3)$ (c) $(-1, 5\pi/4)$

3–4 Plot the point whose polar coordinates are given. Then find the Cartesian coordinates of the point.

3. (a) $(2, 3\pi/2)$ (b) $(\sqrt{2}, \pi/4)$ (c) $(-1, -\pi/6)$

4. (a) $(4, 4\pi/3)$ (b) $(-2, 3\pi/4)$ (c) $(-3, -\pi/3)$

5–6 The Cartesian coordinates of a point are given.
(i) Find polar coordinates (r, θ) of the point, where $r > 0$ and $0 \leqslant \theta < 2\pi$.
(ii) Find polar coordinates (r, θ) of the point, where $r < 0$ and $0 \leqslant \theta < 2\pi$.

5. (a) $(-4, 4)$ (b) $(3, 3\sqrt{3})$

6. (a) $(\sqrt{3}, -1)$ (b) $(-6, 0)$

7–12 Sketch the region in the plane consisting of points whose polar coordinates satisfy the given conditions.

7. $1 < r \leqslant 3$

8. $r \geqslant 2, \quad 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi$

9. $0 \leqslant r \leqslant 1, \quad -\pi/2 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/2$

10. $3 < r < 5, \quad 2\pi/3 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 4\pi/3$

11. $2 \leqslant r < 4, \quad 3\pi/4 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 7\pi/4$

12. $r \geqslant 0, \quad \pi \leqslant \theta \leqslant 5\pi/2$

13. Find the distance between the points with polar coordinates $(4, 4\pi/3)$ and $(6, 5\pi/3)$.

14. Find a formula for the distance between the points with polar coordinates (r_1, θ_1) and (r_2, θ_2).

15–20 Identify the curve by finding a Cartesian equation for the curve.

15. $r^2 = 5$

16. $r = 4 \sec\theta$

17. $r = 5\cos\theta$

18. $\theta = \pi/3$

19. $r^2\cos 2\theta = 1$

20. $r^2 \sin 2\theta = 1$

21–26 Find a polar equation for the curve represented by the given Cartesian equation.

21. $x^2 + y^2 = 7$

22. $x = -1$

23. $y = \sqrt{3}\,x$

24. $y = -2x^2$

25. $x^2 + y^2 = 4y$

26. $x^2 - y^2 = 4$

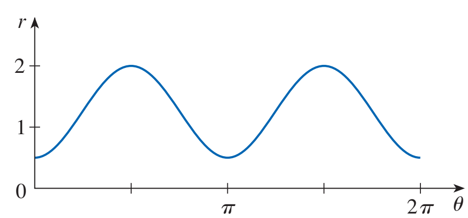
27–28 For each of the described curves, decide if the curve would be more easily given by a polar equation or a Cartesian equation. Then write an equation for the curve.

27. (a) A line through the origin that makes an angle of $\pi/6$ with the positive x-axis
(b) A vertical line through the point $(3, 3)$

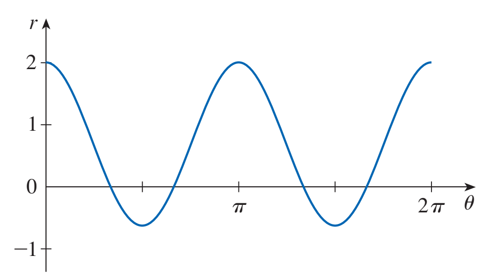
28. (a) A circle with radius 5 and center $(2, 3)$
(b) A circle centered at the origin with radius 4

29–32 The figure shows a graph of r as a function of θ in Cartesian coordinates. Use it to sketch the corresponding polar curve.

29.



30.



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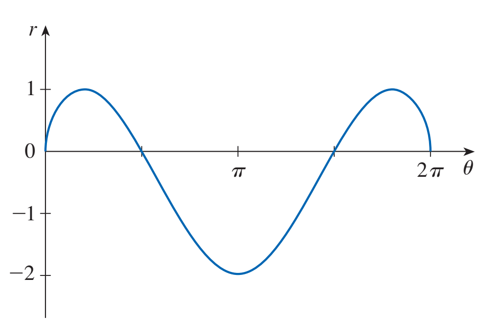
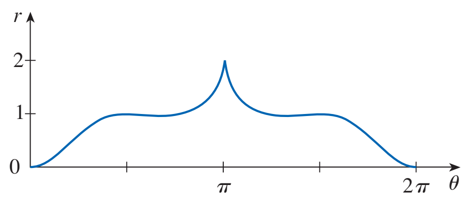


32. 

33–50 Sketch the curve with the given polar equation by first sketching the graph of r as a function of θ in Cartesian coordinates.

33. $r = -2\sin\theta$

34. $r = 1 - \cos\theta$

35. $r = 2(1 + \cos\theta)$

36. $r = 1 + 2\cos\theta$

37. $r = \theta,\ \theta \geqslant 0$

38. $r = \theta^2,\ -2\pi \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$

39. $r = 3\cos 3\theta$

40. $r = -\sin 5\theta$

41. $r = 2\cos 4\theta$

42. $r = 2\sin 6\theta$

43. $r = 1 + 3\cos\theta$

44. $r = 1 + 5\sin\theta$

45. $r^2 = 9\sin 2\theta$

46. $r^2 = \cos 4\theta$

47. $r = 2 + \sin 3\theta$

48. $r^2\theta = 1$

49. $r = \sin(\theta/2)$

50. $r = \cos(\theta/3)$

51. Show that the polar curve $r = 4 + 2\sec\theta$ (called a **conchoid**) has the line $x = 2$ as a vertical asymptote by showing that $\lim_{r\to\pm\infty} x = 2$. Use this fact to help sketch the conchoid.

52. Show that the curve $r = 2 - \csc\theta$ (a conchoid) has the line $y = -1$ as a horizontal asymptote by showing that $\lim_{r\to\pm\infty} y = -1$. Use this fact to help sketch the conchoid.

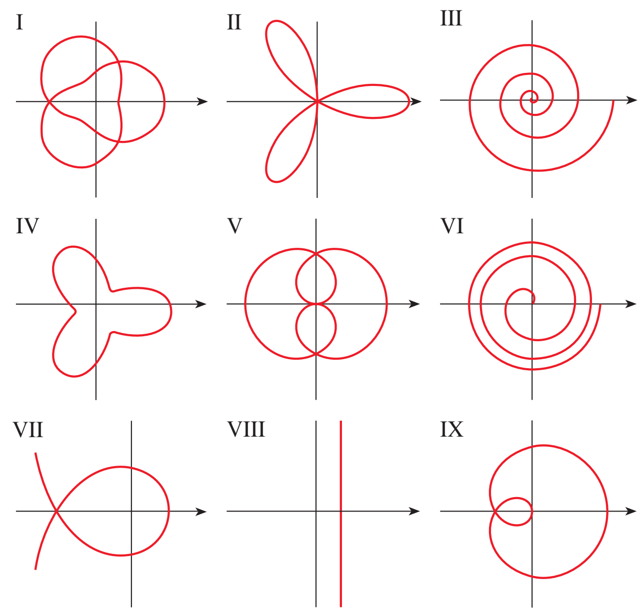
53. Show that the curve $r = \sin\theta\tan\theta$ (called a **cissoid of Diocles**) has the line $x = 1$ as a vertical asymptote. Show also that the curve lies entirely within the vertical strip $0 \leqslant x < 1$. Use these facts to help sketch the cissoid.

54. Sketch the curve $(x^2 + y^2)^3 = 4x^2y^2$.

55. (a) In Example 10 the graphs suggest that the limaçon $r = 1 + c\sin\theta$ has an inner loop when $|c| > 1$. Prove that this is true, and find the values of θ that correspond to the inner loop.
(b) From Figure 18 it appears that the limaçon loses its dimple when $c = \frac{1}{2}$. Prove this.

56. Match the polar equations with the graphs labeled I–IX. Give reasons for your choices.

(a) $r = \cos 3\theta$ (b) $r = \ln\theta,\ 1 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 6\pi$
(c) $r = \cos(\theta/2)$ (d) $r = \cos(\theta/3)$
(e) $r = \sec(\theta/3)$ (f) $r = \sec\theta$
(g) $r = \theta^2,\ 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 8\pi$ (h) $r = 2 + \cos 3\theta$
(i) $r = 2 + \cos(3\theta/2)$



57. Show that the polar equation $r = a\sin\theta + b\cos\theta$, where $ab \neq 0$, represents a circle. Find its center and radius.

58. Show that the curves $r = a\sin\theta$ and $r = a\cos\theta$ intersect at right angles.

59–64 Graph the polar curve. Choose a parameter interval that produces the entire curve.

59. $r = 1 + 2\sin(\theta/2)$ (nephroid of Freeth)

60. $r = \sqrt{1 - 0.8\sin^2\theta}$ (hippopede)

61. $r = e^{\sin\theta} - 2\cos(4\theta)$ (butterfly curve)

62. $r = |\tan\theta|^{|\cot\theta|}$ (valentine curve)

63. $r = 1 + \cos^{999}\theta$ (Pac-Man curve)

64. $r = 2 + \cos(9\theta/4)$

65. How are the graphs of $r = 1 + \sin(\theta - \pi/6)$ and $r = 1 + \sin(\theta - \pi/3)$ related to the graph of $r = 1 + \sin\theta$? In general, how is the graph of $r = f(\theta - \alpha)$ related to the graph of $r = f(\theta)$?

66. Use a graph to estimate the y-coordinate of the highest points on the curve $r = \sin 2\theta$. Then use calculus to find the exact value.

67. Investigate the family of curves with polar equations $r = 1 + c\cos\theta$, where c is a real number. How does the shape change as c changes?

68. Investigate the family of polar curves $r = 1 + \cos^n\theta$, where n is a positive integer. How does the shape change as n increases? What happens as n becomes large? Explain the shape for large n by considering the graph of r as a function of θ in Cartesian coordinates.

DISCOVERY PROJECT | FAMILIES OF POLAR CURVES

In this project you will discover the interesting and beautiful shapes that members of families of polar curves can take. You will also see how the shape of the curve changes when you vary the constants.

1. (a) Investigate the family of curves defined by the polar equations $r = \sin n\theta$, where n is a positive integer. How is the number of loops related to n?

(b) What happens if the equation in part (a) is replaced by $r = |\sin n\theta|$?

2. A family of curves is given by the equations $r = 1 + c\sin n\theta$, where c is a real number and n is a positive integer. How does the graph change as n increases? How does it change as c changes? Illustrate by graphing enough members of the family to support your conclusions.

3. A family of curves has polar equations

$$r = \frac{1 - a\cos\theta}{1 + a\cos\theta}$$

Investigate how the graph changes as the number a changes. In particular, you should identify the transitional values of a for which the basic shape of the curve changes.

4. The astronomer Giovanni Cassini (1625–1712) studied the family of curves with polar equations

$$r^4 - 2c^2r^2\cos 2\theta + c^4 - a^4 = 0$$

where a and c are positive real numbers. These curves are called the **ovals of Cassini** even though they are oval shaped only for certain values of a and c. (Cassini thought that these curves might represent planetary orbits better than Kepler's ellipses.) Investigate the variety of shapes that these curves may have. In particular, how are a and c related to each other when the curve splits into two parts?

10.4 Calculus in Polar Coordinates

In this section we apply the methods of calculus to find areas, arc lengths, and tangents involving polar curves.

Area

To develop the formula for the area of a region whose boundary is given by a polar equation, we need to use the formula for the area of a sector of a circle:

$$\boxed{1} \qquad A = \tfrac{1}{2}r^2\theta$$

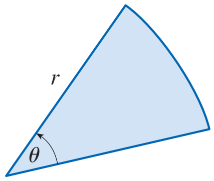


FIGURE 1

where, as in Figure 1, r is the radius and θ is the radian measure of the central angle. Formula 1 follows from the fact that the area of a sector is proportional to its central angle: $A = (\theta/2\pi)\pi r^2 = \frac{1}{2}r^2\theta$. (See also Exercise 7.3.41.)

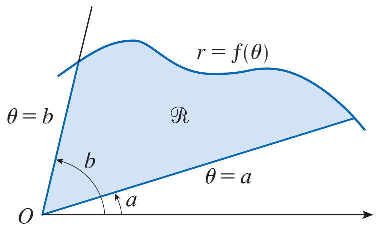


FIGURE 2

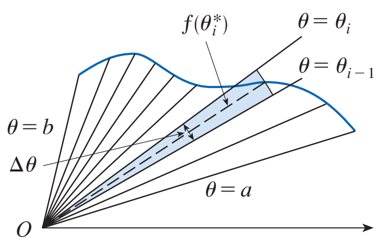


FIGURE 3

Let $\mathcal{R}$ be the region, illustrated in Figure 2, bounded by the polar curve $r = f(\theta)$ and by the rays $\theta = a$ and $\theta = b$, where f is a positive continuous function and where $0 < b - a \leqslant 2\pi$. We divide the interval $[a, b]$ into subintervals with endpoints $\theta_0, \theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_n$ and equal width $\Delta\theta$. The rays $\theta = \theta_i$ then divide $\mathcal{R}$ into n smaller regions with central angle $\Delta\theta = \theta_i - \theta_{i-1}$. If we choose θ_i^* in the ith subinterval $[\theta_{i-1}, \theta_i]$, then the area ΔA_i of the ith region is approximated by the area of the sector of a circle with central angle $\Delta\theta$ and radius $f(\theta_i^*)$. (See Figure 3.)

Thus from Formula 1 we have

$$\Delta A_i \approx \tfrac{1}{2}[f(\theta_i^*)]^2\,\Delta\theta$$

and so an approximation to the total area A of $\mathcal{R}$ is

2 $$\boxed{A \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} \tfrac{1}{2}[f(\theta_i^*)]^2\,\Delta\theta}$$

It appears from Figure 3 that the approximation in (2) improves as $n \to \infty$. But the sums in (2) are Riemann sums for the function $g(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}[f(\theta)]^2$, so

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \tfrac{1}{2}[f(\theta_i^*)]^2\,\Delta\theta = \int_a^b \tfrac{1}{2}[f(\theta)]^2\,d\theta$$

It therefore appears plausible (and can in fact be proved) that the formula for the area A of the polar region $\mathcal{R}$ is

3 $$\boxed{A = \int_a^b \tfrac{1}{2}[f(\theta)]^2\,d\theta}$$

Formula 3 is often written as

4 $$\boxed{A = \int_a^b \tfrac{1}{2}r^2\,d\theta}$$

with the understanding that $r = f(\theta)$. Note the similarity between Formulas 1 and 4.

When we apply Formula 3 or 4, it is helpful to think of the area as being swept out by a rotating ray through O that starts with angle a and ends with angle b.

EXAMPLE 1 Find the area enclosed by one loop of the four-leaved rose $r = \cos 2\theta$.

SOLUTION The curve $r = \cos 2\theta$ was sketched in Example 10.3.8. Notice from Figure 4 that the region enclosed by the right loop is swept out by a ray that rotates from $\theta = -\pi/4$ to $\theta = \pi/4$. Therefore Formula 4 gives

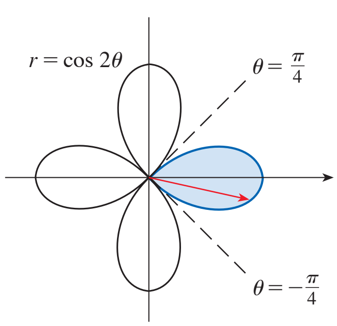


FIGURE 4

$$A = \int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} \tfrac{1}{2}r^2\,d\theta = \tfrac{1}{2}\int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} \cos^2 2\theta\,d\theta$$

Because the region is symmetric about the polar axis $\theta = 0$, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 2 \cdot \tfrac{1}{2}\int_0^{\pi/4} \cos^2 2\theta\,d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/4} \tfrac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 4\theta)\,d\theta \qquad \left[\text{because } \cos^2 u = \tfrac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2u)\right] \\ &= \tfrac{1}{2}\Big[\theta + \tfrac{1}{4}\sin 4\theta\Big]_0^{\pi/4} = \frac{\pi}{8} \end{aligned}$$

■

EXAMPLE 2 Find the area of the region that lies inside the circle $r = 3\sin\theta$ and outside the cardioid $r = 1 + \sin\theta$.

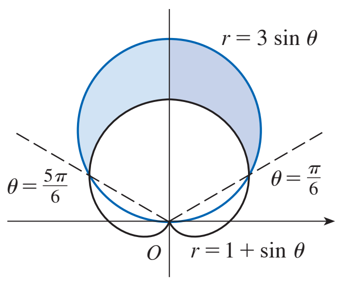


FIGURE 5

SOLUTION The cardioid (see Example 10.3.7) and the circle are sketched in Figure 5 and the desired region is shaded. The values of a and b in Formula 4 are determined by finding the points of intersection of the two curves. They intersect when $3\sin\theta = 1 + \sin\theta$. This gives $\sin\theta = \frac{1}{2}$, so $\theta = \pi/6, 5\pi/6$. The desired area can be found by subtracting the area inside the cardioid between $\theta = \pi/6$ and $\theta = 5\pi/6$ from the area inside the circle from $\pi/6$ to $5\pi/6$. Thus

$$A = \frac{1}{2}\int_{\pi/6}^{5\pi/6} (3\sin\theta)^2\,d\theta - \frac{1}{2}\int_{\pi/6}^{5\pi/6} (1 + \sin\theta)^2\,d\theta$$

Since the region is symmetric about the vertical axis $\theta = \pi/2$, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 2\left[\frac{1}{2}\int_{\pi/6}^{\pi/2} 9\sin^2\theta\,d\theta - \frac{1}{2}\int_{\pi/6}^{\pi/2} (1 + 2\sin\theta + \sin^2\theta)\,d\theta\right] \\ &= \int_{\pi/6}^{\pi/2} (8\sin^2\theta - 1 - 2\sin\theta)\,d\theta \\ &= \int_{\pi/6}^{\pi/2} (3 - 4\cos 2\theta - 2\sin\theta)\,d\theta \qquad \left[\text{because } \sin^2\theta = \tfrac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2\theta)\right] \\ &= 3\theta - 2\sin 2\theta + 2\cos\theta\Big]_{\pi/6}^{\pi/2} = \pi \end{aligned}$$

■

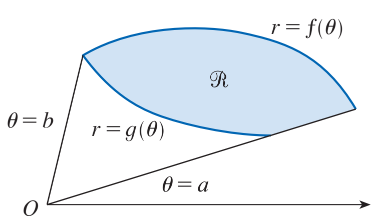


FIGURE 6

Example 2 illustrates the procedure for finding the area of the region bounded by two polar curves. In general, let $\mathcal{R}$ be a region, as illustrated in Figure 6, that is bounded by curves with polar equations $r = f(\theta)$, $r = g(\theta)$, $\theta = a$, and $\theta = b$, where $f(\theta) \geqslant g(\theta) \geqslant 0$ and $0 < b - a \leqslant 2\pi$. The area A of $\mathcal{R}$ is found by subtracting the area inside $r = g(\theta)$ from the area inside $r = f(\theta)$, so using Formula 3 we have

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_a^b \tfrac{1}{2}[f(\theta)]^2\,d\theta - \int_a^b \tfrac{1}{2}[g(\theta)]^2\,d\theta \\ &= \tfrac{1}{2}\int_a^b \left([f(\theta)]^2 - [g(\theta)]^2\right) d\theta \end{aligned}$$

CAUTION The fact that a single point has many representations in polar coordinates sometimes makes it difficult to find all the points of intersection of two polar curves. For instance, it is obvious from Figure 5 that the circle and the cardioid have three points of intersection; however, in Example 2 we solved the equations $r = 3\sin\theta$ and $r = 1 + \sin\theta$ and found only two such points, $\left(\frac{3}{2}, \pi/6\right)$ and $\left(\frac{3}{2}, 5\pi/6\right)$. The origin is also a point of intersection, but we can't find it by solving the equations of the curves because the origin has no single representation in polar coordinates that satisfies both equations. Notice that, when represented as $(0, 0)$ or $(0, \pi)$, the origin satisfies $r = 3\sin\theta$ and so it lies on the circle; when represented as $(0, 3\pi/2)$, it satisfies $r = 1 + \sin\theta$ and so it lies on the cardioid. Think of two points moving along the curves as the parameter value θ increases from 0 to 2π. On one curve the origin is reached at $\theta = 0$ and $\theta = \pi$; on the other curve it is reached at $\theta = 3\pi/2$. The points don't collide at the origin because they reach the origin at different times, but the curves intersect there nonetheless. (See also Exercises 10.1.55–57.)

Thus, to find *all* points of intersection of two polar curves, it is recommended that you draw the graphs of both curves. It is especially convenient to use a graphing calculator or computer to help with this task.

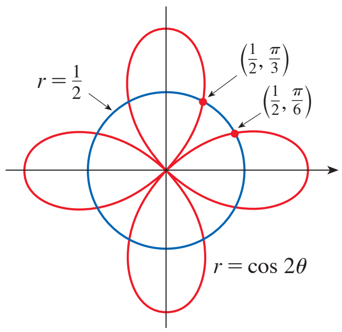


FIGURE 7

EXAMPLE 3 Find all points of intersection of the curves $r = \cos 2\theta$ and $r = \frac{1}{2}$.

SOLUTION If we solve the equations $r = \cos 2\theta$ and $r = \frac{1}{2}$ simultaneously, we get $\cos 2\theta = \frac{1}{2}$ and, therefore, $2\theta = \pi/3, 5\pi/3, 7\pi/3, 11\pi/3$. Thus the values of θ between 0 and 2π that satisfy both equations are $\theta = \pi/6, 5\pi/6, 7\pi/6, 11\pi/6$. We have found four points of intersection: $\left(\frac{1}{2}, \pi/6\right)$, $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 5\pi/6\right)$, $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 7\pi/6\right)$, and $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 11\pi/6\right)$.

However, you can see from Figure 7 that the curves have four other points of intersection—namely, $\left(\frac{1}{2}, \pi/3\right)$, $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 2\pi/3\right)$, $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 4\pi/3\right)$, and $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 5\pi/3\right)$. These can be found using symmetry or by noticing that another equation of the circle is $r = -\frac{1}{2}$ and then solving the equations $r = \cos 2\theta$ and $r = -\frac{1}{2}$ simultaneously. ■

Arc Length

Recall from Section 10.3 that rectangular coordinates (x, y) and polar coordinates (r, θ) are related by the equations $x = r\cos\theta$, $y = r\sin\theta$. Regarding θ as a parameter allows us to write parametric equations for a polar curve $r = f(\theta)$ as follows.

Parametric equations for a polar curve

5 $$x = r\cos\theta = f(\theta)\cos\theta \qquad y = r\sin\theta = f(\theta)\sin\theta$$

To find the length of a polar curve $r = f(\theta)$, $a \leqslant \theta \leqslant b$, we start with Equations 5 and differentiate with respect to θ (using the Product Rule):

$$\frac{dx}{d\theta} = \frac{dr}{d\theta}\cos\theta - r\sin\theta \qquad \frac{dy}{d\theta} = \frac{dr}{d\theta}\sin\theta + r\cos\theta$$

Then, using $\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta = 1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\frac{dx}{d\theta}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{d\theta}\right)^2 &= \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2\cos^2\theta - 2r\frac{dr}{d\theta}\cos\theta\sin\theta + r^2\sin^2\theta \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2\sin^2\theta + 2r\frac{dr}{d\theta}\sin\theta\cos\theta + r^2\cos^2\theta \\ &= \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2 + r^2\end{aligned}$$

Assuming that f' is continuous, we can use Theorem 10.2.5 to write the arc length as

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{d\theta}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{d\theta}\right)^2}\, d\theta$$

Therefore the length of a curve with polar equation $r = f(\theta)$, $a \leqslant \theta \leqslant b$, is

6 $$\boxed{L = \int_a^b \sqrt{r^2 + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2}\, d\theta}$$

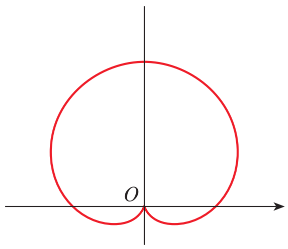


FIGURE 8
$r = 1 + \sin\theta$

EXAMPLE 4 Find the length of the cardioid $r = 1 + \sin\theta$.

SOLUTION The cardioid is shown in Figure 8. (We sketched it in Example 10.3.7.) Its full length is given by the parameter interval $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$, so Formula 6 gives

$$L = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{r^2 + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2}\, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{(1 + \sin\theta)^2 + \cos^2\theta}\, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{2 + 2\sin\theta}\, d\theta$$

We could evaluate this integral by multiplying and dividing the integrand by $\sqrt{2 - 2\sin\theta}$, or we could use mathematical software. In any event, we find that the length of the cardioid is $L = 8$. ■

Tangents

To find a tangent line to a polar curve $r = f(\theta)$, we again regard θ as a parameter and write parametric equations for the curve following Equations 5:

$$x = r\cos\theta = f(\theta)\cos\theta \qquad y = r\sin\theta = f(\theta)\sin\theta$$

Then, using the method for finding the slope of a parametric curve (Equation 10.2.1) and the Product Rule, we have

$$\boxed{7} \qquad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\dfrac{dy}{d\theta}}{\dfrac{dx}{d\theta}} = \frac{\dfrac{dr}{d\theta}\sin\theta + r\cos\theta}{\dfrac{dr}{d\theta}\cos\theta - r\sin\theta}$$

We locate horizontal tangents by finding the points where $dy/d\theta = 0$ (provided that $dx/d\theta \neq 0$). Likewise, we locate vertical tangents at the points where $dx/d\theta = 0$ (provided that $dy/d\theta \neq 0$).

Notice that if we are looking for tangent lines at the pole, then $r = 0$ and Equation 7 simplifies to

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \tan\theta \qquad \text{if } \frac{dr}{d\theta} \neq 0$$

For instance, in Example 10.3.8 we found that $r = \cos 2\theta = 0$ when $\theta = \pi/4$ or $3\pi/4$. This means that the lines $\theta = \pi/4$ and $\theta = 3\pi/4$ (or $y = x$ and $y = -x$) are tangent lines to $r = \cos 2\theta$ at the origin.

EXAMPLE 5

(a) For the cardioid $r = 1 + \sin\theta$ of Example 4, find the slope of the tangent line when $\theta = \pi/3$.
(b) Find the points on the cardioid where the tangent line is horizontal or vertical.

SOLUTION Using Equation 7 with $r = 1 + \sin\theta$, we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\dfrac{dr}{d\theta}\sin\theta + r\cos\theta}{\dfrac{dr}{d\theta}\cos\theta - r\sin\theta} = \frac{\cos\theta\sin\theta + (1 + \sin\theta)\cos\theta}{\cos\theta\cos\theta - (1 + \sin\theta)\sin\theta}$$

$$= \frac{\cos\theta\,(1 + 2\sin\theta)}{1 - 2\sin^2\theta - \sin\theta} = \frac{\cos\theta\,(1 + 2\sin\theta)}{(1 + \sin\theta)(1 - 2\sin\theta)}$$

(a) The slope of the tangent at the point where $\theta = \pi/3$ is

$$\left.\frac{dy}{dx}\right|_{\theta=\pi/3} = \frac{\cos(\pi/3)[1 + 2\sin(\pi/3)]}{[1 + \sin(\pi/3)][1 - 2\sin(\pi/3)]} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{3})}{(1 + \sqrt{3}/2)(1 - \sqrt{3})}$$

$$= \frac{1 + \sqrt{3}}{(2 + \sqrt{3})(1 - \sqrt{3})} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{3}}{-1 - \sqrt{3}} = -1$$

(b) Observe that

$$\frac{dy}{d\theta} = \cos\theta\,(1 + 2\sin\theta) = 0 \qquad \text{when } \theta = \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2}, \frac{7\pi}{6}, \frac{11\pi}{6}$$

$$\frac{dx}{d\theta} = (1 + \sin\theta)(1 - 2\sin\theta) = 0 \qquad \text{when } \theta = \frac{3\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{6}, \frac{5\pi}{6}$$

Therefore there are horizontal tangents at the points $(2, \pi/2)$, $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 7\pi/6\right)$, $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 11\pi/6\right)$ and vertical tangents at $\left(\frac{3}{2}, \pi/6\right)$ and $\left(\frac{3}{2}, 5\pi/6\right)$. When $\theta = 3\pi/2$, both $dy/d\theta$ and $dx/d\theta$ are 0, so we must be careful. Using l'Hospital's Rule, we have

$$\lim_{\theta \to (3\pi/2)^-} \frac{dy}{dx} = \left(\lim_{\theta \to (3\pi/2)^-} \frac{1 + 2\sin\theta}{1 - 2\sin\theta}\right)\left(\lim_{\theta \to (3\pi/2)^-} \frac{\cos\theta}{1 + \sin\theta}\right)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{3} \lim_{\theta \to (3\pi/2)^-} \frac{\cos\theta}{1 + \sin\theta} = -\frac{1}{3} \lim_{\theta \to (3\pi/2)^-} \frac{-\sin\theta}{\cos\theta} = \infty$$

By symmetry,
$$\lim_{\theta \to (3\pi/2)^+} \frac{dy}{dx} = -\infty$$

Thus there is a vertical tangent line at the pole (see Figure 9). ■

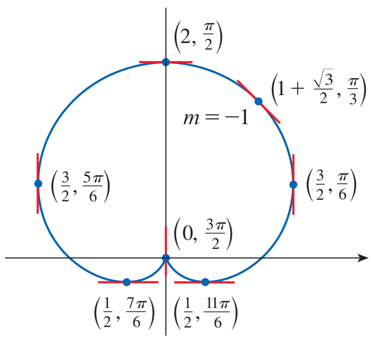


FIGURE 9
Tangent lines for $r = 1 + \sin\theta$

NOTE Instead of having to remember Equation 7, we could employ the method used to derive it. For instance, in Example 5 we could have written parametric equations for the curve as

$$x = r\cos\theta = (1 + \sin\theta)\cos\theta = \cos\theta + \tfrac{1}{2}\sin 2\theta$$

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

Then we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/d\theta}{dx/d\theta} = \frac{\cos\theta + 2\sin\theta\cos\theta}{-\sin\theta + \cos 2\theta} = \frac{\cos\theta + \sin 2\theta}{-\sin\theta + \cos 2\theta}$$

which is equivalent to our previous expression.

10.4 Exercises

1–4 Find the area of the region that is bounded by the given curve and lies in the specified sector.

1. $r = \sqrt{2\theta}, \quad 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/2$

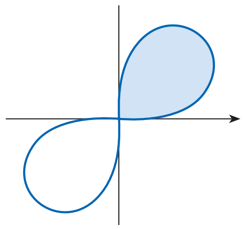
2. $r = e^{\theta}, \quad 3\pi/4 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 3\pi/2$

3. $r = \sin\theta + \cos\theta, \quad 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi$

4. $r = 1/\theta, \quad \pi/2 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$

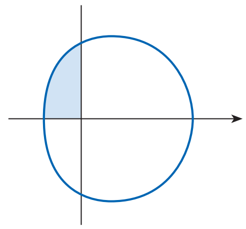
5–8 Find the area of the shaded region.

5.



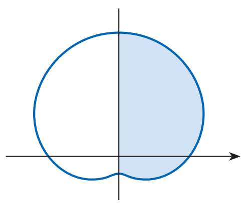
$r^2 = \sin 2\theta$

6.



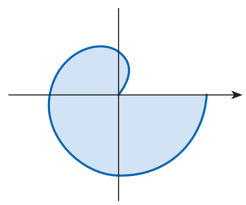
$r = 2 + \cos\theta$

7.



$r = 4 + 3\sin\theta$

8.



$r = \sqrt{\ln\theta},\ 1 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$

9–12 Sketch the curve and find the area that it encloses.

9. $r = 4\cos\theta$

10. $r = 2 + 2\cos\theta$

11. $r = 3 - 2\sin\theta$

12. $r = 2\sin 3\theta$

13–16 Graph the curve and find the area that it encloses.

13. $r = 2 + \sin 4\theta$

14. $r = 3 - 2\cos 4\theta$

15. $r = \sqrt{1 + \cos^2(5\theta)}$

16. $r = 1 + 5\sin 6\theta$

17–21 Find the area of the region enclosed by one loop of the curve.

17. $r = 4\cos 3\theta$

18. $r^2 = 4\cos 2\theta$

19. $r = \sin 4\theta$

20. $r = 2\sin 5\theta$

21. $r = 1 + 2\sin\theta$ (inner loop)

22. Find the area enclosed by the loop of the **strophoid** $r = 2\cos\theta - \sec\theta$.

23–28 Find the area of the region that lies inside the first curve and outside the second curve.

23. $r = 4\sin\theta, \quad r = 2$

24. $r = 1 - \sin\theta, \quad r = 1$

25. $r^2 = 8\cos 2\theta, \quad r = 2$

26. $r = 1 + \cos\theta, \quad r = 2 - \cos\theta$

27. $r = 3\cos\theta, \quad r = 1 + \cos\theta$

28. $r = 3\sin\theta, \quad r = 2 - \sin\theta$

29–34 Find the area of the region that lies inside both curves.

29. $r = 3\sin\theta, \quad r = 3\cos\theta$

30. $r = 1 + \cos\theta, \quad r = 1 - \cos\theta$

31. $r = \sin 2\theta, \quad r = \cos 2\theta$

32. $r = 3 + 2\cos\theta, \quad r = 3 + 2\sin\theta$

33. $r^2 = 2\sin 2\theta, \quad r = 1$

34. $r = a\sin\theta, \quad r = b\cos\theta, \quad a > 0,\ b > 0$

35. Find the area inside the larger loop and outside the smaller loop of the limaçon $r = \frac{1}{2} + \cos\theta$.

36. Find the area between a large loop and the enclosed small loop of the curve $r = 1 + 2\cos 3\theta$.

37–42 Find all points of intersection of the given curves.

37. $r = \sin\theta, \quad r = 1 - \sin\theta$

38. $r = 1 + \cos\theta, \quad r = 1 - \sin\theta$

39. $r = 2\sin 2\theta, \quad r = 1$

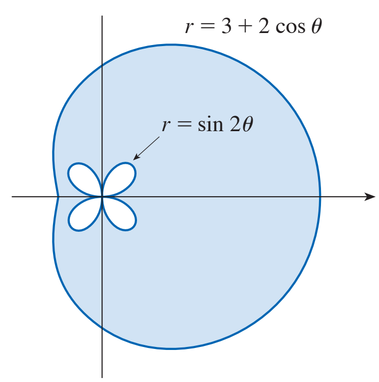
40. $r = \cos\theta, \quad r = \sin 2\theta$

41. $r^2 = 2\cos 2\theta, \quad r = 1$

42. $r^2 = \sin 2\theta, \quad r^2 = \cos 2\theta$

43–46 Find the area of the shaded region.

43.



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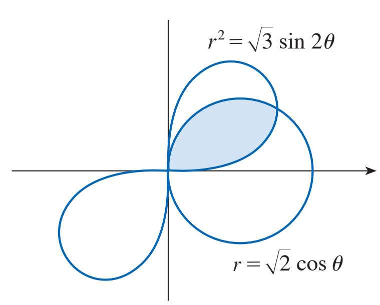

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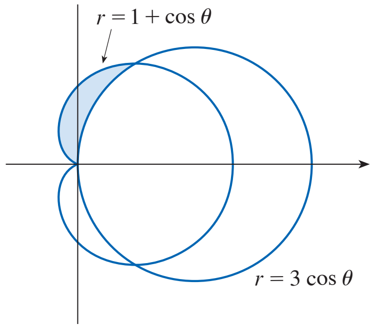

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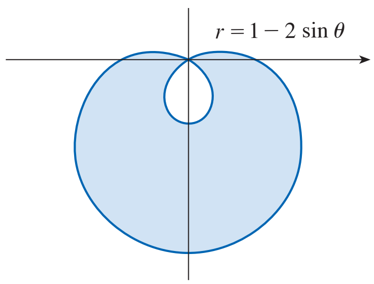
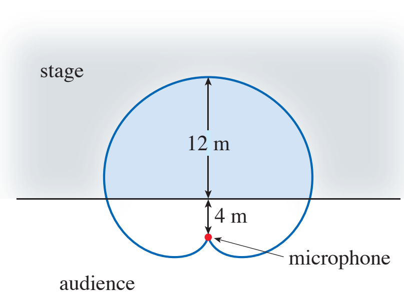


47. The points of intersection of the cardioid $r = 1 + \sin\theta$ and the spiral loop $r = 2\theta$, $-\pi/2 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/2$, can't be found exactly. Use a graph to find the approximate values of θ at which the curves intersect. Then use these values to estimate the area that lies inside both curves.

48. When recording live performances, sound engineers often use a microphone with a cardioid pickup pattern because it suppresses noise from the audience. Suppose the microphone is placed 4 m from the front of the stage (as in the figure) and the boundary of the optimal pickup region is given by the cardioid $r = 8 + 8\sin\theta$, where r is measured in meters and the microphone is at the pole. The musicians want to know the area they will have on stage within the optimal pickup range of the microphone. Answer their question.



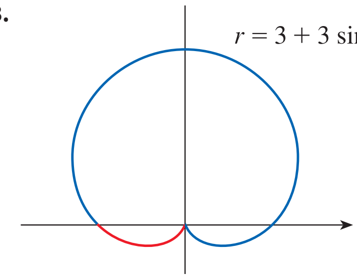
49–52 Find the exact length of the polar curve.

49. $r = 2\cos\theta$, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi$ **50.** $r = e^{\theta/2}$, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/2$

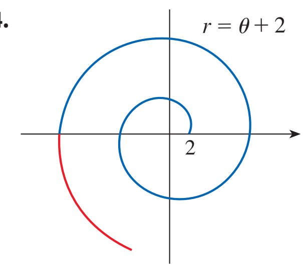
51. $r = \theta^2$, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$ **52.** $r = 2(1 + \cos\theta)$

53–54 Find the exact length of the portion of the curve shown in blue.

53.



54.

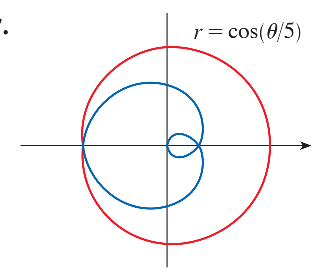


55–56 Find the exact length of the curve. Use a graph to determine the parameter interval.

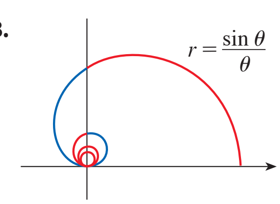
55. $r = \cos^4(\theta/4)$ **56.** $r = \cos^2(\theta/2)$

57–58 Set up, but do not evaluate, an integral to find the length of the portion of the curve shown in blue.

57.



58.



59–62 Use a calculator or computer to find the length of the curve correct to four decimal places. If necessary, graph the curve to determine the parameter interval.

59. One loop of the curve $r = \cos 2\theta$

60. $r = \tan\theta$, $\pi/6 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/3$

61. $r = \sin(6\sin\theta)$ **62.** $r = \sin(\theta/4)$

63–68 Find the slope of the tangent line to the given polar curve at the point specified by the value of θ.

63. $r = 2\cos\theta, \quad \theta = \pi/3$ **64.** $r = 2 + \sin 3\theta, \quad \theta = \pi/4$

65. $r = 1/\theta, \quad \theta = \pi$

66. $r = \sin\theta + 2\cos\theta, \quad \theta = \pi/2$

67. $r = \cos 2\theta, \quad \theta = \pi/4$

68. $r = 1 + 2\cos\theta, \quad \theta = \pi/3$

69–72 Find the points on the given curve where the tangent line is horizontal or vertical.

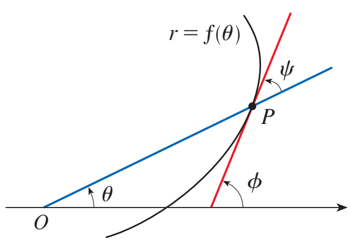
69. $r = \sin\theta$ **70.** $r = 1 - \sin\theta$

71. $r = 1 + \cos\theta$ **72.** $r = e^{\theta}$

73. Let P be any point (except the origin) on the curve $r = f(\theta)$. If ψ is the angle between the tangent line at P and the radial line OP, show that

$$\tan\psi = \frac{r}{dr/d\theta}$$

[*Hint:* Observe that $\psi = \phi - \theta$ in the figure.]



74. (a) Use Exercise 73 to show that the angle between the tangent line and the radial line is $\psi = \pi/4$ at every point on the curve $r = e^{\theta}$.

(b) Illustrate part (a) by graphing the curve and the tangent lines at the points where $\theta = 0$ and $\pi/2$.

(c) Prove that any polar curve $r = f(\theta)$ with the property that the angle ψ between the radial line and the tangent line is a constant must be of the form $r = Ce^{k\theta}$, where C and k are constants.

75. (a) Use Formula 10.2.9 to show that the area of the surface generated by rotating the polar curve

$$r = f(\theta) \qquad a \leqslant \theta \leqslant b$$

(where f' is continuous and $0 \leqslant a < b \leqslant \pi$) about the polar axis is

$$S = \int_a^b 2\pi r\sin\theta\,\sqrt{r^2 + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2}\,d\theta$$

(b) Use the formula in part (a) to find the surface area generated by rotating the lemniscate $r^2 = \cos 2\theta$ about the polar axis.

76. (a) Find a formula for the area of the surface generated by rotating the polar curve $r = f(\theta)$, $a \leqslant \theta \leqslant b$ (where f' is continuous and $0 \leqslant a < b \leqslant \pi$), about the line $\theta = \pi/2$.

(b) Find the surface area generated by rotating the lemniscate $r^2 = \cos 2\theta$ about the line $\theta = \pi/2$.

10.5 Conic Sections

In this section we give geometric definitions of parabolas, ellipses, and hyperbolas and derive their standard equations. They are called **conic sections**, or **conics**, because they result from intersecting a cone with a plane as shown in Figure 1.

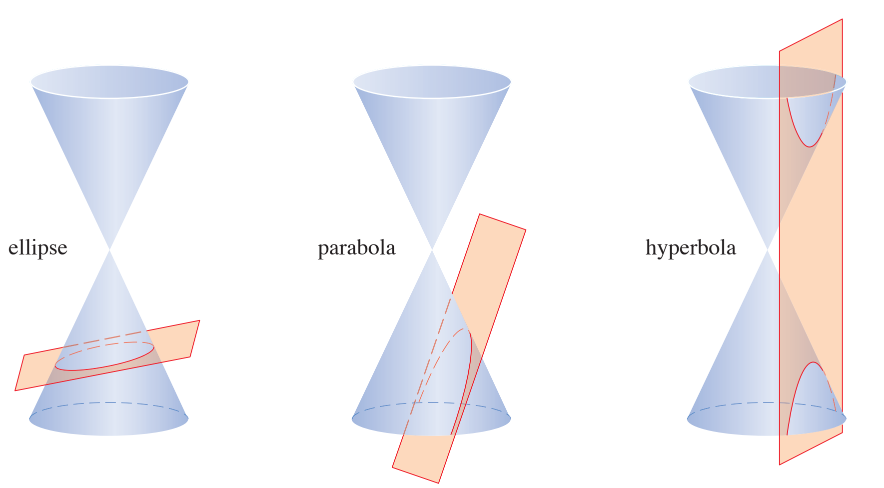


FIGURE 1
Conics

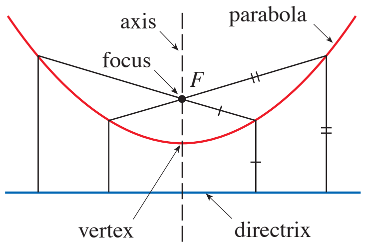


FIGURE 2

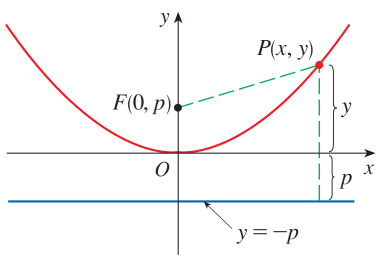


FIGURE 3

Parabolas

A **parabola** is the set of points in a plane that are equidistant from a fixed point F (called the **focus**) and a fixed line (called the **directrix**). This definition is illustrated by Figure 2. Notice that the point halfway between the focus and the directrix lies on the parabola; it is called the **vertex**. The line through the focus perpendicular to the directrix is called the **axis** of the parabola.

In the 16th century Galileo showed that the path of a projectile that is shot into the air at an angle to the ground is a parabola. Since then, parabolic shapes have been used in designing automobile headlights, reflecting telescopes, and suspension bridges. (See Problem 22 in Problems Plus following Chapter 3 for the reflection property of parabolas that makes them so useful.)

We obtain a particularly simple equation for a parabola if we place its vertex at the origin O and its directrix parallel to the x-axis as in Figure 3. If the focus is the point $(0, p)$, then the directrix has the equation $y = -p$. If $P(x, y)$ is any point on the parabola, then the distance from P to the focus is

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

and the distance from P to the directrix is $|y + p|$. (Figure 3 illustrates the case where $p > 0$.) The defining property of a parabola is that these distances are equal:

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

We get an equivalent equation by squaring and simplifying:

$$x^2 + (y - p)^2 = |y + p|^2 = (y + p)^2$$

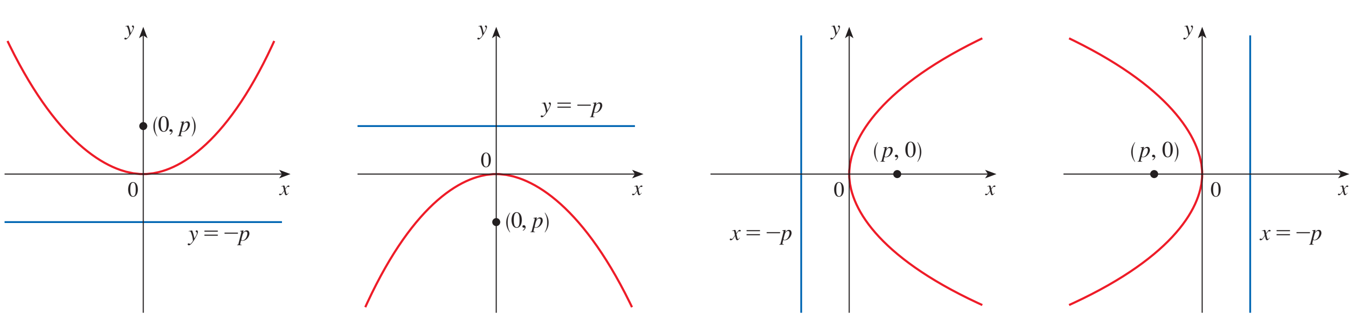
$$x^2 + y^2 - 2py + p^2 = y^2 + 2py + p^2$$

$$x^2 = 4py$$

1 An equation of the parabola with focus $(0, p)$ and directrix $y = -p$ is

$$x^2 = 4py$$

If we write $a = 1/(4p)$, then the standard equation of a parabola (1) becomes $y = ax^2$. It opens upward if $p > 0$ and downward if $p < 0$ [see Figure 4, parts (a) and (b)]. The graph is symmetric with respect to the y-axis because (1) is unchanged when x is replaced by $-x$.



(a) $x^2 = 4py$, $p > 0$ (b) $x^2 = 4py$, $p < 0$ (c) $y^2 = 4px$, $p > 0$ (d) $y^2 = 4px$, $p < 0$

FIGURE 4

If we interchange x and y in (1), we obtain the following.

2 An equation of the parabola with focus $(p, 0)$ and directrix $x = -p$ is

$$y^2 = 4px$$

(Interchanging x and y amounts to reflecting about the diagonal line $y = x$.) The parabola opens to the right if $p > 0$ and to the left if $p < 0$ [see Figure 4, parts (c) and (d)]. In both cases the graph is symmetric with respect to the x-axis, which is the axis of the parabola.

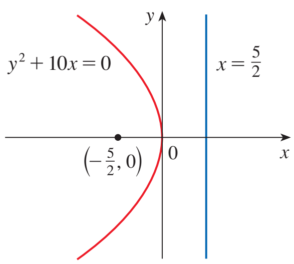


FIGURE 5

EXAMPLE 1 Find the focus and directrix of the parabola $y^2 + 10x = 0$ and sketch the graph.

SOLUTION If we write the equation as $y^2 = -10x$ and compare it with Equation 2, we see that $4p = -10$, so $p = -\frac{5}{2}$. Thus the focus is $(p, 0) = \left(-\frac{5}{2}, 0\right)$ and the directrix is $x = \frac{5}{2}$. The sketch is shown in Figure 5. ■

Ellipses

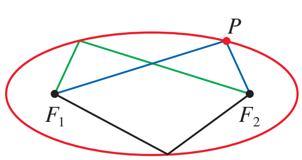


FIGURE 6

An **ellipse** is the set of points in a plane the sum of whose distances from two fixed points F_1 and F_2 is a constant (see Figure 6). These two fixed points are called the **foci** (plural of **focus**). One of Kepler's laws is that the orbits of the planets in the solar system are ellipses with the sun at one focus.

In order to obtain the simplest equation for an ellipse, we place the foci on the x-axis at the points $(-c, 0)$ and $(c, 0)$ as in Figure 7 so that the origin is halfway between the foci. Let the sum of the distances from a point on the ellipse to the foci be $2a > 0$. Then $P(x, y)$ is a point on the ellipse when

$$|PF_1| + |PF_2| = 2a$$

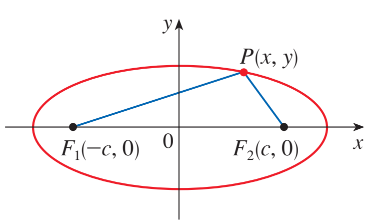


FIGURE 7
P is on the ellipse when $|PF_1| + |PF_2| = 2a$.

that is,
$$\sqrt{(x + c)^2 + y^2} + \sqrt{(x - c)^2 + y^2} = 2a$$

or
$$\sqrt{(x - c)^2 + y^2} = 2a - \sqrt{(x + c)^2 + y^2}$$

Squaring both sides, we have

$$x^2 - 2cx + c^2 + y^2 = 4a^2 - 4a\sqrt{(x + c)^2 + y^2} + x^2 + 2cx + c^2 + y^2$$

which simplifies to
$$a\sqrt{(x + c)^2 + y^2} = a^2 + cx$$

We square again:

$$a^2(x^2 + 2cx + c^2 + y^2) = a^4 + 2a^2cx + c^2x^2$$

which becomes
$$(a^2 - c^2)x^2 + a^2y^2 = a^2(a^2 - c^2)$$

From triangle F_1F_2P in Figure 7 we can see that $2c < 2a$, so $c < a$ and therefore $a^2 - c^2 > 0$. For convenience, let $b^2 = a^2 - c^2$. Then the equation of the ellipse becomes $b^2x^2 + a^2y^2 = a^2b^2$ or, if both sides are divided by a^2b^2,

3
$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

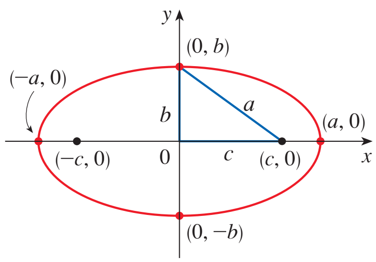


FIGURE 8
$\dfrac{x^2}{a^2} + \dfrac{y^2}{b^2} = 1,\ a \geqslant b$

Since $b^2 = a^2 - c^2 < a^2$, it follows that $b < a$. The x-intercepts are found by setting $y = 0$. Then $x^2/a^2 = 1$, or $x^2 = a^2$, so $x = \pm a$. The corresponding points $(a, 0)$ and $(-a, 0)$ are called the **vertices** of the ellipse and the line segment joining the vertices is called the **major axis**. To find the y-intercepts we set $x = 0$ and obtain $y^2 = b^2$, so $y = \pm b$. The line segment joining $(0, b)$ and $(0, -b)$ is the **minor axis**. Equation 3 is unchanged if x is replaced by $-x$ or y is replaced by $-y$, so the ellipse is symmetric about both axes. Notice that if the foci coincide, then $c = 0$, so $a = b$ and the ellipse becomes a circle with radius $r = a = b$.

We summarize this discussion as follows (see also Figure 8).

4 The ellipse

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1 \qquad a \geqslant b > 0$$

has foci $(\pm c, 0)$, where $c^2 = a^2 - b^2$, and vertices $(\pm a, 0)$.

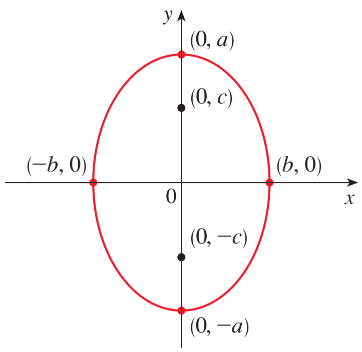


FIGURE 9
$\dfrac{x^2}{b^2} + \dfrac{y^2}{a^2} = 1,\ a \geqslant b$

If the foci of an ellipse are located on the y-axis at $(0, \pm c)$, then we can find its equation by interchanging x and y in (4). (See Figure 9.)

5 The ellipse

$$\frac{x^2}{b^2} + \frac{y^2}{a^2} = 1 \qquad a \geqslant b > 0$$

has foci $(0, \pm c)$, where $c^2 = a^2 - b^2$, and vertices $(0, \pm a)$.

EXAMPLE 2 Sketch the graph of $9x^2 + 16y^2 = 144$ and locate the foci.

SOLUTION Divide both sides of the equation by 144:

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

The equation is now in the standard form for an ellipse, so we have $a^2 = 16$, $b^2 = 9$, $a = 4$, and $b = 3$. The x-intercepts are ± 4 and the y-intercepts are ± 3. Also, $c^2 = a^2 - b^2 = 7$, so $c = \sqrt{7}$ and the foci are $(\pm\sqrt{7}, 0)$. The graph is sketched in Figure 10. ■

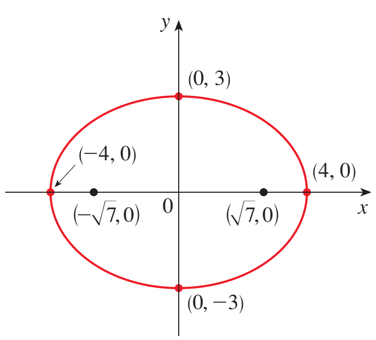


FIGURE 10
$9x^2 + 16y^2 = 144$

EXAMPLE 3 Find an equation of the ellipse with foci $(0, \pm 2)$ and vertices $(0, \pm 3)$.

SOLUTION Using the notation of (5), we have $c = 2$ and $a = 3$. Then we obtain $b^2 = a^2 - c^2 = 9 - 4 = 5$, so an equation of the ellipse is

$$\frac{x^2}{5} + \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$$

Another way of writing the equation is $9x^2 + 5y^2 = 45$. ■

Like parabolas, ellipses have an interesting reflection property that has practical consequences. If a source of light or sound is placed at one focus of a surface with elliptical cross-sections, then all the light or sound is reflected off the surface to the other focus (see Exercise 67). This principle is used in *lithotripsy,* a treatment for kidney stones. A reflector with elliptical cross-section is placed in such a way that the kidney stone is at one focus. High-intensity sound waves generated at the other focus are reflected to the stone and destroy it without damaging surrounding tissue. The patient is spared the trauma of surgery and recovers within a few days.

Hyperbolas

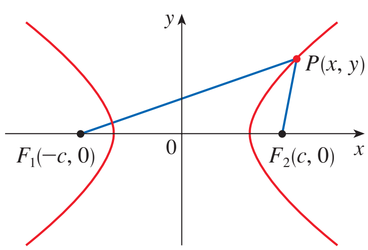


FIGURE 11 P is on the hyperbola when $|PF_1| - |PF_2| = \pm 2a$.

A **hyperbola** is the set of all points in a plane the difference of whose distances from two fixed points F_1 and F_2 (the **foci**) is a constant. This definition is illustrated in Figure 11.

Hyperbolas occur frequently as graphs of equations in chemistry, physics, biology, and economics (Boyle's Law, Ohm's Law, supply and demand curves). A particularly significant application of hyperbolas was found in the long-range navigation systems developed in World Wars I and II (see Exercise 53).

Notice that the definition of a hyperbola is similar to that of an ellipse; the only change is that the sum of distances has become a difference of distances. In fact, the derivation of the equation of a hyperbola is also similar to the one given earlier for an ellipse. It is left as Exercise 54 to show that when the foci are on the x-axis at $(\pm c, 0)$ and the difference of distances is $|PF_1| - |PF_2| = \pm 2a$, then the equation of the hyperbola is

$$\boxed{6} \qquad \frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

where $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$. Notice that the x-intercepts are again $\pm a$ and the points $(a, 0)$ and $(-a, 0)$ are the **vertices** of the hyperbola. But if we put $x = 0$ in Equation 6 we get $y^2 = -b^2$, which is impossible, so there is no y-intercept. The hyperbola is symmetric with respect to both axes.

To analyze the hyperbola further, we look at Equation 6 and obtain

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

This shows that $x^2 \geqslant a^2$, so $|x| = \sqrt{x^2} \geqslant a$. Therefore we have $x \geqslant a$ or $x \leqslant -a$. This means that the hyperbola consists of two parts, called its *branches*.

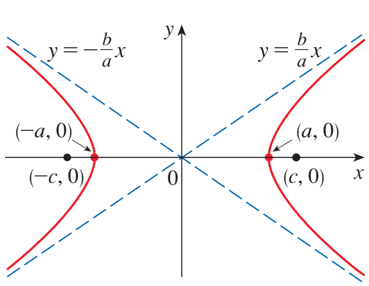


FIGURE 12
$\dfrac{x^2}{a^2} - \dfrac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$

When we draw a hyperbola it is useful to first draw its **asymptotes**, which are the dashed lines $y = (b/a)x$ and $y = -(b/a)x$ shown in Figure 12. Both branches of the hyperbola approach the asymptotes; that is, they come arbitrarily close to the asymptotes. (See Exercise 4.5.77, where these lines are shown to be slant asymptotes.)

7 The hyperbola

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

has foci $(\pm c, 0)$, where $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$, vertices $(\pm a, 0)$, and asymptotes $y = \pm(b/a)x$.

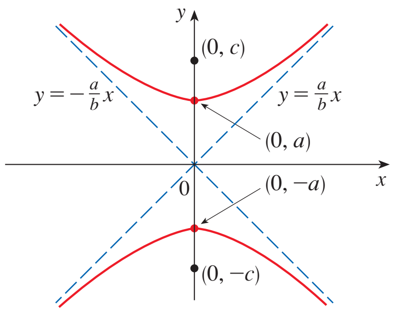


FIGURE 13
$\frac{y^2}{a^2} - \frac{x^2}{b^2} = 1$

If the foci of a hyperbola are on the y-axis, then by reversing the roles of x and y we obtain the following information, which is illustrated in Figure 13.

8 The hyperbola

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

has foci $(0, \pm c)$, where $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$, vertices $(0, \pm a)$, and asymptotes $y = \pm(a/b)x$.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the foci and asymptotes of the hyperbola $9x^2 - 16y^2 = 144$ and sketch its graph.

SOLUTION If we divide both sides of the equation by 144, it becomes

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

which is of the form given in (7) with $a = 4$ and $b = 3$. Since $c^2 = 16 + 9 = 25$, the foci are $(\pm 5, 0)$. The asymptotes are the lines $y = \frac{3}{4}x$ and $y = -\frac{3}{4}x$. The graph is shown in Figure 14. ■

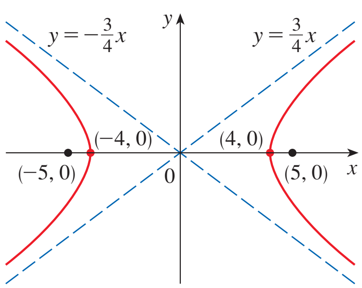


FIGURE 14
$9x^2 - 16y^2 = 144$

EXAMPLE 5 Find the foci and equation of the hyperbola with vertices $(0, \pm 1)$ and asymptote $y = 2x$.

SOLUTION From (8) and the given information, we see that $a = 1$ and $a/b = 2$. Thus $b = a/2 = \frac{1}{2}$ and $c^2 = a^2 + b^2 = \frac{5}{4}$. The foci are $\left(0, \pm\sqrt{5}/2\right)$ and the equation of the hyperbola is

$$y^2 - 4x^2 = 1$$ ■

■ Shifted Conics

As discussed in Appendix C, we shift conics by taking the standard equations (1), (2), (4), (5), (7), and (8) and replacing x and y by $x - h$ and $y - k$.

EXAMPLE 6 Find an equation of the ellipse with foci $(2, -2)$, $(4, -2)$ and vertices $(1, -2)$, $(5, -2)$.

SOLUTION The major axis is the line segment that joins the vertices $(1, -2)$, $(5, -2)$ and has length 4, so $a = 2$. The distance between the foci is 2, so $c = 1$. Thus $b^2 = a^2 - c^2 = 3$. Since the center of the ellipse is $(3, -2)$, we replace x and y in (4) by $x - 3$ and $y + 2$ to obtain

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

as the equation of the ellipse. ■

EXAMPLE 7 Sketch the conic $9x^2 - 4y^2 - 72x + 8y + 176 = 0$ and find its foci.

SOLUTION We complete the squares as follows:

$$4(y^2 - 2y) - 9(x^2 - 8x) = 176$$

$$4(y^2 - 2y + 1) - 9(x^2 - 8x + 16) = 176 + 4 - 144$$

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

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

This is in the form (8) except that x and y are replaced by $x - 4$ and $y - 1$. Thus $a^2 = 9$, $b^2 = 4$, and $c^2 = 13$. The hyperbola is shifted four units to the right and one unit upward. The foci are $(4, 1 + \sqrt{13})$ and $(4, 1 - \sqrt{13})$ and the vertices are $(4, 4)$ and $(4, -2)$. The asymptotes are $y - 1 = \pm\frac{3}{2}(x - 4)$. The hyperbola is sketched in Figure 15. ■

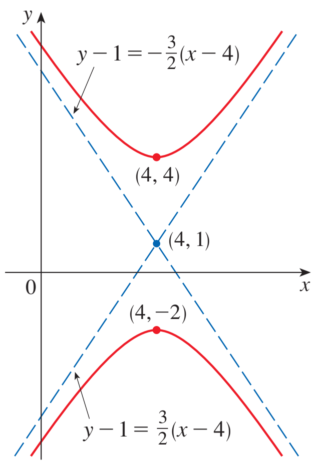


FIGURE 15
$9x^2 - 4y^2 - 72x + 8y + 176 = 0$

10.5 Exercises

1–8 Find the vertex, focus, and directrix of the parabola and sketch its graph.

1. $x^2 = 8y$

2. $9x = y^2$

3. $5x + 3y^2 = 0$

4. $x^2 + 12y = 0$

5. $(y + 1)^2 = 16(x - 3)$

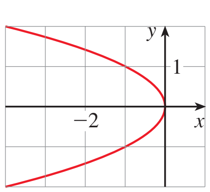
6. $(x - 3)^2 = 8(y + 1)$

7. $y^2 + 6y + 2x + 1 = 0$

8. $2x^2 - 16x - 3y + 38 = 0$

9–10 Find an equation of the parabola. Then find the focus and directrix.

9.



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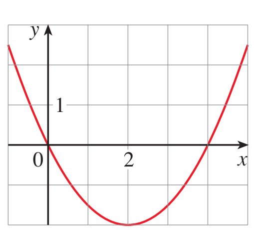


11–16 Find the vertices and foci of the ellipse and sketch its graph.

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

12. $\dfrac{x^2}{4} + \dfrac{y^2}{3} = 1$

13. $x^2 + 3y^2 = 9$

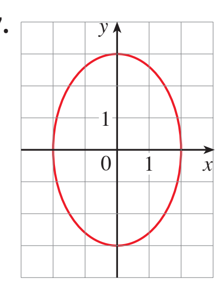
14. $x^2 = 4 - 2y^2$

15. $4x^2 + 25y^2 - 50y = 75$

16. $9x^2 - 54x + y^2 + 2y + 46 = 0$

17–18 Find an equation of the ellipse. Then find its foci.

17.



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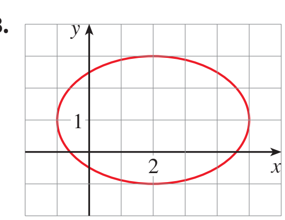


19–24 Find the vertices, foci, and asymptotes of the hyperbola and sketch its graph.

19. $\dfrac{y^2}{25} - \dfrac{x^2}{9} = 1$

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

21. $x^2 - y^2 = 100$

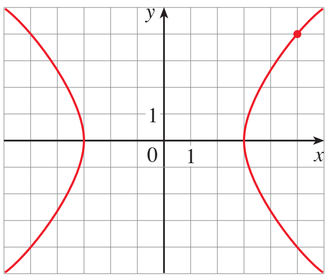
22. $y^2 - 16x^2 = 16$

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

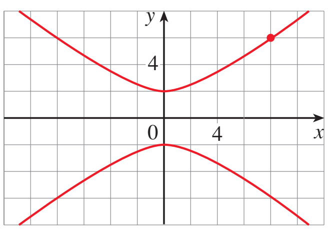
24. $9y^2 - 4x^2 - 36y - 8x = 4$

25–26 Find an equation for the hyperbola. Then find the foci and asymptotes.

25.



26.



27–32 Identify the type of conic section whose equation is given and find the vertices and foci.

27. $4x^2 = y^2 + 4$

28. $4x^2 = y + 4$

29. $x^2 = 4y - 2y^2$

30. $y^2 - 2 = x^2 - 2x$

31. $3x^2 - 6x - 2y = 1$

32. $x^2 - 2x + 2y^2 - 8y + 7 = 0$

33–50 Find an equation for the conic that satisfies the given conditions.

33. Parabola, vertex $(0, 0)$, focus $(1, 0)$

34. Parabola, focus $(0, 0)$, directrix $y = 6$

35. Parabola, focus $(-4, 0)$, directrix $x = 2$

36. Parabola, focus $(2, -1)$, vertex $(2, 3)$

37. Parabola, vertex $(3, -1)$, horizontal axis, passing through $(-15, 2)$

38. Parabola, vertical axis, passing through $(0, 4)$, $(1, 3)$, and $(-2, -6)$

39. Ellipse, foci $(\pm 2, 0)$, vertices $(\pm 5, 0)$

40. Ellipse, foci $(0, \pm\sqrt{2})$, vertices $(0, \pm 2)$

41. Ellipse, foci $(0, 2)$, $(0, 6)$, vertices $(0, 0)$, $(0, 8)$

42. Ellipse, foci $(0, -1)$, $(8, -1)$, vertex $(9, -1)$

43. Ellipse, center $(-1, 4)$, vertex $(-1, 0)$, focus $(-1, 6)$

44. Ellipse, foci $(\pm 4, 0)$, passing through $(-4, 1.8)$

45. Hyperbola, vertices $(\pm 3, 0)$, foci $(\pm 5, 0)$

46. Hyperbola, vertices $(0, \pm 2)$, foci $(0, \pm 5)$

47. Hyperbola, vertices $(-3, -4)$, $(-3, 6)$, foci $(-3, -7)$, $(-3, 9)$

48. Hyperbola, vertices $(-1, 2)$, $(7, 2)$, foci $(-2, 2)$, $(8, 2)$

49. Hyperbola, vertices $(\pm 3, 0)$, asymptotes $y = \pm 2x$

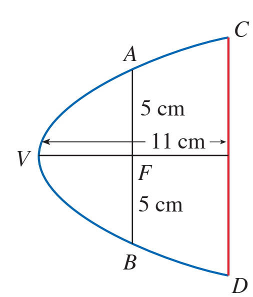
50. Hyperbola, foci $(2, 0)$, $(2, 8)$, asymptotes $y = 3 + \frac{1}{2}x$ and $y = 5 - \frac{1}{2}x$

51. The point in a lunar orbit nearest the surface of the moon is called *perilune* and the point farthest from the surface is called *apolune*. The *Apollo 11* spacecraft was placed in an elliptical lunar orbit with perilune altitude 110 km and apolune altitude 314 km (above the moon). Find an equation of this ellipse if the radius of the moon is 1728 km and the center of the moon is at one focus.

52. A cross-section of a parabolic reflector is shown in the figure. The bulb is located at the focus and the opening at the focus is 10 cm.

(a) Find an equation of the parabola.

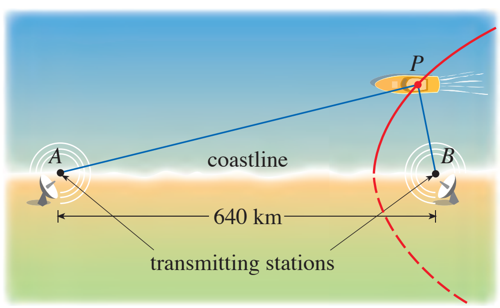
(b) Find the diameter of the opening $|CD|$, 11 cm from the vertex.



53. The LORAN (LOng RAnge Navigation) radio navigation system was widely used until the 1990s when it was superseded by the GPS system. In the LORAN system, two radio stations located at A and B transmit simultaneous signals to a ship or an aircraft located at P. The onboard computer converts the time difference in receiving these signals into a distance difference $|PA| - |PB|$, and this, according to the definition of a hyperbola, locates the ship or aircraft on one branch of a hyperbola (see the figure). Suppose that station B is located 640 km due east of station A on a coastline. A ship received the signal from station B 1200 microseconds (μs) before it received the signal from station A.

(a) Assuming that radio signals travel at a speed of 300 m/μs, find an equation of the hyperbola on which the ship lies.

(b) If the ship is due north of B, how far off the coastline is the ship?



54. Use the definition of a hyperbola to derive Equation 6 for a hyperbola with foci $(\pm c, 0)$ and vertices $(\pm a, 0)$.

55. Show that the function defined by the upper branch of the hyperbola $y^2/a^2 - x^2/b^2 = 1$ is concave upward.

56. Find an equation for the ellipse with foci $(1, 1)$ and $(-1, -1)$ and major axis of length 4.

57. Determine the type of curve represented by the equation

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

in each of the following cases:

(a) $k > 16$ (b) $0 < k < 16$ (c) $k < 0$

(d) Show that all the curves in parts (a) and (b) have the same foci, no matter what the value of k is.

58. (a) Show that the equation of the tangent line to the parabola $y^2 = 4px$ at the point (x_0, y_0) can be written as

$$y_0 y = 2p(x + x_0)$$

(b) What is the x-intercept of this tangent line? Use this fact to draw the tangent line.

59. Show that the tangent lines to the parabola $x^2 = 4py$ drawn from any point on the directrix are perpendicular.

60. Show that if an ellipse and a hyperbola have the same foci, then their tangent lines at each point of intersection are perpendicular.

61. Use parametric equations and Simpson's Rule with $n = 8$ to estimate the circumference of the ellipse $9x^2 + 4y^2 = 36$.

62. The dwarf planet Pluto travels in an elliptical orbit around the sun (at one focus). The length of the major axis is 1.18×10^{10} km and the length of the minor axis is 1.14×10^{10} km. Use Simpson's Rule with $n = 10$ to estimate the distance traveled by the planet during one complete orbit around the sun.

63. Find the area of the region enclosed by the hyperbola $x^2/a^2 - y^2/b^2 = 1$ and the vertical line through a focus.

64. (a) If an ellipse is rotated about its major axis, find the volume of the resulting solid.

(b) If it is rotated about its minor axis, find the resulting volume.

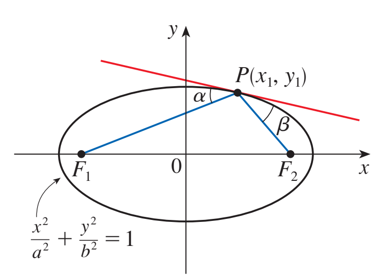
65. Find the centroid of the region enclosed by the x-axis and the top half of the ellipse $9x^2 + 4y^2 = 36$.

66. (a) Calculate the surface area of the ellipsoid that is generated by rotating an ellipse about its major axis.

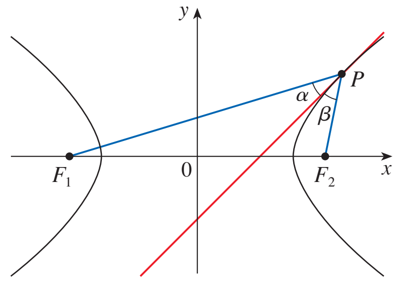
(b) What is the surface area if the ellipse is rotated about its minor axis?

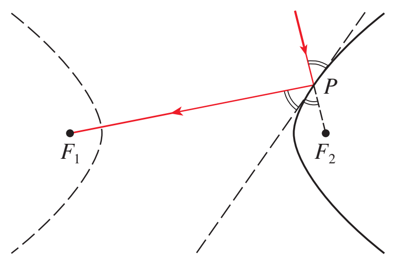
67–68 Reflection Properties of Conic Sections We saw the reflection property of parabolas in Problem 22 of Problems Plus following Chapter 3. Here we investigate the reflection properties of ellipses and hyperbolas.

67. Let $P(x_1, y_1)$ be a point on the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$ with foci F_1 and F_2 and let α and β be the angles between the lines PF_1, PF_2 and the ellipse as shown in the figure. Prove that $\alpha = \beta$. This explains how whispering galleries and lithotripsy work. Sound coming from one focus is reflected and passes through the other focus. [*Hint:* Use the formula in Problem 21 in Problems Plus following Chapter 3 to show that $\tan\alpha = \tan\beta$.]

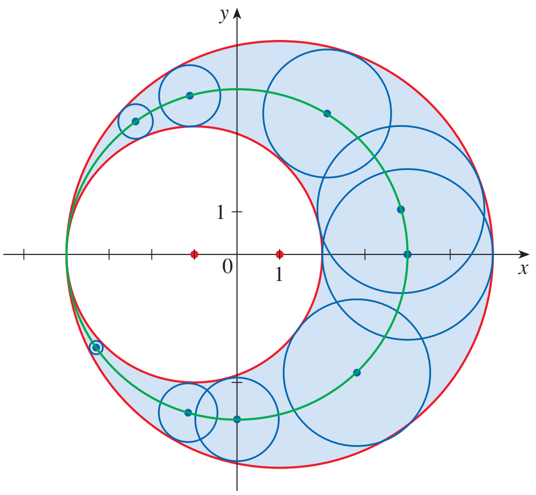


68. Let $P(x_1, y_1)$ be a point on the hyperbola $x^2/a^2 - y^2/b^2 = 1$ with foci F_1 and F_2 and let α and β be the angles between the lines PF_1, PF_2 and the hyperbola as shown in the figure. Prove that $\alpha = \beta$. This shows that light aimed at a focus F_2 of a hyperbolic mirror is reflected toward the other focus F_1.





69. The graph shows two red circles with centers $(-1, 0)$ and $(1, 0)$ and radii 3 and 5, respectively. Consider the collection of all circles tangent to both of these circles. (Some of these are shown in blue.) Show that the centers of all such circles lie on an ellipse with foci $(\pm 1, 0)$. Find an equation of this ellipse.



10.6 Conic Sections in Polar Coordinates

In Section 10.5 we defined the parabola in terms of a focus and directrix, but we defined the ellipse and hyperbola in terms of two foci. In this section we give a more unified treatment of all three types of conic sections in terms of a focus and directrix.

A Unified Description of Conics

If we place the focus at the origin, then a conic section has a simple polar equation, which provides a convenient description of the motion of planets, satellites, and comets.

1 Theorem Let F be a fixed point (called the **focus**) and l be a fixed line (called the **directrix**) in a plane. Let e be a fixed positive number (called the **eccentricity**). The set of all points P in the plane such that

$$\frac{|PF|}{|Pl|} = e$$

(that is, the ratio of the distance from F to the distance from l is the constant e) is a conic section. The conic is

(a) an ellipse if $e < 1$

(b) a parabola if $e = 1$

(c) a hyperbola if $e > 1$

PROOF Notice that if the eccentricity is $e = 1$, then $|PF| = |Pl|$ and so the given condition simply becomes the definition of a parabola as given in Section 10.5.

Let us place the focus F at the origin and the directrix parallel to the y-axis and d units to the right. Thus the directrix has equation $x = d$ and is perpendicular to the polar axis. If the point P has polar coordinates (r, θ), we see from Figure 1 that

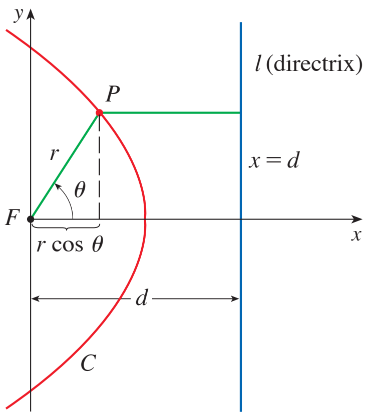


FIGURE 1

$$|PF| = r \qquad |Pl| = d - r\cos\theta$$

Thus the condition $|PF|/|Pl| = e$, or $|PF| = e|Pl|$, becomes

$$r = e(d - r\cos\theta) \tag{2}$$

If we square both sides of this polar equation and convert to rectangular coordinates, we get

$$x^2 + y^2 = e^2(d - x)^2 = e^2(d^2 - 2dx + x^2)$$

or

$$(1 - e^2)x^2 + 2de^2x + y^2 = e^2d^2$$

After completing the square, we have

$$\left(x + \frac{e^2d}{1 - e^2}\right)^2 + \frac{y^2}{1 - e^2} = \frac{e^2d^2}{(1 - e^2)^2} \tag{3}$$

If $e < 1$, we recognize Equation 3 as the equation of an ellipse. In fact, it is of the form

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

where

$$h = -\frac{e^2d}{1 - e^2} \qquad a^2 = \frac{e^2d^2}{(1 - e^2)^2} \qquad b^2 = \frac{e^2d^2}{1 - e^2} \tag{4}$$

In Section 10.5 we found that the foci of an ellipse are at a distance c from the center, where

$$c^2 = a^2 - b^2 = \frac{e^4d^2}{(1 - e^2)^2} \tag{5}$$

This shows that

$$c = \frac{e^2d}{1 - e^2} = -h$$

and confirms that the focus as defined in Theorem 1 means the same as the focus defined in Section 10.5. It also follows from Equations 4 and 5 that the eccentricity is given by

$$e = \frac{c}{a}$$

If $e > 1$, then $1 - e^2 < 0$ and we see that Equation 3 represents a hyperbola. Just as we did before, we could rewrite Equation 3 in the form

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

and see that

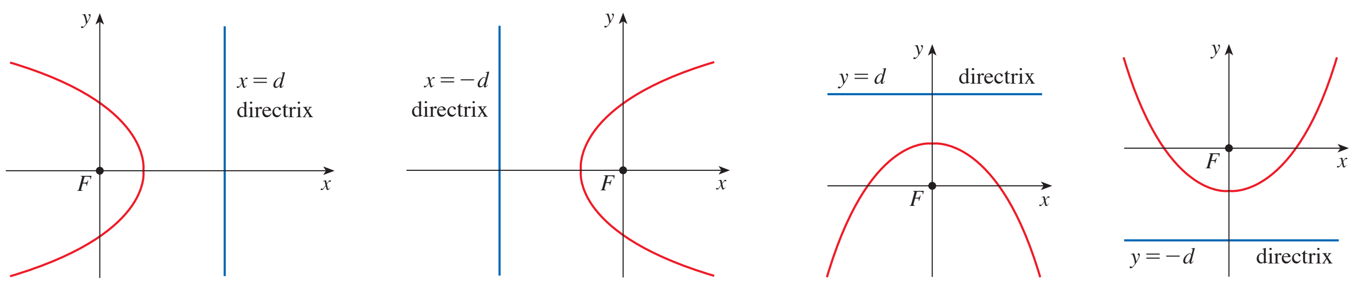
$$e = \frac{c}{a} \qquad \text{where} \quad c^2 = a^2 + b^2$$

Polar Equations of Conics

In Figure 1, the focus of the conic section is located at the origin and the directrix has equation $x = d$. By solving Equation 2 for r, we see that the polar equation of this conic can be written as

$$r = \frac{ed}{1 + e\cos\theta}$$

If the directrix is chosen to be to the left of the focus as $x = -d$, or if the directrix is chosen to be parallel to the polar axis as $y = \pm d$, then the polar equation of the conic is given by the following theorem, which is illustrated by Figure 2. (See Exercises 27–29.)



(a) $r = \dfrac{ed}{1 + e\cos\theta}$ (b) $r = \dfrac{ed}{1 - e\cos\theta}$ (c) $r = \dfrac{ed}{1 + e\sin\theta}$ (d) $r = \dfrac{ed}{1 - e\sin\theta}$

FIGURE 2 Polar equations of conics

6 Theorem A polar equation of the form

$$r = \frac{ed}{1 \pm e\cos\theta} \qquad \text{or} \qquad r = \frac{ed}{1 \pm e\sin\theta}$$

represents a conic section with eccentricity e. The conic is an ellipse if $e < 1$, a parabola if $e = 1$, or a hyperbola if $e > 1$.

EXAMPLE 1 Find a polar equation for a parabola that has its focus at the origin and whose directrix is the line $y = -6$.

SOLUTION Using Theorem 6 with $e = 1$ and $d = 6$, and using part (d) of Figure 2, we see that the equation of the parabola is

$$r = \frac{6}{1 - \sin\theta}$$

EXAMPLE 2 A conic is given by the polar equation

$$r = \frac{10}{3 - 2\cos\theta}$$

Find the eccentricity, identify the conic, locate the directrix, and sketch the conic.

SOLUTION Dividing numerator and denominator by 3, we write the equation as

$$r = \frac{\frac{10}{3}}{1 - \frac{2}{3}\cos\theta}$$

From Theorem 6 we see that this represents an ellipse with $e = \frac{2}{3}$. Since $ed = \frac{10}{3}$, we have

$$d = \frac{\frac{10}{3}}{e} = \frac{\frac{10}{3}}{\frac{2}{3}} = 5$$

and so the directrix has Cartesian equation $x = -5$. We find the values for r when $\theta = 0, \pi/2, \pi$, and $3\pi/2$, as shown in the table. The ellipse is sketched in Figure 3.

θ	r
0	10
$\frac{\pi}{2}$	$\frac{10}{3}$
π	2
$\frac{3\pi}{2}$	$\frac{10}{3}$

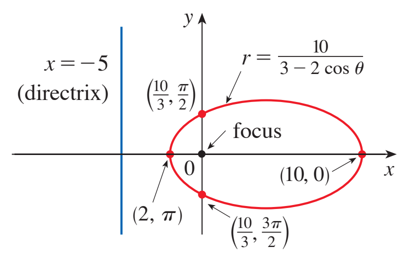


FIGURE 3

$r = \dfrac{10}{3 - 2\cos\theta}$

EXAMPLE 3 Sketch the conic $r = \dfrac{12}{2 + 4\sin\theta}$.

SOLUTION Writing the equation in the form

$$r = \frac{6}{1 + 2\sin\theta}$$

we see that the eccentricity is $e = 2$ and the equation therefore represents a hyperbola. Since $ed = 6$, we have $d = 3$ and the directrix has equation $y = 3$. We find the values for r when $\theta = 0, \pi/2, \pi$, and $3\pi/2$ as shown in the table. The vertices occur when $\theta = \pi/2$ and $3\pi/2$, so they are $(2, \pi/2)$ and $(-6, 3\pi/2) = (6, \pi/2)$. The x-intercepts occur when $\theta = 0, \pi$; in both cases $r = 6$. For additional accuracy we draw the asymptotes. Note that $r \to \pm\infty$ when $1 + 2\sin\theta \to 0^+$ or 0^- and $1 + 2\sin\theta = 0$ when $\sin\theta = -\frac{1}{2}$. Thus the asymptotes are parallel to the rays $\theta = 7\pi/6$ and $\theta = 11\pi/6$. The hyperbola is sketched in Figure 4.

θ	r
0	6
$\frac{\pi}{2}$	2
π	6
$\frac{3\pi}{2}$	-6

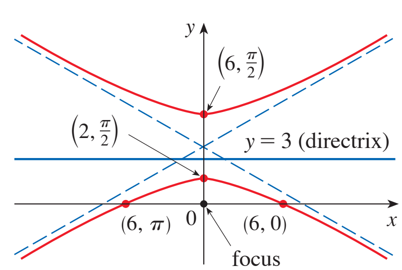


FIGURE 4

$r = \dfrac{12}{2 + 4\sin\theta}$

When rotating conic sections, we find it much more convenient to use polar equations than Cartesian equations. We just use the fact (see Exercise 10.3.65) that the graph of

$r = f(\theta - \alpha)$ is the graph of $r = f(\theta)$ rotated counterclockwise about the origin through an angle α.

EXAMPLE 4 If the ellipse of Example 2 is rotated through an angle $\pi/4$ about the origin, find a polar equation and graph the resulting ellipse.

SOLUTION We get the equation of the rotated ellipse by replacing θ with $\theta - \pi/4$ in the equation given in Example 2. So the new equation is

$$r = \frac{10}{3 - 2\cos(\theta - \pi/4)}$$

We use this equation to graph the rotated ellipse in Figure 5. Notice that the ellipse has been rotated about its left focus. ■

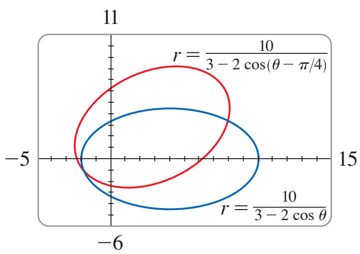


FIGURE 5

In Figure 6 we use a computer to sketch a number of conics to demonstrate the effect of varying the eccentricity e. Notice that when e is close to 0 the ellipse is nearly circular, whereas it becomes more elongated as $e \to 1^-$. When $e = 1$, of course, the conic is a parabola.

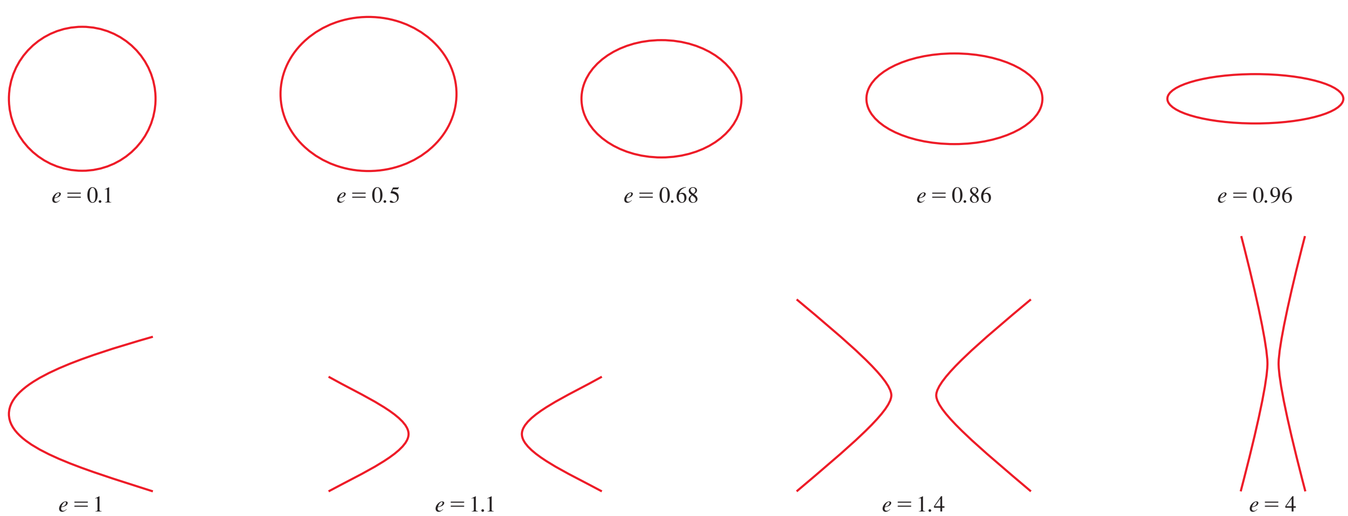


FIGURE 6

Kepler's Laws

In 1609 the German mathematician and astronomer Johannes Kepler, on the basis of huge amounts of astronomical data, published the following three laws of planetary motion.

Kepler's Laws

1. A planet revolves around the sun in an elliptical orbit with the sun at one focus.
2. The line joining the sun to a planet sweeps out equal areas in equal times.
3. The square of the period of revolution of a planet is proportional to the cube of the length of the major axis of its orbit.

Although Kepler formulated his laws in terms of the motion of planets around the sun, they apply equally well to the motion of moons, comets, satellites, and other bodies that orbit subject to a single gravitational force. In Section 13.4 we will show how to deduce Kepler's Laws from Newton's Laws. Here we use Kepler's First Law, together with the polar equation of an ellipse, to calculate quantities of interest in astronomy.

For purposes of astronomical calculations, it's useful to express the equation of an ellipse in terms of its eccentricity e and its semimajor axis a. We can write the distance d from the focus to the directrix in terms of a if we use (4):

$$a^2 = \frac{e^2 d^2}{(1 - e^2)^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad d^2 = \frac{a^2(1 - e^2)^2}{e^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad d = \frac{a(1 - e^2)}{e}$$

So $ed = a(1 - e^2)$. If the directrix is $x = d$, then the polar equation is

$$r = \frac{ed}{1 + e\cos\theta} = \frac{a(1 - e^2)}{1 + e\cos\theta}$$

7 The polar equation of an ellipse with focus at the origin, semimajor axis a, eccentricity e, and directrix $x = d$ can be written in the form

$$r = \frac{a(1 - e^2)}{1 + e\cos\theta}$$

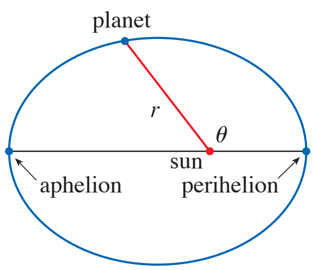


FIGURE 7

The positions of a planet that are closest to and farthest from the sun are called its **perihelion** and **aphelion**, respectively, and correspond to the vertices of the ellipse (see Figure 7). The distances from the sun to the perihelion and aphelion are called the **perihelion distance** and **aphelion distance**, respectively. In Figure 1 the sun is at the focus F, so at perihelion we have $\theta = 0$ and, from Equation 7,

$$r = \frac{a(1 - e^2)}{1 + e\cos 0} = \frac{a(1 - e)(1 + e)}{1 + e} = a(1 - e)$$

Similarly, at aphelion $\theta = \pi$ and $r = a(1 + e)$.

8 The perihelion distance from a planet to the sun is $a(1 - e)$ and the aphelion distance is $a(1 + e)$.

EXAMPLE 5

(a) Find an approximate polar equation for the elliptical orbit of the earth around the sun (at one focus) given that the eccentricity is about 0.017 and the length of the major axis is about 2.99×10^8 km.
(b) Find the distance from the earth to the sun at perihelion and at aphelion.

SOLUTION

(a) The length of the major axis is $2a = 2.99 \times 10^8$, so $a = 1.495 \times 10^8$. We are given that $e = 0.017$ and so, from Equation 7, an equation of the earth's orbit around the sun is

$$r = \frac{a(1 - e^2)}{1 + e \cos\theta} = \frac{(1.495 \times 10^8)[1 - (0.017)^2]}{1 + 0.017 \cos\theta}$$

or, approximately,

$$r = \frac{1.49 \times 10^8}{1 + 0.017 \cos\theta}$$

(b) From (8), the perihelion distance from the earth to the sun is

$$a(1 - e) \approx (1.495 \times 10^8)(1 - 0.017) \approx 1.47 \times 10^8 \text{ km}$$

and the aphelion distance is

$$a(1 + e) \approx (1.495 \times 10^8)(1 + 0.017) \approx 1.52 \times 10^8 \text{ km}$$ ■

10.6 Exercises

1–8 Write a polar equation of a conic with the focus at the origin and the given data.

1. Parabola, directrix $x = 2$

2. Ellipse, eccentricity $\frac{1}{3}$, directrix $y = 6$

3. Hyperbola, eccentricity 2, directrix $y = -4$

4. Hyperbola, eccentricity $\frac{5}{2}$, directrix $x = -3$

5. Ellipse, eccentricity $\frac{2}{3}$, vertex $(2, \pi)$

6. Ellipse, eccentricity 0.6, directrix $r = 4 \csc\theta$

7. Parabola, vertex $(3, \pi/2)$

8. Hyperbola, eccentricity 2, directrix $r = -2 \sec\theta$

9–14 Match the polar equations with the graphs labeled I–VI. Give reasons for your answer.

9. $r = \dfrac{3}{1 - \sin\theta}$

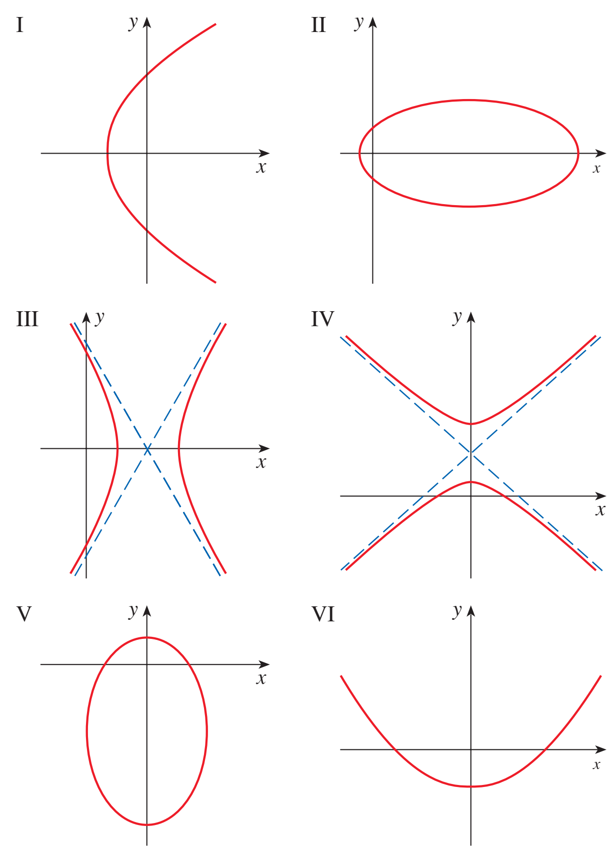
10. $r = \dfrac{9}{1 + 2\cos\theta}$

11. $r = \dfrac{12}{8 - 7\cos\theta}$

12. $r = \dfrac{12}{4 + 3\sin\theta}$

13. $r = \dfrac{5}{2 + 3\sin\theta}$

14. $r = \dfrac{3}{2 - 2\cos\theta}$



15–22 (a) Find the eccentricity, (b) identify the conic, (c) give an equation of the directrix, and (d) sketch the conic.

15. $r = \dfrac{4}{5 - 4\sin\theta}$

16. $r = \dfrac{1}{2 + \sin\theta}$

17. $r = \dfrac{2}{3 + 3\sin\theta}$

18. $r = \dfrac{5}{2 - 4\cos\theta}$

19. $r = \dfrac{9}{6 + 2\cos\theta}$

20. $r = \dfrac{1}{3 - 3\sin\theta}$

21. $r = \dfrac{3}{4 - 8\cos\theta}$

22. $r = \dfrac{4}{2 + 3\cos\theta}$

---

23. (a) Find the eccentricity and directrix of the conic $r = 1/(1 - 2\sin\theta)$ and graph the conic and its directrix.
(b) If this conic is rotated counterclockwise about the origin through an angle $3\pi/4$, write the resulting equation and graph its curve.

24. Graph the conic

$$r = \frac{4}{5 + 6\cos\theta}$$

and its directrix. Also graph the conic obtained by rotating this curve about the origin through an angle $\pi/3$.

25. Graph the conics

$$r = \frac{e}{1 - e\cos\theta}$$

with $e = 0.4, 0.6, 0.8$, and 1.0 on a common screen. How does the value of e affect the shape of the curve?

26. (a) Graph the conics

$$r = \frac{ed}{1 + e\sin\theta}$$

for $e = 1$ and various values of d. How does the value of d affect the shape of the conic?
(b) Graph these conics for $d = 1$ and various values of e. How does the value of e affect the shape of the conic?

27. Show that a conic with focus at the origin, eccentricity e, and directrix $x = -d$ has polar equation

$$r = \frac{ed}{1 - e\cos\theta}$$

28. Show that a conic with focus at the origin, eccentricity e, and directrix $y = d$ has polar equation

$$r = \frac{ed}{1 + e\sin\theta}$$

29. Show that a conic with focus at the origin, eccentricity e, and directrix $y = -d$ has polar equation

$$r = \frac{ed}{1 - e\sin\theta}$$

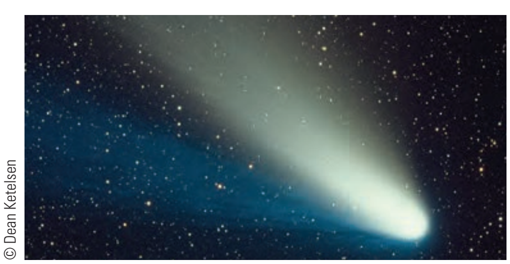
30. Show that the parabolas $r = c/(1 + \cos\theta)$ and $r = d/(1 - \cos\theta)$ intersect at right angles.

31. The orbit of Mars around the sun is an ellipse with eccentricity 0.093 and semimajor axis 2.28×10^8 km. Find a polar equation for the orbit.

32. Jupiter's orbit has eccentricity 0.048 and the length of the major axis is 1.56×10^9 km. Find a polar equation for the orbit.

33. The orbit of Halley's comet, last seen in 1986 and due to return in 2061, is an ellipse with eccentricity 0.97 and one focus at the sun. The length of its major axis is 36.18 AU. [An astronomical unit (AU) is the mean distance between the earth and the sun, about 150 million kilometers.] Find a polar equation for the orbit of Halley's comet. What is the maximum distance from the comet to the sun?

34. Comet Hale-Bopp, discovered in 1995, has an elliptical orbit with eccentricity 0.9951. The length of the orbit's major axis is 356.6 AU. Find a polar equation for the orbit of this comet. How close to the sun does it come?



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35. The planet Mercury travels in an elliptical orbit with eccentricity 0.206. Its minimum distance from the sun is 4.6×10^7 km. Find its maximum distance from the sun.

36. The distance from the dwarf planet Pluto to the sun is 4.43×10^9 km at perihelion and 7.37×10^9 km at aphelion. Find the eccentricity of Pluto's orbit.

37. Using the data from Exercise 35, find the distance traveled by the planet Mercury during one complete orbit around the sun. (Evaluate the resulting definite integral numerically, using a calculator or computer, or use Simpson's Rule.)

10 REVIEW

CONCEPT CHECK

Answers to the Concept Check are available at StewartCalculus.com.

1. (a) What is a parametric curve?
(b) How do you sketch a parametric curve?

2. (a) How do you find the slope of a tangent to a parametric curve?
(b) How do you find the area under a parametric curve?

3. Write an expression for each of the following:
(a) The length of a parametric curve
(b) The area of the surface obtained by rotating a parametric curve about the x-axis
(c) The speed of a particle traveling along a parametric curve

4. (a) Use a diagram to explain the meaning of the polar coordinates (r, θ) of a point.
(b) Write equations that express the Cartesian coordinates (x, y) of a point in terms of the polar coordinates.
(c) What equations would you use to find the polar coordinates of a point if you knew the Cartesian coordinates?

5. (a) How do you find the area of a region bounded by a polar curve?
(b) How do you find the length of a polar curve?
(c) How do you find the slope of a tangent line to a polar curve?

6. (a) Give a geometric definition of a parabola.
(b) Write an equation of a parabola with focus $(0, p)$ and directrix $y = -p$. What if the focus is $(p, 0)$ and the directrix is $x = -p$?

7. (a) Give a definition of an ellipse in terms of foci.
(b) Write an equation for the ellipse with foci $(\pm c, 0)$ and vertices $(\pm a, 0)$.

8. (a) Give a definition of a hyperbola in terms of foci.
(b) Write an equation for the hyperbola with foci $(\pm c, 0)$ and vertices $(\pm a, 0)$.
(c) Write equations for the asymptotes of the hyperbola in part (b).

9. (a) What is the eccentricity of a conic section?
(b) What can you say about the eccentricity if the conic section is an ellipse? A hyperbola? A parabola?
(c) Write a polar equation for a conic section with eccentricity e and directrix $x = d$. What if the directrix is $x = -d$? $y = d$? $y = -d$?

TRUE-FALSE QUIZ

Determine whether the statement is true or false. If it is true, explain why. If it is false, explain why or give an example that disproves the statement.

1. If the parametric curve $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$ satisfies $g'(1) = 0$, then it has a horizontal tangent when $t = 1$.

2. If $x = f(t)$ and $y = g(t)$ are twice differentiable, then

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2y/dt^2}{d^2x/dt^2}$$

3. The length of the curve $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, is

$$\int_a^b \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2}\, dt$$

4. If the position of a particle at time t is given by the parametric equations $x = 3t + 1$, $y = 2t^2 + 1$, then the speed of the particle at time $t = 3$ is the value of dy/dx when $t = 3$.

5. If a point is represented by (x, y) in Cartesian coordinates (where $x \neq 0$) and (r, θ) in polar coordinates, then $\theta = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$.

6. The polar curves

$$r = 1 - \sin 2\theta \qquad r = \sin 2\theta - 1$$

have the same graph.

7. The equations $r = 2$, $x^2 + y^2 = 4$, and $x = 2 \sin 3t$, $y = 2 \cos 3t$ $(0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi)$ all have the same graph.

8. The parametric equations $x = t^2$, $y = t^4$ have the same graph as $x = t^3$, $y = t^6$.

9. The graph of $y^2 = 2y + 3x$ is a parabola.

10. A tangent line to a parabola intersects the parabola only once.

11. A hyperbola never intersects its directrix.

EXERCISES

1–5 Sketch the parametric curve and eliminate the parameter to find a Cartesian equation of the curve.

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

2. $x = 1 + e^{2t}, \quad y = e^t$

3. $x = \ln t, \quad y = t^2$

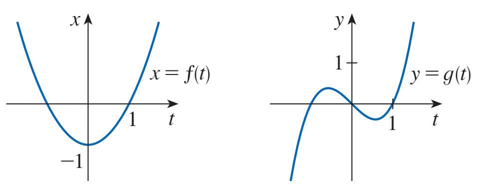
4. $x = 2\cos\theta, \quad y = 1 + \sin\theta$

5. $x = \cos\theta, \quad y = \sec\theta, \quad 0 \leqslant \theta < \pi/2$

6. Describe the motion of a particle with position (x, y), where $x = 2 + 4\cos\pi t$ and $y = -3 + 4\sin\pi t$, as t increases from 0 to 4.

7. Write three different sets of parametric equations for the curve $y = \sqrt{x}$.

8. Use the graphs of $x = f(t)$ and $y = g(t)$ to sketch the parametric curve $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$. Indicate with arrows the direction in which the curve is traced as t increases.



9. (a) Plot the point with polar coordinates $(4, 2\pi/3)$. Then find its Cartesian coordinates.
(b) The Cartesian coordinates of a point are $(-3, 3)$. Find two sets of polar coordinates for the point.

10. Sketch the region consisting of points whose polar coordinates satisfy $1 \leqslant r < 2$ and $\pi/6 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 5\pi/6$.

11–18 Sketch the polar curve.

11. $r = 1 + \sin\theta$

12. $r = \sin 4\theta$

13. $r = \cos 3\theta$

14. $r = 3 + \cos 3\theta$

15. $r = 1 + \cos 2\theta$

16. $r = 2\cos(\theta/2)$

17. $r = \dfrac{3}{1 + 2\sin\theta}$

18. $r = \dfrac{3}{2 - 2\cos\theta}$

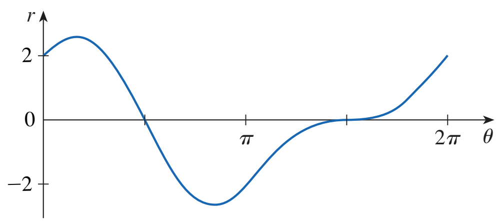
19–20 Find a polar equation for the curve represented by the given Cartesian equation.

19. $x + y = 2$

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

21. The curve with polar equation $r = (\sin\theta)/\theta$ is called a **cochleoid**. Use a graph of r as a function of θ in Cartesian coordinates to sketch the cochleoid by hand. Then graph it with a calculator or computer to check your sketch.

22. The figure shows a graph of r as a function of θ in Cartesian coordinates. Use it to sketch the corresponding polar curve.



23–26 Find the slope of the tangent line to the given curve at the point corresponding to the specified value of the parameter.

23. $x = \ln t, \quad y = 1 + t^2; \quad t = 1$

24. $x = t^3 + 6t + 1, \quad y = 2t - t^2; \quad t = -1$

25. $r = e^{-\theta}; \quad \theta = \pi$

26. $r = 3 + \cos 3\theta; \quad \theta = \pi/2$

27–28 Find dy/dx and d^2y/dx^2.

27. $x = t + \sin t, \quad y = t - \cos t$

28. $x = 1 + t^2, \quad y = t - t^3$

29. Use a graph to estimate the coordinates of the lowest point on the curve $x = t^3 - 3t$, $y = t^2 + t + 1$. Then use calculus to find the exact coordinates.

30. Find the area enclosed by the loop of the curve in Exercise 29.

31. At what points does the curve

$$x = 2a\cos t - a\cos 2t \qquad y = 2a\sin t - a\sin 2t$$

have vertical or horizontal tangents? Use this information to help sketch the curve.

32. Find the area enclosed by the curve in Exercise 31.

33. Find the area enclosed by the curve $r^2 = 9\cos 5\theta$.

34. Find the area enclosed by the inner loop of the curve $r = 1 - 3\sin\theta$.

35. Find the points of intersection of the curves $r = 2$ and $r = 4\cos\theta$.

36. Find the points of intersection of the curves $r = \cot\theta$ and $r = 2\cos\theta$.

37. Find the area of the region that lies inside both of the circles $r = 2\sin\theta$ and $r = \sin\theta + \cos\theta$.

38. Find the area of the region that lies inside the curve $r = 2 + \cos 2\theta$ but outside the curve $r = 2 + \sin\theta$.

39–42 Find the length of the curve.

39. $x = 3t^2, \quad y = 2t^3, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

40. $x = 2 + 3t, \quad y = \cosh 3t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

41. $r = 1/\theta, \quad \pi \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$

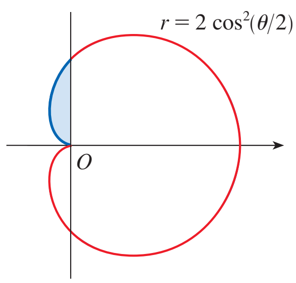
42. $r = \sin^3(\theta/3), \quad 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi$

43. The position (in meters) of a particle at time t seconds is given by the parametric equations

$$x = \tfrac{1}{2}(t^2 + 3) \qquad y = 5 - \tfrac{1}{3}t^3$$

(a) Find the speed of the particle at the point $(6, -4)$.
(b) What is the average speed of the particle for $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 8$?

44. (a) Find the exact length of the portion of the curve shown in blue.
(b) Find the area of the shaded region.



45–46 Find the area of the surface obtained by rotating the given curve about the x-axis.

45. $x = 4\sqrt{t}, \quad y = \dfrac{t^3}{3} + \dfrac{1}{2t^2}, \quad 1 \leqslant t \leqslant 4$

46. $x = 2 + 3t, \quad y = \cosh 3t, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

47. The curves defined by the parametric equations

$$x = \frac{t^2 - c}{t^2 + 1} \qquad y = \frac{t(t^2 - c)}{t^2 + 1}$$

are called **strophoids** (from a Greek word meaning "to turn or twist"). Investigate how these curves vary as c varies.

48. A family of curves has polar equations $r^a = |\sin 2\theta|$ where a is a positive number. Investigate how the curves change as a changes.

49–52 Find the foci and vertices and sketch the graph.

49. $\dfrac{x^2}{9} + \dfrac{y^2}{8} = 1$

50. $4x^2 - y^2 = 16$

51. $6y^2 + x - 36y + 55 = 0$

52. $25x^2 + 4y^2 + 50x - 16y = 59$

53. Find an equation of the ellipse with foci $(\pm 4, 0)$ and vertices $(\pm 5, 0)$.

54. Find an equation of the parabola with focus $(2, 1)$ and directrix $x = -4$.

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

56. Find an equation of the ellipse with foci $(3, \pm 2)$ and major axis with length 8.

57. Find an equation for the ellipse that shares a vertex and a focus with the parabola $x^2 + y = 100$ and that has its other focus at the origin.

58. Show that if m is any real number, then there are exactly two lines of slope m that are tangent to the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$ and their equations are

$$y = mx \pm \sqrt{a^2m^2 + b^2}$$

59. Find a polar equation for the ellipse with focus at the origin, eccentricity $\frac{1}{3}$, and directrix with equation $r = 4\sec\theta$.

60. Graph the ellipse $r = 2/(4 - 3\cos\theta)$ and its directrix. Also graph the ellipse obtained by rotation about the origin through an angle $2\pi/3$.

61. Show that the angles between the polar axis and the asymptotes of the hyperbola $r = ed/(1 - e\cos\theta)$, $e > 1$, are given by $\cos^{-1}(\pm 1/e)$.

62. A curve called the **folium of Descartes** is defined by the parametric equations

$$x = \frac{3t}{1 + t^3} \qquad y = \frac{3t^2}{1 + t^3}$$

(a) Show that if (a, b) lies on the curve, then so does (b, a); that is, the curve is symmetric with respect to the line $y = x$. Where does the curve intersect this line?
(b) Find the points on the curve where the tangent lines are horizontal or vertical.
(c) Show that the line $y = -x - 1$ is a slant asymptote.
(d) Sketch the curve.
(e) Show that a Cartesian equation of this curve is $x^3 + y^3 = 3xy$.
(f) Show that the polar equation can be written in the form

$$r = \frac{3\sec\theta\,\tan\theta}{1 + \tan^3\theta}$$

(g) Find the area enclosed by the loop of this curve.
(h) Show that the area of the loop is the same as the area that lies between the asymptote and the infinite branches of the curve. (Use a computer algebra system to evaluate the integral.)

Problems Plus

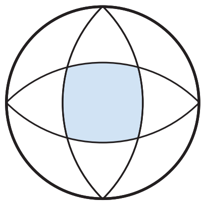


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 1

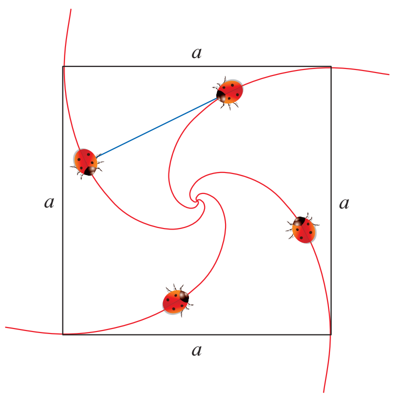


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 4

1. The outer circle in the figure has radius 1 and the centers of the interior circular arcs lie on the outer circle. Find the area of the shaded region.

2. (a) Find the highest and lowest points on the curve $x^4 + y^4 = x^2 + y^2$.
(b) Sketch the curve. (Notice that it is symmetric with respect to both axes and both of the lines $y = \pm x$, so it suffices to consider $y \geqslant x \geqslant 0$ initially.)
T (c) Use polar coordinates and a computer algebra system to find the area enclosed by the curve.

3. What is the smallest viewing rectangle that contains every member of the family of polar curves $r = 1 + c \sin\theta$, where $0 \leqslant c \leqslant 1$? Illustrate your answer by graphing several members of the family in this viewing rectangle.

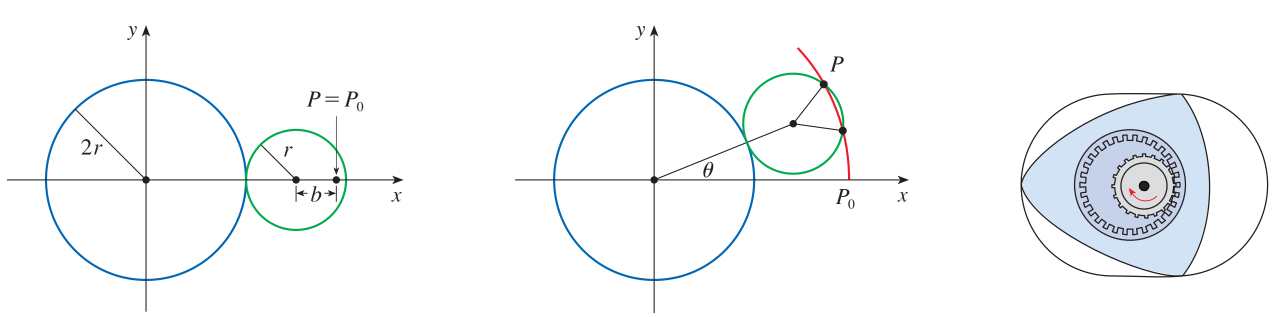
4. Four bugs are placed at the four corners of a square with side length a. The bugs crawl counterclockwise at the same speed and each bug crawls directly toward the next bug at all times. They approach the center of the square along spiral paths.
(a) Find a polar equation of a bug's path assuming the pole is at the center of the square. (Use the fact that the line joining one bug to the next is tangent to the bug's path.)
(b) Find the distance traveled by a bug by the time it meets the other bugs at the center.

5. Show that any tangent line to a hyperbola touches the hyperbola halfway between the points of intersection of the tangent and the asymptotes.

6. A circle C of radius $2r$ has its center at the origin. A circle of radius r rolls without slipping in the counterclockwise direction around C. A point P is located on a fixed radius of the rolling circle at a distance b from its center, $0 < b < r$. [See parts (i) and (ii) of the figure below.] Let L be the line from the center of C to the center of the rolling circle and let θ be the angle that L makes with the positive x-axis.
(a) Using θ as a parameter, show that parametric equations of the path traced out by P are

$$x = b\cos 3\theta + 3r\cos\theta \qquad y = b\sin 3\theta + 3r\sin\theta$$

Note: If $b = 0$, the path is a circle of radius $3r$; if $b = r$, the path is an *epicycloid*. The path traced out by P for $0 < b < r$ is called an *epitrochoid*.
(b) Graph the curve for various values of b between 0 and r.
(c) Show that an equilateral triangle can be inscribed in the epitrochoid and that its centroid is on the circle of radius b centered at the origin.
Note: This is the principle of the Wankel rotary engine. When the equilateral triangle rotates with its vertices on the epitrochoid, its centroid sweeps out a circle whose center is at the center of the curve.
(d) In most rotary engines the sides of the equilateral triangles are replaced by arcs of circles centered at the opposite vertices as in part (iii) of the figure. (Then the diameter of the rotor is constant.) Show that the rotor will fit in the epitrochoid if $b \leqslant \frac{3}{2}(2 - \sqrt{3})r$.



(i) (ii) (iii)

Astronomers gather information about distant celestial objects from the electromagnetic radiation that these objects emit. In the project following Section 11.11 you are asked to compare the radiation emitted by different stars, including Betelgeuse (the largest of the observable stars), Sirius, and our own Sun.

Antares StarExplorer / Shutterstock.com

11 Sequences, Series, and Power Series

IN ALL OF THE PREVIOUS CHAPTERS we studied functions that are defined on an interval. In this chapter we start by studying sequences of numbers. A sequence can be viewed as a function whose domain is a set of natural numbers. We then consider infinite series (the sum of the numbers in a sequence). Isaac Newton represented functions defined on an interval as sums of infinite series, in part because such series are readily integrated and differentiated. In Section 11.10 we will see that his idea allows us to integrate functions that we have previously been unable to find antiderivatives for, such as e^{-x^2}. Many of the functions that arise in mathematical physics and chemistry—such as Bessel functions—are defined as sums of series, so it is important to be familiar with the basic concepts of convergence of infinite sequences and series.

Physicists also use series in another way, as we will see in Section 11.11. In studying fields as diverse as optics, special relativity, electromagnetism, and cosmology, they analyze phenomena by replacing a function with the first few terms in the series that represents that function.

11.1 Sequences

Many concepts in calculus involve lists of numbers that result from applying a process in stages. For example, if we use Newton's method (Section 4.8) to approximate the zero of a function, we generate a list or *sequence* of numbers. If we compute average rates of change of a function over smaller and smaller intervals in order to approximate an instantaneous rate of change (as in Section 2.7), we also generate a sequence of numbers.

In the fifth century BC the Greek philosopher Zeno of Elea posed four problems, now known as *Zeno's paradoxes*, that were intended to challenge some of the ideas concerning space and time that were held in his day. In one of his paradoxes, Zeno argued that a man standing in a room could never walk to a wall because he would first have to walk half the distance to the wall, then half the remaining distance, and then again half of what still remains, continuing in this way indefinitely (see Figure 1). The distances that the man walks at each stage form a sequence:

$$\frac{1}{2}, \quad \frac{1}{4}, \quad \frac{1}{8}, \quad \frac{1}{16}, \quad \frac{1}{32}, \quad \ldots, \quad \frac{1}{2^n}, \quad \ldots$$

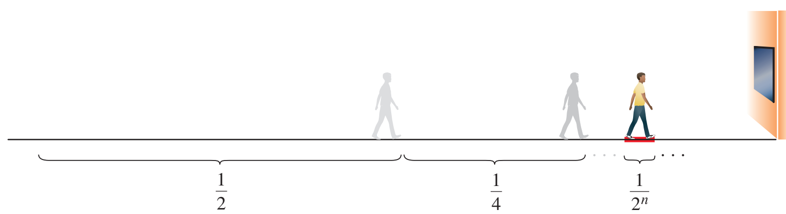


FIGURE 1
At the nth stage the man walks a distance $1/2^n$.

Infinite Sequences

An **infinite sequence**, or just a **sequence**, can be thought of as a list of numbers written in a definite order:

$$a_1, \ a_2, \ a_3, \ a_4, \ \ldots, \ a_n, \ldots$$

The number a_1 is called the *first term*, a_2 is the *second term*, and in general a_n is the *nth term*. We will deal exclusively with infinite sequences and so each term a_n will have a successor a_{n+1}.

Notice that for every positive integer n there is a corresponding number a_n and so a sequence can be defined as a function f whose domain is the set of positive integers. But we usually write a_n instead of the function notation $f(n)$ for the value of the function at the number n.

NOTATION The sequence $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots\}$ is also denoted by

$$\{a_n\} \qquad \text{or} \qquad \{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

Unless otherwise stated, we assume that n starts at 1.

EXAMPLE 1 Some sequences can be defined by giving a formula for the nth term.

(a) At the beginning of the section we described a sequence of distances walked by a man in a room. The following are three equivalent descriptions of this sequence:

$$\left\{\frac{1}{2^n}\right\} \qquad a_n = \frac{1}{2^n} \qquad \left\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{32}, \ldots, \frac{1}{2^n}, \ldots\right\}$$

In the third description we have written out the first few terms of the sequence: $a_1 = 1/2^1$, $a_2 = 1/2^2$, and so on.

(b) The definition $\left\{\dfrac{n}{n+1}\right\}_{n=2}^{\infty}$ indicates that the formula for the nth term is $a_n = \dfrac{n}{n+1}$ and we start the sequence with $n = 2$:

$$\left\{\frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{4}{5}, \frac{5}{6}, \ldots\right\}$$

(c) The sequence $\{\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{4}, \sqrt{5}, \sqrt{6}, \ldots\}$ can be described by $\{\sqrt{n+2}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ if we start with $n = 1$. Equivalently, we could start with $n = 3$ and write $\{\sqrt{n}\}_{n=3}^{\infty}$ or $a_n = \sqrt{n}, n \geqslant 3$.

(d) The definition $\left\{(-1)^n \dfrac{(n+1)}{3^n}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ generates the sequence

$$\left\{\frac{1}{1}, -\frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{9}, -\frac{4}{27}, \frac{5}{81}, \ldots\right\}$$

Here the first term corresponds to $n = 0$ and the $(-1)^n$ factor in the definition creates terms that alternate between positive and negative. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Find a formula for the general term a_n of the sequence

$$\left\{\frac{3}{5}, -\frac{4}{25}, \frac{5}{125}, -\frac{6}{625}, \frac{7}{3125}, \ldots\right\}$$

assuming that the pattern of the first few terms continues.

SOLUTION We are given that

$$a_1 = \frac{3}{5} \qquad a_2 = -\frac{4}{25} \qquad a_3 = \frac{5}{125} \qquad a_4 = -\frac{6}{625} \qquad a_5 = \frac{7}{3125}$$

Notice that the numerators of these fractions start with 3 and increase by 1 whenever we go to the next term. The second term has numerator 4, the third term has numerator 5; in general, the nth term will have numerator $n + 2$. The denominators are the powers of 5, so a_n has denominator 5^n. The signs of the terms are alternately positive and negative, so we need to multiply by a power of -1, as in Example 1(d). Here we want a_1 to be positive and so we use $(-1)^{n-1}$ or $(-1)^{n+1}$. Therefore

$$a_n = (-1)^{n-1}\frac{n+2}{5^n}$$ ■

EXAMPLE 3 Here are some sequences that don't have a simple defining equation.

(a) The sequence $\{p_n\}$, where p_n is the population of the world as of January 1 in the year n.

(b) If we let a_n be the digit in the nth decimal place of the number e, then $\{a_n\}$ is a sequence whose first few terms are

$$\{7, 1, 8, 2, 8, 1, 8, 2, 8, 4, 5, \ldots\}$$

(c) **The Fibonacci sequence** $\{f_n\}$ is defined *recursively* by the conditions

$$f_1 = 1 \qquad f_2 = 1 \qquad f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} \qquad n \geqslant 3$$

Each term is the sum of the two preceding terms. The first few terms are

$$\{1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \ldots\}$$

This sequence arose when the 13th-century Italian mathematician known as Fibonacci solved a problem concerning the breeding of rabbits (see Exercise 89). ■

The Limit of a Sequence

A sequence can be pictured either by plotting its terms on a number line or by plotting its graph. Figures 2 and 3 illustrate these representations for the sequence

$$\left\{\frac{n}{n+1}\right\} = \left\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{4}{5}, \ldots\right\}$$

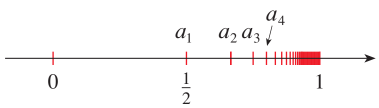


FIGURE 2

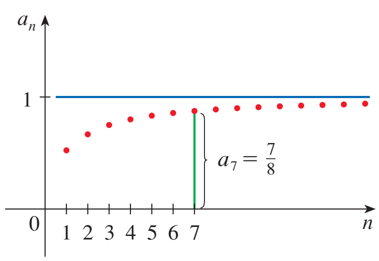


FIGURE 3

Since a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a function whose domain is the set of positive integers, its graph consists of discrete points with coordinates

$$(1, a_1) \qquad (2, a_2) \qquad (3, a_3) \qquad \ldots \qquad (n, a_n) \qquad \ldots$$

From Figure 2 or Figure 3 it appears that the terms of the sequence $a_n = n/(n+1)$ are approaching 1 as n becomes large. In fact, the difference

$$1 - \frac{n}{n+1} = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

can be made as small as we like by taking n sufficiently large. We indicate this by writing

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1$$

In general, the notation

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L$$

means that the terms of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ approach L as n becomes large. Notice that the following definition of the limit of a sequence is very similar to the definition of a limit of a function at infinity given in Section 2.6.

1 Intuitive Definition of a Limit of a equence A sequence $\{a_n\}$ has the **limit** L and we write

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L \qquad \text{or} \qquad a_n \to L \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

if we can make the terms a_n as close to L as we like by taking n sufficiently large. If $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$ exists, we say the sequence **converges** (or is **convergent**). Otherwise, we say the sequence **diverges** (or is **divergent**).

Figure 4 illustrates Definition 1 by showing the graphs of two convergent sequences that have the limit L.

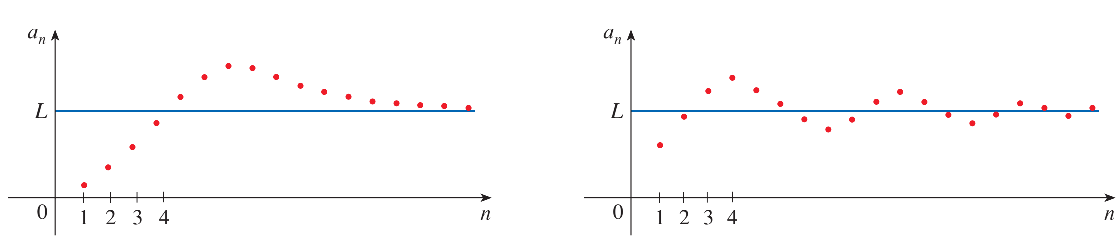


FIGURE 4
Graphs of two convergent sequences with $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L$

A more precise version of Definition 1 is as follows.

Compare this definition with Definition 2.6.7.

2 Precise Definition of a Limit of a equence A sequence $\{a_n\}$ has the **limit** L and we write

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \qquad \text{or} \qquad a_n \to L \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a corresponding integer N such that

$$\text{if} \qquad n > N \qquad \text{then} \qquad |a_n - L| < \varepsilon$$

Definition 2 is illustrated by Figure 5, in which the terms $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$ are plotted on a number line. No matter how small an interval $(L - \varepsilon, L + \varepsilon)$ is chosen, there exists an N such that all terms of the sequence from a_{N+1} onward must lie in that interval.

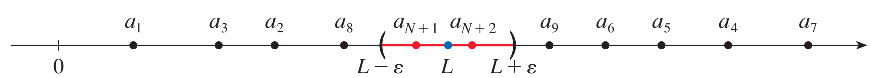


FIGURE 5

Another illustration of Definition 2 is given in Figure 6. The points on the graph of $\{a_n\}$ must lie between the horizontal lines $y = L + \varepsilon$ and $y = L - \varepsilon$ if $n > N$. This picture must be valid no matter how small ε is chosen, but usually a smaller ε requires a larger N.

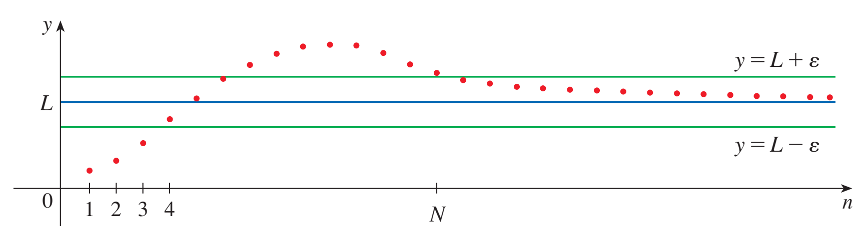


FIGURE 6

A sequence *diverges* if its terms do not approach a single number. Figure 7 illustrates two different ways in which a sequence can diverge.

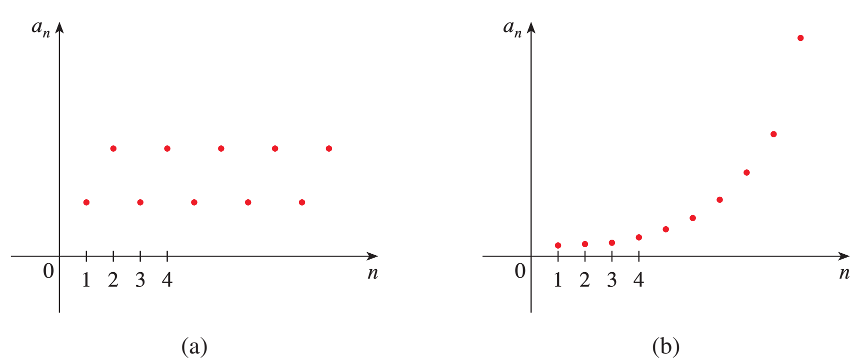


FIGURE 7
Graphs of two divergent sequences

The sequence graphed in Figure 7(a) diverges because it oscillates between two different numbers and does not approach a single value as $n \to \infty$. In the graph in part (b), a_n increases without bound as n becomes larger. We write $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \infty$ to indicate the particular way that this sequence diverges, and we say that the sequence diverges to ∞. The following precise definition is similar to Definition 2.6.9.

3 Precise Definition of an nfini e Limit The notation $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \infty$ means that for every positive number M there is an integer N such that

$$\text{if} \quad n > N \quad \text{then} \quad a_n > M$$

An analogous definition applies for $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = -\infty$.

Properties of Convergent Sequences

If you compare Definition 2 with Definition 2.6.7, you will see that the only difference between $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L$ and $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L$ is that n is required to be an integer. Thus we have the following theorem, which is illustrated by Figure 8.

4 Theorem If $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L$ and $f(n) = a_n$ when n is an integer, then $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L$.

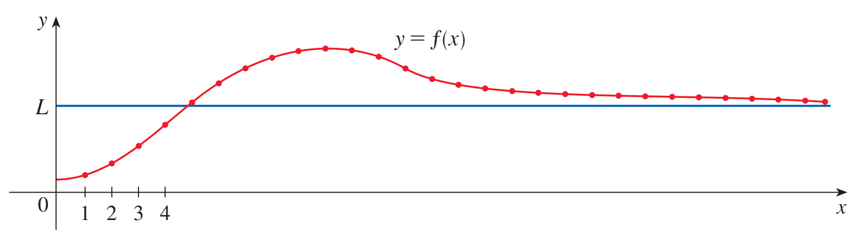


FIGURE 8

For instance, since we know that $\lim_{x \to \infty} (1/x^r) = 0$ when $r > 0$ (Theorem 2.6.5), it follows from Theorem 4 that

$$\boxed{5} \qquad \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^r} = 0 \qquad \text{if } r > 0$$

The Limit Laws given in Section 2.3 also hold for the limits of sequences and their proofs are similar.

Limit Laws for Sequences Suppose that $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are convergent sequences and c is a constant. Then

Sum Law
1. $\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n + \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n$

Difference Law
2. $\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n - b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n - \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n$

Constant Multiple Law
3. $\lim_{n \to \infty} ca_n = c \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$

Product Law
4. $\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \cdot \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n$

Quotient Law
5. $\lim_{n \to \infty} \dfrac{a_n}{b_n} = \dfrac{\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n} \quad \text{if } \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n \neq 0$

Another useful property of sequences is the following Power Law, which you are asked to prove in Exercise 94.

Power Law

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n^p = \left[\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n\right]^p \quad \text{if } p > 0 \text{ and } a_n > 0$$

The Squeeze Theorem can also be adapted for sequences as follows (see Figure 9).

Squeeze Theorem for Sequences

If $a_n \leqslant b_n \leqslant c_n$ for $n \geqslant n_0$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} c_n = L$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = L$.

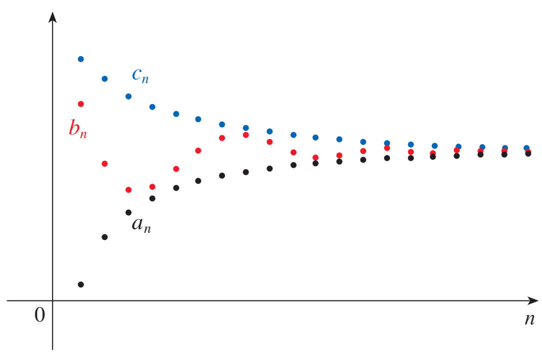


FIGURE 9
The sequence $\{b_n\}$ is squeezed between the sequences $\{a_n\}$ and $\{c_n\}$.

Another useful fact about limits of sequences is given by the following theorem; the proof is left as Exercise 93.

6 Theorem If $\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n| = 0$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$.

EXAMPLE 4 Find $\lim_{n\to\infty} \dfrac{n}{n+1}$.

SOLUTION The method is similar to the one we used in Section 2.6: divide numerator and denominator by the highest power of n that occurs in the denominator and then use the Limit Laws for Sequences.

In general, for any constant c

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} c = c$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{1+\dfrac{1}{n}} = \frac{\lim_{n\to\infty} 1}{\lim_{n\to\infty} 1 + \lim_{n\to\infty} \dfrac{1}{n}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+0} = 1$$

This shows that the guess we made earlier from Figures 2 and 3 was correct.

Here we used Equation 5 with $r = 1$. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Is the sequence $a_n = \dfrac{n}{\sqrt{10+n}}$ convergent or divergent?

SOLUTION As in Example 4, we divide numerator and denominator by n:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n}{\sqrt{10+n}} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\dfrac{10}{n^2}+\dfrac{1}{n}}} = \infty$$

since the numerator is constant and the denominator (which is positive) approaches 0. So $\{a_n\}$ is divergent. ■

EXAMPLE 6 Calculate $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n}$.

SOLUTION Notice that both numerator and denominator approach infinity as $n \to \infty$. We can't apply l'Hospital's Rule directly because it applies not to sequences but to functions of a real variable. However, we can apply l'Hospital's Rule to the related function $f(x) = (\ln x)/x$ and obtain

$$\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{\ln x}{x} = \lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{1/x}{1} = 0$$

Therefore, by Theorem 4, we have

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n} = 0$$ ■

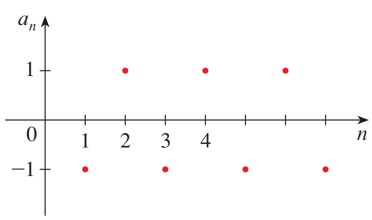


FIGURE 10 The sequence $\{(-1)^n\}$

EXAMPLE 7 Determine whether the sequence $a_n = (-1)^n$ is convergent or divergent.

SOLUTION If we write out the terms of the sequence, we obtain

$$\{-1, 1, -1, 1, -1, 1, -1, \ldots\}$$

The graph of this sequence is shown in Figure 10. Since the terms oscillate between 1 and -1 infinitely often, a_n does not approach any number. Thus $\lim_{n\to\infty} (-1)^n$ does not exist; that is, the sequence $\{(-1)^n\}$ is divergent. ■

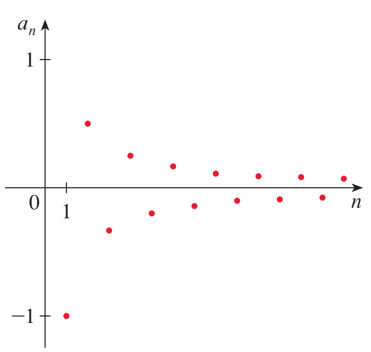


FIGURE 11 The sequence $\left\{\dfrac{(-1)^n}{n}\right\}$

EXAMPLE 8 Evaluate $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ if it exists.

SOLUTION We first calculate the limit of the absolute value:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right| = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

Therefore, by Theorem 6,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = 0$$

The sequence is graphed in Figure 11. ■

The following theorem says that if we apply a continuous function to the terms of a convergent sequence, the result is also convergent. The proof is given in Appendix F.

7 Theorem If $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ and the function f is continuous at L, then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} f(a_n) = f(L)$$

EXAMPLE 9 Find $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sin\frac{\pi}{n}$.

SOLUTION Because the sine function is continuous at 0, Theorem 7 enables us to write

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \sin\frac{\pi}{n} = \sin\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{\pi}{n}\right) = \sin 0 = 0$$

■

EXAMPLE 10 Discuss the convergence of the sequence $a_n = n!/n^n$, where $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \cdots \cdot n$.

SOLUTION Both numerator and denominator approach infinity as $n \to \infty$ but here we have no corresponding function for use with l'Hospital's Rule ($x!$ is not defined when x is not an integer). Let's write out a few terms to get a feeling for what happens to a_n as n gets large:

$$a_1 = 1 \qquad a_2 = \frac{1 \cdot 2}{2 \cdot 2} \qquad a_3 = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}{3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3}$$

8 $$a_n = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \cdots \cdot n}{n \cdot n \cdot n \cdot \cdots \cdot n}$$

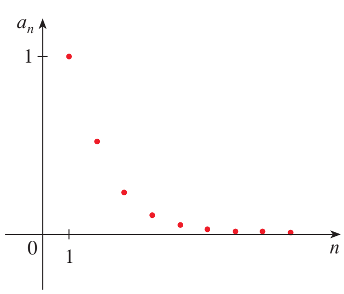


FIGURE 12 The sequence $\{n!/n^n\}$

It appears from these expressions and the graph in Figure 12 that the terms are decreasing and perhaps approach 0. To confirm this, observe from Equation 8 that

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n}\left(\frac{2 \cdot 3 \cdot \cdots \cdot n}{n \cdot n \cdot \cdots \cdot n}\right)$$

Notice that the expression in parentheses is at most 1 because the numerator is less than (or equal to) the denominator. So

$$0 < a_n \leqslant \frac{1}{n}$$

We know that $1/n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$. Therefore $a_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$ by the Squeeze Theorem. ■

EXAMPLE 11 For what values of r is the sequence $\{r^n\}$ convergent?

SOLUTION We know from Section 2.6 and the graphs of the exponential functions in Section 1.4 that $\lim_{x\to\infty} b^x = \infty$ for $b > 1$ and $\lim_{x\to\infty} b^x = 0$ for $0 < b < 1$. Therefore, putting $b = r$ and using Theorem 4, we have

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} r^n = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } r > 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } 0 < r < 1 \end{cases}$$

It is obvious that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} 1^n = 1 \qquad \text{and} \qquad \lim_{n\to\infty} 0^n = 0$$

If $-1 < r < 0$, then $0 < |r| < 1$, so

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} |r^n| = \lim_{n\to\infty} |r|^n = 0$$

and therefore $\lim_{n\to\infty} r^n = 0$ by Theorem 6. If $r \leqslant -1$, then $\{r^n\}$ diverges as in Example 7. Figure 13 shows the graphs for various values of r. (The case $r = -1$ is shown in Figure 10.)

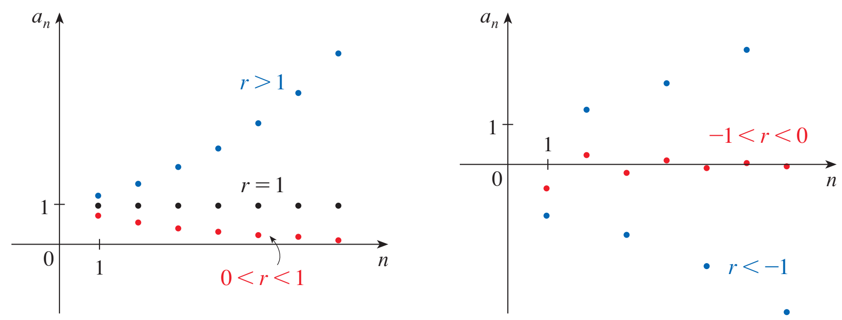


FIGURE 13
The sequence $a_n = r^n$

The results of Example 11 are summarized for future use as follows.

9 The sequence $\{r^n\}$ is convergent if $-1 < r \leqslant 1$ and divergent for all other values of r.

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} r^n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } -1 < r < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } r = 1 \end{cases}$$

Monotonic and Bounded Sequences

Sequences for which the terms always increase (or always decrease) play a special role in the study of sequences.

10 Definitio A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is called **increasing** if $a_n < a_{n+1}$ for all $n \geqslant 1$, that is, $a_1 < a_2 < a_3 < \cdots$. It is called **decreasing** if $a_n > a_{n+1}$ for all $n \geqslant 1$. A sequence is called **monotonic** if it is either increasing or decreasing.

EXAMPLE 12 The sequence $\left\{\dfrac{3}{n+5}\right\}$ is decreasing because

$$a_n = \frac{3}{n+5} > \frac{3}{n+6} = \frac{3}{(n+1)+5} = a_{n+1}$$

for all $n \geqslant 1$. ■

In Example 12, $3/(n+6)$ is smaller than $3/(n+5)$ because its denominator is larger.

EXAMPLE 13 Show that the sequence $a_n = \dfrac{n}{n^2+1}$ is decreasing.

SOLUTION 1 We must show that $a_{n+1} < a_n$, that is,

$$\frac{n}{n^2+1} > \frac{n+1}{(n+1)^2+1}$$

This inequality is equivalent to the one we get by cross-multiplication:

$$\frac{n}{n^2+1} > \frac{n+1}{(n+1)^2+1} \iff n[(n+1)^2+1] > (n+1)(n^2+1)$$

$$\iff n^3+2n^2+2n > n^3+n^2+n+1$$

$$\iff n^2+n > 1$$

Since $n \geqslant 1$, we know that the inequality $n^2+n>1$ is true. Therefore $a_n > a_{n+1}$ and so $\{a_n\}$ is decreasing.

SOLUTION 2 Consider the function $f(x) = \dfrac{x}{x^2+1}$:

$$f'(x) = \frac{x^2+1-x\cdot 2x}{(x^2+1)^2} = \frac{1-x^2}{(x^2+1)^2} < 0 \qquad \text{whenever } x^2 > 1$$

Thus f is decreasing on $(1, \infty)$ and so $f(n) > f(n+1)$. Therefore $\{a_n\}$ is decreasing. ■

11 Definitio A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is **bounded above** if there is a number M such that

$$a_n \leqslant M \qquad \text{for all } n \geqslant 1$$

A sequence is **bounded below** if there is a number m such that

$$m \leqslant a_n \qquad \text{for all } n \geqslant 1$$

If a sequence is bounded above and below, then it is called a **bounded sequence**.

For instance, the sequence $a_n = n$ is bounded below $(a_n > 0)$ but not above. The sequence $a_n = n/(n+1)$ is bounded because $0 < a_n < 1$ for all n.

We know that not every bounded sequence is convergent [for instance, the sequence $a_n = (-1)^n$ satisfies $-1 \leqslant a_n \leqslant 1$ but is divergent from Example 7] and not every monotonic sequence is convergent $(a_n = n \to \infty)$. But if a sequence is both bounded *and* monotonic, then it must be convergent. This fact is proved as Theorem 12, but intuitively you can understand why it is true by looking at Figure 14. If $\{a_n\}$ is increasing and $a_n \leqslant M$ for all n, then the terms are forced to crowd together and approach some number L.

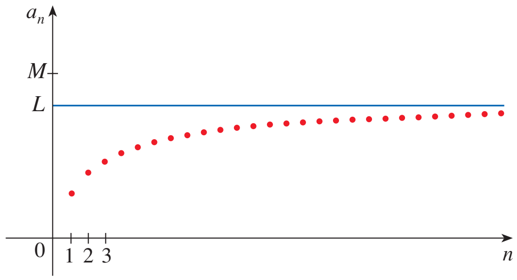


FIGURE 14

12 Monotonic Sequence Theorem Every bounded, monotonic sequence is convergent.

In particular, a sequence that is increasing and bounded above converges, and a sequence that is decreasing and bounded below converges.

The proof of Theorem 12 is based on the **Completeness Axiom** for the set $\mathbb{R}$ of real numbers, which says that if S is a nonempty set of real numbers that has an upper bound M ($x \leqslant M$ for all x in S), then S has a **least upper bound** b. (This means that b is an upper bound for S, but if M is any other upper bound, then $b \leqslant M$.) The Completeness Axiom is an expression of the fact that there is no gap or hole in the real number line.

PROOF OF THEOREM 12 Suppose $\{a_n\}$ is an increasing sequence. Since $\{a_n\}$ is bounded, the set $S = \{a_n \mid n \geqslant 1\}$ has an upper bound. By the Completeness Axiom it has a least upper bound L. Given $\varepsilon > 0$, $L - \varepsilon$ is *not* an upper bound for S (since L is the *least* upper bound). Therefore

$$a_N > L - \varepsilon \qquad \text{for some integer } N$$

But the sequence is increasing so $a_n \geqslant a_N$ for every $n > N$. Thus if $n > N$, we have

$$a_n > L - \varepsilon$$

so

$$0 \leqslant L - a_n < \varepsilon$$

since $a_n \leqslant L$. Thus

$$|L - a_n| < \varepsilon \qquad \text{whenever } n > N$$

so $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$.

A similar proof (using the greatest lower bound) holds if $\{a_n\}$ is decreasing. ∎

EXAMPLE 14 Investigate the sequence $\{a_n\}$ defined by the *recurrence relation*

$$a_1 = 2 \qquad a_{n+1} = \tfrac{1}{2}(a_n + 6) \qquad \text{for } n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$$

SOLUTION We begin by computing the first several terms:

$$a_1 = 2 \qquad a_2 = \tfrac{1}{2}(2 + 6) = 4 \qquad a_3 = \tfrac{1}{2}(4 + 6) = 5$$

$$a_4 = \tfrac{1}{2}(5 + 6) = 5.5 \qquad a_5 = 5.75 \qquad a_6 = 5.875$$

$$a_7 = 5.9375 \qquad a_8 = 5.96875 \qquad a_9 = 5.984375$$

Mathematical induction is often used in dealing with recursive sequences. See Principles of Problem Solving following Chapter 1 for a discussion of the Principle of Mathematical Induction.

These initial terms suggest that the sequence is increasing and the terms are approaching 6. To confirm that the sequence is increasing, we use mathematical induction to show that $a_{n+1} > a_n$ for all $n \geqslant 1$. This is true for $n = 1$ because $a_2 = 4 > a_1$. If we assume that it is true for $n = k$, then we have

$$a_{k+1} > a_k$$

so

$$a_{k+1} + 6 > a_k + 6$$

and

$$\tfrac{1}{2}(a_{k+1} + 6) > \tfrac{1}{2}(a_k + 6)$$

Thus

$$a_{k+2} > a_{k+1}$$

We have deduced that $a_{n+1} > a_n$ is true for $n = k + 1$. Therefore the inequality is true for all n by induction.

Next we verify that $\{a_n\}$ is bounded by showing that $a_n < 6$ for all n. (Since the sequence is increasing, we already know that it has a lower bound: $a_n \geqslant a_1 = 2$ for all n.) We know that $a_1 < 6$, so the assertion is true for $n = 1$. Suppose it is true for $n = k$. Then

$$a_k < 6$$

so $$a_k + 6 < 12$$

and $$\tfrac{1}{2}(a_k + 6) < \tfrac{1}{2}(12) = 6$$

Thus $$a_{k+1} < 6$$

This shows, by mathematical induction, that $a_n < 6$ for all n.

Since the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is increasing and bounded, Theorem 12 guarantees that it has a limit. The theorem doesn't tell us what the value of the limit is. But now that we know $L = \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$ exists, we can use the given recurrence relation to write

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_{n+1} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \tfrac{1}{2}(a_n + 6) = \tfrac{1}{2}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n + 6\right) = \tfrac{1}{2}(L + 6)$$

A proof of this fact is requested in Exercise 76.

Since $a_n \to L$, it follows that $a_{n+1} \to L$ too (as $n \to \infty$, $n + 1 \to \infty$ also). So we have

$$L = \tfrac{1}{2}(L + 6)$$

Solving this equation for L, we get $L = 6$, as we predicted. ■

11.1 EXERCISES

1. (a) What is a sequence?
(b) What does it mean to say that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 8$?
(c) What does it mean to say that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \infty$?

2. (a) What is a convergent sequence? Give two examples.
(b) What is a divergent sequence? Give two examples.

3–16 List the first five terms of the sequence.

3. $a_n = n^3 - 1$

4. $a_n = \dfrac{1}{3^n + 1}$

5. $\{2^n + n\}_{n=2}^{\infty}$

6. $\left\{\dfrac{n^2 - 1}{n^2 + 1}\right\}_{n=3}^{\infty}$

7. $a_n = \dfrac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^2}$

8. $a_n = \dfrac{(-1)^n}{4^n}$

9. $a_n = \cos n\pi$

10. $a_n = 1 + (-1)^n$

11. $a_n = \dfrac{(-2)^n}{(n + 1)!}$

12. $a_n = \dfrac{2n + 1}{n! + 1}$

13. $a_1 = 1, \quad a_{n+1} = 2a_n + 1$

14. $a_1 = 6, \quad a_{n+1} = \dfrac{a_n}{n}$

15. $a_1 = 2, \quad a_{n+1} = \dfrac{a_n}{1 + a_n}$

16. $a_1 = 2, \quad a_2 = 1, \quad a_{n+1} = a_n - a_{n-1}$

17–22 Find a formula for the general term a_n of the sequence, assuming that the pattern of the first few terms continues.

17. $\left\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{10}, \ldots\right\}$

18. $\left\{4, -1, \frac{1}{4}, -\frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{64}, \ldots\right\}$

19. $\left\{-3, 2, -\frac{4}{3}, \frac{8}{9}, -\frac{16}{27}, \ldots\right\}$

20. $\{5, 8, 11, 14, 17, \ldots\}$

21. $\left\{\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{4}{3}, \frac{9}{4}, -\frac{16}{5}, \frac{25}{6}, \ldots\right\}$

22. $\{1, 0, -1, 0, 1, 0, -1, 0, \ldots\}$

23–26 Calculate, to four decimal places, the first ten terms of the sequence and use them to plot the graph of the sequence by hand. Does the sequence appear to have a limit? If so, calculate it. If not, explain why.

23. $a_n = \dfrac{3n}{1 + 6n}$

24. $a_n = 2 + \dfrac{(-1)^n}{n}$

25. $a_n = 1 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$

26. $a_n = 1 + \dfrac{10^n}{9^n}$

27–62 Determine whether the sequence converges or diverges. If it converges, find the limit.

27. $a_n = \dfrac{5}{n + 2}$

28. $a_n = 5\sqrt{n + 2}$

29. $a_n = \dfrac{4n^2 - 3n}{2n^2 + 1}$

30. $a_n = \dfrac{4n^2 - 3n}{2n + 1}$

31. $a_n = \dfrac{n^4}{n^3 - 2n}$

32. $a_n = 2 + (0.86)^n$

33. $a_n = 3^n 7^{-n}$

34. $a_n = \dfrac{3\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{n} + 2}$

35. $a_n = e^{-1/\sqrt{n}}$

36. $a_n = \dfrac{4^n}{1 + 9^n}$

37. $a_n = \sqrt{\dfrac{1 + 4n^2}{1 + n^2}}$

38. $a_n = \cos\left(\dfrac{n\pi}{n + 1}\right)$

39. $a_n = \dfrac{n^2}{\sqrt{n^3 + 4n}}$

40. $a_n = e^{2n/(n+2)}$

41. $a_n = \dfrac{(-1)^n}{2\sqrt{n}}$

42. $a_n = \dfrac{(-1)^{n+1} n}{n + \sqrt{n}}$

43. $\left\{\dfrac{(2n - 1)!}{(2n + 1)!}\right\}$

44. $\left\{\dfrac{\ln n}{\ln(2n)}\right\}$

45. $\{\sin n\}$

46. $a_n = \dfrac{\tan^{-1} n}{n}$

47. $\{n^2 e^{-n}\}$

48. $a_n = \ln(n + 1) - \ln n$

49. $a_n = \dfrac{\cos^2 n}{2^n}$

50. $a_n = \sqrt[n]{2^{1+3n}}$

51. $a_n = n \sin(1/n)$

52. $a_n = 2^{-n} \cos n\pi$

53. $a_n = \left(1 + \dfrac{2}{n}\right)^n$

54. $a_n = n^{1/n}$

55. $a_n = \ln(2n^2 + 1) - \ln(n^2 + 1)$

56. $a_n = \dfrac{(\ln n)^2}{n}$

57. $a_n = \arctan(\ln n)$

58. $a_n = n - \sqrt{n + 1}\sqrt{n + 3}$

59. $\{0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, \ldots\}$

60. $\left\{\frac{1}{1}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{6}, \ldots\right\}$

61. $a_n = \dfrac{n!}{2^n}$

62. $a_n = \dfrac{(-3)^n}{n!}$

63–69 Use a graph of the sequence to decide whether the sequence is convergent or divergent. If the sequence is convergent, guess the value of the limit from the graph and then prove your guess.

63. $a_n = (-1)^n \dfrac{n}{n + 1}$

64. $a_n = \dfrac{\sin n}{n}$

65. $a_n = \arctan\left(\dfrac{n^2}{n^2 + 4}\right)$

66. $a_n = \sqrt[n]{3^n + 5^n}$

67. $a_n = \dfrac{n^2 \cos n}{1 + n^2}$

68. $a_n = \dfrac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n - 1)}{n!}$

69. $a_n = \dfrac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n - 1)}{(2n)^n}$

70. (a) Determine whether the sequence defined as follows is convergent or divergent:

$$a_1 = 1 \qquad a_{n+1} = 4 - a_n \qquad \text{for } n \geqslant 1$$

(b) What happens if the first term is $a_1 = 2$?

71. If \$1000 is invested at 6% interest, compounded annually, then after n years the investment is worth $a_n = 1000(1.06)^n$ dollars.

(a) Find the first five terms of the sequence $\{a_n\}$.
(b) Is the sequence convergent or divergent? Explain.

72. If you deposit \$100 at the end of every month into an account that pays 3% interest per year compounded monthly, the amount of interest accumulated after n months is given by the sequence

$$I_n = 100\left(\frac{1.0025^n - 1}{0.0025} - n\right)$$

(a) Find the first six terms of the sequence.
(b) How much interest will you have earned after two years?

73. A fish farmer has 5000 catfish in his pond. The number of catfish increases by 8% per month and the farmer harvests 300 catfish per month.

(a) Show that the catfish population P_n after n months is given recursively by

$$P_n = 1.08 P_{n-1} - 300 \qquad P_0 = 5000$$

(b) Find the number of catfish in the pond after six months.

74. Find the first 40 terms of the sequence defined by

$$a_{n+1} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} a_n & \text{if } a_n \text{ is an even number} \\ 3a_n + 1 & \text{if } a_n \text{ is an odd number} \end{cases}$$

and $a_1 = 11$. Do the same if $a_1 = 25$. Make a conjecture about this type of sequence.

75. For what values of r is the sequence $\{nr^n\}$ convergent?

76. (a) If $\{a_n\}$ is convergent, show that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_{n+1} = \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$$

(b) A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is defined by $a_1 = 1$ and $a_{n+1} = 1/(1 + a_n)$ for $n \geqslant 1$. Assuming that $\{a_n\}$ is convergent, find its limit.

77. Suppose you know that $\{a_n\}$ is a decreasing sequence and all its terms lie between the numbers 5 and 8. Explain why the sequence has a limit. What can you say about the value of the limit?

78–84 Determine whether the sequence is increasing, decreasing, or not monotonic. Is the sequence bounded?

78. $a_n = \cos n$

79. $a_n = \dfrac{1}{2n + 3}$

80. $a_n = \dfrac{1 - n}{2 + n}$

81. $a_n = n(-1)^n$

82. $a_n = 2 + \dfrac{(-1)^n}{n}$

83. $a_n = 3 - 2ne^{-n}$

84. $a_n = n^3 - 3n + 3$

---

85. Find the limit of the sequence

$$\left\{\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2\sqrt{2}}, \sqrt{2\sqrt{2\sqrt{2}}}, \ldots\right\}$$

86. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is given by $a_1 = \sqrt{2}$, $a_{n+1} = \sqrt{2 + a_n}$.
(a) By induction or otherwise, show that $\{a_n\}$ is increasing and bounded above by 3. Apply the Monotonic Sequence Theorem to show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$ exists.
(b) Find $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$.

87. Show that the sequence defined by

$$a_1 = 1 \qquad a_{n+1} = 3 - \frac{1}{a_n}$$

is increasing and $a_n < 3$ for all n. Deduce that $\{a_n\}$ is convergent and find its limit.

88. Show that the sequence defined by

$$a_1 = 2 \qquad a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{3 - a_n}$$

satisfies $0 < a_n \leqslant 2$ and is decreasing. Deduce that the sequence is convergent and find its limit.

89. (a) Fibonacci posed the following problem:

> Suppose that rabbits live forever and that every month each pair produces a new pair which becomes productive at age 2 months. If we start with one newborn pair, how many pairs of rabbits will we have in the nth month?

Show that the answer is f_n, where $\{f_n\}$ is the Fibonacci sequence defined in Example 3(c).
(b) Let $a_n = f_{n+1}/f_n$ and show that $a_{n-1} = 1 + 1/a_{n-2}$. Assuming that $\{a_n\}$ is convergent, find its limit.

90. (a) Let $a_1 = a$, $a_2 = f(a)$, $a_3 = f(a_2) = f(f(a))$, $\ldots$, $a_{n+1} = f(a_n)$, where f is a continuous function. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$, show that $f(L) = L$.
(b) Illustrate part (a) by taking $f(x) = \cos x$, $a = 1$, and estimating the value of L to five decimal places.

91. (a) Use a graph to guess the value of the limit

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n^5}{n!}$$

(b) Use a graph of the sequence in part (a) to find the smallest values of N that correspond to $\varepsilon = 0.1$ and $\varepsilon = 0.001$ in Definition 2.

92. Use Definition 2 directly to prove that $\lim_{n\to\infty} r^n = 0$ when $|r| < 1$.

93. Prove Theorem 6.
[*Hint:* Use either Definition 2 or the Squeeze Theorem.]

94. Use Theorem 7 to prove the Power Law:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n^p = \left[\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n\right]^p \qquad \text{if } p > 0 \text{ and } a_n > 0$$

95. Prove that if $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$ and $\{b_n\}$ is bounded, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} (a_n b_n) = 0$.

96. Let $a_n = (1 + 1/n)^n$.
(a) Show that if $0 \leqslant a < b$, then

$$\frac{b^{n+1} - a^{n+1}}{b - a} < (n + 1)b^n$$

(b) Deduce that $b^n[(n + 1)a - nb] < a^{n+1}$.
(c) Use $a = 1 + 1/(n + 1)$ and $b = 1 + 1/n$ in part (b) to show that $\{a_n\}$ is increasing.
(d) Use $a = 1$ and $b = 1 + 1/(2n)$ in part (b) to show that $a_{2n} < 4$.
(e) Use parts (c) and (d) to show that $a_n < 4$ for all n.
(f) Use Theorem 12 to show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} (1 + 1/n)^n$ exists. (The limit is e. See Equation 3.6.6.)

97. Let a and b be positive numbers with $a > b$. Let a_1 be their arithmetic mean and b_1 their geometric mean:

$$a_1 = \frac{a + b}{2} \qquad b_1 = \sqrt{ab}$$

Repeat this process so that, in general,

$$a_{n+1} = \frac{a_n + b_n}{2} \qquad b_{n+1} = \sqrt{a_n b_n}$$

(a) Use mathematical induction to show that

$$a_n > a_{n+1} > b_{n+1} > b_n$$

(b) Deduce that both $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are convergent.
(c) Show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n$. Gauss called the common value of these limits the **arithmetic-geometric mean** of the numbers a and b.

98. (a) Show that if $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_{2n} = L$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_{2n+1} = L$, then $\{a_n\}$ is convergent and $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$.
(b) If $a_1 = 1$ and

$$a_{n+1} = 1 + \frac{1}{1 + a_n}$$

find the first eight terms of the sequence $\{a_n\}$. Then use part (a) to show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \sqrt{2}$. This gives the **continued fraction expansion**

$$\sqrt{2} = 1 + \cfrac{1}{2 + \cfrac{1}{2 + \cdots}}$$

99. The size of an undisturbed fish population has been modeled by the formula

$$p_{n+1} = \frac{bp_n}{a + p_n}$$

where p_n is the fish population after n years and a and b are positive constants that depend on the species and its environment. Suppose that the population in year 0 is $p_0 > 0$.

(a) Show that if $\{p_n\}$ is convergent, then the only possible values for its limit are 0 and $b - a$.

(b) Show that $p_{n+1} < (b/a)p_n$.

(c) Use part (b) to show that if $a > b$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} p_n = 0$; in other words, the population dies out.

(d) Now assume that $a < b$. Show that if $p_0 < b - a$, then $\{p_n\}$ is increasing and $0 < p_n < b - a$. Also show that if $p_0 > b - a$, then $\{p_n\}$ is decreasing and $p_n > b - a$. Deduce that if $a < b$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} p_n = b - a$.

DISCOVERY PROJECT | T LOGISTIC SEQUENCES

A sequence that arises in ecology as a model for population growth is defined by the **logistic difference equation**

$$p_{n+1} = kp_n(1 - p_n)$$

where p_n measures the size of the population of the nth generation of a single species. To keep the numbers manageable, we take p_n to be a fraction of the maximal size of the population, so $0 \leqslant p_n \leqslant 1$. Notice that the form of this equation is similar to the logistic differential equation in Section 9.4. The discrete model—with sequences instead of continuous functions—is preferable for modeling insect populations, where mating and death occur in a periodic fashion.

An ecologist is interested in predicting the size of the population as time goes on, and asks these questions: Will it stabilize at a limiting value? Will it change in a cyclical fashion? Or will it exhibit random behavior?

Write a program to compute the first n terms of this sequence starting with an initial population p_0, where $0 < p_0 < 1$. Use this program to do the following.

1. Calculate 20 or 30 terms of the sequence for $p_0 = \frac{1}{2}$ and for two values of k such that $1 < k < 3$. Graph each sequence. Do the sequences appear to converge? Repeat for a different value of p_0 between 0 and 1. Does the limit depend on the choice of p_0? Does it depend on the choice of k?

2. Calculate terms of the sequence for a value of k between 3 and 3.4 and plot them. What do you notice about the behavior of the terms?

3. Experiment with values of k between 3.4 and 3.5. What happens to the terms?

4. For values of k between 3.6 and 4, compute and plot at least 100 terms and comment on the behavior of the sequence. What happens if you change p_0 by 0.001? This type of behavior is called *chaotic* and is exhibited by insect populations under certain conditions.

11.2 | Series

Recall from Section 11.1 that Zeno, in one of his paradoxes, observed that in order for a man standing in a room to walk to a wall, he would first have to walk half the distance to the wall, then half the remaining distance $\left(\frac{1}{4}\text{ of the total}\right)$, and then again half of what still remains $\left(\frac{1}{8}\right)$, and so on (see Figure 1). Because this process can always be continued, Zeno argued that the man can never reach the wall.

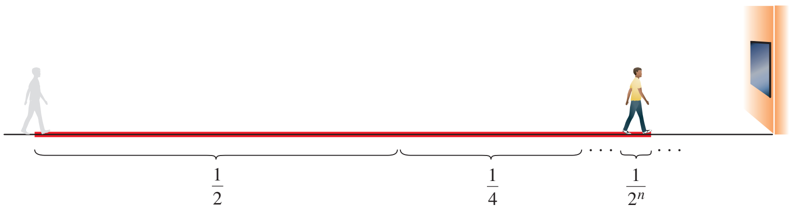


FIGURE 1
At the nth stage, the man has walked a total distance of $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{8}+\cdots+\frac{1}{2^n}$.

Of course, we know that the man can actually reach the wall, so this suggests that perhaps the total distance the man walks can be expressed as the sum of infinitely many smaller distances as follows:

$$1=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{16}+\cdots+\frac{1}{2^n}+\cdots$$

Zeno was arguing that it doesn't make sense to add infinitely many numbers together. But there are other situations in which we implicitly use infinite sums. For instance, in decimal notation, the value of π is

With the help of computers, researchers have found decimal approximations for π accurate to tens of trillions of decimal places.

$$\pi=3.14159\ 26535\ 89793\ 23846\ 26433\ 83279\ 50288\ \ldots$$

The convention behind our decimal notation is that this number can be written as the infinite sum

$$\pi=3+\frac{1}{10}+\frac{4}{10^2}+\frac{1}{10^3}+\frac{5}{10^4}+\frac{9}{10^5}+\frac{2}{10^6}+\frac{6}{10^7}+\frac{5}{10^8}+\cdots$$

We can't literally add an infinite number of terms, but the more terms we add, the closer we get to the actual value of π.

Infinite Series

If we try to add the terms of an infinite sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ we get an expression of the form

1 $$a_1+a_2+a_3+\cdots+a_n+\cdots$$

which is called an **infinite series** (or just a **series**) and is denoted by the symbol

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \qquad \text{or} \qquad \sum a_n$$

In general, does it make sense to talk about the sum of infinitely many numbers? For example, it would be impossible to find a finite sum for the series

$$1+2+3+4+5+\cdots+n+\cdots$$

because if we start adding the terms, then we get cumulative sums that grow increasingly larger.

However, consider the series of distances from Zeno's paradox:

$$\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{16}+\frac{1}{32}+\frac{1}{64}+\cdots+\frac{1}{2^n}+\cdots$$

n	Sum of first n terms
1	0.50000000
2	0.75000000
3	0.87500000
4	0.93750000
5	0.96875000
6	0.98437500
7	0.99218750
10	0.99902344
15	0.99996948
20	0.99999905
25	0.99999997

If we start adding the terms, and we keep track of the subtotals as we go, we get $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$ (the sum of the first two terms), $\frac{7}{8}$ (first three terms), $\frac{15}{16}$, $\frac{31}{32}$, $\frac{63}{64}$, and so on. The table in the margin shows that as we add more and more terms, these *partial sums* become closer and closer to 1. In fact, you can verify that the nth partial sum is given by

$$\frac{2^n - 1}{2^n} = 1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$$

and we can see that by adding sufficiently many terms of the series (making n sufficiently large), the partial sums can be made as close to 1 as we like. So it seems reasonable to say that the sum of this infinite series is 1 and to write

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \cdots = 1$$

We use a similar idea to determine whether or not a general series Σa_n has a sum. We consider the **partial sums**

$$s_1 = a_1$$

$$s_2 = a_1 + a_2$$

$$s_3 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3$$

$$s_4 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4$$

and, in general,

$$s_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i$$

These partial sums form a new sequence $\{s_n\}$, which may or may not have a limit. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n$ exists (as a finite number), then we call it the sum of the infinite series Σa_n.

2 Definitio Given a series $\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots$, let s_n denote its nth partial sum:

$$s_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n$$

If the sequence $\{s_n\}$ is convergent and $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = s$ exists as a real number, then the series Σa_n is called **convergent** and we write

$$a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n + \cdots = s \qquad \text{or} \qquad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = s$$

The number s is called the **sum** of the series.

If the sequence $\{s_n\}$ is divergent, then the series is called **divergent**.

Compare with the improper integral

$$\int_1^{\infty} f(x)\,dx = \lim_{t\to\infty} \int_1^t f(x)\,dx$$

To find this integral we integrate from 1 to t and then let $t \to \infty$. For a series, we sum from 1 to n and then let $n \to \infty$.

Thus the sum of a series is the limit of the sequence of partial sums. So when we write $\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = s$, we mean that by adding sufficiently many terms of the series we can get as close as we like to the number s. Notice that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i$$

EXAMPLE 1 Suppose we know that the sum of the first n terms of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is

$$s_n = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n = \frac{2n}{3n + 5}$$

Then the sum of the series is the limit of the sequence $\{s_n\}$:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{2n}{3n + 5} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{2}{3 + \dfrac{5}{n}} = \frac{2}{3}$$ ■

In Example 1 we were *given* an expression for the sum of the first n terms. In the following example we will *find* an expression for the nth partial sum.

EXAMPLE 2 Show that the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n + 1)}$ is convergent, and find its sum.

SOLUTION We use the definition of a convergent series and compute the partial sums.

$$s_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i(i + 1)} = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n(n + 1)}$$

We can simplify this expression if we use the partial fraction decomposition

$$\frac{1}{i(i + 1)} = \frac{1}{i} - \frac{1}{i + 1}$$

(see Section 7.4). Thus we have

Notice that the terms cancel in pairs. This is an example of a **telescoping sum**: because of all the cancellations, the sum collapses (like a pirate's collapsing telescope) into just two terms.

$$\begin{aligned} s_n &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i(i + 1)} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{i} - \frac{1}{i + 1} \right) \\ &= \left(1 - \cancel{\frac{1}{2}} \right) + \left(\cancel{\frac{1}{2}} - \cancel{\frac{1}{3}} \right) + \left(\cancel{\frac{1}{3}} - \cancel{\frac{1}{4}} \right) + \cdots + \left(\cancel{\frac{1}{n}} - \frac{1}{n + 1} \right) \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{n + 1} \end{aligned}$$

and so $$\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n + 1} \right) = 1 - 0 = 1$$

Therefore the given series is convergent and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n + 1)} = 1$$ ■

Figure 2 illustrates Example 2 by showing the graphs of the sequence of terms $a_n = 1/[n(n + 1)]$ and the sequence $\{s_n\}$ of partial sums. Notice that $a_n \to 0$ and $s_n \to 1$. See Exercises 82 and 83 for two geometric interpretations of Example 2.

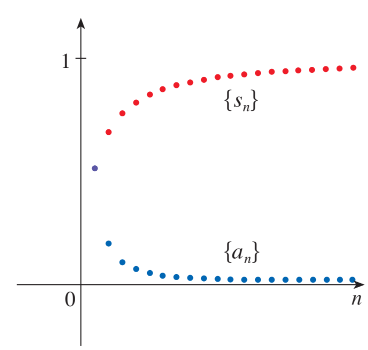


FIGURE 2

Sum of a Geometric Series

An important example of an infinite series is the **geometric series**

$$a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \cdots + ar^{n-1} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} \qquad a \neq 0$$

Each term is obtained from the preceding one by multiplying it by the **common ratio** r. (The series that arises from Zeno's paradox is the special case where $a = \frac{1}{2}$ and $r = \frac{1}{2}$.)

Figure 3 provides a geometric demonstration of the formula for the sum of a geometric series. If the triangles are constructed as shown and s is the sum of the series, then, by similar triangles,

$$\frac{s}{a} = \frac{a}{a - ar} \quad \text{so} \quad s = \frac{a}{1 - r}$$

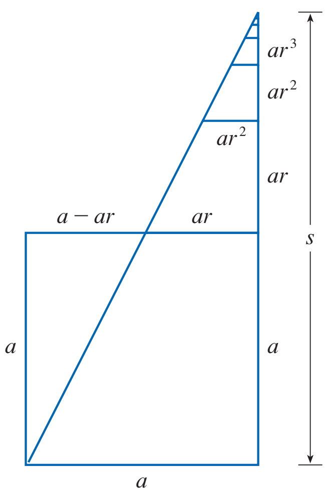


FIGURE 3

If $r = 1$, then $s_n = a + a + \cdots + a = na \to \pm\infty$. Since $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n$ doesn't exist, the geometric series diverges in this case.

If $r \neq 1$, we have

$$s_n = a + ar + ar^2 + \cdots + ar^{n-1}$$

and

$$rs_n = \qquad ar + ar^2 + \cdots + ar^{n-1} + ar^n$$

Subtracting these equations, we get

$$s_n - rs_n = a - ar^n$$

3
$$\boxed{s_n = \frac{a(1 - r^n)}{1 - r}}$$

If $-1 < r < 1$, we know from (11.1.9) that $r^n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, so

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a(1 - r^n)}{1 - r} = \frac{a}{1 - r} - \frac{a}{1 - r} \cdot \lim_{n\to\infty} r^n = \frac{a}{1 - r}$$

Thus when $|r| < 1$ the geometric series is convergent and its sum is $a/(1 - r)$.

If $r \leqslant -1$ or $r > 1$, the sequence $\{r^n\}$ is divergent by (11.1.9) and so, by Equation 3, $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n$ does not exist. Therefore the geometric series diverges in those cases. We summarize these results as follows.

4 The geometric series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = a + ar + ar^2 + \cdots$$

is convergent if $|r| < 1$ and its sum is

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = \frac{a}{1 - r} \qquad |r| < 1$$

If $|r| \geqslant 1$, the geometric series is divergent.

In words: the sum of a convergent geometric series is

$$\frac{\text{first term}}{1 - \text{common ratio}}$$

EXAMPLE 3 Find the sum of the geometric series

$$5 - \tfrac{10}{3} + \tfrac{20}{9} - \tfrac{40}{27} + \cdots$$

SOLUTION The first term is $a = 5$ and the common ratio is $r = -\frac{2}{3}$. Since $|r| = \frac{2}{3} < 1$, the series is convergent by (4) and its sum is

$$\frac{5}{1 - \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)} = \frac{5}{\frac{5}{3}} = 3$$

■

What do we really mean when we say that the sum of the series in Example 3 is 3? Of course, we can't literally add an infinite number of terms, one by one. But, according to Definition 2, the total sum is the limit of the sequence of partial sums. So, by taking the sum of sufficiently many terms, we can get as close as we like to the number 3. The table shows the first 10 partial sums s_n and the graph in Figure 4 shows how the sequence of partial sums approaches 3.

n	s_n
1	5.000000
2	1.666667
3	3.888889
4	2.407407
5	3.395062
6	2.736626
7	3.175583
8	2.882945
9	3.078037
10	2.947975

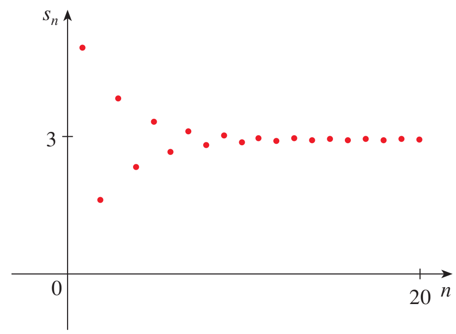


FIGURE 4

EXAMPLE 4 Is the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{2n} 3^{1-n}$ convergent or divergent?

SOLUTION Let's rewrite the nth term of the series in the form ar^{n-1}:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{2n} 3^{1-n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (2^2)^n 3^{-(n-1)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{4^n}{3^{n-1}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 4\left(\tfrac{4}{3}\right)^{n-1}$$

Another way to identify a and r is to write out the first few terms:

$$4 + \tfrac{16}{3} + \tfrac{64}{9} + \cdots$$

We recognize this series as a geometric series with $a = 4$ and $r = \frac{4}{3}$. Since $r > 1$, the series diverges by (4). ■

EXAMPLE 5 A drug is administered to a patient at the same time every day. Suppose the concentration of the drug is C_n (measured in mg/mL) after the injection on the nth day. Before the injection the next day, only 30% of the drug remains in the bloodstream and the daily dose raises the concentration by 0.2 mg/mL.

(a) Find the concentration just after the third injection.
(b) What is the concentration just after the nth dose?
(c) What is the limiting concentration?

SOLUTION

(a) Just before the daily dose of medication is administered, the concentration is reduced to 30% of the preceding day's concentration, that is, $0.3C_n$. With the new dose, the concentration is increased by 0.2 mg/mL and so

$$C_{n+1} = 0.2 + 0.3C_n$$

Starting with $C_0 = 0$ and putting $n = 0, 1, 2$ into this equation, we get

$$C_1 = 0.2 + 0.3C_0 = 0.2$$

$$C_2 = 0.2 + 0.3C_1 = 0.2 + 0.2(0.3) = 0.26$$

$$C_3 = 0.2 + 0.3C_2 = 0.2 + 0.2(0.3) + 0.2(0.3)^2 = 0.278$$

The concentration after three days is 0.278 mg/mL.

(b) After the nth dose the concentration is

$$C_n = 0.2 + 0.2(0.3) + 0.2(0.3)^2 + \cdots + 0.2(0.3)^{n-1}$$

This is a finite geometric series with $a = 0.2$ and $r = 0.3$, so by Formula 3 we have

$$C_n = \frac{0.2[1 - (0.3)^n]}{1 - 0.3} = \frac{2}{7}[1 - (0.3)^n] \text{ mg/mL}$$

(c) Because $0.3 < 1$, we know that $\lim_{n\to\infty} (0.3)^n = 0$. So the limiting concentration is

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} C_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{2}{7}[1 - (0.3)^n] = \frac{2}{7}(1 - 0) = \frac{2}{7} \text{ mg/mL}$$ ■

EXAMPLE 6 Write the number $2.3\overline{17} = 2.3171717\ldots$ as a ratio of integers.

SOLUTION

$$2.3171717\ldots = 2.3 + \frac{17}{10^3} + \frac{17}{10^5} + \frac{17}{10^7} + \cdots$$

After the first term we have a geometric series with $a = 17/10^3$ and $r = 1/10^2$. Therefore

$$2.3\overline{17} = 2.3 + \frac{\dfrac{17}{10^3}}{1 - \dfrac{1}{10^2}} = 2.3 + \frac{\dfrac{17}{1000}}{\dfrac{99}{100}}$$

$$= \frac{23}{10} + \frac{17}{990} = \frac{1147}{495}$$ ■

EXAMPLE 7 Find the sum of the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$, where $|x| < 1$.

SOLUTION Notice that this series starts with $n = 0$ and so the first term is $x^0 = 1$. (With series, we adopt the convention that $x^0 = 1$ even when $x = 0$.) Thus

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \cdots$$

This is a geometric series with $a = 1$ and $r = x$. Since $|r| = |x| < 1$, it converges and (4) gives

5
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1 - x}$$ ■

Test for Divergence

Recall that a series is divergent if its sequence of partial sums is a divergent sequence.

EXAMPLE 8 Show that the **harmonic series**

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \cdots$$

is divergent.

SOLUTION For this particular series it's convenient to consider the partial sums s_2, s_4, s_8, s_{16}, s_{32}, . . . and show that they become large.

$$s_2 = 1 + \tfrac{1}{2}$$

$$s_4 = 1 + \tfrac{1}{2} + \left(\tfrac{1}{3} + \tfrac{1}{4}\right) > 1 + \tfrac{1}{2} + \left(\tfrac{1}{4} + \tfrac{1}{4}\right) = 1 + \tfrac{2}{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} s_8 &= 1 + \tfrac{1}{2} + \left(\tfrac{1}{3} + \tfrac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\tfrac{1}{5} + \tfrac{1}{6} + \tfrac{1}{7} + \tfrac{1}{8}\right) \\ &> 1 + \tfrac{1}{2} + \left(\tfrac{1}{4} + \tfrac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\tfrac{1}{8} + \tfrac{1}{8} + \tfrac{1}{8} + \tfrac{1}{8}\right) \\ &= 1 + \tfrac{1}{2} + \tfrac{1}{2} + \tfrac{1}{2} = 1 + \tfrac{3}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} s_{16} &= 1 + \tfrac{1}{2} + \left(\tfrac{1}{3} + \tfrac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\tfrac{1}{5} + \cdots + \tfrac{1}{8}\right) + \left(\tfrac{1}{9} + \cdots + \tfrac{1}{16}\right) \\ &> 1 + \tfrac{1}{2} + \left(\tfrac{1}{4} + \tfrac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\tfrac{1}{8} + \cdots + \tfrac{1}{8}\right) + \left(\tfrac{1}{16} + \cdots + \tfrac{1}{16}\right) \\ &= 1 + \tfrac{1}{2} + \tfrac{1}{2} + \tfrac{1}{2} + \tfrac{1}{2} = 1 + \tfrac{4}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $s_{32} > 1 + \frac{5}{2}$, $s_{64} > 1 + \frac{6}{2}$, and in general

$$s_{2^n} > 1 + \frac{n}{2}$$

The method used in Example 8 for showing that the harmonic series diverges was developed by the French scholar Nicole Oresme (1323–1382).

This shows that $s_{2^n} \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$ and so $\{s_n\}$ is divergent. Therefore the harmonic series diverges. ■

6 Theorem If the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is convergent, then $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$.

PROOF Let $s_n = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n$. Then $a_n = s_n - s_{n-1}$. Since $\sum a_n$ is convergent, the sequence $\{s_n\}$ is convergent. Let $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = s$. Since $n - 1 \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$, we also have $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_{n-1} = s$. Therefore

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} (s_n - s_{n-1}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} s_n - \lim_{n\to\infty} s_{n-1} = s - s = 0$$ ■

NOTE With any *series* Σa_n we associate two *sequences:* the sequence $\{s_n\}$ of its partial sums and the sequence $\{a_n\}$ of its terms. If Σa_n is convergent, then the limit of the sequence $\{s_n\}$ is s (the sum of the series) and, as Theorem 6 asserts, the limit of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is 0.

WARNING The converse of Theorem 6 is not true in general. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$, we cannot conclude that Σa_n is convergent. Observe that for the harmonic series $\Sigma 1/n$ we have $a_n = 1/n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, but we showed in Example 8 that $\Sigma 1/n$ is divergent.

7 Test for Divergence If $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$ does not exist or if $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n \neq 0$, then the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is divergent.

The Test for Divergence follows from Theorem 6 because, if the series is not divergent, then it is convergent, and so $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$.

EXAMPLE 9 Show that the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{5n^2+4}$ diverges.

SOLUTION

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n^2}{5n^2+4} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{5+4/n^2} = \frac{1}{5} \neq 0$$

So the series diverges by the Test for Divergence. ■

NOTE If we find that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n \neq 0$, we know that Σa_n is divergent. If we find that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$, this fact tells us *nothing* about the convergence or divergence of Σa_n. Remember the warning given after Theorem 6: if $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$, the series Σa_n might converge or it might diverge.

Properties of Convergent Series

The following properties of convergent series follow from the corresponding Limit Laws for Sequences in Section 11.1.

8 Theorem If Σa_n and Σb_n are convergent series, then so are the series Σca_n (where c is a constant), $\Sigma(a_n + b_n)$, and $\Sigma(a_n - b_n)$, and

(i) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ca_n = c\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$

(ii) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$

(iii) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n - b_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$

We prove part (ii); the other parts are left as exercises.

PROOF OF PART (ii) Let

$$s_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \qquad s = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \qquad t_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \qquad t = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$$

The nth partial sum for the series $\Sigma(a_n + b_n)$ is

$$u_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i + b_i)$$

and, using Equation 5.2.10, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n\to\infty} u_n &= \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i + b_i) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \right) \\ &= \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i + \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \\ &= \lim_{n\to\infty} s_n + \lim_{n\to\infty} t_n = s + t\end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\Sigma\,(a_n + b_n)$ is convergent and its sum is

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) = s + t = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$$

EXAMPLE 10 Find the sum of the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\frac{3}{n(n+1)} + \frac{1}{2^n}\right)$.

SOLUTION The series $\Sigma\,1/2^n$ is a geometric series with $a = \frac{1}{2}$ and $r = \frac{1}{2}$, so

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 1$$

In Example 2 we found that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = 1$$

So, by Theorem 8, the given series is convergent and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\frac{3}{n(n+1)} + \frac{1}{2^n}\right) = 3\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{1}{n(n+1)} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{1}{2^n}$$

$$= 3 \cdot 1 + 1 = 4$$

NOTE A finite number of terms doesn't affect the convergence or divergence of a series. For instance, suppose that we were able to show that the series

$$\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^3 + 1}$$

is convergent. Since

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^3 + 1} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{9} + \frac{3}{28} + \sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^3 + 1}$$

it follows that the entire series $\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty}\, n/(n^3 + 1)$ is convergent. Similarly, if it is known that the series $\Sigma_{n=N+1}^{\infty}\, a_n$ converges, then the full series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n + \sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} a_n$$

is also convergent.

11.2 Exercises

1. (a) What is the difference between a sequence and a series?
(b) What is a convergent series? What is a divergent series?

2. Explain what it means to say that $\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty}\, a_n = 5$.

3–4 Calculate the sum of the series $\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty}\, a_n$ whose partial sums are given.

3. $s_n = 2 - 3(0.8)^n$

4. $s_n = \dfrac{n^2 - 1}{4n^2 + 1}$

5–10 Calculate the first eight terms of the sequence of partial sums correct to four decimal places. Does it appear that the series is convergent or divergent?

5. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$

6. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{n}}$

7. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin n$

8. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n n$

9. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^4 + n^2}$

10. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n!}$

11–14 Find at least 10 partial sums of the series. Graph both the sequence of terms and the sequence of partial sums on the same screen. Does it appear that the series is convergent or divergent? If it is convergent, find the sum. If it is divergent, explain why.

11. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{6}{(-3)^n}$

12. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \cos n$

13. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{\sqrt{n^2 + 4}}$

14. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{7^{n+1}}{10^n}$

15. Let $a_n = \dfrac{2n}{3n + 1}$.

(a) Determine whether $\{a_n\}$ is convergent.

(b) Determine whether $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is convergent.

16. (a) Explain the difference between

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \qquad \text{and} \qquad \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j$$

(b) Explain the difference between

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \qquad \text{and} \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_j$$

17–22 Determine whether the series is convergent or divergent by expressing s_n as a telescoping sum (as in Example 2). If it is convergent, find its sum.

17. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{n+2} - \frac{1}{n} \right)$

18. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}} \right)$

19. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{n(n+3)}$

20. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln \frac{n}{n+1}$

21. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(e^{1/n} - e^{1/(n+1)} \right)$

22. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3 - n}$

23–32 Determine whether the geometric series is convergent or divergent. If it is convergent, find its sum.

23. $3 - 4 + \frac{16}{3} - \frac{64}{9} + \cdots$

24. $4 + 3 + \frac{9}{4} + \frac{27}{16} + \cdots$

25. $10 - 2 + 0.4 - 0.08 + \cdots$

26. $2 + 0.5 + 0.125 + 0.03125 + \cdots$

27. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 12(0.73)^{n-1}$

28. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5}{\pi^n}$

29. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^{n-1}}{4^n}$

30. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{3^{n+1}}{(-2)^n}$

31. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{2n}}{6^{n-1}}$

32. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{6 \cdot 2^{2n-1}}{3^n}$

33–50 Determine whether the series is convergent or divergent. If it is convergent, find its sum.

33. $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{15} + \cdots$

34. $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{3} + \frac{3}{4} + \frac{4}{5} + \frac{5}{6} + \frac{6}{7} + \cdots$

35. $\frac{2}{5} + \frac{4}{25} + \frac{8}{125} + \frac{16}{625} + \frac{32}{3125} + \cdots$

36. $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{9} + \frac{1}{27} + \frac{2}{81} + \frac{1}{243} + \frac{2}{729} + \cdots$

37. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2+n}{1-2n}$

38. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^2}{k^2 - 2k + 5}$

39. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 3^{n+1} 4^{-n}$

40. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[(-0.2)^n + (0.6)^{n-1} \right]$

41. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4 + e^{-n}}$

42. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n + 4^n}{e^n}$

43. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\sin 100)^k$

44. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n}$

45. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln\left(\frac{n^2 + 1}{2n^2 + 1} \right)$

46. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\sqrt{2}\right)^{-k}$

47. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \arctan n$

48. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{5^n} + \frac{2}{n} \right)$

49. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{e^n} + \frac{1}{n(n+1)} \right)$

50. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^n}{n^2}$

51. Let $x = 0.99999\ldots$.

(a) Do you think that $x < 1$ or $x = 1$?

(b) Sum a geometric series to find the value of x.

(c) How many decimal representations does the number 1 have?

(d) Which numbers have more than one decimal representation?

52. A sequence of terms is defined by

$$a_1 = 1 \qquad a_n = (5 - n)a_{n-1}$$

Calculate $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$.

53–58 Express the number as a ratio of integers.

53. $0.\overline{8} = 0.8888\ldots$

54. $0.\overline{46} = 0.46464646\ldots$

55. $2.\overline{516} = 2.516516516\ldots$

56. $10.1\overline{35} = 10.135353535\ldots$

57. $1.234\overline{567}$ **58.** $5.\overline{71358}$

59–66 Find the values of x for which the series converges. Find the sum of the series for those values of x.

59. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-5)^n x^n$

60. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (x+2)^n$

61. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x-2)^n}{3^n}$

62. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-4)^n (x-5)^n$

63. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{x^n}$

64. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{2^n}$

65. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{nx}$

66. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\sin^n x}{3^n}$

T **67–68** Use the partial fraction command on a computer algebra system to find a convenient expression for the partial sum, and then use this expression to find the sum of the series. Check your answer by using the CAS to sum the series directly.

67. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3n^2 + 3n + 1}{(n^2+n)^3}$

68. $\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5 - 5n^3 + 4n}$

69. If the nth partial sum of a series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is

$$s_n = \frac{n-1}{n+1}$$

find a_n and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$.

70. If the nth partial sum of a series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is $s_n = 3 - n2^{-n}$, find a_n and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$.

71. A doctor prescribes a 100-mg antibiotic tablet to be taken every eight hours. It is known that the body eliminates 75% of the drug in eight hours.
(a) How much of the drug is in the body just after the second tablet is taken? After the third tablet?
(b) If Q_n is the quantity of the antibiotic in the body just after the nth tablet is taken, find an equation that expresses Q_{n+1} in terms of Q_n.
(c) What quantity of the antibiotic remains in the body in the long run?

72. A patient is injected with a drug every 12 hours. Immediately before each injection the concentration of the drug has been reduced by 90% and the new dose increases the concentration by 1.5 mg/L.
(a) What is the concentration after three doses?
(b) If C_n is the concentration after the nth dose, find a formula for C_n as a function of n.
(c) What is the limiting value of the concentration?

73. A patient takes 150 mg of a drug at the same time every day. It is known that the body eliminates 95% of the drug in 24 hours.
(a) What quantity of the drug is in the body after the third tablet? After the nth tablet?
(b) What quantity of the drug remains in the body in the long run?

74. After injection of a dose D of insulin, the concentration of insulin in a patient's system decays exponentially and so it can be written as De^{-at}, where t represents time in hours and a is a positive constant.
(a) If a dose D is injected every T hours, write an expression for the sum of the residual concentrations just before the $(n+1)$st injection.
(b) Determine the limiting pre-injection concentration.
(c) If the concentration of insulin must always remain at or above a critical value C, determine a minimal dosage D in terms of C, a, and T.

75. When money is spent on goods and services, those who receive the money also spend some of it. The people receiving some of the twice-spent money will spend some of that, and so on. Economists call this chain reaction the *multiplier effect*. In a hypothetical isolated community, the local government begins the process by spending D dollars. Suppose that each recipient of spent money spends $100c\%$ and saves $100s\%$ of the money that he or she receives. The values c and s are called the *marginal propensity to consume* and the *marginal propensity to save* and, of course, $c + s = 1$.
(a) Let S_n be the total spending that has been generated after n transactions. Find an equation for S_n.
(b) Show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} S_n = kD$, where $k = 1/s$. The number k is called the *multiplier*. What is the multiplier if the marginal propensity to consume is 80%?

Note: The federal government uses this principle to justify deficit spending. Banks use this principle to justify lending a large percentage of the money that they receive in deposits.

76. A certain ball has the property that each time it falls from a height h onto a hard, level surface, it rebounds to a height rh, where $0 < r < 1$. Suppose that the ball is dropped from an initial height of H meters.
(a) Assuming that the ball continues to bounce indefinitely, find the total distance that it travels.
(b) Calculate the total time that the ball travels. (Use the fact that the ball falls $\frac{1}{2}gt^2$ meters in t seconds.)
(c) Suppose that each time the ball strikes the surface with velocity v it rebounds with velocity $-kv$, where $0 < k < 1$. How long will it take for the ball to come to rest?

77. Find the value of c if $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (1+c)^{-n} = 2$.

78. Find the value of c such that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{nc} = 10$.

79–81 The Harmonic Series Diverges In Example 8 we proved that the harmonic series diverges. Here we outline additional methods of proving this fact. In each case, assume that the series converges with sum S, and show that this assumption leads to a contradiction.

79. $$S = \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6}\right) + \cdots$$
$$> \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6}\right) + \cdots = S$$

80. $$S = 1 + \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7}\right) +$$
$$\left(\frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10}\right) + \cdots > 1 + \frac{3}{3} + \frac{3}{6} + \frac{3}{9} + \cdots = 1 + S$$

Hint: First show that $\dfrac{1}{n-1} + \dfrac{1}{n+1} > \dfrac{2}{n}$.

81. $$e^{1+(1/2)+(1/3)+\cdots+(1/n)} = e^1 \cdot e^{1/2} \cdot e^{1/3} \cdot \cdots \cdot e^{1/n}$$
$$> (1 + 1)\left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\right)\left(1 + \frac{1}{3}\right)\cdots\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) = n + 1$$

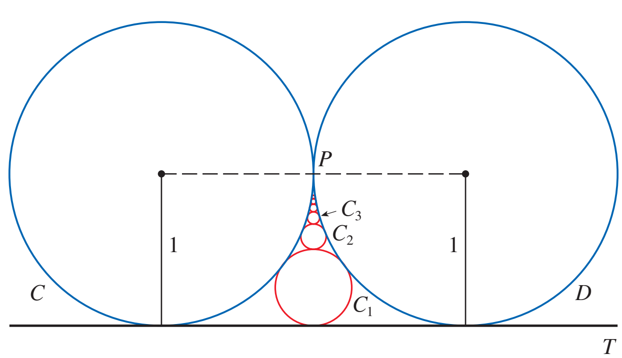
Hint: First show that $e^x > 1 + x$.

---

82. Graph the curves $y = x^n$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$, for $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \ldots$ on a common screen. By finding the areas between successive curves, give a geometric demonstration of the fact, shown in Example 2, that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = 1$$

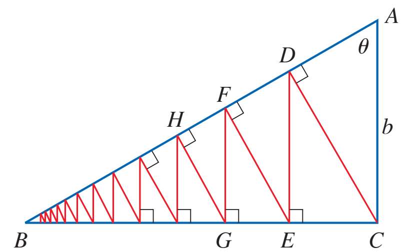
83. The figure shows two circles C and D of radius 1 that touch at P. The line T is a common tangent line; C_1 is the circle that touches C, D, and T; C_2 is the circle that touches C, D, and C_1; C_3 is the circle that touches C, D, and C_2. This procedure can be continued indefinitely and produces an infinite sequence of circles $\{C_n\}$. Find an expression for the diameter of C_n and thus provide another geometric demonstration of Example 2.



84. A right triangle ABC is given with $\angle A = \theta$ and $|AC| = b$. CD is drawn perpendicular to AB, DE is drawn perpendicular to BC, $EF \perp AB$, and this process is continued indefinitely, as shown in the figure. Find the total length of all the perpendiculars

$$|CD| + |DE| + |EF| + |FG| + \cdots$$

in terms of b and θ.



85. What is wrong with the following calculation?

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= 0 + 0 + 0 + \cdots \\ &= (1 - 1) + (1 - 1) + (1 - 1) + \cdots \\ &= 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \cdots \\ &= 1 + (-1 + 1) + (-1 + 1) + (-1 + 1) + \cdots \\ &= 1 + 0 + 0 + 0 + \cdots = 1 \end{aligned}$$

(Guido Ubaldus thought that this proved the existence of God because "something has been created out of nothing.")

86. Suppose that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ $(a_n \neq 0)$ is known to be a convergent series. Prove that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/a_n$ is a divergent series.

87. (a) Prove part (i) of Theorem 8.
(b) Prove part (iii) of Theorem 8.

88. If $\sum a_n$ is divergent and $c \neq 0$, show that $\sum ca_n$ is divergent.

89. If $\sum a_n$ is convergent and $\sum b_n$ is divergent, show that the series $\sum (a_n + b_n)$ is divergent. [*Hint:* Argue by contradiction.]

90. If $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are both divergent, is $\sum (a_n + b_n)$ necessarily divergent?

91. Suppose that a series $\sum a_n$ has positive terms and its partial sums s_n satisfy the inequality $s_n \leqslant 1000$ for all n. Explain why $\sum a_n$ must be convergent.

92. The Fibonacci sequence was defined in Section 11.1 by the equations

$$f_1 = 1, \quad f_2 = 1, \quad f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} \qquad n \geqslant 3$$

Show that each of the following statements is true.

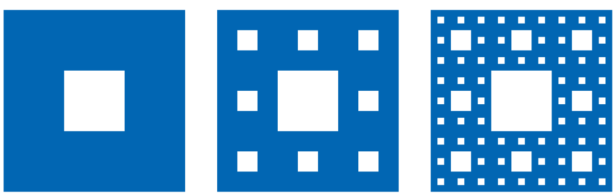
(a) $$\frac{1}{f_{n-1} f_{n+1}} = \frac{1}{f_{n-1} f_n} - \frac{1}{f_n f_{n+1}}$$

(b) $$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{f_{n-1} f_{n+1}} = 1$$ (c) $$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{f_n}{f_{n-1} f_{n+1}} = 2$$

93. The **Cantor set**, named after the German mathematician Georg Cantor (1845–1918), is constructed as follows. We start with the closed interval [0, 1] and remove the open interval $\left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right)$. That leaves the two intervals $\left[0, \frac{1}{3}\right]$ and $\left[\frac{2}{3}, 1\right]$ and we remove the open middle third of each. Four intervals remain and again we remove the open middle third of each of them. We continue this procedure indefinitely, at each step removing the open middle third of every interval that remains from the preceding step. The Cantor set consists of the numbers that remain in [0, 1] after all those intervals have been removed.

(a) Show that the total length of all the intervals that are removed is 1. Despite that, the Cantor set contains infinitely many numbers. Give examples of some numbers in the Cantor set.

(b) The **Sierpinski carpet** is a two-dimensional counterpart of the Cantor set. It is constructed by removing the center one-ninth of a square of side 1, then removing the centers of the eight smaller remaining squares, and so on. (The figure shows the first three steps of the construction.) Show that the sum of the areas of the removed squares is 1. This implies that the Sierpinski carpet has area 0.



94. (a) A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is defined recursively by the equation $a_n = \frac{1}{2}(a_{n-1} + a_{n-2})$ for $n \geqslant 3$, where a_1 and a_2 can be any real numbers. Experiment with various values of a_1 and a_2 and use a calculator to guess the limit of the sequence.

(b) Find $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$ in terms of a_1 and a_2 by expressing $a_{n+1} - a_n$ in terms of $a_2 - a_1$ and summing a series.

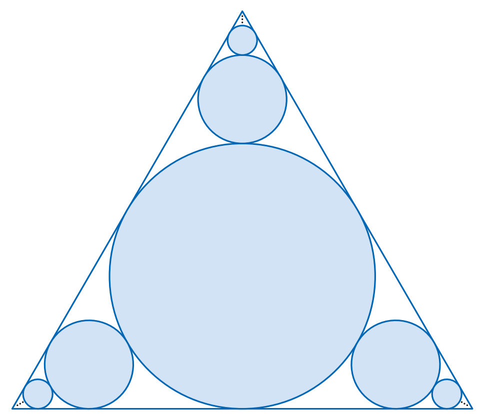
95. Consider the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n/(n+1)!$.

(a) Find the partial sums s_1, s_2, s_3, and s_4. Do you recognize the denominators? Use the pattern to guess a formula for s_n.

(b) Use mathematical induction to prove your guess.

(c) Show that the given infinite series is convergent, and find its sum.

96. The figure shows infinitely many circles approaching the vertices of an equilateral triangle, each circle touching other circles and sides of the triangle. If the triangle has sides of length 1, find the total area occupied by the circles.



11.3 The Integral Test and Estimates of Sums

In general, it is difficult to find the exact sum of a series. We were able to accomplish this for geometric series and for some telescoping series because in each of those cases we could find a simple formula for the nth partial sum s_n. But usually it isn't easy to discover such a formula. Therefore, in the next few sections, we develop several tests that enable us to determine whether a series is convergent or divergent without explicitly finding its sum. (In some cases, however, our methods will enable us to find good estimates of the sum.) Our first test involves improper integrals.

The Integral Test

We begin by investigating the series whose terms are the reciprocals of the squares of the positive integers:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \frac{1}{5^2} + \cdots$$

There's no simple formula for the sum s_n of the first n terms, but the computer-generated

n	$s_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i^2}$
5	1.4636
10	1.5498
50	1.6251
100	1.6350
500	1.6429
1000	1.6439
5000	1.6447

table of approximate values given in the margin suggests that the partial sums are approaching a number near 1.64 as $n \to \infty$ and so it looks as if the series is convergent.

We can confirm this impression with a geometric argument. Figure 1 shows the curve $y = 1/x^2$ and rectangles that lie below the curve. The base of each rectangle is an interval of length 1; the height is equal to the value of the function $y = 1/x^2$ at the right endpoint of the interval.

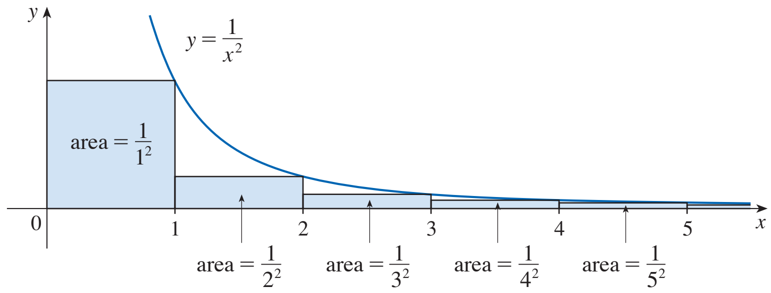


FIGURE 1

So the sum of the areas of the rectangles is

$$\frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \frac{1}{5^2} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

If we exclude the first rectangle, the total area of the remaining rectangles is smaller than the area under the curve $y = 1/x^2$ for $x \geqslant 1$, which is the value of the integral $\int_1^\infty (1/x^2)\, dx$. In Section 7.8 we discovered that this improper integral is convergent and has value 1. So the picture shows that all the partial sums are less than

$$\frac{1}{1^2} + \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2}\, dx = 2$$

Thus the partial sums are bounded. We also know that the partial sums are increasing (because all the terms are positive). Therefore the partial sums converge (by the Monotonic Sequence Theorem) and so the series is convergent. The sum of the series (the limit of the partial sums) is also less than 2:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \cdots < 2$$

n	$s_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{i}}$
5	3.2317
10	5.0210
50	12.7524
100	18.5896
500	43.2834
1000	61.8010
5000	139.9681

[The exact sum of this series was found by the Swiss mathematician Leonhard Euler (1707–1783) to be $\pi^2/6$, but the proof of this fact is quite difficult. (See Problem 6 in the Problems Plus following Chapter 15.)]

Now let's look at the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} + \cdots$$

The table of values of s_n suggests that the partial sums aren't approaching a finite number, so we suspect that the given series may be divergent. Again we use a picture for confirmation. Figure 2 shows the curve $y = 1/\sqrt{x}$, but this time we use rectangles whose tops lie *above* the curve.

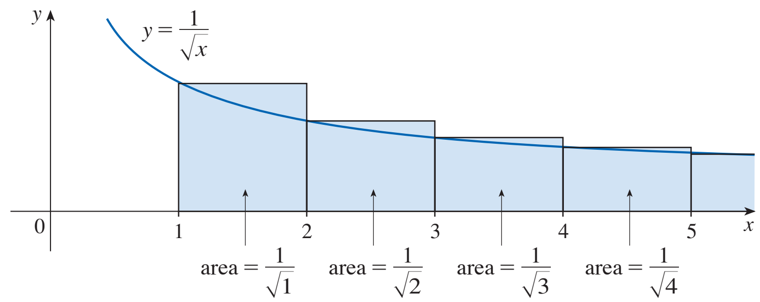


FIGURE 2

The base of each rectangle is an interval of length 1. The height is equal to the value of the function $y = 1/\sqrt{x}$ at the *left* endpoint of the interval. So the sum of the areas of all the rectangles is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$$

This total area is greater than the area under the curve $y = 1/\sqrt{x}$ for $x \geqslant 1$, which is equal to the integral $\int_1^\infty \left(1/\sqrt{x}\right) dx$. But we know from Example 7.8.4 that this improper integral is divergent. In other words, the area under the curve is infinite. So the sum of the series must be infinite; that is, the series is divergent.

The same sort of geometric reasoning that we used for these two series can be used to prove the following test. (The proof is given at the end of this section.)

The Integral Test Suppose f is a continuous, positive, decreasing function on $[1, \infty)$ and let $a_n = f(n)$. Then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is convergent if and only if the improper integral $\int_1^\infty f(x)\,dx$ is convergent. In other words:

(i) If $\displaystyle\int_1^\infty f(x)\,dx$ is convergent, then $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is convergent.

(ii) If $\displaystyle\int_1^\infty f(x)\,dx$ is divergent, then $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is divergent.

NOTE When we use the Integral Test, it is not necessary to start the series or the integral at $n = 1$. For instance, in testing the series

$$\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n-3)^2} \qquad \text{we use} \qquad \int_4^\infty \frac{1}{(x-3)^2}\,dx$$

Also, it is not necessary that f be *always* decreasing. What is important is that f be *ultimately* decreasing, that is, decreasing for x larger than some number N. Then $\sum_{n=N}^{\infty} a_n$ is convergent, so $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is convergent (see the note at the end of Section 11.2).

In order to use the Integral Test we need to be able to evaluate $\int_1^\infty f(x)\,dx$ and therefore we have to be able to find an antiderivative of f. Frequently this is difficult or impossible, so in the next three sections we develop other tests for convergence.

EXAMPLE 1 Test the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+1}$ for convergence or divergence.

SOLUTION The function $f(x) = 1/(x^2+1)$ is continuous, positive, and decreasing on $[1, \infty)$ so we use the Integral Test:

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2+1}\,dx = \lim_{t\to\infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^2+1}\,dx = \lim_{t\to\infty} \tan^{-1}x \Big]_1^t$$

$$= \lim_{t\to\infty} \left(\tan^{-1}t - \frac{\pi}{4} \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

Thus $\int_1^\infty 1/(x^2+1)\,dx$ is a convergent integral and so, by the Integral Test, the series $\Sigma\, 1/(n^2+1)$ is convergent. ■

EXAMPLE 2 For what values of p is the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ convergent?

SOLUTION If $p < 0$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} (1/n^p) = \infty$. If $p = 0$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} (1/n^p) = 1$. In either case $\lim_{n\to\infty} (1/n^p) \neq 0$, so the given series diverges by the Test for Divergence (11.2.7).

If $p > 0$, then the function $f(x) = 1/x^p$ is clearly continuous, positive, and decreasing on $[1, \infty)$. We found in Section 7.8 [see (7.8.2)] that

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p}\,dx \quad \text{converges if } p > 1 \text{ and diverges if } p \leqslant 1$$

It follows from the Integral Test that the series $\Sigma\, 1/n^p$ converges if $p > 1$ and diverges if $0 < p \leqslant 1$. (For $p = 1$, this series is the harmonic series discussed in Example 11.2.8.) ■

The series in Example 2 is called the ***p*-series**. It is important in the rest of this chapter, so we summarize the results of Example 2 for future reference as follows.

1 The p-series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ is convergent if $p > 1$ and divergent if $p \leqslant 1$.

EXAMPLE 3

(a) The series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3} = \frac{1}{1^3} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \frac{1}{3^3} + \frac{1}{4^3} + \cdots$$

is convergent because it is a p-series with $p = 3 > 1$.

(b) The series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{1/3}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{n}} = 1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{3}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{4}} + \cdots$$

is divergent because it is a p-series with $p = \frac{1}{3} < 1$. ■

We can think of the convergence of a series of positive terms as depending on how "rapidly" the terms of the series approach zero. For any p-series (with $p > 0$) the terms $a_n = 1/n^p$ tend toward zero, but they do so more rapidly for larger values of p.

NOTE We should *not* infer from the Integral Test that the sum of the series is equal to the value of the integral. In fact,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \qquad \text{whereas} \qquad \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2}\,dx = 1$$

Therefore, in general,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \neq \int_1^{\infty} f(x)\,dx$$

EXAMPLE 4 Determine whether the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n}$ converges or diverges.

SOLUTION The function $f(x) = (\ln x)/x$ is positive and continuous for $x > 1$ because the logarithm function is continuous. But it is not obvious whether or not f is decreasing, so we compute its derivative:

$$f'(x) = \frac{(1/x)x - \ln x}{x^2} = \frac{1 - \ln x}{x^2}$$

Thus $f'(x) < 0$ when $\ln x > 1$, that is, when $x > e$. It follows that f is decreasing when $x > e$ and so we can apply the Integral Test:

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{\ln x}{x}\,dx = \lim_{t\to\infty} \int_1^{t} \frac{\ln x}{x}\,dx = \lim_{t\to\infty} \frac{(\ln x)^2}{2}\bigg]_1^t$$

$$= \lim_{t\to\infty} \frac{(\ln t)^2}{2} = \infty$$

Since this improper integral is divergent, the series $\Sigma\,(\ln n)/n$ is also divergent by the Integral Test. ■

Estimating the Sum of a Series

Suppose we have been able to use the Integral Test to show that a series $\Sigma\, a_n$ is convergent and we now want to find an approximation to the sum s of the series. Of course, any partial sum s_n is an approximation to s because $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = s$. But how good is such an approximation? To find out, we need to estimate the size of the **remainder**

$$R_n = s - s_n = a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + a_{n+3} + \cdots$$

The remainder R_n is the error made when s_n, the sum of the first n terms, is used as an approximation to the total sum.

We use the same notation and ideas as in the Integral Test, assuming that f is decreasing on $[n, \infty)$. Comparing the areas of the rectangles with the area under $y = f(x)$ for $x \geqslant n$ in Figure 3, we see that

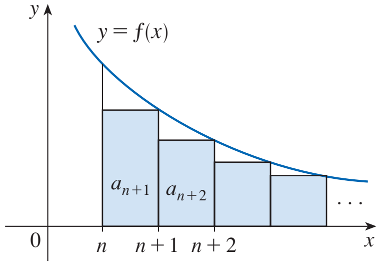


FIGURE 3

$$R_n = a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + \cdots \leqslant \int_n^{\infty} f(x)\,dx$$

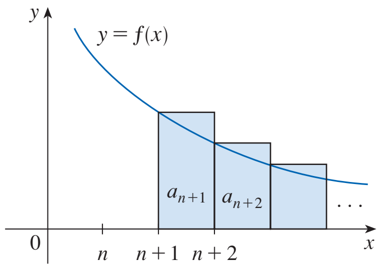


FIGURE 4

Similarly, we see from Figure 4 that

$$R_n = a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + \cdots \geqslant \int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x)\,dx$$

So we have proved the following error estimate.

> $\boxed{2}$ **Remainder Estimate for the Integral Test** Suppose $f(k) = a_k$, where f is a continuous, positive, decreasing function for $x \geqslant n$ and $\Sigma\, a_n$ is convergent. If $R_n = s - s_n$, then
>
> $$\int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x)\,dx \leqslant R_n \leqslant \int_{n}^{\infty} f(x)\,dx$$

EXAMPLE 5

(a) Approximate the sum of the series $\Sigma\, 1/n^3$ by using the sum of the first 10 terms. Estimate the error involved in this approximation.
(b) How many terms are required to ensure that the sum is accurate to within 0.0005?

SOLUTION In both parts (a) and (b) we need to know $\int_n^{\infty} f(x)\,dx$. With $f(x) = 1/x^3$, which satisfies the conditions of the Integral Test, we have

$$\int_n^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3}\,dx = \lim_{t\to\infty} \left[-\frac{1}{2x^2}\right]_n^t = \lim_{t\to\infty} \left(-\frac{1}{2t^2} + \frac{1}{2n^2}\right) = \frac{1}{2n^2}$$

(a) Approximating the sum of the series by the 10th partial sum, we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3} \approx s_{10} = \frac{1}{1^3} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \frac{1}{3^3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{10^3} \approx 1.1975$$

According to the remainder estimate in (2), we have

$$R_{10} \leqslant \int_{10}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3}\,dx = \frac{1}{2(10)^2} = \frac{1}{200}$$

So the size of the error is at most 0.005.

(b) Accuracy to within 0.0005 means that we have to find a value of n such that $R_n \leqslant 0.0005$. Since

$$R_n \leqslant \int_n^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3}\,dx = \frac{1}{2n^2}$$

we want
$$\frac{1}{2n^2} < 0.0005$$

Solving this inequality, we get

$$n^2 > \frac{1}{0.001} = 1000 \qquad \text{or} \qquad n > \sqrt{1000} \approx 31.6$$

We need 32 terms to ensure accuracy to within 0.0005. ■

If we add s_n to each side of the inequalities in (2), we get

3
$$\boxed{s_n + \int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x)\,dx \leqslant s \leqslant s_n + \int_{n}^{\infty} f(x)\,dx}$$

because $s_n + R_n = s$. The inequalities in (3) give a lower bound and an upper bound for s. They provide a more accurate approximation to the sum of the series than the partial sum s_n does.

Although Euler was able to calculate the exact sum of the p-series for $p = 2$, nobody has been able to find the exact sum for $p = 3$. In Example 6, however, we show how to *estimate* this sum.

EXAMPLE 6 Use (3) with $n = 10$ to estimate the sum of the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$.

SOLUTION The inequalities in (3) become

$$s_{10} + \int_{11}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3}\,dx \leqslant s \leqslant s_{10} + \int_{10}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3}\,dx$$

From Example 5 we know that

$$\int_{n}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3}\,dx = \frac{1}{2n^2}$$

so
$$s_{10} + \frac{1}{2(11)^2} \leqslant s \leqslant s_{10} + \frac{1}{2(10)^2}$$

Using $s_{10} \approx 1.197532$, we get

$$1.201664 \leqslant s \leqslant 1.202532$$

If we approximate s by the midpoint of this interval, then the error is at most half the length of the interval. So

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3} \approx 1.2021 \qquad \text{with error} < 0.0005$$ ■

If we compare Example 6 with Example 5, we see that the improved estimate in (3) can be much better than the estimate $s \approx s_n$. To make the error smaller than 0.0005 we had to use 32 terms in Example 5 but only 10 terms in Example 6.

Proof of the Integral Test

We have already seen the basic idea behind the proof of the Integral Test in Figures 1 and 2 for the series $\Sigma\, 1/n^2$ and $\Sigma\, 1/\sqrt{n}$. For the general series $\Sigma\, a_n$, look at Figures 5 and 6. The area of the first shaded rectangle in Figure 5 is the value of f at the right endpoint of $[1, 2]$, that is, $f(2) = a_2$. So, comparing the areas of the shaded rectangles with the area under $y = f(x)$ from 1 to n, we see that

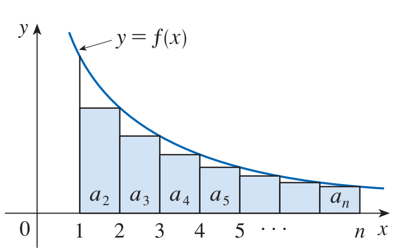


FIGURE 5

4
$$a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_n \leqslant \int_1^n f(x)\,dx$$

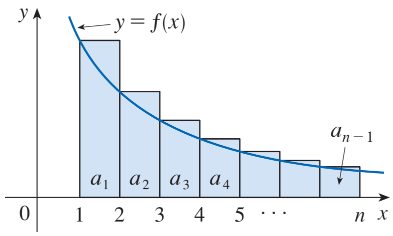


FIGURE 6

(Notice that this inequality depends on the fact that f is decreasing.) Likewise, Figure 6 shows that

$$\boxed{5} \qquad \int_1^n f(x)\,dx \leqslant a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_{n-1}$$

(i) If $\int_1^\infty f(x)\,dx$ is convergent, then (4) gives

$$\sum_{i=2}^{n} a_i \leqslant \int_1^n f(x)\,dx \leqslant \int_1^\infty f(x)\,dx$$

since $f(x) \geqslant 0$. Therefore

$$s_n = a_1 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} a_i \leqslant a_1 + \int_1^\infty f(x)\,dx = M, \text{ say}$$

Since $s_n \leqslant M$ for all n, the sequence $\{s_n\}$ is bounded above. Also

$$s_{n+1} = s_n + a_{n+1} \geqslant s_n$$

since $a_{n+1} = f(n+1) \geqslant 0$. Thus $\{s_n\}$ is an increasing bounded sequence and so it is convergent by the Monotonic Sequence Theorem (11.1.12). This means that $\Sigma\, a_n$ is convergent.

(ii) If $\int_1^\infty f(x)\,dx$ is divergent, then $\int_1^n f(x)\,dx \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$ because $f(x) \geqslant 0$. But (5) gives

$$\int_1^n f(x)\,dx \leqslant \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i = s_{n-1}$$

and so $s_{n-1} \to \infty$. This implies that $s_n \to \infty$ and so $\Sigma\, a_n$ diverges. ■

11.3 Exercises

1. Draw a picture to show that

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{1.5}} < \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^{1.5}}\,dx$$

What can you conclude about the series?

2. Suppose f is a continuous positive decreasing function for $x \geqslant 1$ and $a_n = f(n)$. By drawing a picture, rank the following three quantities in increasing order:

$$\int_1^6 f(x)\,dx \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{5} a_i \qquad \sum_{i=2}^{6} a_i$$

3–10 Use the Integral Test to determine whether the series is convergent or divergent.

3. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-3}$

4. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-0.3}$

5. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{5n-1}$

6. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(3n-1)^4}$

7. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n^3+1}$

8. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2 e^{-n^3}$

9. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^3}$

10. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\tan^{-1} n}{1+n^2}$

11–28 Determine whether the series is convergent or divergent.

11. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{\sqrt{2}}}$

12. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} n^{-0.9999}$

13. $1 + \dfrac{1}{8} + \dfrac{1}{27} + \dfrac{1}{64} + \dfrac{1}{125} + \cdots$

14. $\dfrac{1}{5} + \dfrac{1}{7} + \dfrac{1}{9} + \dfrac{1}{11} + \dfrac{1}{13} + \cdots$

15. $\dfrac{1}{3} + \dfrac{1}{7} + \dfrac{1}{11} + \dfrac{1}{15} + \dfrac{1}{19} + \cdots$

16. $1 + \dfrac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} + \dfrac{1}{3\sqrt{3}} + \dfrac{1}{4\sqrt{4}} + \dfrac{1}{5\sqrt{5}} + \cdots$

17. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n}+4}{n^2}$ **18.** $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{1+n^{3/2}}$

19. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+4}$ **20.** $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+2n+2}$

21. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^3}{n^4+4}$ **22.** $\displaystyle\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{3n-4}{n^2-2n}$

23. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n\ln n}$ **24.** $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^2}$

25. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} ke^{-k}$ **26.** $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} ke^{-k^2}$

27. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+n^3}$ **28.** $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^4+1}$

29–30 Explain why the Integral Test can't be used to determine whether the series is convergent.

29. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos \pi n}{\sqrt{n}}$ **30.** $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos^2 n}{1+n^2}$

31–34 Find the values of p for which the series is convergent.

31. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\ln n)^p}$ **32.** $\displaystyle\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n\ln n\,[\ln(\ln n)]^p}$

33. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n(1+n^2)^p$ **34.** $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^p}$

35–37 The Riemann Zeta Function The function ζ defined by

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}$$

where s is a complex number, is called the *Riemann zeta function*.

35. For which real numbers x is $\zeta(x)$ defined?

36. Leonhard Euler was able to calculate the exact sum of the p-series with $p = 2$:

$$\zeta(2) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

Use this fact to find the sum of each series.

(a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+1)^2}$

(c) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n)^2}$

37. Euler also found the sum of the p-series with $p = 4$:

$$\zeta(4) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^4} = \frac{\pi^4}{90}$$

Use Euler's result to find the sum of the series.

(a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{n}\right)^4$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{k=5}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(k-2)^4}$

38. (a) Find the partial sum s_{10} of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n^4$. Estimate the error in using s_{10} as an approximation to the sum of the series.
(b) Use (3) with $n = 10$ to give an improved estimate of the sum.
(c) Compare your estimate in part (b) with the exact value given in Exercise 37.
(d) Find a value of n so that s_n is within 0.00001 of the sum.

39. (a) Use the sum of the first 10 terms to estimate the sum of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n^2$. How good is this estimate?
(b) Improve this estimate using (3) with $n = 10$.
(c) Compare your estimate in part (b) with the exact value given in Exercise 36.
(d) Find a value of n that will ensure that the error in the approximation $s \approx s_n$ is less than 0.001.

40. Find the sum of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ne^{-2n}$ correct to four decimal places.

41. Estimate $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (2n+1)^{-6}$ correct to five decimal places.

42. How many terms of the series $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} 1/[n(\ln n)^2]$ would you need to add to find its sum to within 0.01?

43. Show that if we want to approximate the sum of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-1.001}$ so that the error is less than 5 in the ninth decimal place, then we need to add more than $10^{11,301}$ terms!

T **44.** (a) Show that the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\ln n)^2/n^2$ is convergent.
(b) Find an upper bound for the error in the approximation $s \approx s_n$.
(c) What is the smallest value of n such that this upper bound is less than 0.05?
(d) Find s_n for this value of n.

45. (a) Use (4) to show that if s_n is the nth partial sum of the harmonic series, then

$$s_n \leqslant 1 + \ln n$$

(b) The harmonic series diverges, but very slowly. Use part (a) to show that the sum of the first million terms is less than 15 and the sum of the first billion terms is less than 22.

46. Use the following steps to show that the sequence

$$t_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} - \ln n$$

has a limit. (The value of the limit is denoted by γ and is called Euler's constant.)
(a) Draw a picture like Figure 6 with $f(x) = 1/x$ and interpret t_n as an area [or use (5)] to show that $t_n > 0$ for all n.

(b) Interpret

$$t_n - t_{n+1} = [\ln(n+1) - \ln n] - \frac{1}{n+1}$$

as a difference of areas to show that $t_n - t_{n+1} > 0$. Therefore $\{t_n\}$ is a decreasing sequence.

(c) Use the Monotonic Sequence Theorem to show that $\{t_n\}$ is convergent.

47. Find all positive values of b for which the series $\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} b^{\ln n}$ converges.

48. Find all values of c for which the following series converges.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{c}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right)$$

11.4 The Comparison Tests

In the comparison tests the idea is to compare a given series with a series that is known to be convergent or divergent. If two series have only positive terms, we can compare corresponding terms directly to see which are larger (the Direct Comparison Test) or we can investigate the limit of the ratios of corresponding terms (the Limit Comparison Test).

The Direct Comparison Test

Let's consider the two series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n + 1} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$$

The second series $\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/2^n$ is a geometric series with $a = \frac{1}{2}$ and $r = \frac{1}{2}$ and is therefore convergent. Since these series are so similar, we may have the feeling that the first series must converge also. In fact, it does. The inequality

$$\frac{1}{2^n + 1} < \frac{1}{2^n}$$

shows that the series $\Sigma\, 1/(2^n + 1)$ has smaller terms than those of the geometric series $\Sigma\, 1/2^n$ and therefore all its partial sums are also smaller than 1 (the sum of the geometric series). This means that its partial sums form a bounded increasing sequence, which is convergent. It also follows that the sum of the series is less than the sum of the geometric series:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n + 1} < 1$$

Similar reasoning can be used to prove the following test, which applies only to series whose terms are positive. The first part says that if we have a series whose terms are *smaller* than those of a known *convergent* series, then our series is also convergent. The second part says that if we start with a series whose terms are *larger* than those of a known *divergent* series, then it too is divergent.

The Direct Comparison Test Suppose that $\Sigma\, a_n$ and $\Sigma\, b_n$ are series with positive terms.

(i) If $\Sigma\, b_n$ is convergent and $a_n \leqslant b_n$ for all n, then $\Sigma\, a_n$ is also convergent.

(ii) If $\Sigma\, b_n$ is divergent and $a_n \geqslant b_n$ for all n, then $\Sigma\, a_n$ is also divergent.

It is important to keep in mind the distinction between a sequence and a series. A sequence is a list of numbers, whereas a series is a sum. With every series Σa_n there are two associated sequences: the sequence $\{a_n\}$ of terms and the sequence $\{s_n\}$ of partial sums.

PROOF

(i) Let $\qquad s_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \qquad t_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \qquad t = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$

Since both series have positive terms, the sequences $\{s_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$ are increasing ($s_{n+1} = s_n + a_{n+1} \geqslant s_n$). Also $t_n \to t$, so $t_n \leqslant t$ for all n. Since $a_i \leqslant b_i$, we have $s_n \leqslant t_n$. Thus $s_n \leqslant t$ for all n. This means that $\{s_n\}$ is increasing and bounded above and therefore converges by the Monotonic Sequence Theorem. Thus Σa_n converges.

(ii) If Σb_n is divergent, then $t_n \to \infty$ (since $\{t_n\}$ is increasing). But $a_i \geqslant b_i$ so $s_n \geqslant t_n$. Thus $s_n \to \infty$. Therefore Σa_n diverges. ■

Standard series for use with the comparison tests

In using the Direct Comparison Test we must, of course, have some known series Σb_n for the purpose of comparison. Most of the time we use one of these series:

- A p-series [$\Sigma 1/n^p$ converges if $p > 1$ and diverges if $p \leqslant 1$; see (11.3.1)]
- A geometric series [Σar^{n-1} converges if $|r| < 1$ and diverges if $|r| \geqslant 1$; see (11.2.4)]

EXAMPLE 1 Determine whether the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5}{2n^2 + 4n + 3}$ converges or diverges.

SOLUTION For large n the dominant term in the denominator is $2n^2$, so we compare the given series with the series $\Sigma 5/(2n^2)$. Observe that

$$\frac{5}{2n^2 + 4n + 3} < \frac{5}{2n^2}$$

because the left side has a bigger denominator. (In the notation of the Direct Comparison Test, a_n is the left side and b_n is the right side.) We know that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5}{2n^2} = \frac{5}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

is convergent because it's a constant times a p-series with $p = 2 > 1$. Therefore

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5}{2n^2 + 4n + 3}$$

is convergent by part (i) of the Direct Comparison Test. ■

NOTE Although the condition $a_n \leqslant b_n$ or $a_n \geqslant b_n$ in the Direct Comparison Test is given for all n, we need verify only that it holds for $n \geqslant N$, where N is some fixed integer, because the convergence of a series is not affected by a finite number of terms. This is illustrated in the next example.

EXAMPLE 2 Test the series $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln k}{k}$ for convergence or divergence.

SOLUTION We used the Integral Test to test this series in Example 11.3.4, but we can also test it by comparing it with the harmonic series. Observe that $\ln k > 1$ for $k \geqslant 3$ and so

$$\frac{\ln k}{k} > \frac{1}{k} \qquad k \geqslant 3$$

We know that $\Sigma\, 1/k$ is divergent (p-series with $p = 1$). Thus the given series is divergent by the Direct Comparison Test. ■

Limit Comparison Test

The Direct Comparison Test is conclusive only if the terms of the series being tested are smaller than those of a convergent series or larger than those of a divergent series. If the terms are larger than the terms of a convergent series or smaller than those of a divergent series, then the Direct Comparison Test doesn't apply. Consider, for instance, the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n - 1}$$

The inequality

$$\frac{1}{2^n - 1} > \frac{1}{2^n}$$

is useless as far as the Direct Comparison Test is concerned because $\Sigma\, b_n = \Sigma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$ is convergent and $a_n > b_n$. Nonetheless, we have the feeling that $\Sigma\, 1/(2^n - 1)$ ought to be convergent because it is very similar to the convergent geometric series $\Sigma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$. In such cases the following test can be used.

Exercises 48 and 49 deal with the cases $c = 0$ and $c = \infty$.

The Limit Comparison Test Suppose that $\Sigma\, a_n$ and $\Sigma\, b_n$ are series with positive terms. If

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = c$$

where c is a finite number and $c > 0$, then either both series converge or both diverge.

PROOF Let m and M be positive numbers such that $m < c < M$. Because a_n/b_n is close to c for large n, there is an integer N such that

$$m < \frac{a_n}{b_n} < M \qquad \text{when } n > N$$

and so

$$mb_n < a_n < Mb_n \qquad \text{when } n > N$$

If $\Sigma\, b_n$ converges, so does $\Sigma\, Mb_n$. Thus $\Sigma\, a_n$ converges by part (i) of the Direct Comparison Test. If $\Sigma\, b_n$ diverges, so does $\Sigma\, mb_n$ and part (ii) of the Direct Comparison Test shows that $\Sigma\, a_n$ diverges. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Test the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n - 1}$ for convergence or divergence.

SOLUTION We use the Limit Comparison Test with

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2^n - 1} \qquad b_n = \frac{1}{2^n}$$

and obtain

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1/(2^n - 1)}{1/2^n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2^n}{2^n - 1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{1 - 1/2^n} = 1 > 0$$

Since this limit exists and $\Sigma\, 1/2^n$ is a convergent geometric series, the given series converges by the Limit Comparison Test. ■

EXAMPLE 4 Determine whether the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2n^2 + 3n}{\sqrt{5 + n^5}}$ converges or diverges.

SOLUTION The dominant part of the numerator is $2n^2$ and the dominant part of the denominator is $\sqrt{n^5} = n^{5/2}$. This suggests taking

$$a_n = \frac{2n^2 + 3n}{\sqrt{5 + n^5}} \qquad b_n = \frac{2n^2}{n^{5/2}} = \frac{2}{n^{1/2}}$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{2n^2 + 3n}{\sqrt{5 + n^5}} \cdot \frac{n^{1/2}}{2} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{2n^{5/2} + 3n^{3/2}}{2\sqrt{5 + n^5}}$$

$$= \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{2 + \dfrac{3}{n}}{2\sqrt{\dfrac{5}{n^5} + 1}} = \frac{2 + 0}{2\sqrt{0 + 1}} = 1$$

Since $\Sigma\, b_n = 2\Sigma\, 1/n^{1/2}$ is divergent $\left(p\text{-series with } p = \frac{1}{2} < 1\right)$, the given series diverges by the Limit Comparison Test. ■

Notice that in testing many series we find a suitable comparison series $\Sigma\, b_n$ by keeping only the highest powers in the numerator and denominator.

Estimating Sums

If we have used the Direct Comparison Test to show that a series $\Sigma\, a_n$ converges by comparison with a series $\Sigma\, b_n$, then we may be able to estimate the sum $\Sigma\, a_n$ by comparing remainders. As in Section 11.3, we consider the remainder

$$R_n = s - s_n = a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + \cdots$$

For the comparison series $\Sigma\, b_n$ we consider the corresponding remainder

$$T_n = t - t_n = b_{n+1} + b_{n+2} + \cdots$$

Since $a_n \leqslant b_n$ for all n, we have $R_n \leqslant T_n$. If $\Sigma\, b_n$ is a p-series, we can estimate its remainder T_n as in Section 11.3. If $\Sigma\, b_n$ is a geometric series, then T_n is the sum of a geometric series and we can sum it exactly (see Exercises 43 and 44). In either case we know that R_n is smaller than T_n.

EXAMPLE 5 Use the sum of the first 100 terms to approximate the sum of the series $\Sigma\, 1/(n^3 + 1)$. Estimate the error involved in this approximation.

SOLUTION Since

$$\frac{1}{n^3 + 1} < \frac{1}{n^3}$$

the given series is convergent by the Direct Comparison Test. The remainder T_n for the comparison series $\Sigma\, 1/n^3$ was estimated in Example 11.3.5 using the Remainder Estimate for the Integral Test. There we found that

$$T_n \leqslant \int_n^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3}\, dx = \frac{1}{2n^2}$$

Therefore the remainder R_n for the given series satisfies

$$R_n \leqslant T_n \leqslant \frac{1}{2n^2}$$

With $n = 100$ we have

$$R_{100} \leqslant \frac{1}{2(100)^2} = 0.00005$$

Using a calculator or a computer, we find that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3+1} \approx \sum_{n=1}^{100} \frac{1}{n^3+1} \approx 0.6864538$$

with error less than 0.00005. ■

11.4 Exercises

1. Suppose Σa_n and Σb_n are series with positive terms and Σb_n is known to be convergent.
(a) If $a_n > b_n$ for all n, what can you say about Σa_n? Why?
(b) If $a_n < b_n$ for all n, what can you say about Σa_n? Why?

2. Suppose Σa_n and Σb_n are series with positive terms and Σb_n is known to be divergent.
(a) If $a_n > b_n$ for all n, what can you say about Σa_n? Why?
(b) If $a_n < b_n$ for all n, what can you say about Σa_n? Why?

3. (a) Use the Direct Comparison Test to show that the first series converges by comparing it to the second series.

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^3+5} \qquad \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

(b) Use the Limit Comparison Test to show that that the first series converges by comparing it to the second series.

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^3-5} \qquad \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

4. (a) Use the Direct Comparison Test to show that the first series diverges by comparing it to the second series.

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+n}{n^3-2} \qquad \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$$

(b) Use the Limit Comparison Test to show that that the first series diverges by comparing it to the second series.

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2-n}{n^3+2} \qquad \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$$

5. Which of the following inequalities can be used to show that $\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} n/(n^3+1)$ converges?

(a) $\dfrac{n}{n^3+1} \geqslant \dfrac{1}{n^3+1}$ (b) $\dfrac{n}{n^3+1} \leqslant \dfrac{1}{n}$

(c) $\dfrac{n}{n^3+1} \leqslant \dfrac{1}{n^2}$

6. Which of the following inequalities can be used to show that $\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} n/(n^2+1)$ diverges?

(a) $\dfrac{n}{n^2+1} \geqslant \dfrac{1}{n^2+1}$ (b) $\dfrac{n}{n^2+1} \leqslant \dfrac{1}{n}$

(c) $\dfrac{n}{n^2+1} \geqslant \dfrac{1}{2n}$

7–40 Determine whether the series converges or diverges.

7. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3+8}$

8. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}-1}$

9. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n+1}{n\sqrt{n}}$

10. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n-1}{n^3+1}$

11. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{9^n}{3+10^n}$

12. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{6^n}{5^n-1}$

13. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\ln n}$

14. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k\sin^2 k}{1+k^3}$

15. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt[3]{k}}{\sqrt{k^3+4k+3}}$

16. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2k-1)(k^2-1)}{(k+1)(k^2+4)^2}$

17. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1+\cos n}{e^n}$

18. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{3n^4+1}}$

19. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{4^{n+1}}{3^n-2}$

20. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^n}$

21. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2+1}}$

22. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{\sqrt{n}+2}$

23. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n+1}{n^3+n}$

24. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+n+1}{n^4+n^2}$

25. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{1+n}}{2+n}$

26. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{n+2}{(n+1)^3}$

27. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5+2n}{(1+n^2)^2}$

28. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n+3^n}{n+2^n}$

29. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^n+1}{ne^n+1}$

30. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n\sqrt{n^2-1}}$

31. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2+\sin n}{n^2}$

32. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+\cos^2 n}{n^3}$

33. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right)^2 e^{-n}$

34. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{1/n}}{n}$

35. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$

36. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n}$

37. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$

38. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin^2\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$

39. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}\tan\frac{1}{n}$

40. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{1+1/n}}$

41–44 Use the sum of the first 10 terms to approximate the sum of the series. Estimate the error.

41. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5+n^5}$

42. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{1/n}}{n^4}$

43. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 5^{-n}\cos^2 n$

44. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^n+4^n}$

45. The meaning of the decimal representation of a number $0.d_1d_2d_3\ldots$ (where the digit d_i is one of the numbers 0, 1, 2, . . . , 9) is that

$$0.d_1d_2d_3d_4\ldots = \frac{d_1}{10} + \frac{d_2}{10^2} + \frac{d_3}{10^3} + \frac{d_4}{10^4} + \cdots$$

Show that this series converges for all choices of $d_1, d_2, \ldots$.

46. For what values of p does the series $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} 1/(n^p \ln n)$ converge?

47. Show that

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(\ln n)^{\ln \ln n}}$$

diverges. [*Hint:* Use Formula 1.5.10 ($x^r = e^{r\ln x}$) and the fact that $\ln x < \sqrt{x}$ for $x \geqslant 1$.]

48. (a) Suppose that $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are series with positive terms and $\sum b_n$ is convergent. Prove that if

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 0$$

then $\sum a_n$ is also convergent.

(b) Use part (a) to show that the series converges.

(i) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^3}$ (ii) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1-\cos\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$

49. (a) Suppose that $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are series with positive terms and $\sum b_n$ is divergent. Prove that if

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \infty$$

then $\sum a_n$ is also divergent.

(b) Use part (a) to show that the series diverges.

(i) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\ln n}$ (ii) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n}$

50. Give an example of a pair of series $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ with positive terms where $\lim_{n\to\infty}(a_n/b_n) = 0$ and $\sum b_n$ diverges, but $\sum a_n$ converges. (Compare with Exercise 48.)

51. Show that if $a_n > 0$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} na_n \neq 0$, then $\sum a_n$ is divergent.

52. Show that if $a_n > 0$ and $\sum a_n$ is convergent, then $\sum \ln(1+a_n)$ is convergent.

53. If $\sum a_n$ is a convergent series with positive terms, is it true that $\sum \sin(a_n)$ is also convergent?

54. Prove that if $a_n \geqslant 0$ and $\sum a_n$ converges, then $\sum a_n^2$ also converges.

55. Let $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ be series with positive terms. Is each of the following statements true or false? If the statement is false, give an example that disproves the statement.

(a) If $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are divergent, then $\sum a_nb_n$ is divergent.

(b) If $\sum a_n$ converges and $\sum b_n$ diverges, then $\sum a_nb_n$ diverges.

(c) If $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are convergent, then $\sum a_nb_n$ is convergent.

11.5 Alternating Series and Absolute Convergence

The convergence tests that we have looked at so far apply only to series with positive terms. In this section and the next we learn how to deal with series whose terms are not necessarily positive. Of particular importance are *alternating series,* whose terms alternate in sign.

Alternating Series

An **alternating series** is a series whose terms are alternately positive and negative. Here are two examples:

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{6} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n}$$

$$-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{3} - \frac{3}{4} + \frac{4}{5} - \frac{5}{6} + \frac{6}{7} - \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n} \frac{n}{n+1}$$

We see from these examples that the nth term of an alternating series is of the form

$$a_n = (-1)^{n-1} b_n \qquad \text{or} \qquad a_n = (-1)^n b_n$$

where b_n is a positive number. (In fact, $b_n = |a_n|$.)

The following test says that if the terms of an alternating series decrease toward 0 in absolute value, then the series converges.

Alternating Series Test If the alternating series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n = b_1 - b_2 + b_3 - b_4 + b_5 - b_6 + \cdots \qquad (b_n > 0)$$

satisfies the conditions

$$\text{(i)} \quad b_{n+1} \leqslant b_n \qquad \text{for all } n$$

$$\text{(ii)} \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = 0$$

then the series is convergent.

Before giving the proof let's look at Figure 1, which gives a picture of the idea behind the proof. We first plot $s_1 = b_1$ on a number line. To find s_2 we subtract b_2, so s_2 is to the left of s_1. Then to find s_3 we add b_3, so s_3 is to the right of s_2. But, since $b_3 < b_2$, s_3 is to the left of s_1. Continuing in this manner, we see that the partial sums oscillate back and forth. Since $b_n \to 0$, the successive steps are becoming smaller and smaller. The even partial sums $s_2, s_4, s_6, \ldots$ are increasing and the odd partial sums $s_1, s_3, s_5, \ldots$ are decreasing. Thus it seems plausible that both are converging to some number s, which is the sum of the series. Therefore we consider the even and odd partial sums separately in the following proof.

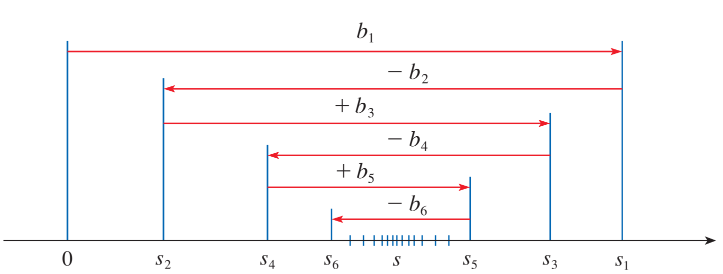


FIGURE 1

PROOF OF THE ALTERNATING SERIES TEST We first consider the even partial sums:

$$s_2 = b_1 - b_2 \geqslant 0 \qquad \text{since } b_2 \leqslant b_1$$

$$s_4 = s_2 + (b_3 - b_4) \geqslant s_2 \qquad \text{since } b_4 \leqslant b_3$$

In general $$s_{2n} = s_{2n-2} + (b_{2n-1} - b_{2n}) \geqslant s_{2n-2} \qquad \text{since } b_{2n} \leqslant b_{2n-1}$$

Thus $$0 \leqslant s_2 \leqslant s_4 \leqslant s_6 \leqslant \cdots \leqslant s_{2n} \leqslant \cdots$$

But we can also write

$$s_{2n} = b_1 - (b_2 - b_3) - (b_4 - b_5) - \cdots - (b_{2n-2} - b_{2n-1}) - b_{2n}$$

Every term in parentheses is positive, so $s_{2n} \leqslant b_1$ for all n. Therefore the sequence $\{s_{2n}\}$ of even partial sums is increasing and bounded above. It is therefore convergent by the Monotonic Sequence Theorem. Let's call its limit s, that is,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} s_{2n} = s$$

Now we compute the limit of the odd partial sums:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n\to\infty} s_{2n+1} &= \lim_{n\to\infty} (s_{2n} + b_{2n+1}) \\ &= \lim_{n\to\infty} s_{2n} + \lim_{n\to\infty} b_{2n+1} \\ &= s + 0 \qquad \text{[by condition (ii)]} \\ &= s\end{aligned}$$

Since both the even and odd partial sums converge to s, we have $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = s$ [see Exercise 11.1.98(a)] and so the series is convergent. ■

Figure 2 illustrates Example 1 by showing the graphs of the terms $a_n = (-1)^{n-1}/n$ and the partial sums s_n. Notice how the values of s_n zig-zag across the limiting value, which appears to be about 0.7. In fact, it can be proved that the exact sum of the series is $\ln 2 \approx 0.693$ (see Exercise 50).

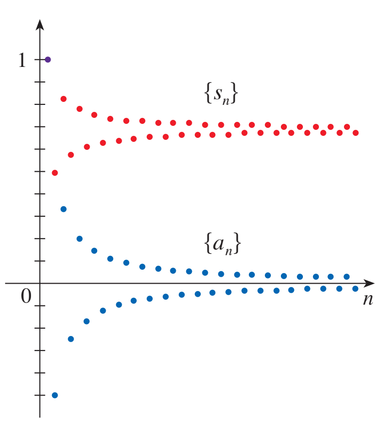


FIGURE 2

EXAMPLE 1 The alternating harmonic series

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n}$$

satisfies the conditions

$$\text{(i) } b_{n+1} < b_n \qquad \text{because} \qquad \frac{1}{n+1} < \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\text{(ii) } \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

so the series is convergent by the Alternating Series Test. ■

EXAMPLE 2 The series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 3n}{4n - 1}$ is alternating, but

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{3n}{4n-1} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{3}{4 - \dfrac{1}{n}} = \frac{3}{4}$$

so condition (ii) is not satisfied. Thus the Alternating Series Test doesn't apply. Instead, we look at the limit of the nth term of the series:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 3n}{4n - 1}$$

This limit does not exist, so the series diverges by the Test for Divergence. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Test the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{n^2}{n^3 + 1}$ for convergence or divergence.

SOLUTION The given series is alternating so we try to verify conditions (i) and (ii) of the Alternating Series Test.

Condition (i): Unlike the situation in Example 1, it is not obvious that the sequence given by $b_n = n^2/(n^3 + 1)$ is decreasing. However, if we consider the related function $f(x) = x^2/(x^3 + 1)$, we find that

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

Since we are considering only positive x, we see that $f'(x) < 0$ if $2 - x^3 < 0$, that is, $x > \sqrt[3]{2}$. Thus f is decreasing on the interval $(\sqrt[3]{2}, \infty)$. This means that $f(n + 1) < f(n)$ and therefore $b_{n+1} < b_n$ when $n \geqslant 2$. (The inequality $b_2 < b_1$ can be verified directly but all that really matters is that the sequence $\{b_n\}$ is eventually decreasing.)

Instead of verifying condition (i) of the Alternating Series Test by computing a derivative, we could verify that $b_{n+1} < b_n$ directly by using the technique of Solution 1 in Example 11.1.13.

Condition (ii) is readily verified:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n^2}{n^3 + 1} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1/n}{1 + 1/n^3} = 0$$

Thus the given series is convergent by the Alternating Series Test. ■

Estimating Sums of Alternating Series

A partial sum s_n of any convergent series can be used as an approximation to the total sum s, but this is not of much use unless we can estimate the accuracy of the approximation. The error involved in using $s \approx s_n$ is the remainder $R_n = s - s_n$. The next theorem says that for series that satisfy the conditions of the Alternating Series Test, the size of the error is smaller than b_{n+1}, which is the absolute value of the first neglected term.

You can see geometrically why the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem is true by looking at Figure 1. Notice that $s - s_4 < b_5$, $|s - s_5| < b_6$, and so on. Notice also that s lies between any two consecutive partial sums.

Alternating Series Estimation Theorem If $s = \Sigma(-1)^{n-1} b_n$, where $b_n > 0$, is the sum of an alternating series that satisfies

$$\text{(i)}\ b_{n+1} \leqslant b_n \qquad \text{and} \qquad \text{(ii)}\ \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = 0$$

then $$|R_n| = |s - s_n| \leqslant b_{n+1}$$

PROOF We know from the proof of the Alternating Series Test that s lies between any two consecutive partial sums s_n and s_{n+1}. (There we showed that s is larger than all the even partial sums. A similar argument shows that s is smaller than all the odd sums.) It follows that

$$|s - s_n| \leqslant |s_{n+1} - s_n| = b_{n+1}$$ ■

By definition, $0! = 1$.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the sum of the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!}$ correct to three decimal places.

SOLUTION We first observe that the series is convergent by the Alternating Series Test because

$$\text{(i)}\quad b_{n+1} = \frac{1}{(n+1)!} = \frac{1}{n!\,(n+1)} < \frac{1}{n!} = b_n$$

$$\text{(ii)}\quad 0 < \frac{1}{n!} < \frac{1}{n} \to 0 \quad \text{so } b_n = \frac{1}{n!} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

To get a feel for how many terms we need to use in our approximation, let's write out the first few terms of the series:

$$s = \frac{1}{0!} - \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} - \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} - \frac{1}{5!} + \frac{1}{6!} - \frac{1}{7!} + \cdots$$
$$= 1 - 1 + \tfrac{1}{2} - \tfrac{1}{6} + \tfrac{1}{24} - \tfrac{1}{120} + \tfrac{1}{720} - \tfrac{1}{5040} + \cdots$$

Notice that $\qquad b_7 = \frac{1}{5040} < \frac{1}{5000} = 0.0002$

and $\qquad s_6 = 1 - 1 + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{24} - \frac{1}{120} + \frac{1}{720} \approx 0.368056$

In Section 11.10 we will prove that $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n/n!$ for all x, so what we have obtained in Example 4 is actually an approximation to the number e^{-1}.

By the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem we know that

$$|s - s_6| \leqslant b_7 < 0.0002$$

This error of less than 0.0002 does not affect the third decimal place, so we have $s \approx 0.368$ correct to three decimal places. ■

NOTE The rule that the error (in using s_n to approximate s) is smaller than the first neglected term is, in general, valid only for alternating series that satisfy the conditions of the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem. The rule does not apply to other types of series.

Absolute Convergence and Conditional Convergence

Given any series $\sum a_n$, we can consider the corresponding series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n| = |a_1| + |a_2| + |a_3| + \cdots$$

whose terms are the absolute values of the terms of the original series.

We have discussed convergence tests for series with positive terms and for alternating series. But what if the signs of the terms switch back and forth irregularly? We will see in Example 7 that the idea of absolute convergence sometimes helps in such cases.

1 Definitio A series $\sum a_n$ is called **absolutely convergent** if the series of absolute values $\sum |a_n|$ is convergent.

Notice that if $\sum a_n$ is a series with positive terms, then $|a_n| = a_n$ and so absolute convergence is the same as convergence in this case.

EXAMPLE 5 The alternating series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^2} = 1 - \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} - \frac{1}{4^2} + \cdots$$

is absolutely convergent because

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^2} \right| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \cdots$$

is a convergent p-series ($p = 2$). ■

2 Definitio A series $\Sigma\, a_n$ is called **conditionally convergent** if it is convergent but not absolutely convergent; that is, if $\Sigma\, a_n$ converges but $\Sigma\, |a_n|$ diverges.

EXAMPLE 6 We know from Example 1 that the alternating harmonic series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \cdots$$

is convergent, but it is not absolutely convergent because the corresponding series of absolute values is

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} \right| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \cdots$$

which is the harmonic series (p-series with $p = 1$) and is therefore divergent. Thus the alternating harmonic series is conditionally convergent. ■

Example 6 shows that it is possible for a series to be convergent but not absolutely convergent. However, the following theorem states that absolute convergence implies convergence.

You can think of absolute convergence as a stronger type of convergence. An absolutely convergent series, like the one in Example 5, will converge regardless of the signs of its terms, whereas the series in Example 6 will not converge if we change all of its negative terms to positive.

3 Theorem If a series $\Sigma\, a_n$ is absolutely convergent, then it is convergent.

PROOF Observe that the inequality

$$0 \leqslant a_n + |a_n| \leqslant 2|a_n|$$

is true because $|a_n|$ is either a_n or $-a_n$. If $\Sigma\, a_n$ is absolutely convergent, then $\Sigma\, |a_n|$ is convergent, so $\Sigma\, 2|a_n|$ is convergent. Therefore, by the Direct Comparison Test, $\Sigma\,(a_n + |a_n|)$ is convergent. Then

$$\sum a_n = \sum (a_n + |a_n|) - \sum |a_n|$$

is the difference of two convergent series and is therefore convergent. ■

EXAMPLE 7 Determine whether the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos n}{n^2} = \frac{\cos 1}{1^2} + \frac{\cos 2}{2^2} + \frac{\cos 3}{3^2} + \cdots$$

is convergent or divergent.

Figure 3 shows the graphs of the terms a_n and partial sums s_n of the series in Example 7. Notice that the series is not alternating but has positive and negative terms.

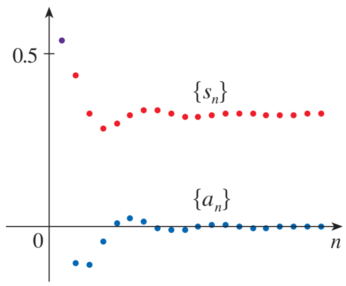


FIGURE 3

SOLUTION This series has both positive and negative terms, but it is not alternating. (The first term is positive, the next three are negative, and the following three are positive: the signs change irregularly.) We can apply the Direct Comparison Test to the series of absolute values

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{\cos n}{n^2} \right| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{|\cos n|}{n^2}$$

Since $|\cos n| \leqslant 1$ for all n, we have

$$\frac{|\cos n|}{n^2} \leqslant \frac{1}{n^2}$$

We know that $\Sigma\, 1/n^2$ is convergent (p-series with $p = 2$) and therefore $\Sigma\, |\cos n|/n^2$ is convergent by the Direct Comparison Test. Thus the given series $\Sigma\,(\cos n)/n^2$ is absolutely convergent and therefore convergent by Theorem 3. ■

EXAMPLE 8 Determine whether the series is absolutely convergent, conditionally convergent, or divergent.

(a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^3}$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt[3]{n}}$ (c) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n}{2n+1}$

SOLUTION

(a) Because the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{n^3} \right| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$$

converges (p-series with $p = 3$), the given series is absolutely convergent.

(b) We first test for absolute convergence. The series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt[3]{n}} \right| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{n}}$$

diverges $\left(p\text{-series with } p = \frac{1}{3}\right)$, so the given series is *not* absolutely convergent. The given series converges by the Alternating Series Test ($b_{n+1} \leqslant b_n$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = 0$). Since the series converges but is not absolutely convergent, it is conditionally convergent.

(c) This series is alternating but

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n}{2n+1}$$

does not exist (see Figure 4), so the series diverges by the Test for Divergence. ■

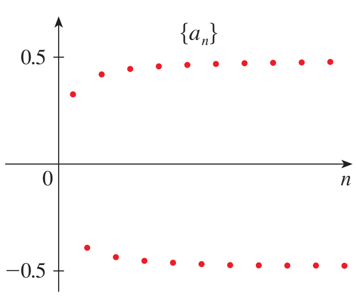


FIGURE 4
The terms of $\{a_n\}$ are alternately close to 0.5 and -0.5.

Rearrangements

The question of whether a given convergent series is absolutely convergent or conditionally convergent has a bearing on the question of whether infinite sums behave like finite sums.

If we rearrange the order of the terms in a finite sum, then of course the value of the sum remains unchanged. But this is not always the case for an infinite series. By a **rearrangement** of an infinite series $\Sigma\, a_n$ we mean a series obtained by simply changing the order of the terms. For instance, a rearrangement of Σa_n could start as follows:

$$a_1 + a_2 + a_5 + a_3 + a_4 + a_{15} + a_6 + a_7 + a_{20} + \cdots$$

It turns out that

> if Σa_n is an absolutely convergent series with sum s, then any rearrangement of Σa_n has the same sum s.

However, any conditionally convergent series can be rearranged to give a different sum. To illustrate this fact let's consider the alternating harmonic series from Example 1. In Exercise 50 you are asked to show that

$$\boxed{4} \qquad 1 - \tfrac{1}{2} + \tfrac{1}{3} - \tfrac{1}{4} + \tfrac{1}{5} - \tfrac{1}{6} + \tfrac{1}{7} - \tfrac{1}{8} + \cdots = \ln 2$$

If we multiply this series by $\frac{1}{2}$, we get

$$\tfrac{1}{2} - \tfrac{1}{4} + \tfrac{1}{6} - \tfrac{1}{8} + \cdots = \tfrac{1}{2}\ln 2$$

Adding these zeros does not affect the sum of the series; each term in the sequence of partial sums is repeated, but the limit is the same.

Inserting zeros between the terms of this series, we have

$$\boxed{5} \qquad 0 + \tfrac{1}{2} + 0 - \tfrac{1}{4} + 0 + \tfrac{1}{6} + 0 - \tfrac{1}{8} + \cdots = \tfrac{1}{2}\ln 2$$

Now we add the series in Equations 4 and 5 using Theorem 11.2.8:

$$\boxed{6} \qquad 1 + \tfrac{1}{3} - \tfrac{1}{2} + \tfrac{1}{5} + \tfrac{1}{7} - \tfrac{1}{4} + \cdots = \tfrac{3}{2}\ln 2$$

Notice that the series in (6) contains the same terms as in (4) but rearranged so that one negative term occurs after each pair of positive terms. The sums of these series, however, are different. In fact, Riemann proved that

> if Σa_n is a conditionally convergent series and r is any real number whatsoever, then there is a rearrangement of Σa_n that has a sum equal to r.

A proof of this fact is outlined in Exercise 52.

11.5 Exercises

1. (a) What is an alternating series?
(b) Under what conditions does an alternating series converge?
(c) If these conditions are satisfied, what can you say about the remainder after n terms?

2–20 Test the series for convergence or divergence.

2. $\frac{2}{3} - \frac{2}{5} + \frac{2}{7} - \frac{2}{9} + \frac{2}{11} - \cdots$

3. $-\frac{2}{5} + \frac{4}{6} - \frac{6}{7} + \frac{8}{8} - \frac{10}{9} + \cdots$

4. $\dfrac{1}{\ln 3} - \dfrac{1}{\ln 4} + \dfrac{1}{\ln 5} - \dfrac{1}{\ln 6} + \dfrac{1}{\ln 7} - \cdots$

5. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{3 + 5n}$

6. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n+1}}$

7. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{3n - 1}{2n + 1}$

8. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n^2}{n^2 + n + 1}$

9. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n e^{-n}$

10. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{\sqrt{n}}{2n + 3}$

11. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{n^2}{n^3 + 4}$

12. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n}{2^n}$

13. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} e^{2/n}$

14. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \arctan n$

15. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\sin\left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)\pi}{1 + \sqrt{n}}$

16. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n \cos n\pi}{2^n}$

17. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \sin \frac{\pi}{n}$

18. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \cos \frac{\pi}{n}$

19. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n^2}{5^n}$

20. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left(\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}\right)$

21. (a) What does it mean for a series to be absolutely convergent?
(b) What does it mean for a series to be conditionally convergent?
(c) If the series of positive terms $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ converges, then what can you say about the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n b_n$?

22–34 Determine whether the series is absolutely convergent, conditionally convergent, or divergent.

22. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^4}$

23. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{\sqrt[3]{n^2}}$

24. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{n^2}{n^2+1}$

25. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{5n+1}$

26. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{-n}{n^2+1}$

27. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2+1}$

28. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin n}{2^n}$

29. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1+2\sin n}{n^3}$

30. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{n}{n^2+4}$

31. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\ln n}$

32. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n}{\sqrt{n^3+2}}$

33. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos n\pi}{3n+2}$

34. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n \ln n}$

35–36 Graph both the sequence of terms and the sequence of partial sums on the same screen. Use the graph to make a rough estimate of the sum of the series. Then use the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem to estimate the sum correct to four decimal places.

35. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-0.8)^n}{n!}$

36. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{n}{8^n}$

37–40 Show that the series is convergent. How many terms of the series do we need to add in order to find the sum to the indicated accuracy?

37. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^6}$ $\quad(|\text{error}| < 0.00005)$

38. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)^n}{n}$ $\quad(|\text{error}| < 0.0005)$

39. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^2 2^n}$ $\quad(|\text{error}| < 0.0005)$

40. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{1}{n}\right)^n$ $\quad(|\text{error}| < 0.00005)$

41–44 Approximate the sum of the series correct to four decimal places.

41. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n)!}$

42. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^6}$

43. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n n e^{-2n}$

44. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n 4^n}$

45. Is the 50th partial sum s_{50} of the alternating series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1}/n$ an overestimate or an underestimate of the total sum? Explain.

46–48 For what values of p is each series convergent?

46. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^p}$

47. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n+p}$

48. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{(\ln n)^p}{n}$

49. Show that the series $\sum (-1)^{n-1} b_n$, where $b_n = 1/n$ if n is odd and $b_n = 1/n^2$ if n is even, is divergent. Why does the Alternating Series Test not apply?

50. Use the following steps to show that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} = \ln 2$$

Let h_n and s_n be the partial sums of the harmonic and alternating harmonic series.
(a) Show that $s_{2n} = h_{2n} - h_n$.
(b) From Exercise 11.3.46 we have

$$h_n - \ln n \to \gamma \quad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

and therefore

$$h_{2n} - \ln(2n) \to \gamma \quad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

Use these facts together with part (a) to show that $s_{2n} \to \ln 2$ as $n \to \infty$.

51. Given any series $\sum a_n$, we define a series $\sum a_n^+$ whose terms are all the positive terms of $\sum a_n$ and a series $\sum a_n^-$ whose terms are all the negative terms of $\sum a_n$. To be specific, we let

$$a_n^+ = \frac{a_n + |a_n|}{2} \qquad a_n^- = \frac{a_n - |a_n|}{2}$$

Notice that if $a_n > 0$, then $a_n^+ = a_n$ and $a_n^- = 0$, whereas if $a_n < 0$, then $a_n^- = a_n$ and $a_n^+ = 0$.
(a) If $\sum a_n$ is absolutely convergent, show that both of the series $\sum a_n^+$ and $\sum a_n^-$ are convergent.
(b) If $\sum a_n$ is conditionally convergent, show that both of the series $\sum a_n^+$ and $\sum a_n^-$ are divergent.

52. Prove that if Σa_n is a conditionally convergent series and r is any real number, then there is a rearrangement of Σa_n whose sum is r. [*Hints:* Use the notation of Exercise 51. Take just enough positive terms a_n^+ so that their sum is greater than r. Then add just enough negative terms a_n^- so that the cumulative sum is less than r. Continue in this manner and use Theorem 11.2.6.]

53. Suppose the series Σa_n is conditionally convergent.
(a) Prove that the series $\Sigma n^2 a_n$ is divergent.
(b) Conditional convergence of Σa_n is not enough to determine whether $\Sigma n a_n$ is convergent. Show this by giving an example of a conditionally convergent series such that $\Sigma n a_n$ converges and an example where $\Sigma n a_n$ diverges.

11.6 The Ratio and Root Tests

One way to determine how quickly the terms of a series are decreasing (or increasing) is to calculate the ratios of consecutive terms. For a geometric series Σar^{n-1} we have $|a_{n+1}/a_n| = |r|$ for all n, and the series converges if $|r| < 1$. The Ratio Test tells us that for any series, if the ratios $|a_{n+1}/a_n|$ approach a number less than 1 as $n \to \infty$, then the series converges. The proofs of both the Ratio Test and the Root Test involve comparing a series with a geometric series.

The Ratio Test

The following test is very useful in determining whether a given series is absolutely convergent.

The Ratio Test

(i) If $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} \left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = L < 1$, then the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is absolutely convergent (and therefore convergent).

(ii) If $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} \left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = L > 1$ or $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} \left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = \infty$, then the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is divergent.

(iii) If $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} \left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = 1$, the Ratio Test is inconclusive; that is, no conclusion can be drawn about the convergence or divergence of Σa_n.

PROOF

(i) The idea is to compare the given series with a convergent geometric series. Since $L < 1$, we can choose a number r such that $L < r < 1$. Since

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = L \qquad \text{and} \qquad L < r$$

the ratio $|a_{n+1}/a_n|$ will eventually be less than r; that is, there exists an integer N such that

$$\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| < r \qquad \text{whenever } n \geqslant N$$

or, equivalently,

$$\boxed{1} \qquad |a_{n+1}| < |a_n| r \qquad \text{whenever } n \geqslant N$$

Putting n successively equal to $N, N+1, N+2, \ldots$ in (1), we obtain

$$|a_{N+1}| < |a_N| r$$

$$|a_{N+2}| < |a_{N+1}| r < |a_N| r^2$$

$$|a_{N+3}| < |a_{N+2}| r < |a_N| r^3$$

and, in general,

$$\boxed{2} \qquad |a_{N+k}| < |a_N| r^k \qquad \text{for all } k \geqslant 1$$

Now the series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_N| r^k = |a_N| r + |a_N| r^2 + |a_N| r^3 + \cdots$$

is convergent because it is a geometric series with $0 < r < 1$. So the inequality (2), together with the Direct Comparison Test, shows that the series

$$\sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} |a_n| = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_{N+k}| = |a_{N+1}| + |a_{N+2}| + |a_{N+3}| + \cdots$$

is also convergent. It follows that the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ is convergent. (Recall that a finite number of terms doesn't affect convergence.) Therefore $\sum a_n$ is absolutely convergent.

(ii) If $|a_{n+1}/a_n| \to L > 1$ or $|a_{n+1}/a_n| \to \infty$, then the ratio $|a_{n+1}/a_n|$ will eventually be greater than 1; that is, there exists an integer N such that

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| > 1 \qquad \text{whenever } n \geqslant N$$

This means that $|a_{n+1}| > |a_n|$ whenever $n \geqslant N$ and so

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \neq 0$$

Therefore $\sum a_n$ diverges by the Test for Divergence. ■

Estimating Sums
In the preceding three sections we used various methods for estimating the sum of a series—the method depended on which test was used to prove convergence. What about series for which the Ratio Test works? There are two possibilities: If the series happens to be an alternating series, as in Example 1, then it is best to use the methods of Section 11.5. If the terms are all positive, then use the special methods explained in Exercise 42.

EXAMPLE 1 Test the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n^3}{3^n}$ for absolute convergence.

SOLUTION We use the Ratio Test with $a_n = (-1)^n n^3/3^n$:

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \left| \frac{\dfrac{(-1)^{n+1}(n+1)^3}{3^{n+1}}}{\dfrac{(-1)^n n^3}{3^n}} \right| = \frac{(n+1)^3}{3^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{3^n}{n^3}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^3 = \frac{1}{3}\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^3 \to \frac{1}{3} < 1$$

Thus, by the Ratio Test, the given series is absolutely convergent. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Test the convergence of the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!}$.

SOLUTION Since the terms $a_n = n^n/n!$ are positive, we don't need the absolute value signs.

$$\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{n^n} = \frac{(n+1)(n+1)^n}{(n+1)\,n!} \cdot \frac{n!}{n^n}$$

$$= \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \to e \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

(see Equation 3.6.6). Since $e > 1$, the given series is divergent by the Ratio Test. ■

NOTE Although the Ratio Test works in Example 2, an easier method is to use the Test for Divergence. Since

$$a_n = \frac{n^n}{n!} = \frac{n \cdot n \cdot n \cdot \cdots \cdot n}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \cdots \cdot n} \geqslant n$$

it follows that a_n does not approach 0 as $n \to \infty$. Therefore the given series is divergent by the Test for Divergence.

EXAMPLE 3 Part (iii) of the Ratio Test says that if $\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_{n+1}/a_n| = 1$, then the test gives no information. For instance, let's apply the Ratio Test to each of the following series:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \qquad\qquad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

In the first series $a_n = 1/n$ and

$$\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = \frac{1/(n+1)}{1/n} = \frac{n}{n+1} \to 1 \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

In the second series $a_n = 1/n^2$ and

$$\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = \frac{1/(n+1)^2}{1/n^2} = \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^2 \to 1 \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

The Ratio Test is usually conclusive if the nth term of the series contains an exponential or a factorial, as in Examples 1 and 2. The test will always fail for p-series, as in Example 3.

In both cases the Ratio Test fails to determine whether the series converges or diverges, so we must try another test. Here the first series is the harmonic series, which we know diverges; the second series is a p-series with $p > 1$, so it converges. ■

The Root Test

The following test is convenient to apply when nth powers occur. Its proof is similar to the proof of the Ratio Test and is left as Exercise 45.

The Root Test

(i) If $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = L < 1$, then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is absolutely convergent (and therefore convergent).

(ii) If $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = L > 1$ or $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \infty$, then the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is divergent.

(iii) If $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = 1$, the Root Test is inconclusive.

If $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = 1$, then part (iii) of the Root Test says that the test gives no information. The series Σa_n could converge or diverge. (If $L = 1$ in the Ratio Test, don't try the Root Test because L will again be 1. And if $L = 1$ in the Root Test, don't try the Ratio Test because it will fail too.)

EXAMPLE 4 Test the convergence of the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2n+3}{3n+2}\right)^n$.

SOLUTION

$$a_n = \left(\frac{2n+3}{3n+2}\right)^n$$

$$\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \frac{2n+3}{3n+2} = \frac{2 + \dfrac{3}{n}}{3 + \dfrac{2}{n}} \to \frac{2}{3} < 1$$

Thus the given series is absolutely convergent (and therefore convergent) by the Root Test. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Determine whether the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n$ converges or diverges.

SOLUTION Here it seems natural to apply the Root Test:

$$\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \frac{n}{n+1} \to 1 \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

Since this limit is 1, the Root Test is inconclusive. However, using Equation 3.6.6 we see that

$$a_n = \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n = \frac{1}{\left(\dfrac{n+1}{n}\right)^n} \to \frac{1}{e} \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

Since this limit is different from zero, the series diverges by the Test for Divergence. ■

Example 5 serves as a reminder that when testing a series for convergence or divergence it is often helpful to apply the Test for Divergence before attempting other tests.

11.6 Exercises

1. What can you say about the series Σa_n in each of the following cases?

(a) $\lim_{n\to\infty} \left| \dfrac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 8$

(b) $\lim_{n\to\infty} \left| \dfrac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 0.8$

(c) $\lim_{n\to\infty} \left| \dfrac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 1$

2. Suppose that for the series Σa_n we have $\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n/a_{n+1}| = 2$. What is $\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_{n+1}/a_n|$? Does the series converge?

3–20 Use the Ratio Test to determine whether the series is convergent or divergent.

3. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{5^n}$

4. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-2)^n}{n^2}$

5. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{3^n}{2^n n^3}$

6. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^n}{(2n+1)!}$

7. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}$

8. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} ke^{-k}$

9. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{10^n}{(n+1)4^{2n+1}}$

10. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{100^n}$

11. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n\pi^n}{(-3)^{n-1}}$

12. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^{10}}{(-10)^{n+1}}$

13. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos(n\pi/3)}{n!}$

14. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n}$

15. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^{100}100^n}{n!}$

16. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2n)!}{(n!)^2}$

17. $\displaystyle 1 - \frac{2!}{1\cdot 3} + \frac{3!}{1\cdot 3\cdot 5} - \frac{4!}{1\cdot 3\cdot 5\cdot 7} + \cdots + (-1)^{n-1}\frac{n!}{1\cdot 3\cdot 5\cdot \cdots \cdot (2n-1)} + \cdots$

18. $\displaystyle \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2\cdot 5}{3\cdot 5} + \frac{2\cdot 5\cdot 8}{3\cdot 5\cdot 7} + \frac{2\cdot 5\cdot 8\cdot 11}{3\cdot 5\cdot 7\cdot 9} + \cdots$

19. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2\cdot 4\cdot 6\cdot \cdots \cdot (2n)}{n!}$

20. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{2^n n!}{5\cdot 8\cdot 11\cdot \cdots \cdot (3n+2)}$

21–26 Use the Root Test to determine whether the series is convergent or divergent.

21. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n^2+1}{2n^2+1}\right)^n$

22. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-2)^n}{n^n}$

23. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{(\ln n)^n}$

24. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{-2n}{n+1}\right)^{5n}$

25. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right)^{n^2}$

26. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (\arctan n)^n$

27–34 Use any test to determine whether the series is absolutely convergent, conditionally convergent, or divergent.

27. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \ln n}{n}$

28. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1-n}{2+3n}\right)^n$

29. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-9)^n}{n10^{n+1}}$

30. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n5^{2n}}{10^{n+1}}$

31. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n}{\ln n}\right)^n$

32. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(n\pi/6)}{1+n\sqrt{n}}$

33. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \arctan n}{n^2}$

34. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt{n}\ln n}$ [*Hint*: $\ln x < \sqrt{x}$.]

35. The terms of a series are defined recursively by the equations

$$a_1 = 2 \qquad a_{n+1} = \frac{5n+1}{4n+3}a_n$$

Determine whether Σa_n converges or diverges.

36. A series Σa_n is defined by the equations

$$a_1 = 1 \qquad a_{n+1} = \frac{2+\cos n}{\sqrt{n}}a_n$$

Determine whether Σa_n converges or diverges.

37–38 Let $\{b_n\}$ be a sequence of positive numbers that converges to $\frac{1}{2}$. Determine whether the given series is absolutely convergent.

37. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_n^n \cos n\pi}{n}$

38. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n!}{n^n b_1 b_2 b_3 \cdots b_n}$

39. For which of the following series is the Ratio Test inconclusive (that is, it fails to give a definite answer)?

(a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$

(b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n}$

(c) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^{n-1}}{\sqrt{n}}$

(d) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{1+n^2}$

40. For which positive integers k is the following series convergent?

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^2}{(kn)!}$$

41. (a) Show that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n/n!$ converges for all x.
(b) Deduce that $\lim_{n\to\infty} x^n/n! = 0$ for all x.

42. Let $\Sigma\, a_n$ be a series with positive terms and let $r_n = a_{n+1}/a_n$. Suppose that $\lim_{n\to\infty} r_n = L < 1$, so $\Sigma\, a_n$ converges by the Ratio Test. As usual, we let R_n be the remainder after n terms, that is,

$$R_n = a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + a_{n+3} + \cdots$$

(a) If $\{r_n\}$ is a decreasing sequence and $r_{n+1} < 1$, show, by summing a geometric series, that

$$R_n \leqslant \frac{a_{n+1}}{1 - r_{n+1}}$$

(b) If $\{r_n\}$ is an increasing sequence, show that

$$R_n \leqslant \frac{a_{n+1}}{1 - L}$$

43. (a) Find the partial sum s_5 of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/(n2^n)$. Use Exercise 42 to estimate the error in using s_5 as an approximation to the sum of the series.
(b) Find a value of n so that s_n is within 0.00005 of the sum. Use this value of n to approximate the sum of the series.

44. Use the sum of the first 10 terms to approximate the sum of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n}$$

Use Exercise 42 to estimate the error.

45. Prove the Root Test. [*Hint for part (i):* Take any number r such that $L < r < 1$ and use the fact that there is an integer N such that $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} < r$ whenever $n \geqslant N$.]

46. Around 1910, the Indian mathematician Srinivasa Ramanujan discovered the formula

$$\frac{1}{\pi} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{9801} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(4n)!(1103 + 26390n)}{(n!)^4 396^{4n}}$$

William Gosper used this series in 1985 to compute the first 17 million digits of π.
(a) Verify that the series is convergent.
(b) How many correct decimal places of π do you get if you use just the first term of the series? What if you use two terms?

11.7 Strategy for Testing Series

We now have several ways of testing a series for convergence or divergence; the problem is to decide which test to use on which series. In this respect, testing series is similar to integrating functions. Again, there are no hard and fast rules about which test to apply to a given series, but you may find the following advice of some use.

It is not wise to apply a list of the tests in a specific order until one finally works. That would be a waste of time and effort. Instead, as with integration, the main strategy is to classify the series according to its *form*.

1. **Test for Divergence** If you can see that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$ may be different from 0, then apply the Test for Divergence.
2. ***p*-Series** If the series is of the form $\Sigma\, 1/n^p$, then it is a p-series, which we know to be convergent if $p > 1$ and divergent if $p \leqslant 1$.
3. **Geometric Series** If the series has the form $\Sigma\, ar^{n-1}$ or $\Sigma\, ar^n$, then it is a geometric series, which converges if $|r| < 1$ and diverges if $|r| \geqslant 1$. Some preliminary algebraic manipulation may be required to bring the series into this form.
4. **Comparison Tests** If the series has a form that is similar to a p-series or a geometric series, then one of the comparison tests should be considered. In particular, if a_n is a rational function or an algebraic function of n (involving roots of polynomials), then the series should be compared with a p-series. Notice that most of the series in Exercises 11.4 have this form. (The value of p should be chosen as in Section 11.4 by keeping only the highest powers of n in the numerator and denominator.) The comparison tests apply only to series with positive terms, but if $\Sigma\, a_n$ has some negative terms, then we can apply a comparison test to $\Sigma\, |a_n|$ and test for absolute convergence.

5. **Alternating Series Test** If the series is of the form $\Sigma(-1)^{n-1}b_n$ or $\Sigma(-1)^n b_n$, then the Alternating Series Test is an obvious possibility. Note that if Σb_n converges, then the given series is absolutely convergent and therefore convergent.
6. **Ratio Test** Series that involve factorials or other products (including a constant raised to the nth power) are often conveniently tested using the Ratio Test. Bear in mind that $|a_{n+1}/a_n| \to 1$ as $n \to \infty$ for all p-series and therefore all rational or algebraic functions of n. Thus the Ratio Test should not be used for such series.
7. **Root Test** If a_n is of the form $(b_n)^n$, then the Root Test may be useful.
8. **Integral Test** If $a_n = f(n)$, where $\int_1^\infty f(x)\,dx$ is easily evaluated, then the Integral Test is effective (assuming the hypotheses of this test are satisfied).

In the following examples we don't work out all the details but simply indicate which tests should be used.

EXAMPLE 1 $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n-1}{2n+1}$

Since $a_n \to \frac{1}{2} \neq 0$ as $n \to \infty$, we should use the Test for Divergence. ■

EXAMPLE 2 $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n^3+1}}{3n^3+4n^2+2}$

Since a_n is an algebraic function of n, we compare the given series with a p-series. The comparison series for the Limit Comparison Test is Σb_n, where

$$b_n = \frac{\sqrt{n^3}}{3n^3} = \frac{n^{3/2}}{3n^3} = \frac{1}{3n^{3/2}}$$ ■

EXAMPLE 3 $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ne^{-n^2}$

Since the integral $\int_1^\infty xe^{-x^2}\,dx$ is easily evaluated, we use the Integral Test. The Ratio Test also works. ■

EXAMPLE 4 $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n^2}{n^4+1}$

Since the series is alternating, we use the Alternating Series Test. We can also observe that $\Sigma|a_n|$ converges (compare to $\Sigma 1/n^2$) so the given series converges absolutely and hence converges. ■

EXAMPLE 5 $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^k}{k!}$

Since the series involves $k!$, we use the Ratio Test. ■

EXAMPLE 6 $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2+3^n}$

Since the series is closely related to the geometric series $\Sigma 1/3^n$, we use the Direct Comparison Test or the Limit Comparison Test. ■

11.7 Exercises

1–8 Two similar-looking series are given. Test each one for convergence or divergence.

1. (a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5^n}$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5^n + n}$

2. (a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^{3/2}}$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{3/2}}$

3. (a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{3^n}$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{n}$

4. (a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n+1}{n}$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n+1}{n}$

5. (a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^2+1}$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n}{n^2+1}\right)^n$

6. (a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n}$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=10}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \ln n}$

7. (a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n+n!}$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n!}\right)$

8. (a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2+1}}$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n\sqrt{n^2+1}}$

9–48 Test the series for convergence or divergence.

9. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2-1}{n^3+1}$

10. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n-1}{n^3+1}$

11. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n^2-1}{n^3+1}$

12. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n^2-1}{n^2+1}$

13. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^n}{n^2}$

14. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^{2n}}{(1+n)^{3n}}$

15. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n\sqrt{\ln n}}$

16. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{n^4}{4^n}$

17. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{\pi^{2n}}{(2n)!}$

18. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2 e^{-n^3}$

19. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{n^3} + \frac{1}{3^n}\right)$

20. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k\sqrt{k^2+1}}$

21. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n n^2}{n!}$

22. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin 2n}{1+2^n}$

23. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{k-1} 3^{k+1}}{k^k}$

24. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n^4+1}}{n^3+n}$

25. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n-1)}{2 \cdot 5 \cdot 8 \cdot \cdots \cdot (3n-1)}$

26. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{\sqrt{n}-1}$

27. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{\ln n}{\sqrt{n}}$

28. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt[3]{k}-1}{k\left(\sqrt{k}+1\right)}$

29. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \cos(1/n^2)$

30. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2+\sin k}$

31. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \tan(1/n)$

32. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \sin(1/n)$

33. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{4-\cos n}{\sqrt{n}}$

34. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{8+(-1)^n n}{n}$

35. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{e^{n^2}}$

36. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+1}{5^n}$

37. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k \ln k}{(k+1)^3}$

38. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{1/n}}{n^2}$

39. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\cosh n}$

40. $\displaystyle\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (-1)^j \frac{\sqrt{j}}{j+5}$

41. $\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{5^k}{3^k+4^k}$

42. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^n}{n^{4n}}$

43. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{n^2}$

44. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n+n\cos^2 n}$

45. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{1+1/n}}$

46. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(\ln n)^{\ln n}}$

47. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\sqrt[n]{2}-1\right)^n$

48. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\sqrt[n]{2}-1\right)$

11.8 Power Series

So far we have studied series of numbers: Σa_n. Here we consider series, called *power series*, in which each term includes a power of the variable x: $\Sigma c_n x^n$.

Power Series

A **power series** is a series of the form

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + \cdots$$

where x is a variable and the c_n's are constants called the **coefficients** of the series. For each number that we substitute for x, the series (1) is a series of constants that we can test for convergence or divergence. A power series may converge for some values of x and diverge for other values of x. The sum of the series is a function

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \cdots + c_n x^n + \cdots$$

whose domain is the set of all x for which the series converges. Notice that f resembles a polynomial. The only difference is that f has infinitely many terms.

Trigonometric Series
A power series is a series in which each term is a power function. A **trigonometric series**

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx)$$

is a series whose terms are trigonometric functions. This type of series is discussed on the website

www.StewartCalculus.com

Click on *Additional Topics* and then on *Fourier Series*.

For instance, if we take $c_n = 1$ for all n, the power series becomes the geometric series

2 $$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n + \cdots$$

which converges when $-1 < x < 1$ and diverges when $|x| \geqslant 1$. (See Equation 11.2.5.) In fact if we put $x = \frac{1}{2}$ in the geometric series (2) we get the convergent series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots$$

but if we put $x = 2$ in (2) we get the divergent series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^n = 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 + \cdots$$

More generally, a series of the form

3 $$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n = c_0 + c_1(x-a) + c_2(x-a)^2 + \cdots$$

is called a **power series in $(x - a)$** or a **power series centered at a** or a **power series about a**. Notice that in writing out the term corresponding to $n = 0$ in Equations 1 and 3 we have adopted the convention that $(x - a)^0 = 1$ even when $x = a$. Notice also that when $x = a$, all of the terms are 0 for $n \geqslant 1$ and so the power series (3) always converges when $x = a$.

To determine the values of x for which a power series converges, we normally use the Ratio (or Root) Test.

EXAMPLE 1 For what values of x does the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-3)^n}{n}$ converge?

SOLUTION If we let a_n denote the nth term of the series, as usual, then $a_n = (x - 3)^n/n$, and

$$\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = \left|\frac{(x-3)^{n+1}}{n+1} \cdot \frac{n}{(x-3)^n}\right|$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + \dfrac{1}{n}} |x - 3| \to |x - 3| \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

By the Ratio Test, the given series is absolutely convergent, and therefore convergent, when $|x - 3| < 1$ and divergent when $|x - 3| > 1$. Now

$$|x - 3| < 1 \iff -1 < x - 3 < 1 \iff 2 < x < 4$$

so the series converges when $2 < x < 4$ and diverges when $x < 2$ or $x > 4$.

The Ratio Test gives no information when $|x - 3| = 1$ so we must consider $x = 2$ and $x = 4$ separately. If we put $x = 4$ in the series, it becomes $\sum 1/n$, the harmonic series, which is divergent. If $x = 2$, the series is $\sum (-1)^n/n$, which converges by the Alternating Series Test. Thus the given power series converges for $2 \leqslant x < 4$. ■

EXAMPLE 2 For what values of x is the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n!x^n$ convergent?

SOLUTION Again we use the Ratio Test. Let $a_n = n!x^n$. If $x \neq 0$, we have

Notice that

$$(n + 1)! = (n + 1)n(n - 1) \cdot \ldots \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$
$$= (n + 1)n!$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{(n + 1)!x^{n+1}}{n!x^n} \right| = \lim_{n \to \infty} (n + 1)|x| = \infty$$

By the Ratio Test, the series diverges when $x \neq 0$. Thus the given series converges only when $x = 0$. ■

EXAMPLE 3 For what values of x does the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{(2n)!}$ converge?

SOLUTION Here $a_n = x^n/(2n)!$ and, as $n \to \infty$,

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \left| \frac{x^{n+1}}{[2(n + 1)]!} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{x^n} \right| = \frac{(2n)!}{(2n + 2)!} |x|$$

$$= \frac{(2n)!}{(2n)!(2n + 1)(2n + 2)} |x| = \frac{|x|}{(2n + 1)(2n + 2)} \to 0 < 1$$

for all x. Thus, by the Ratio Test, the given series converges for all values of x. ■

Interval of Convergence

For the power series that we have looked at so far, the set of values of x for which the series is convergent has always turned out to be an interval [a finite interval for the geometric series and the series in Example 1, the infinite interval $(-\infty, \infty)$ in Example 3, and a collapsed interval $[0, 0] = \{0\}$ in Example 2]. The following theorem, proved in Appendix F, says that this is true in general.

4 Theorem For a power series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x - a)^n$, there are only three possibilities:

(i) The series converges only when $x = a$.
(ii) The series converges for all x.
(iii) There is a positive number R such that the series converges if $|x - a| < R$ and diverges if $|x - a| > R$.

The number R in case (iii) is called the **radius of convergence** of the power series. By convention, the radius of convergence is $R = 0$ in case (i) and $R = \infty$ in case (ii). The **interval of convergence** of a power series is the interval that consists of all values of x for which the series converges. In case (i) the interval consists of just a single point a. In case (ii) the interval is $(-\infty, \infty)$. In case (iii) note that the inequality $|x - a| < R$ can be rewritten as $a - R < x < a + R$. When x is an *endpoint* of the interval, that is,

$x = a \pm R$, anything can happen—the series might converge at one or both endpoints or it might diverge at both endpoints. Thus in case (iii) there are four possibilities for the interval of convergence:

$$(a - R, a + R) \qquad (a - R, a + R] \qquad [a - R, a + R) \qquad [a - R, a + R]$$

The situation is illustrated in Figure 1.

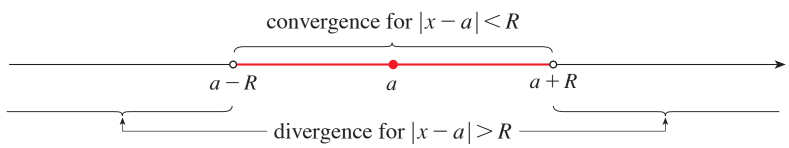


FIGURE 1

We summarize here the radius and interval of convergence for each of the examples already considered in this section.

	Series	Radius of convergence	Interval of convergence
Geometric series	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$	$R = 1$	$(-1, 1)$
Example 1	$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-3)^n}{n}$	$R = 1$	$[2, 4)$
Example 2	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n!\, x^n$	$R = 0$	$\{0\}$
Example 3	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{(2n)!}$	$R = \infty$	$(-\infty, \infty)$

NOTE In general, the Ratio Test (or sometimes the Root Test) should be used to determine the radius of convergence R. The Ratio and Root Tests always fail when x is an endpoint of the interval of convergence, so the endpoints must be checked with some other test.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the radius of convergence and interval of convergence of the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^n x^n}{\sqrt{n+1}}$$

SOLUTION Let $a_n = (-3)^n x^n / \sqrt{n+1}$. Then

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \left| \frac{(-3)^{n+1} x^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n+2}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n+1}}{(-3)^n x^n} \right| = \left| -3x \sqrt{\frac{n+1}{n+2}} \right|$$

$$= 3 \sqrt{\frac{1 + (1/n)}{1 + (2/n)}}\, |x| \to 3|x| \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

By the Ratio Test, the given series converges if $3|x| < 1$ and diverges if $3|x| > 1$. Thus it converges if $|x| < \frac{1}{3}$ and diverges if $|x| > \frac{1}{3}$. This means that the radius of convergence is $R = \frac{1}{3}$.

We know the series converges in the interval $\left(-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right)$, but we must now test for convergence at the endpoints of this interval. If $x = -\frac{1}{3}$, the series becomes

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^n\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)^n}{\sqrt{n+1}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} + \cdots$$

which diverges. (It is a p-series with $p = \frac{1}{2} < 1$.) If $x = \frac{1}{3}$, the series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^n\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n}{\sqrt{n+1}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt{n+1}}$$

which converges by the Alternating Series Test. Therefore the given power series converges when $-\frac{1}{3} < x \leqslant \frac{1}{3}$, so the interval of convergence is $\left(-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right]$. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Find the radius of convergence and interval of convergence of the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n(x+2)^n}{3^{n+1}}$$

SOLUTION If $a_n = n(x+2)^n/3^{n+1}$, then

$$\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = \left|\frac{(n+1)(x+2)^{n+1}}{3^{n+2}} \cdot \frac{3^{n+1}}{n(x+2)^n}\right|$$

$$= \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)\frac{|x+2|}{3} \to \frac{|x+2|}{3} \quad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

Using the Ratio Test, we see that the series converges if $|x+2|/3 < 1$ and it diverges if $|x+2|/3 > 1$. So it converges if $|x+2| < 3$ and diverges if $|x+2| > 3$. Thus the radius of convergence is $R = 3$.

The inequality $|x+2| < 3$ can be written as $-5 < x < 1$, so we test the series at the endpoints -5 and 1. When $x = -5$, the series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n(-3)^n}{3^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{3}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n n$$

which diverges by the Test for Divergence [$(-1)^n n$ doesn't converge to 0]. When $x = 1$, the series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n(3)^n}{3^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{3}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n$$

which also diverges by the Test for Divergence. Thus the series converges only when $-5 < x < 1$, so the interval of convergence is $(-5, 1)$. ■

11.8 Exercises

1. What is a power series?

2. (a) What is the radius of convergence of a power series? How do you find it?
(b) What is the interval of convergence of a power series? How do you find it?

3–36 Find the radius of convergence and interval of convergence of the power series.

3. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n}$

4. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n n x^n$

5. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{n}\, x^n$

6. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{\sqrt[3]{n}}$

7. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{5^n} x^n$

8. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{5^n}{n} x^n$

9. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n3^n}$

10. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n+1} x^n$

11. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{2n-1}$

12. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{n^2}$

13. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$

14. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^n x^n$

15. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n^4 4^n}$

16. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^n n^2 x^n$

17. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 4^n}{\sqrt{n}} x^n$

18. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n5^n} x^n$

19. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n(n^2+1)} x^n$

20. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{n!}$

21. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x-2)^n}{n^2+1}$

22. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n-1)2^n} (x-1)^n$

23. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(x+2)^n}{2^n \ln n}$

24. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{8^n} (x+6)^n$

25. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-2)^n}{n^n}$

26. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2x-1)^n}{5^n \sqrt{n}}$

27. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n} x^n$

28. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n \ln n} x^n$

29. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{b^n} (x-a)^n, \quad b > 0$

30. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{b^n}{\ln n} (x-a)^n, \quad b > 0$

31. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n!(2x-1)^n$

32. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 x^n}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n)}$

33. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(5x-4)^n}{n^3}$

34. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{n(\ln n)^2}$

35. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n-1)}$

36. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!\, x^n}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n-1)}$

---

37. If $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n 4^n$ is convergent, can we conclude that each of the following series is convergent?

(a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(-2)^n$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(-4)^n$

38. Suppose that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$ converges when $x = -4$ and diverges when $x = 6$. What can be said about the convergence or divergence of the following series?

(a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n 8^n$

(c) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(-3)^n$ (d) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n c_n 9^n$

39. If k is a positive integer, find the radius of convergence of the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^k}{(kn)!} x^n$$

40. Let p and q be real numbers with $p < q$. Find a power series whose interval of convergence is

(a) (p, q) (b) $(p, q]$ (c) $[p, q)$ (d) $[p, q]$

41. Is it possible to find a power series whose interval of convergence is $[0, \infty)$? Explain.

42. Graph the first several partial sums $s_n(x)$ of the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$, together with the sum function $f(x) = 1/(1-x)$, on a common screen. On what interval do these partial sums appear to be converging to $f(x)$?

43. Show that if $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|} = c$, where $c \neq 0$, then the radius of convergence of the power series $\sum c_n x^n$ is $R = 1/c$.

44. Suppose that the power series $\sum c_n(x-a)^n$ satisfies $c_n \neq 0$ for all n. Show that if $\lim_{n\to\infty} |c_n/c_{n+1}|$ exists, then it is equal to the radius of convergence of the power series.

45. Suppose the series $\sum c_n x^n$ has radius of convergence 2 and the series $\sum d_n x^n$ has radius of convergence 3. What is the radius of convergence of the series $\sum (c_n + d_n)x^n$?

46. Suppose that the radius of convergence of the power series $\sum c_n x^n$ is R. What is the radius of convergence of the power series $\sum c_n x^{2n}$?

11.9 Representations of Functions as Power Series

In this section we learn how to represent some familiar functions as sums of power series. You might wonder why we would ever want to express a known function as a sum of infinitely many terms. We will see later that this strategy is useful for integrating functions that don't have elementary antiderivatives and for approximating functions by polynomials. (Scientists do this to simplify the expressions they deal with; computer scientists do this to evaluate functions on calculators and computers.)

Representations of Functions using Geometric Series

We will obtain power series representations for several functions by manipulating geometric series. We start with an equation that we have seen before.

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \boxed{\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \qquad |x| < 1}$$

We first encountered this equation in Example 11.2.7, where we obtained it by observing that the series is a geometric series with $a = 1$ and $r = x$. Here our point of view is different: we now regard Equation 1 as expressing the function $f(x) = 1/(1 - x)$ as a sum of a power series. We say that $\Sigma_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$, $|x| < 1$, is a *power series representation* of $1/(1 - x)$ on the interval $(-1, 1)$.

A geometric illustration of Equation 1 is shown in Figure 1. Because the sum of a series is the limit of the sequence of partial sums, we have

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \lim_{n\to\infty} s_n(x)$$

where

$$s_n(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n$$

is the nth partial sum. Notice that as n increases, $s_n(x)$ becomes a better approximation to $f(x)$ for $-1 < x < 1$.

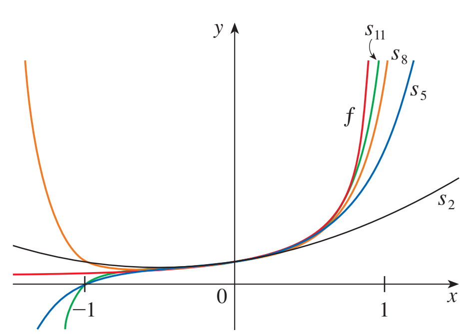


FIGURE 1
$f(x) = \dfrac{1}{1-x}$ and some of its partial sums

The power series (1) that represents the function $f(x) = 1/(1 - x)$ can be used to obtain power series representations of many other functions, as we see in the following examples.

EXAMPLE 1 Express $1/(1 + x^2)$ as the sum of a power series and find the interval of convergence.

SOLUTION Replacing x by $-x^2$ in Equation 1, we have

$$\frac{1}{1 + x^2} = \frac{1}{1 - (-x^2)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^2)^n$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{2n} = 1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + x^8 - \cdots$$

Because this is a geometric series, it converges when $|-x^2| < 1$, that is, $x^2 < 1$, or $|x| < 1$. Therefore the interval of convergence is $(-1, 1)$. (Of course, we could have determined the radius of convergence by applying the Ratio Test, but that much work is unnecessary here.) ■

EXAMPLE 2 Find a power series representation for $1/(x + 2)$.

SOLUTION In order to put this function in the form of the left side of Equation 1, we first factor a 2 from the denominator:

$$\frac{1}{2 + x} = \frac{1}{2\left(1 + \dfrac{x}{2}\right)} = \frac{1}{2\left[1 - \left(-\dfrac{x}{2}\right)\right]}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{x}{2}\right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^{n+1}} x^n$$

This series converges when $|-x/2| < 1$, that is, $|x| < 2$. So the interval of convergence is $(-2, 2)$. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Find a power series representation of $x^3/(x + 2)$.

SOLUTION Since this function is just x^3 times the function in Example 2, all we have to do is to multiply that series by x^3:

It's legitimate to move x^3 across the sigma sign because it doesn't depend on n. [Use Theorem 11.2.8(i) with $c = x^3$.]

$$\frac{x^3}{x + 2} = x^3 \cdot \frac{1}{x + 2} = x^3 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^{n+1}} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^{n+1}} x^{n+3}$$

$$= \tfrac{1}{2}x^3 - \tfrac{1}{4}x^4 + \tfrac{1}{8}x^5 - \tfrac{1}{16}x^6 + \cdots$$

Another way of writing this series is as follows:

$$\frac{x^3}{x + 2} = \sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{2^{n-2}} x^n$$

As in Example 2, the interval of convergence is $(-2, 2)$. ■

Differentiation and Integration of Power Series

The sum of a power series is a function $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x - a)^n$ whose domain is the interval of convergence of the series. We would like to be able to differentiate and integrate such functions, and the following theorem (which we won't prove) says that we can do so by differentiating or integrating each individual term in the series, just as we would for a polynomial. This is called **term-by-term differentiation and integration**.

2 Theorem If the power series $\sum c_n(x-a)^n$ has radius of convergence $R > 0$, then the function f defined by

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1(x-a) + c_2(x-a)^2 + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n$$

is differentiable (and therefore continuous) on the interval $(a - R, a + R)$ and

(i) $$f'(x) = c_1 + 2c_2(x-a) + 3c_3(x-a)^2 + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nc_n(x-a)^{n-1}$$

(ii) $$\int f(x)\,dx = C + c_0(x-a) + c_1\frac{(x-a)^2}{2} + c_2\frac{(x-a)^3}{3} + \cdots$$
$$= C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n\frac{(x-a)^{n+1}}{n+1}$$

The radii of convergence of the power series in Equations (i) and (ii) are both R.

In part (i), the sum starts at $n = 1$ because the derivative of c_0, the constant term of f, is 0.

In part (ii), $\int c_0\,dx = c_0x + C_1$ is written as $c_0(x-a) + C$, where $C = C_1 + ac_0$, so all the terms of the series have the same form.

NOTE 1 Equations (i) and (ii) in Theorem 2 can be rewritten in the form

(iii) $$\frac{d}{dx}\left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n\right] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx}[c_n(x-a)^n]$$

(iv) $$\int\left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n\right]dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int c_n(x-a)^n\,dx$$

We know that, for finite sums, the derivative of a sum is the sum of the derivatives and the integral of a sum is the sum of the integrals. Equations (iii) and (iv) assert that the same is true for infinite sums, provided we are dealing with *power series*. (For other types of series of functions the situation is not as simple; see Exercise 44.)

NOTE 2 Although Theorem 2 says that the radius of convergence remains the same when a power series is differentiated or integrated, this does not mean that the *interval* of convergence remains the same. It may happen that the original series converges at an endpoint, whereas the differentiated series diverges there. (See Exercise 45.)

The idea of differentiating a power series term by term is the basis for a powerful method for solving differential equations. In Exercises 37–40 you will see how a function expressed as a power series can be a solution to a differential equation.

EXAMPLE 4 Express $1/(1-x)^2$ as a power series by differentiating Equation 1. What is the radius of convergence?

SOLUTION We start with

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$$

Differentiating each side, we get

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^{n-1}$$

If we wish, we can replace n by $n + 1$ and write the answer as

$$\frac{1}{(1 - x)^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n + 1)x^n$$

According to Theorem 2, the radius of convergence of the differentiated series is the same as the radius of convergence of the original series, namely, $R = 1$. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Find a power series representation for $\ln(1 + x)$ and its radius of convergence.

SOLUTION We notice that the derivative of this function is $1/(1 + x)$. From Equation 1 we have

$$\frac{1}{1 + x} = \frac{1}{1 - (-x)} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \cdots \qquad |x| < 1$$

Integrating both sides of this equation, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \ln(1 + x) &= \int \frac{1}{1 + x}\, dx = \int (1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \cdots)\, dx \\ &= x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots + C \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} + C \qquad |x| < 1 \end{aligned}$$

To determine the value of C we put $x = 0$ in this equation and obtain $\ln(1 + 0) = C$. Thus $C = 0$ and

$$\ln(1 + x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} \qquad |x| < 1$$

The radius of convergence is the same as for the original series: $R = 1$. ■

EXAMPLE 6 Find a power series representation for $f(x) = \tan^{-1}x$.

SOLUTION We observe that $f'(x) = 1/(1 + x^2)$ and find the required series by integrating the power series for $1/(1 + x^2)$ found in Example 1.

$$\begin{aligned} \tan^{-1}x &= \int \frac{1}{1 + x^2}\, dx = \int (1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \cdots)\, dx \\ &= C + x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

To find C we put $x = 0$ and obtain $C = \tan^{-1}0 = 0$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \tan^{-1}x &= x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \cdots \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n + 1} \end{aligned}$$

Since the radius of convergence of the series for $1/(1 + x^2)$ is 1, the radius of convergence of this series for $\tan^{-1}x$ is also 1. ■

The power series for $\tan^{-1}x$ obtained in Example 6 is called *Gregory's series* after the Scottish mathematician James Gregory (1638–1675), who had anticipated some of Newton's discoveries. We have shown that Gregory's series is valid when $-1 < x < 1$, but it turns out (although it isn't easy to prove) that it is also valid when $x = \pm 1$. Notice that when $x = 1$ the series becomes

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \cdots$$

This beautiful result is known as the Leibniz formula for π.

EXAMPLE 7

(a) Evaluate $\int [1/(1 + x^7)]\,dx$ as a power series.

(b) Use part (a) to approximate $\int_0^{0.5} [1/(1 + x^7)]\,dx$ correct to within 10^{-7}.

This example demonstrates one way in which power series representations are useful. Integrating $1/(1 + x^7)$ by hand is incredibly difficult. Different computer algebra systems return different forms of the answer, but they are all extremely complicated. The infinite series answer that we obtain in Example 7(a) is actually much easier to deal with than the finite answer provided by a computer.

SOLUTION

(a) The first step is to express the integrand, $1/(1 + x^7)$, as the sum of a power series. As in Example 1, we start with Equation 1 and replace x by $-x^7$:

$$\frac{1}{1 + x^7} = \frac{1}{1 - (-x^7)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^7)^n$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{7n} = 1 - x^7 + x^{14} - \cdots$$

Now we integrate term by term:

$$\int \frac{1}{1 + x^7}\,dx = \int \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{7n}\,dx = C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{7n+1}}{7n + 1}$$
$$= C + x - \frac{x^8}{8} + \frac{x^{15}}{15} - \frac{x^{22}}{22} + \cdots$$

This series converges for $|-x^7| < 1$, that is, for $|x| < 1$.

(b) In applying the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, it doesn't matter which antiderivative we use, so let's use the antiderivative from part (a) with $C = 0$:

$$\int_0^{0.5} \frac{1}{1 + x^7}\,dx = \left[x - \frac{x^8}{8} + \frac{x^{15}}{15} - \frac{x^{22}}{22} + \cdots \right]_0^{1/2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{8 \cdot 2^8} + \frac{1}{15 \cdot 2^{15}} - \frac{1}{22 \cdot 2^{22}} + \cdots + \frac{(-1)^n}{(7n + 1)2^{7n+1}} + \cdots$$

This infinite series is the exact value of the definite integral, but since it is an alternating series, we can approximate the sum using the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem. If we stop adding after the term with $n = 3$, the error is smaller than the term with $n = 4$:

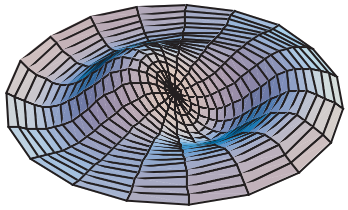
$$\frac{1}{29 \cdot 2^{29}} \approx 6.4 \times 10^{-11}$$

So we have

$$\int_0^{0.5} \frac{1}{1 + x^7}\,dx \approx \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{8 \cdot 2^8} + \frac{1}{15 \cdot 2^{15}} - \frac{1}{22 \cdot 2^{22}} \approx 0.49951374$$ ■

Functions Defined by Power Series

Some of the most important functions in the sciences are defined by power series and are not expressible in terms of elementary functions (as described in Section 7.5). Many of these arise naturally as solutions of differential equations. One such class of functions is the **Bessel functions**, named after the German astronomer Friedrich Bessel (1784–1846). These functions first arose when Bessel solved Kepler's equation for describing planetary motion. Since that time, Bessel functions have been applied in many different physical situations, including the temperature distribution in a circular plate and the shape of a vibrating drumhead. Bessel functions appear in the next example as well as in Exercises 39 and 40. Other examples of functions defined by power series are given in Exercises 38 and 41.



A computer-generated model, involving Bessel functions and cosine functions, of a vibrating drumhead.

EXAMPLE 8 The Bessel function of order 0 is defined by

$$J_0(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2}$$

(a) Find the domain of J_0.

(b) Find the derivative of J_0.

SOLUTION

(a) Let $a_n = (-1)^n x^{2n}/[2^{2n}(n!)^2]$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| &= \left|\frac{(-1)^{n+1}x^{2(n+1)}}{2^{2(n+1)}[(n+1)!]^2} \cdot \frac{2^{2n}(n!)^2}{(-1)^n x^{2n}}\right| \\ &= \frac{x^{2n+2}}{2^{2n+2}(n+1)^2(n!)^2} \cdot \frac{2^{2n}(n!)^2}{x^{2n}} \\ &= \frac{x^2}{4(n+1)^2} \to 0 < 1 \qquad \text{for all } x\end{aligned}$$

Thus, by the Ratio Test, the given series converges for all values of x. In other words, the domain of the Bessel function J_0 is $(-\infty, \infty) = \mathbb{R}$.

(b) By Theorem 2, J_0 is differentiable for all x and its derivative is found by term-by-term differentiation as follows:

$$J_0'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx}\frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n\, 2n x^{2n-1}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2}$$ ■

Recall that the sum of a series is equal to the limit of the sequence of partial sums. So when we define the Bessel function in Example 8 as the sum of a series we mean that, for every real number x,

$$J_0(x) = \lim_{n\to\infty} s_n(x) \qquad \text{where} \qquad s_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^i x^{2i}}{2^{2i}(i!)^2}$$

The first few partial sums are

$$s_0(x) = 1$$

$$s_1(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{4}$$

$$s_2(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{x^4}{64}$$

$$s_3(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{x^4}{64} - \frac{x^6}{2304}$$

$$s_4(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{x^4}{64} - \frac{x^6}{2304} + \frac{x^8}{147{,}456}$$

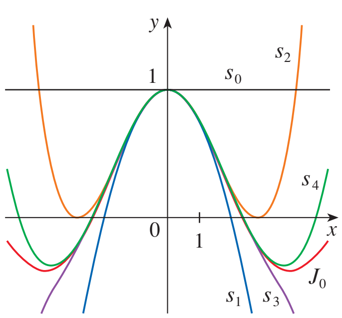


FIGURE 2
Partial sums of the Bessel function J_0

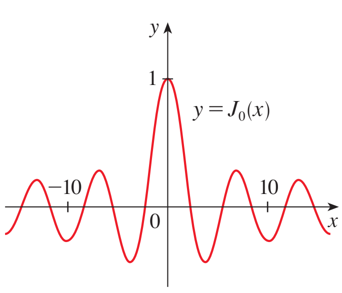


FIGURE 3

Figure 2 shows the graphs of these partial sums, which are polynomials. They are all approximations to the function J_0, but the approximations become better when more terms are included. Figure 3 shows a more complete graph of the Bessel function.

11.9 Exercises

1. If the radius of convergence of the power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$ is 10, what is the radius of convergence of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n x^{n-1}$? Why?

2. Suppose you know that the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$ converges for $|x| < 2$. What can you say about the following series? Why?

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{n+1} x^{n+1}$$

3–12 Find a power series representation for the function and determine the interval of convergence.

3. $f(x) = \dfrac{1}{1+x}$ **4.** $f(x) = \dfrac{x}{1+x}$

5. $f(x) = \dfrac{1}{1-x^2}$ **6.** $f(x) = \dfrac{5}{1-4x^2}$

7. $f(x) = \dfrac{2}{3-x}$ **8.** $f(x) = \dfrac{4}{2x+3}$

9. $f(x) = \dfrac{x^2}{x^4+16}$ **10.** $f(x) = \dfrac{x}{2x^2+1}$

11. $f(x) = \dfrac{x-1}{x+2}$ **12.** $f(x) = \dfrac{x+a}{x^2+a^2}, \quad a > 0$

13–14 Express the function as the sum of a power series by first using partial fractions. Find the interval of convergence.

13. $f(x) = \dfrac{2x-4}{x^2-4x+3}$ **14.** $f(x) = \dfrac{2x+3}{x^2+3x+2}$

15. (a) Use differentiation to find a power series representation for

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(1+x)^2}$$

What is the radius of convergence?

(b) Use part (a) to find a power series for

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(1+x)^3}$$

(c) Use part (b) to find a power series for

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2}{(1+x)^3}$$

16. (a) Use Equation 1 to find a power series representation for $f(x) = \ln(1-x)$. What is the radius of convergence?
(b) Use part (a) to find a power series for $f(x) = x\ln(1-x)$.
(c) By putting $x = \frac{1}{2}$ in your result from part (a), express ln 2 as the sum of an infinite series.

17–22 Find a power series representation for the function and determine the radius of convergence.

17. $f(x) = \dfrac{x}{(1+4x)^2}$ **18.** $f(x) = \left(\dfrac{x}{2-x}\right)^3$

19. $f(x) = \dfrac{1+x}{(1-x)^2}$ **20.** $f(x) = \dfrac{x^2+x}{(1-x)^3}$

21. $f(x) = \ln(5-x)$ **22.** $f(x) = x^2\tan^{-1}(x^3)$

23–26 Find a power series representation for f, and graph f and several partial sums $s_n(x)$ on the same screen. What happens as n increases?

23. $f(x) = \dfrac{x^2}{x^2+1}$ **24.** $f(x) = \ln(1+x^4)$

25. $f(x) = \ln\left(\dfrac{1+x}{1-x}\right)$ **26.** $f(x) = \tan^{-1}(2x)$

27–30 Evaluate the indefinite integral as a power series. What is the radius of convergence?

27. $\displaystyle\int \frac{t}{1-t^8}\,dt$ **28.** $\displaystyle\int \frac{t}{1+t^3}\,dt$

29. $\displaystyle\int x^2\ln(1+x)\,dx$ **30.** $\displaystyle\int \frac{\tan^{-1}x}{x}\,dx$

31–34 Use a power series to approximate the definite integral to six decimal places.

31. $\displaystyle\int_0^{0.3} \frac{x}{1+x^3}\,dx$ **32.** $\displaystyle\int_0^{1/2} \arctan\frac{x}{2}\,dx$

33. $\displaystyle\int_0^{0.2} x\ln(1+x^2)\,dx$ **34.** $\displaystyle\int_0^{0.3} \frac{x^2}{1+x^4}\,dx$

35. Use the result of Example 6 to compute arctan 0.2 correct to five decimal places.

36. Use the result of Example 5 to compute ln 1.1 correct to four decimal places.

37. (a) Show that the function

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

is a solution of the differential equation

$$f'(x) = f(x)$$

(b) Show that $f(x) = e^x$.

38. Show that the function

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$$

is a solution of the differential equation

$$f''(x) + f(x) = 0$$

39. (a) Show that J_0 (the Bessel function of order 0 given in Example 8) satisfies the differential equation

$$x^2 J_0''(x) + x J_0'(x) + x^2 J_0(x) = 0$$

(b) Evaluate $\int_0^1 J_0(x)\, dx$ correct to three decimal places.

40. The Bessel function of order 1 is defined by

$$J_1(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{n!(n+1)!2^{2n+1}}$$

(a) Find the domain of J_1.
(b) Show that J_1 satisfies the differential equation

$$x^2 J_1''(x) + x J_1'(x) + (x^2 - 1)J_1(x) = 0$$

(c) Show that $J_0'(x) = -J_1(x)$.

41. The function A defined by

$$A(x) = 1 + \frac{x^3}{2 \cdot 3} + \frac{x^6}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} + \frac{x^9}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 8 \cdot 9} + \cdots$$

is called an *Airy function* after the English mathematician and astronomer Sir George Airy (1801–1892).
(a) Find the domain of the Airy function.
(b) Graph the first several partial sums on a common screen.
(c) Use a computer algebra system that has built-in Airy functions to graph A on the same screen as the partial sums in part (b) and observe how the partial sums approximate A.

42. If $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$, where $c_{n+4} = c_n$ for all $n \geqslant 0$, find the interval of convergence of the series and a formula for $f(x)$.

43. A function f is defined by

$$f(x) = 1 + 2x + x^2 + 2x^3 + x^4 + \cdots$$

that is, its coefficients are $c_{2n} = 1$ and $c_{2n+1} = 2$ for all $n \geqslant 0$. Find the interval of convergence of the series and find an explicit formula for $f(x)$.

44. Let $f_n(x) = (\sin nx)/n^2$. Show that the series $\sum f_n(x)$ converges for all values of x but the series of derivatives $\sum f_n'(x)$ diverges when $x = 2n\pi$, n an integer. For what values of x does the series $\sum f_n''(x)$ converge?

45. Let

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n^2}$$

Find the intervals of convergence for f, f', and f''.

46. (a) Starting with the geometric series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$, find the sum of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^{n-1} \qquad |x| < 1$$

(b) Find the sum of each of the following series.

(i) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^n, \quad |x| < 1$ (ii) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n}$

(c) Find the sum of each of the following series.

(i) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1)x^n, \quad |x| < 1$

(ii) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 - n}{2^n}$ (iii) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n}$

47. If $f(x) = 1/(1 - x)$, find a power series representation for $h(x) = xf'(x) + x^2 f''(x)$ and determine the radius of convergence. Use this to show that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n} = 6$$

48. Use the power series representation of $f(x) = 1/(1 - x)^2$ and the fact that $9801 = 99^2$ to show that $1/9801$ is a repeating decimal that contains every two digit number in order, except for 98, as shown.

$$\frac{1}{9801} = 0.\overline{00\ 01\ 02\ 03 \ldots\ 96\ 97\ 99}$$

$\left[\textit{Hint:} \text{ Consider } x = \frac{1}{100}.\right]$

49. Use the power series for $\tan^{-1}x$ to prove the following expression for π as the sum of an infinite series:

$$\pi = 2\sqrt{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)3^n}$$

50. (a) By completing the square, show that

$$\int_0^{1/2} \frac{dx}{x^2 - x + 1} = \frac{\pi}{3\sqrt{3}}$$

(b) By factoring $x^3 + 1$ as a sum of cubes, rewrite the integral in part (a). Then express $1/(x^3 + 1)$ as the sum of a power series and use it to prove the following formula for π:

$$\pi = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{4} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{8^n} \left(\frac{2}{3n+1} + \frac{1}{3n+2} \right)$$

51. Use the Ratio Test to show that if the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$ has radius of convergence R, then each of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n x^{n-1} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$$

also has radius of convergence R.

11.10 Taylor and Maclaurin Series

In Section 11.9 we were able to find power series representations for a certain restricted class of functions, namely, those that can be obtained from geometric series. Here we investigate more general problems: Which functions have power series representations? How can we find such representations? We will see that some of the most important functions in calculus, such as e^x and $\sin x$, can be represented as power series.

Definitions of Taylor Series and Maclaurin Series

We start by supposing that f is a function that can be represented by a power series

1 $$f(x) = c_0 + c_1(x-a) + c_2(x-a)^2 + c_3(x-a)^3 + c_4(x-a)^4 + \cdots \qquad |x-a| < R$$

Let's try to determine what the coefficients c_n must be in terms of f. To begin, notice that if we put $x = a$ in Equation 1, then all terms after the first one are 0 and we get

$$f(a) = c_0$$

By Theorem 11.9.2, we can differentiate the series in Equation 1 term by term:

2 $$f'(x) = c_1 + 2c_2(x-a) + 3c_3(x-a)^2 + 4c_4(x-a)^3 + \cdots \qquad |x-a| < R$$

and substitution of $x = a$ in Equation 2 gives

$$f'(a) = c_1$$

Now we differentiate both sides of Equation 2 and obtain

3 $$f''(x) = 2c_2 + 2 \cdot 3c_3(x-a) + 3 \cdot 4c_4(x-a)^2 + \cdots \qquad |x-a| < R$$

Again we put $x = a$ in Equation 3. The result is

$$f''(a) = 2c_2$$

Let's apply the procedure one more time. Differentiation of the series in Equation 3 gives

4 $$f'''(x) = 2 \cdot 3c_3 + 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4c_4(x-a) + 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5c_5(x-a)^2 + \cdots \qquad |x-a| < R$$

and substitution of $x = a$ in Equation 4 gives

$$f'''(a) = 2 \cdot 3c_3 = 3!c_3$$

By now you can see the pattern. If we continue to differentiate and substitute $x = a$, we obtain

$$f^{(n)}(a) = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot \cdots \cdot nc_n = n!c_n$$

Solving this equation for the nth coefficient c_n, we get

$$c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$$

This formula remains valid even for $n = 0$ if we adopt the conventions that $0! = 1$ and $f^{(0)} = f$. Thus we have proved the following theorem.

5 Theorem If f has a power series representation (expansion) at a, that is, if

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n \qquad |x-a| < R$$

then its coefficients are given by the formula

$$c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$$

Substituting this formula for c_n back into the series, we see that *if* f has a power series expansion at a, then it must be of the following form.

$$\boxed{6} \quad f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$$

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

The series in Equation 6 is called the **Taylor series of the function f at a** (or **about a** or **centered at a**). For the special case $a = 0$ the Taylor series becomes

$$\boxed{7} \quad f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n = f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!}x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \cdots$$

This case arises frequently enough that it is given the special name **Maclaurin series**.

Taylor and Maclaurin

The Taylor series is named after the English mathematician Brook Taylor (1685–1731) and the Maclaurin series is named in honor of the Scottish mathematician Colin Maclaurin (1698–1746) despite the fact that the Maclaurin series is really just a special case of the Taylor series. But the idea of representing particular functions as sums of power series goes back to Newton, and the general Taylor series was known to the Scottish mathematician James Gregory in 1668 and to the Swiss mathematician John Bernoulli in the 1690s. Taylor was apparently unaware of the work of Gregory and Bernoulli when he published his discoveries on series in 1715 in his book *Methodus incrementorum directa et inversa*. Maclaurin series are named after Colin Maclaurin because he popularized them in his calculus textbook *Treatise of Fluxions* published in 1742.

NOTE 1 When we find a Taylor series for a function f, there is no guarantee that the sum of the Taylor series is equal to f. Theorem 5 says that *if* f has a power series representation about a, then that power series must be the Taylor series of f. There exist functions that are not equal to the sum of their Taylor series, such as the function given in Exercise 96.

NOTE 2 The power series representation at a of a function is unique, regardless of how it is found, because Theorem 5 states that if f has a power series representation $f(x) = \Sigma c_n(x-a)^n$, then c_n must be $f^{(n)}(a)/n!$. Thus all the power series representations we developed in Section 11.9 are in fact the Taylor series of the functions they represent.

EXAMPLE 1 We know from Equation 11.9.1 that the function $f(x) = 1/(1-x)$ has a power series representation

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots \qquad |x| < 1$$

According to Theorem 5, this series must be the Maclaurin series of f with coefficients c_n given by $f^{(n)}(0)/n!$. To confirm this, we compute

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{1-x} & f(0) &= 1 \\ f'(x) &= \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} & f'(0) &= 1 \\ f''(x) &= \frac{1 \cdot 2}{(1-x)^3} & f''(0) &= 1 \cdot 2 \\ f'''(x) &= \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}{(1-x)^4} & f'''(0) &= 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \end{aligned}$$

and, in general,

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \frac{n!}{(1-x)^{n+1}} \qquad f^{(n)}(0) = n!$$

Thus

$$c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} = \frac{n!}{n!} = 1$$

and, from Equation 7,

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$$ ■

EXAMPLE 2 For the function $f(x) = e^x$, find the Maclaurin series and its radius of convergence.

SOLUTION If $f(x) = e^x$, then $f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$, so $f^{(n)}(0) = e^0 = 1$ for all n. Therefore the Taylor series for f at 0 (that is, the Maclaurin series) is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

To find the radius of convergence we let $a_n = x^n/n!$. Then

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \left| \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{x^n} \right| = \frac{|x|}{n+1} \to 0 < 1$$

so, by the Ratio Test, the series converges for all x and the radius of convergence is $R = \infty$. ■

When Is a Function Represented by Its Taylor Series?

From Theorem 5 and Example 2 we can conclude that *if we know* that e^x has a power series representation at 0, then this power series must be its Maclaurin series

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

So how can we determine whether e^x *does* have a power series representation?

Let's investigate the more general question: under what circumstances is a function equal to the sum of its Taylor series? In other words, if f has derivatives of all orders, when is it true that

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$$

As with any convergent series, this means that $f(x)$ is the limit of the sequence of partial sums. In the case of the Taylor series, the partial sums are

$$\begin{aligned} T_n(x) &= \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!}(x-a)^i \\ &= f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n \end{aligned}$$

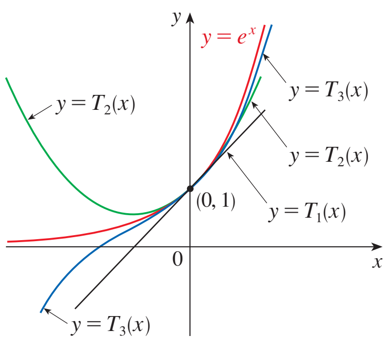


FIGURE 1

As n increases, $T_n(x)$ appears to approach e^x in Figure 1. This suggests that e^x is equal to the sum of its Taylor series.

Notice that T_n is a polynomial of degree n called the ***n*th-degree Taylor polynomial of *f* at *a***. For instance, for the exponential function $f(x) = e^x$, the result of Example 2 shows that the Taylor polynomials at 0 (or Maclaurin polynomials) with $n = 1, 2$, and 3 are

$$T_1(x) = 1 + x \qquad T_2(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} \qquad T_3(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!}$$

The graphs of the exponential function and these three Taylor polynomials are drawn in Figure 1.

In general, $f(x)$ is the sum of its Taylor series if

$$f(x) = \lim_{n\to\infty} T_n(x)$$

If we let

$$R_n(x) = f(x) - T_n(x) \qquad \text{so that} \qquad f(x) = T_n(x) + R_n(x)$$

then $R_n(x)$ is called the **remainder** of the Taylor series. If we can somehow show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0$, then it follows that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} T_n(x) = \lim_{n\to\infty} [f(x) - R_n(x)] = f(x) - \lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = f(x)$$

We have therefore proved the following theorem.

8 Theorem If $f(x) = T_n(x) + R_n(x)$, where T_n is the nth-degree Taylor polynomial of f at a, and if

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0$$

for $|x - a| < R$, then f is equal to the sum of its Taylor series on the interval $|x - a| < R$.

In trying to show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0$ for a specific function f, we usually use the following theorem.

9 Taylor's Inequality If $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| \leqslant M$ for $|x - a| \leqslant d$, then the remainder $R_n(x)$ of the Taylor series satisfies the inequality

$$|R_n(x)| \leqslant \frac{M}{(n+1)!}|x-a|^{n+1} \qquad \text{for } |x-a| \leqslant d$$

PROOF We first prove Taylor's Inequality for $n = 1$. Assume that $|f''(x)| \leqslant M$. In particular, we have $f''(x) \leqslant M$, so for $a \leqslant x \leqslant a + d$ we have

$$\int_a^x f''(t)\,dt \leqslant \int_a^x M\,dt$$

An antiderivative of f'' is f', so by Part 2 of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, we have

$$f'(x) - f'(a) \leqslant M(x - a) \qquad \text{or} \qquad f'(x) \leqslant f'(a) + M(x - a)$$

Thus

$$\int_a^x f'(t)\,dt \leqslant \int_a^x [f'(a) + M(t - a)]\,dt$$

$$f(x) - f(a) \leqslant f'(a)(x - a) + M\frac{(x - a)^2}{2}$$

$$f(x) - f(a) - f'(a)(x - a) \leqslant \frac{M}{2}(x - a)^2$$

But $R_1(x) = f(x) - T_1(x) = f(x) - f(a) - f'(a)(x - a)$. So

$$R_1(x) \leqslant \frac{M}{2}(x - a)^2$$

A similar argument, using $f''(x) \geqslant -M$, shows that

$$R_1(x) \geqslant -\frac{M}{2}(x - a)^2$$

So

$$|R_1(x)| \leqslant \frac{M}{2}|x - a|^2$$

Although we have assumed that $x > a$, similar calculations show that this inequality is also true for $x < a$.

This proves Taylor's Inequality for the case where $n = 1$. The result for any n is proved in a similar way by integrating $n + 1$ times. (See Exercise 95 for the case $n = 2$.) ■

Formulas for the Taylor Remainder Term

As alternatives to Taylor's Inequality, we have the following formulas for the remainder term. If $f^{(n+1)}$ is continuous on an interval I and $x \in I$, then

$$R_n(x) = \frac{1}{n!}\int_a^x (x - t)^n f^{(n+1)}(t)\,dt$$

This is called the *integral form of the remainder term*. Another formula, called *Lagrange's form of the remainder term*, states that there is a number z between x and a such that

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n + 1)!}(x - a)^{n+1}$$

This version is an extension of the Mean Value Theorem (which is the case $n = 0$).

Proofs of these formulas, together with discussions of how to use them to solve the examples of Sections 11.10 and 11.11, are given on the website

www.StewartCalculus.com

Click on *Additional Topics* and then on *Formulas for the Remainder Term in Taylor series*.

NOTE In Section 11.11 we will explore the use of Taylor's Inequality in approximating functions. Our immediate use of it is in conjunction with Theorem 8.

When we apply Theorems 8 and 9 it is often helpful to make use of the following fact.

10 $$\boxed{\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0 \qquad \text{for every real number } x}$$

This is true because we know from Example 2 that the series $\Sigma x^n/n!$ converges for all x and so its nth term approaches 0.

EXAMPLE 3 Prove that e^x is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series.

SOLUTION If $f(x) = e^x$, then $f^{(n+1)}(x) = e^x$ for all n. If d is any positive number and $|x| \leqslant d$, then $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| = e^x \leqslant e^d$. So Taylor's Inequality, with $a = 0$ and $M = e^d$, says that

$$|R_n(x)| \leqslant \frac{e^d}{(n+1)!}|x|^{n+1} \qquad \text{for } |x| \leqslant d$$

Notice that the same constant $M = e^d$ works for every value of n. But, from Equation 10, we have

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{e^d}{(n+1)!}|x|^{n+1} = e^d \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} = 0$$

It follows from the Squeeze Theorem that $\lim_{n\to\infty}|R_n(x)| = 0$ and therefore $\lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0$ for all values of x. By Theorem 8, e^x is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series, that is,

11
$$\boxed{e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} \qquad \text{for all } x}$$

In particular, if we put $x = 1$ in Equation 11, we obtain the following expression for the number e as a sum of an infinite series:

With the help of computers, researchers have now accurately computed the value of e to trillions of decimal places.

12
$$\boxed{e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \cdots}$$

EXAMPLE 4 Find the Taylor series for $f(x) = e^x$ at $a = 2$.

SOLUTION We have $f^{(n)}(2) = e^2$ and so, putting $a = 2$ in the definition of a Taylor series (6), we get

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(2)}{n!}(x-2)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^2}{n!}(x-2)^n$$

Again it can be verified, as in Example 2, that the radius of convergence is $R = \infty$. As in Example 3 we can verify that $\lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0$, so

13
$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^2}{n!}(x-2)^n \qquad \text{for all } x$$

We have two power series expansions for e^x, the Maclaurin series in Equation 11 and the Taylor series in Equation 13. The first is better if we are interested in values of x near 0 and the second is better if x is near 2.

Taylor Series of Important Functions

In Examples 2 and 4 we developed power series representations of the function e^x, and in Section 11.9 we found power series representations for several other functions, including $\ln(1 + x)$ and $\tan^{-1}x$. We now find representations for some additional important functions, including $\sin x$ and $\cos x$.

EXAMPLE 5 Find the Maclaurin series for $\sin x$ and prove that it represents $\sin x$ for all x.

SOLUTION We arrange our computation in two columns:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sin x & f(0) &= 0 \\ f'(x) &= \cos x & f'(0) &= 1 \\ f''(x) &= -\sin x & f''(0) &= 0 \\ f'''(x) &= -\cos x & f'''(0) &= -1 \\ f^{(4)}(x) &= \sin x & f^{(4)}(0) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since the derivatives repeat in a cycle of four, we can write the Maclaurin series as follows:

$$f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!}x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f'''(0)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$$

$$= x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

Figure 2 shows the graph of $\sin x$ together with its Taylor (or Maclaurin) polynomials

$$T_1(x) = x$$

$$T_3(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!}$$

$$T_5(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!}$$

Notice that, as n increases, $T_n(x)$ becomes a better approximation to $\sin x$.

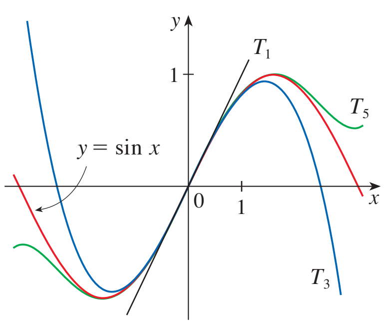


FIGURE 2

Since $f^{(n+1)}(x)$ is $\pm\sin x$ or $\pm\cos x$, we know that $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| \leqslant 1$ for all x. So we can take $M = 1$ in Taylor's Inequality:

14 $$|R_n(x)| \leqslant \frac{M}{(n+1)!}|x^{n+1}| = \frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

By Equation 10 the right side of this inequality approaches 0 as $n \to \infty$, so $|R_n(x)| \to 0$ by the Squeeze Theorem. It follows that $R_n(x) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, so $\sin x$ is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series by Theorem 8. ■

We state the result of Example 5 for future reference.

15 $$\boxed{\begin{aligned} \sin x &= x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \qquad \text{for all } x \end{aligned}}$$

EXAMPLE 6 Find the Maclaurin series for $\cos x$.

SOLUTION We could proceed directly as in Example 5, but it's easier to use Theorem 11.9.2 to differentiate the Maclaurin series for $\sin x$ given by Equation 15:

$$\cos x = \frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \frac{d}{dx}\left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots\right)$$

$$= 1 - \frac{3x^2}{3!} + \frac{5x^4}{5!} - \frac{7x^6}{7!} + \cdots = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots$$

The Maclaurin series for e^x, $\sin x$, and $\cos x$ that we found in Examples 3, 5, and 6 were discovered, using different methods, by Newton. These equations are remarkable because they say we know everything about each of these functions if we know all its derivatives at the single number 0.

Theorem 11.9.2 tells us that the differentiated series for $\sin x$ converges to the derivative of $\sin x$, namely $\cos x$, and the radius of convergence remains unchanged, so the series converges for all x. ■

We state the result of Example 6 for future reference.

16

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned}\cos x &= 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} \qquad \text{for all } x\end{aligned}}$$

EXAMPLE 7 Represent $f(x) = \sin x$ as the sum of its Taylor series centered at $\pi/3$.

SOLUTION Arranging our work in columns, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
f(x) &= \sin x & f\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) &= \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\
f'(x) &= \cos x & f'\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) &= \frac{1}{2} \\
f''(x) &= -\sin x & f''\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) &= -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\
f'''(x) &= -\cos x & f'''\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) &= -\frac{1}{2}
\end{aligned}$$

and this pattern repeats indefinitely. Therefore the Taylor series at $\pi/3$ is

$$f\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) + \frac{f'\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)}{1!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right) + \frac{f''\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)}{2!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^2 + \frac{f'''\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)}{3!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^3 + \cdots$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 1!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right) - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2 \cdot 2!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^3 + \cdots$$

We have obtained two different series representations for $\sin x$, the Maclaurin series in Example 5 and the Taylor series in Example 7. It is best to use the Maclaurin series for values of x near 0 and the Taylor series for x near $\pi/3$. Notice that the third Taylor polynomial T_3 in Figure 3 is a good approximation to $\sin x$ near $\pi/3$ but not as accurate near 0. Compare it with the third Maclaurin polynomial T_3 in Figure 2, where the opposite is true.

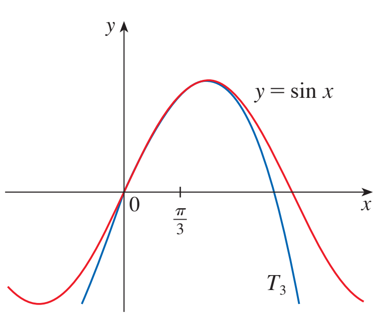


FIGURE 3

The proof that this series represents $\sin x$ for all x is very similar to that in Example 5. [Just replace x by $x - \pi/3$ in (14).] We can write the series in sigma notation if we separate the terms that contain $\sqrt{3}$:

$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \sqrt{3}}{2(2n)!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^{2n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2(2n+1)!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^{2n+1}$$ ■

EXAMPLE 8 Find the Maclaurin series for $f(x) = (1 + x)^k$, where k is any real number.

SOLUTION We start by computing derivatives:

$$\begin{aligned}
f(x) &= (1 + x)^k & f(0) &= 1 \\
f'(x) &= k(1 + x)^{k-1} & f'(0) &= k \\
f''(x) &= k(k - 1)(1 + x)^{k-2} & f''(0) &= k(k - 1) \\
f'''(x) &= k(k - 1)(k - 2)(1 + x)^{k-3} & f'''(0) &= k(k - 1)(k - 2) \\
&\vdots & &\vdots \\
f^{(n)}(x) &= k(k - 1) \cdots (k - n + 1)(1 + x)^{k-n} & f^{(n)}(0) &= k(k - 1) \cdots (k - n + 1)
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore the Maclaurin series of $f(x) = (1 + x)^k$ is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{k(k - 1) \cdots (k - n + 1)}{n!} x^n$$

This series is called the **binomial series**. Notice that if k is a nonnegative integer, then the terms are eventually 0 and so the series is finite. For other values of k none of the terms is 0 and so we can investigate the convergence of the series by using the Ratio Test. If the nth term is a_n, then

$$\begin{aligned}
\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| &= \left| \frac{k(k - 1) \cdots (k - n + 1)(k - n)x^{n+1}}{(n + 1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{k(k - 1) \cdots (k - n + 1)x^n} \right| \\
&= \frac{|k - n|}{n + 1} |x| = \frac{\left| 1 - \dfrac{k}{n} \right|}{1 + \dfrac{1}{n}} |x| \to |x| \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty
\end{aligned}$$

Thus, by the Ratio Test, the binomial series converges if $|x| < 1$ and diverges if $|x| > 1$. ■

The traditional notation for the coefficients in the binomial series is

$$\binom{k}{n} = \frac{k(k - 1)(k - 2) \cdots (k - n + 1)}{n!}$$

and these numbers are called the **binomial coefficients**.

The following theorem states that $(1 + x)^k$ is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series. It is possible to prove this by showing that the remainder term $R_n(x)$ approaches 0, but that turns out to be quite difficult. The proof outlined in Exercise 97 is much easier.

17 **The Binomial Series** If k is any real number and $|x| < 1$, then

$$(1 + x)^k = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n = 1 + kx + \frac{k(k - 1)}{2!} x^2 + \frac{k(k - 1)(k - 2)}{3!} x^3 + \cdots$$

Although the binomial series always converges when $|x| < 1$, the question of whether or not it converges at the endpoints, ± 1, depends on the value of k. It turns out that the series converges at 1 if $-1 < k \leqslant 0$ and at both endpoints if $k \geqslant 0$. Notice that if k is a positive integer and $n > k$, then the expression for $\binom{k}{n}$ contains a factor $(k - k)$, so $\binom{k}{n} = 0$

for $n > k$. This means that the series terminates and reduces to the ordinary Binomial Theorem when k is a positive integer. (See Reference Page 1.)

EXAMPLE 9 For the function $f(x) = \dfrac{1}{\sqrt{4 - x}}$, find the Maclaurin series and its radius of convergence.

SOLUTION We rewrite $f(x)$ in a form where we can use the binomial series:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{4 - x}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\left(1 - \dfrac{x}{4}\right)}} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1 - \dfrac{x}{4}}} = \frac{1}{2}\left(1 - \frac{x}{4}\right)^{-1/2}$$

Using the binomial series with $k = -\frac{1}{2}$ and with x replaced by $-x/4$, we have

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{4 - x}} = \frac{1}{2}\left(1 - \frac{x}{4}\right)^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\binom{-\frac{1}{2}}{n}\left(-\frac{x}{4}\right)^n$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\left[1 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{x}{4}\right) + \frac{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)}{2!}\left(-\frac{x}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{5}{2}\right)}{3!}\left(-\frac{x}{4}\right)^3\right.$$

$$\left. + \cdots + \frac{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{5}{2}\right)\cdots\left(-\frac{1}{2} - n + 1\right)}{n!}\left(-\frac{x}{4}\right)^n + \cdots\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\left[1 + \frac{1}{8}x + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2!8^2}x^2 + \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{3!8^3}x^3 + \cdots + \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n - 1)}{n!8^n}x^n + \cdots\right]$$

We know from (17) that this series converges when $|-x/4| < 1$, that is, $|x| < 4$, so the radius of convergence is $R = 4$. ■

For future reference we collect in the following table some important Maclaurin series that we have derived in this section and in Section 11.9.

Table 1
Important Maclaurin Series and Their Radii of Convergence

$\dfrac{1}{1 - x} = \displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots$	$R = 1$
$e^x = \displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$	$R = \infty$
$\sin x = \displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^n\frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n + 1)!} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots$	$R = \infty$
$\cos x = \displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^n\frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots$	$R = \infty$
$\tan^{-1}x = \displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^n\frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n + 1} = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \cdots$	$R = 1$
$\ln(1 + x) = \displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n-1}\frac{x^n}{n} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots$	$R = 1$
$(1 + x)^k = \displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\binom{k}{n}x^n = 1 + kx + \frac{k(k - 1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{k(k - 1)(k - 2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$	$R = 1$

New Taylor Series from Old

As we observed in Note 2, if a function has a power series representation at a, then the series is uniquely determined. That is, no matter how a power series representation for a function f is obtained, it must be the Taylor series of f. So, we can obtain new Taylor series representations by manipulating series from Table 1, rather than using the coefficient formula given in Theorem 5.

As we saw in the examples of Section 11.9, we can replace x in a given Taylor series by an expression of the form cx^m, we can multiply (or divide) the series by such an expression, and we can differentiate or integrate term by term (Theorem 11.9.2). It can be shown that we can also obtain new Taylor series by adding, subtracting, multiplying, or dividing Taylor series.

EXAMPLE 10 Find the Maclaurin series for (a) $f(x) = x\cos x$ and (b) $f(x) = \ln(1 + 3x^2)$.

SOLUTION
(a) We multiply the Maclaurin series for $\cos x$ (see Table 1) by x:

$$x\cos x = x\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^n\frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^n\frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n)!} \qquad \text{for all } x$$

(b) Replacing x by $3x^2$ in the Maclaurin series for $\ln(1 + x)$ gives

$$\ln(1 + 3x^2) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n-1}\frac{(3x^2)^n}{n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n-1}\frac{3^n x^{2n}}{n}$$

We know from Table 1 that this series converges for $|3x^2| < 1$, that is $|x| < 1/\sqrt{3}$, so the radius of convergence is $R = 1/\sqrt{3}$. ■

EXAMPLE 11 Find the function represented by the power series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^n\frac{2^n x^n}{n!}$.

SOLUTION By writing

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^n\frac{2^n x^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\frac{(-2x)^n}{n!}$$

we see that this series is obtained by replacing x with $-2x$ in the series for e^x (in Table 1). Thus the series represents the function e^{-2x}. ■

EXAMPLE 12 Find the sum of the series $\dfrac{1}{1\cdot 2} - \dfrac{1}{2\cdot 2^2} + \dfrac{1}{3\cdot 2^3} - \dfrac{1}{4\cdot 2^4} + \cdots$.

SOLUTION With sigma notation we can write the given series as

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n-1}\frac{1}{n\cdot 2^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n-1}\frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n}{n}$$

Then from Table 1 we see that this series matches the entry for $\ln(1 + x)$ with $x = \frac{1}{2}$. So

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n-1}\frac{1}{n\cdot 2^n} = \ln\left(1 + \tfrac{1}{2}\right) = \ln\tfrac{3}{2}$$ ■

One reason that Taylor series are important is that they enable us to integrate functions that we couldn't previously handle. In fact, in the introduction to this chapter we mentioned that Newton often integrated functions by first expressing them as power series and then integrating the series term by term. The function $f(x) = e^{-x^2}$ can't be integrated by techniques discussed so far because its antiderivative is not an elementary function (see Section 7.5). In the following example we use Newton's idea to integrate this function.

EXAMPLE 13

(a) Evaluate $\int e^{-x^2}\,dx$ as an infinite series.

(b) Evaluate $\int_0^1 e^{-x^2}\,dx$ correct to within an error of 0.001.

SOLUTION

(a) First we find the Maclaurin series for $f(x) = e^{-x^2}$. Although it's possible to use the direct method, let's find it by simply replacing x with $-x^2$ in the series for e^x given in Table 1. Thus, for all values of x,

$$e^{-x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-x^2)^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{n!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{1!} + \frac{x^4}{2!} - \frac{x^6}{3!} + \cdots$$

Now we integrate term by term:

$$\int e^{-x^2}\,dx = \int \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{1!} + \frac{x^4}{2!} - \frac{x^6}{3!} + \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{n!} + \cdots\right) dx$$

$$= C + x - \frac{x^3}{3 \cdot 1!} + \frac{x^5}{5 \cdot 2!} - \frac{x^7}{7 \cdot 3!} + \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)n!} + \cdots$$

This series converges for all x because the original series for e^{-x^2} converges for all x.

(b) The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus gives

We can take $C = 0$ in the antiderivative in part (a).

$$\int_0^1 e^{-x^2}\,dx = \left[x - \frac{x^3}{3 \cdot 1!} + \frac{x^5}{5 \cdot 2!} - \frac{x^7}{7 \cdot 3!} + \frac{x^9}{9 \cdot 4!} - \cdots\right]_0^1$$

$$= 1 - \tfrac{1}{3} + \tfrac{1}{10} - \tfrac{1}{42} + \tfrac{1}{216} - \cdots \approx 1 - \tfrac{1}{3} + \tfrac{1}{10} - \tfrac{1}{42} + \tfrac{1}{216} \approx 0.7475$$

The Alternating Series Estimation Theorem shows that the error involved in this approximation is less than

$$\frac{1}{11 \cdot 5!} = \frac{1}{1320} < 0.001 \qquad \blacksquare$$

Taylor series can also be used to evaluate limits, as illustrated in the next example. (Some mathematical software computes limits in this way.)

EXAMPLE 14 Evaluate $\displaystyle\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^x - 1 - x}{x^2}$.

SOLUTION Using the Maclaurin series for e^x from Table 1, we see that the Maclaurin series for $(e^x - 1 - x)/x^2$ is

$$\frac{e^x - 1 - x}{x^2} = \left[\left(1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots\right) - 1 - x\right] \Big/ x^2$$

The limit in Example 14 could also be computed using l'Hospital's Rule.

$$= \frac{1}{x^2}\left(\frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \cdots\right) = \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{x}{3!} + \frac{x^2}{4!} + \cdots$$

Thus

$$\lim_{x\to 0}\frac{e^x-1-x}{x^2}=\lim_{x\to 0}\left(\frac{1}{2!}+\frac{x}{3!}+\frac{x^2}{4!}+\cdots\right)$$

$$=\frac{1}{2!}+0+0+\cdots=\frac{1}{2}$$

because power series are continuous functions. ■

■ Multiplication and Division of Power Series

If power series are added or subtracted, they behave like polynomials (Theorem 11.2.8 shows this). In fact, as the following example illustrates, they can also be multiplied and divided like polynomials. We find only the first few terms because the calculations for the later terms become tedious and the initial terms are the most important ones.

EXAMPLE 15 Find the first three nonzero terms in the Maclaurin series for (a) $e^x \sin x$ and (b) $\tan x$.

SOLUTION

(a) Using the Maclaurin series for e^x and $\sin x$ in Table 1, we have

$$e^x \sin x=\left(1+\frac{x}{1!}+\frac{x^2}{2!}+\frac{x^3}{3!}+\cdots\right)\left(x-\frac{x^3}{3!}+\cdots\right)$$

We multiply these expressions, collecting like terms just as for polynomials:

$$\begin{array}{rl} & 1+x+\frac{1}{2}x^2+\frac{1}{6}x^3+\cdots \\ \times & x \qquad\quad -\frac{1}{6}x^3+\cdots \\ \hline & x+x^2+\frac{1}{2}x^3+\frac{1}{6}x^4+\cdots \\ + & \qquad\quad -\frac{1}{6}x^3-\frac{1}{6}x^4-\cdots \\ \hline & x+x^2+\frac{1}{3}x^3+\cdots \end{array}$$

Thus $$e^x \sin x = x + x^2 + \tfrac{1}{3}x^3 + \cdots$$

(b) Using the Maclaurin series in Table 1, we have

$$\tan x=\frac{\sin x}{\cos x}=\frac{x-\dfrac{x^3}{3!}+\dfrac{x^5}{5!}-\cdots}{1-\dfrac{x^2}{2!}+\dfrac{x^4}{4!}-\cdots}$$

We use a procedure like long division:

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & x+\frac{1}{3}x^3+\frac{2}{15}x^5+\cdots \\ \hline 1-\frac{1}{2}x^2+\frac{1}{24}x^4-\cdots & x-\frac{1}{6}x^3+\frac{1}{120}x^5-\cdots \\ & x-\frac{1}{2}x^3+\frac{1}{24}x^5-\cdots \\ \hline & \frac{1}{3}x^3-\frac{1}{30}x^5+\cdots \\ & \frac{1}{3}x^3-\frac{1}{6}x^5+\cdots \\ \hline & \frac{2}{15}x^5+\cdots \end{array}$$

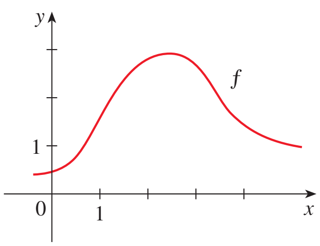
Thus $$\tan x = x + \tfrac{1}{3}x^3 + \tfrac{2}{15}x^5 + \cdots$$ ■

Although we have not attempted to justify the formal manipulations that were used in Example 15, they are legitimate. There is a theorem which states that if both $f(x) = \Sigma c_n x^n$ and $g(x) = \Sigma b_n x^n$ converge for $|x| < R$ and the series are multiplied as if they were polynomials, then the resulting series also converges for $|x| < R$ and represents $f(x)g(x)$. For division we require $b_0 \neq 0$; the resulting series converges for sufficiently small $|x|$.

11.10 Exercises

1. If $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n(x-5)^n$ for all x, write a formula for b_8.

2. The graph of f is shown.



(a) Explain why the series $1.1 + 0.7x^2 + 2.2x^3 + \cdots$ is *not* the Maclaurin series of f.

(b) Explain why the series

$$1.6 - 0.8(x-1) + 0.4(x-1)^2 - 0.1(x-1)^3 + \cdots$$

is *not* the Taylor series of f centered at 1.

(c) Explain why the series

$$2.8 + 0.5(x-2) + 1.5(x-2)^2 - 0.1(x-2)^3 + \cdots$$

is *not* the Taylor series of f centered at 2.

3. If $f^{(n)}(0) = (n+1)!$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, find the Maclaurin series for f and its radius of convergence.

4. Find the Taylor series for f centered at 4 if

$$f^{(n)}(4) = \frac{(-1)^n n!}{3^n(n+1)}$$

What is the radius of convergence of the Taylor series?

5–10 Use the definition of a Taylor series to find the first four nonzero terms of the series for $f(x)$ centered at the given value of a.

5. $f(x) = xe^x$, $a = 0$

6. $f(x) = \dfrac{1}{1+x}$, $a = 2$

7. $f(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$, $a = 8$

8. $f(x) = \ln x$, $a = 1$

9. $f(x) = \sin x$, $a = \pi/6$

10. $f(x) = \cos^2 x$, $a = 0$

11–20 Find the Maclaurin series for $f(x)$ using the definition of a Maclaurin series. [Assume that f has a power series expansion. Do not show that $R_n(x) \to 0$.] Also find the associated radius of convergence.

11. $f(x) = (1-x)^{-2}$

12. $f(x) = \ln(1+x)$

13. $f(x) = \cos x$

14. $f(x) = e^{-2x}$

15. $f(x) = 2x^4 - 3x^2 + 3$

16. $f(x) = \sin 3x$

17. $f(x) = 2^x$

18. $f(x) = x\cos x$

19. $f(x) = \sinh x$

20. $f(x) = \cosh x$

21–30 Find the Taylor series for $f(x)$ centered at the given value of a. [Assume that f has a power series expansion. Do not show that $R_n(x) \to 0$.] Also find the associated radius of convergence.

21. $f(x) = x^5 + 2x^3 + x$, $a = 2$

22. $f(x) = x^6 - x^4 + 2$, $a = -2$

23. $f(x) = \ln x$, $a = 2$

24. $f(x) = 1/x$, $a = -3$

25. $f(x) = e^{2x}$, $a = 3$

26. $f(x) = 1/x^2$, $a = 1$

27. $f(x) = \sin x$, $a = \pi$

28. $f(x) = \cos x$, $a = \pi/2$

29. $f(x) = \sin 2x$, $a = \pi$

30. $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$, $a = 16$

31. Prove that the series obtained in Exercise 13 represents $\cos x$ for all x.

32. Prove that the series obtained in Exercise 27 represents $\sin x$ for all x.

33. Prove that the series obtained in Exercise 19 represents $\sinh x$ for all x.

34. Prove that the series obtained in Exercise 20 represents $\cosh x$ for all x.

35–38 Use the binomial series to expand the given function as a power series. State the radius of convergence.

35. $\sqrt[4]{1-x}$

36. $\sqrt[3]{8+x}$

37. $\dfrac{1}{(2+x)^3}$

38. $(1-x)^{3/4}$

39–48 Use a Maclaurin series in Table 1 to obtain the Maclaurin series for the given function.

39. $f(x) = \arctan(x^2)$

40. $f(x) = \sin(\pi x/4)$

41. $f(x) = x\cos 2x$

42. $f(x) = e^{3x} - e^{2x}$

43. $f(x) = x\cos\left(\tfrac{1}{2}x^2\right)$

44. $f(x) = x^2\ln(1+x^3)$

45. $f(x) = \dfrac{x}{\sqrt{4 + x^2}}$

46. $f(x) = \dfrac{x^2}{\sqrt{2 + x}}$

47. $f(x) = \sin^2 x$ $\left[\textit{Hint: } \text{Use } \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x).\right]$

48. $f(x) = \begin{cases} \dfrac{x - \sin x}{x^3} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ \frac{1}{6} & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$

49. Use the definitions

$$\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \qquad \cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$$

and the Maclaurin series for e^x to show that

(a) $\sinh x = \displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n + 1)!}$

(b) $\cosh x = \displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$

50. Use the formula

$$\tanh^{-1} x = \frac{1}{2} \ln\left(\frac{1 + x}{1 - x}\right) \qquad -1 < x < 1$$

and the Maclaurin series for $\ln(1 + x)$ to show that

$$\tanh^{-1} x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n + 1}$$

51–54 Find the Maclaurin series of f (by any method) and the associated radius of convergence. Graph f and its first few Taylor polynomials on the same screen. What do you notice about the relationship between these polynomials and f?

51. $f(x) = \cos(x^2)$

52. $f(x) = \ln(1 + x^2)$

53. $f(x) = xe^{-x}$

54. $f(x) = \tan^{-1}(x^3)$

55. Use the Maclaurin series for $\cos x$ to compute $\cos 5°$ correct to five decimal places.

56. Use the Maclaurin series for e^x to calculate $1/\sqrt[10]{e}$ correct to five decimal places.

57. (a) Use the binomial series to expand $1/\sqrt{1 - x^2}$.
(b) Use part (a) to find the Maclaurin series for $\sin^{-1} x$.

58. (a) Expand $1/\sqrt[4]{1 + x}$ as a power series.
(b) Use part (a) to estimate $1/\sqrt[4]{1.1}$ correct to three decimal places.

59–62 Evaluate the indefinite integral as an infinite series.

59. $\displaystyle\int \sqrt{1 + x^3}\, dx$

60. $\displaystyle\int x^2 \sin(x^2)\, dx$

61. $\displaystyle\int \frac{\cos x - 1}{x}\, dx$

62. $\displaystyle\int \arctan(x^2)\, dx$

63–66 Use series to approximate the definite integral to within the indicated accuracy.

63. $\displaystyle\int_0^{1/2} x^3 \arctan x\, dx$ (four decimal places)

64. $\displaystyle\int_0^1 \sin(x^4)\, dx$ (four decimal places)

65. $\displaystyle\int_0^{0.4} \sqrt{1 + x^4}\, dx$ $\left(|\text{error}| < 5 \times 10^{-6}\right)$

66. $\displaystyle\int_0^{0.5} x^2 e^{-x^2}\, dx$ $\left(|\text{error}| < 0.001\right)$

67–71 Use series to evaluate the limit.

67. $\displaystyle\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x - \ln(1 + x)}{x^2}$

68. $\displaystyle\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{1 + x - e^x}$

69. $\displaystyle\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x - x + \frac{1}{6}x^3}{x^5}$

70. $\displaystyle\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sqrt{1 + x} - 1 - \frac{1}{2}x}{x^2}$

71. $\displaystyle\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x^3 - 3x + 3\tan^{-1} x}{x^5}$

72. Use the series in Example 15(b) to evaluate

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\tan x - x}{x^3}$$

We found this limit in Example 4.4.4 using l'Hospital's Rule three times. Which method do you prefer?

73–78 Use multiplication or division of power series to find the first three nonzero terms in the Maclaurin series for each function.

73. $y = e^{-x^2} \cos x$

74. $y = \sec x$

75. $y = \dfrac{x}{\sin x}$

76. $y = e^x \ln(1 + x)$

77. $y = (\arctan x)^2$

78. $y = e^x \sin^2 x$

79–82 Find the function represented by the given power series.

79. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{4n}}{n!}$

80. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^{4n}}{n}$

81. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2^{2n+1}(2n + 1)}$

82. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2^{2n+1}(2n + 1)!}$

83–90 Find the sum of the series.

83. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!}$

84. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \pi^{2n}}{6^{2n}(2n)!}$

85. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{3^n}{n\, 5^n}$

86. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{5^n n!}$

87. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \pi^{2n+1}}{4^{2n+1}(2n+1)!}$

88. $1 - \ln 2 + \dfrac{(\ln 2)^2}{2!} - \dfrac{(\ln 2)^3}{3!} + \cdots$

89. $3 + \dfrac{9}{2!} + \dfrac{27}{3!} + \dfrac{81}{4!} + \cdots$

90. $\dfrac{1}{1 \cdot 2} - \dfrac{1}{3 \cdot 2^3} + \dfrac{1}{5 \cdot 2^5} - \dfrac{1}{7 \cdot 2^7} + \cdots$

---

91. Show that if p is an nth-degree polynomial, then

$$p(x+1) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{p^{(i)}(x)}{i!}$$

92. Use the Maclaurin series for $f(x) = x/(1+x^2)$ to find $f^{(101)}(0)$.

93. Use the Maclaurin series for $f(x) = x\sin(x^2)$ to find $f^{(203)}(0)$.

94. If $f(x) = (1+x^3)^{30}$, what is $f^{(58)}(0)$?

95. Prove Taylor's Inequality for $n = 2$, that is, prove that if $|f'''(x)| \leqslant M$ for $|x - a| \leqslant d$, then

$$|R_2(x)| \leqslant \frac{M}{6}|x-a|^3 \qquad \text{for } |x-a| \leqslant d$$

96. (a) Show that the function defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-1/x^2} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

is not equal to its Maclaurin series.

(b) Graph the function in part (a) and comment on its behavior near the origin.

97. Use the following steps to prove Theorem 17.

(a) Let $g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n$. Differentiate this series to show that

$$g'(x) = \frac{kg(x)}{1+x} \qquad -1 < x < 1$$

(b) Let $h(x) = (1+x)^{-k} g(x)$ and show that $h'(x) = 0$.

(c) Deduce that $g(x) = (1+x)^k$.

98. In Exercise 10.2.62 it was shown that the length of the ellipse $x = a\sin\theta$, $y = b\cos\theta$, where $a > b > 0$, is

$$L = 4a\int_0^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1 - e^2\sin^2\theta}\, d\theta$$

where $e = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2}/a$ is the eccentricity of the ellipse.

Expand the integrand as a binomial series and use the result of Exercise 7.1.56 to express L as a series in powers of the eccentricity up to the term in e^6.

DISCOVERY PROJECT | T AN ELUSIVE LIMIT

This project deals with the function

$$f(x) = \frac{\sin(\tan x) - \tan(\sin x)}{\arcsin(\arctan x) - \arctan(\arcsin x)}$$

1. Use a computer algebra system to evaluate $f(x)$ for $x = 1, 0.1, 0.01, 0.001$, and 0.0001. (A calculator may not provide accurate values.) Does it appear that f has a limit as $x \to 0$?

2. Use the CAS to graph f near $x = 0$. Does it appear that f has a limit as $x \to 0$?

3. Try to evaluate $\lim_{x\to 0} f(x)$ with l'Hospital's Rule, using the CAS to find derivatives of the numerator and denominator. What do you discover? How many applications of l'Hospital's Rule are required?

4. Evaluate $\lim_{x\to 0} f(x)$ by using the CAS to find sufficiently many terms in the Taylor series of the numerator and denominator.

5. Use the limit command on the CAS to find $\lim_{x\to 0} f(x)$ directly. (Most computer algebra systems use the method of Problem 4 to compute limits.)

6. In view of the answers to Problems 4 and 5, how do you explain the results of Problems 1 and 2?

WRITING PROJECT | HOW NEWTON DISCOVERED THE BINOMIAL SERIES

The Binomial Theorem, which gives the expansion of $(a + b)^k$, was known to Chinese mathematicians many centuries before the time of Newton for the case where the exponent k is a positive integer. In 1665, when he was 22, Newton was the first to discover the infinite series expansion of $(a + b)^k$ when k is a fractional exponent (positive or negative). He didn't publish his discovery, but he stated it and gave examples of how to use it in a letter (now called the *epistola prior*) dated June 13, 1676, that he sent to Henry Oldenburg, secretary of the Royal Society of London, to transmit to Leibniz. When Leibniz replied, he asked how Newton had discovered the binomial series. Newton wrote a second letter, the *epistola posterior* of October 24, 1676, in which he explained in great detail how he arrived at his discovery by a very indirect route. He was investigating the areas under the curves $y = (1 - x^2)^{n/2}$ from 0 to x for $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \ldots$. These are easy to calculate if n is even. By observing patterns and interpolating, Newton was able to guess the answers for odd values of n. Then he realized he could get the same answers by expressing $(1 - x^2)^{n/2}$ as an infinite series.

Write an essay on Newton's discovery of the binomial series. Start by giving the statement of the binomial series in Newton's notation (see the *epistola prior* on page 285 of [4] or page 402 of [2]). Explain why Newton's version is equivalent to Theorem 11.10.17. Then read Newton's *epistola posterior* (page 287 in [4] or page 404 in [2]) and explain the patterns that Newton discovered in the areas under the curves $y = (1 - x^2)^{n/2}$. Show how he was able to guess the areas under the remaining curves and how he verified his answers. Finally, explain how these discoveries led to the binomial series. The books by Edwards [1] and Katz [3] contain commentaries on Newton's letters.

1. C. H. Edwards, Jr., *The Historical Development of the Calculus* (New York: Springer-Verlag, 1979), pp. 178–87.

2. Jahn Fauvel and Jeremy Gray, eds., *The History of Mathematics: A Reader* (Basingstoke, UK: MacMillan Education, 1987).

3. Victor Katz, *A History of Mathematics: An Introduction*, 3rd ed. (Boston: Addison-Wesley, 2009), pp. 543–82.

4. D. J. Struik, ed., *A Source Book in Mathematics, 1200–1800* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1969).

11.11 Applications of Taylor Polynomials

In this section we explore two types of applications of Taylor polynomials. First we look at how they are used to approximate functions—computer scientists employ them because polynomials are the simplest of functions. Then we investigate how physicists and engineers use them in such fields as relativity, optics, blackbody radiation, electric dipoles, the velocity of water waves, and building highways across a desert.

Approximating Functions by Polynomials

Suppose that $f(x)$ is equal to the sum of its Taylor series at a:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n$$

In Section 11.10 we introduced the notation $T_n(x)$ for the nth partial sum of this series and called it the nth-degree Taylor polynomial of f at a. Thus

$$T_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!}(x-a)^i$$

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

Since f is the sum of its Taylor series, we know that $T_n(x) \to f(x)$ as $n \to \infty$ and so T_n can be used as an approximation to f: $f(x) \approx T_n(x)$.

Notice that the first-degree Taylor polynomial

$$T_1(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a)$$

is the same as the linearization of f at a that we discussed in Section 3.10. Notice also that T_1 and its derivative have the same values at a that f and f' have. In general, it can be shown that the derivatives of T_n at a agree with those of f up to and including derivatives of order n.

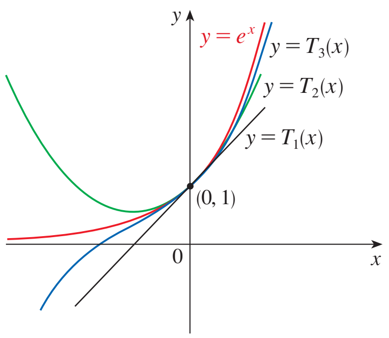


FIGURE 1

To illustrate these ideas let's take another look at the graphs of $y = e^x$ and its first few Taylor polynomials, as shown in Figure 1. The graph of T_1 is the tangent line to $y = e^x$ at (0, 1); this tangent line is the best linear approximation to e^x near (0, 1). The graph of T_2 is the parabola $y = 1 + x + x^2/2$, and the graph of T_3 is the cubic curve $y = 1 + x + x^2/2 + x^3/6$, which is a closer fit to the exponential curve $y = e^x$ than T_2. The next Taylor polynomial T_4 would be an even better approximation, and so on.

	$x = 0.2$	$x = 3.0$
$T_2(x)$	1.220000	8.500000
$T_4(x)$	1.221400	16.375000
$T_6(x)$	1.221403	19.412500
$T_8(x)$	1.221403	20.009152
$T_{10}(x)$	1.221403	20.079665
e^x	1.221403	20.085537

The values in the table give a numerical demonstration of the convergence of the Taylor polynomials $T_n(x)$ to the function $y = e^x$. We see that when $x = 0.2$ the convergence is very rapid, but when $x = 3$ it is somewhat slower. In fact, the farther x is from 0, the more slowly $T_n(x)$ converges to e^x.

When using a Taylor polynomial T_n to approximate a function f, we have to ask the questions: How good an approximation is it? How large should we take n to be in order to achieve a desired accuracy? To answer these questions we need to look at the absolute value of the remainder:

$$|R_n(x)| = |f(x) - T_n(x)|$$

There are three possible methods for estimating the size of the error:

1. We can use a calculator or computer to graph $|R_n(x)| = |f(x) - T_n(x)|$ and thereby estimate the error.

2. If the series happens to be an alternating series, we can use the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem.

3. In all cases we can use Taylor's Inequality (Theorem 11.10.9), which says that if $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| \leqslant M$, then

$$|R_n(x)| \leqslant \frac{M}{(n+1)!}|x-a|^{n+1}$$

EXAMPLE 1

(a) Approximate the function $f(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$ by a Taylor polynomial of degree 2 at $a = 8$.
(b) How accurate is this approximation when $7 \leqslant x \leqslant 9$?

SOLUTION

(a)

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sqrt[3]{x} = x^{1/3} & f(8) &= 2 \\ f'(x) &= \tfrac{1}{3}x^{-2/3} & f'(8) &= \tfrac{1}{12} \\ f''(x) &= -\tfrac{2}{9}x^{-5/3} & f''(8) &= \tfrac{1}{144} \\ f'''(x) &= \tfrac{10}{27}x^{-8/3} \end{aligned}$$

Thus the second-degree Taylor polynomial is

$$\begin{aligned} T_2(x) &= f(8) + \frac{f'(8)}{1!}(x-8) + \frac{f''(8)}{2!}(x-8)^2 \\ &= 2 + \tfrac{1}{12}(x-8) - \tfrac{1}{288}(x-8)^2 \end{aligned}$$

The desired approximation is

$$\sqrt[3]{x} \approx T_2(x) = 2 + \tfrac{1}{12}(x-8) - \tfrac{1}{288}(x-8)^2$$

(b) The Taylor series is not alternating when $x < 8$, so we can't use the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem in this example. But we can use Taylor's Inequality with $n = 2$ and $a = 8$:

$$|R_2(x)| \leqslant \frac{M}{3!}|x-8|^3$$

where $|f'''(x)| \leqslant M$. Because $x \geqslant 7$, we have $x^{8/3} \geqslant 7^{8/3}$ and so

$$f'''(x) = \frac{10}{27} \cdot \frac{1}{x^{8/3}} \leqslant \frac{10}{27} \cdot \frac{1}{7^{8/3}} < 0.0021$$

Therefore we can take $M = 0.0021$. Also $7 \leqslant x \leqslant 9$, so $-1 \leqslant x - 8 \leqslant 1$ and $|x - 8| \leqslant 1$. Then Taylor's Inequality gives

$$|R_2(x)| \leqslant \frac{0.0021}{3!} \cdot 1^3 = \frac{0.0021}{6} < 0.0004$$

Thus, if $7 \leqslant x \leqslant 9$, the approximation in part (a) is accurate to within 0.0004. ■

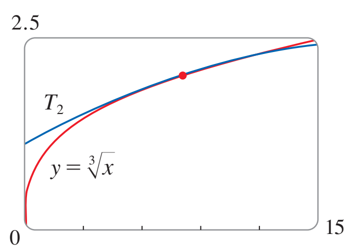


FIGURE 2

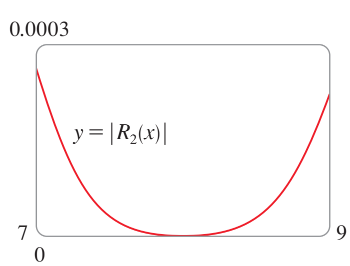


FIGURE 3

Let's check the calculation in Example 1 graphically. Figure 2 shows that the graphs of $y = \sqrt[3]{x}$ and $y = T_2(x)$ are very close to each other when x is near 8. Figure 3 shows the graph of $|R_2(x)|$ computed from the expression

$$|R_2(x)| = |\sqrt[3]{x} - T_2(x)|$$

We see from the graph that

$$|R_2(x)| < 0.0003$$

when $7 \leqslant x \leqslant 9$. Thus the error estimate from graphical methods is slightly better than the error estimate from Taylor's Inequality in this case.

EXAMPLE 2

(a) What is the maximum error possible in using the approximation

$$\sin x \approx x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!}$$

when $-0.3 \leqslant x \leqslant 0.3$? Use this approximation to find $\sin 12°$ correct to six decimal places.

(b) For what values of x is this approximation accurate to within 0.00005?

SOLUTION

(a) Notice that the Maclaurin series

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots$$

is alternating for all nonzero values of x, and the successive terms decrease in size because $|x| < 1$, so we can use the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem. The error in approximating $\sin x$ by the first three terms of its Maclaurin series is at most

$$\left|\frac{x^7}{7!}\right| = \frac{|x|^7}{5040}$$

If $-0.3 \leqslant x \leqslant 0.3$, then $|x| \leqslant 0.3$, so the error is smaller than

$$\frac{(0.3)^7}{5040} \approx 4.3 \times 10^{-8}$$

To find $\sin 12°$ we first convert to radian measure:

$$\sin 12° = \sin\left(\frac{12\pi}{180}\right) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{15}\right)$$

$$\approx \frac{\pi}{15} - \left(\frac{\pi}{15}\right)^3 \frac{1}{3!} + \left(\frac{\pi}{15}\right)^5 \frac{1}{5!} \approx 0.20791169$$

Thus, correct to six decimal places, $\sin 12° \approx 0.207912$.

(b) The error will be smaller than 0.00005 if

$$\frac{|x|^7}{5040} < 0.00005$$

Solving this inequality for x, we get

$$|x|^7 < 0.252 \qquad \text{or} \qquad |x| < (0.252)^{1/7} \approx 0.821$$

So the given approximation is accurate to within 0.00005 when $|x| < 0.82$. ■

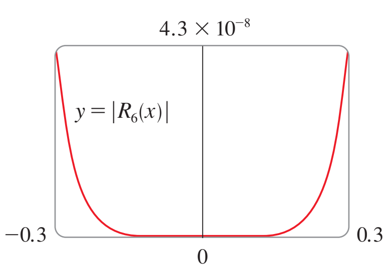


FIGURE 4

What if we use Taylor's Inequality to solve Example 2? Since $f^{(7)}(x) = -\cos x$, we have $|f^{(7)}(x)| \leqslant 1$ and so

$$|R_6(x)| \leqslant \frac{1}{7!}|x|^7$$

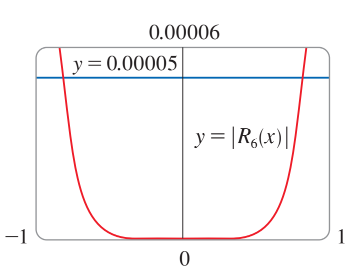


FIGURE 5

So we get the same estimates as with the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem.

What about graphical methods? Figure 4 shows the graph of

$$|R_6(x)| = \left|\sin x - \left(x - \tfrac{1}{6}x^3 + \tfrac{1}{120}x^5\right)\right|$$

and we see from it that $|R_6(x)| < 4.3 \times 10^{-8}$ when $|x| \leqslant 0.3$. This is the same estimate that we obtained in Example 2. For part (b) we want $|R_6(x)| < 0.00005$, so we graph both $y = |R_6(x)|$ and $y = 0.00005$ in Figure 5. From the coordinates of the right intersection point we find that the inequality is satisfied when $|x| < 0.82$. Again this is the same estimate that we obtained in the solution to Example 2.

If we had been asked to approximate sin 72° instead of sin 12° in Example 2, it would have been wise to use the Taylor polynomials at $a = \pi/3$ (instead of $a = 0$) because they are better approximations to $\sin x$ for values of x close to $\pi/3$. Notice that 72° is close to 60° (or $\pi/3$ radians) and the derivatives of $\sin x$ are easy to compute at $\pi/3$.

Figure 6 shows the graphs of the Maclaurin polynomial approximations

$$T_1(x) = x \qquad\qquad T_3(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!}$$

$$T_5(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} \qquad\qquad T_7(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!}$$

to the sine curve. You can see that as n increases, $T_n(x)$ is a good approximation to $\sin x$ on a larger and larger interval.

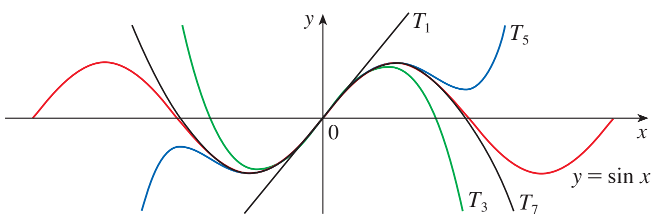


FIGURE 6

One use of the type of calculation done in Examples 1 and 2 occurs in calculators and computers. For instance, when you press the sin or e^x key on your calculator, or when a computer programmer uses a subroutine for a trigonometric or exponential or Bessel function, in many machines a polynomial approximation is calculated. The polynomial is often a Taylor polynomial that has been modified so that the error is spread more evenly throughout an interval.

Applications to Physics

Taylor polynomials are also used frequently in physics. In order to gain insight into an equation, a physicist often simplifies a function by considering only the first two or three terms in its Taylor series. In other words, the physicist uses a Taylor polynomial as an approximation to the function. Taylor's Inequality can then be used to gauge the accuracy of the approximation. The following example shows one way in which this idea is used in special relativity.

EXAMPLE 3 In Einstein's theory of special relativity the mass m of an object moving with velocity v is

$$m = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

where m_0 is the mass of the object when at rest and c is the speed of light. The kinetic energy k of the object is the difference between its total energy and its energy at rest:

$$K = mc^2 - m_0c^2$$

(a) Show that when v is very small compared with c, this expression for K agrees with classical Newtonian physics: $K = \frac{1}{2}m_0v^2$.

(b) Use Taylor's Inequality to estimate the difference in these expressions for K when $|v| \leqslant 100$ m/s.

SOLUTION

(a) Using the expressions given for K and m, we get

$$K = mc^2 - m_0c^2 = \frac{m_0c^2}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} - m_0c^2 = m_0c^2\left[\left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-1/2} - 1\right]$$

The upper curve in Figure 7 is the graph of the expression for the kinetic energy K of an object with velocity v in special relativity. The lower curve shows the function used for K in classical Newtonian physics. When v is much smaller than the speed of light, the curves are practically identical.

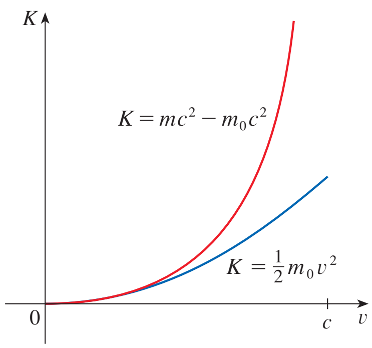


FIGURE 7

With $x = -v^2/c^2$, the Maclaurin series for $(1 + x)^{-1/2}$ is most easily computed as a binomial series with $k = -\frac{1}{2}$. (Notice that $|x| < 1$ because $v < c$.) Therefore we have

$$\begin{aligned}(1 + x)^{-1/2} &= 1 - \tfrac{1}{2}x + \frac{(-\frac{1}{2})(-\frac{3}{2})}{2!}x^2 + \frac{(-\frac{1}{2})(-\frac{3}{2})(-\frac{5}{2})}{3!}x^3 + \cdots \\ &= 1 - \tfrac{1}{2}x + \tfrac{3}{8}x^2 - \tfrac{5}{16}x^3 + \cdots\end{aligned}$$

and
$$\begin{aligned}K &= m_0c^2\left[\left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{v^2}{c^2} + \frac{3}{8}\frac{v^4}{c^4} + \frac{5}{16}\frac{v^6}{c^6} + \cdots\right) - 1\right] \\ &= m_0c^2\left(\frac{1}{2}\frac{v^2}{c^2} + \frac{3}{8}\frac{v^4}{c^4} + \frac{5}{16}\frac{v^6}{c^6} + \cdots\right)\end{aligned}$$

If v is much smaller than c, then all terms after the first are very small when compared with the first term. If we omit them, we get

$$K \approx m_0c^2\left(\frac{1}{2}\frac{v^2}{c^2}\right) = \tfrac{1}{2}m_0v^2$$

(b) If $x = -v^2/c^2$, $f(x) = m_0c^2[(1 + x)^{-1/2} - 1]$, and M is a number such that $|f''(x)| \leqslant M$, then we can use Taylor's Inequality to write

$$|R_1(x)| \leqslant \frac{M}{2!}x^2$$

We have $f''(x) = \frac{3}{4}m_0c^2(1 + x)^{-5/2}$ and we are given that $|v| \leqslant 100$ m/s, so

$$|f''(x)| = \frac{3m_0c^2}{4(1 - v^2/c^2)^{5/2}} \leqslant \frac{3m_0c^2}{4(1 - 100^2/c^2)^{5/2}} \quad (=M)$$

Thus, with $c = 3 \times 10^8$ m/s,

$$|R_1(x)| \leqslant \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3m_0c^2}{4(1 - 100^2/c^2)^{5/2}} \cdot \frac{100^4}{c^4} < (4.17 \times 10^{-10})m_0$$

So when $|v| \leqslant 100$ m/s, the magnitude of the error in using the Newtonian expression for kinetic energy is at most $(4.2 \times 10^{-10})m_0$. ■

Another application to physics occurs in optics. Figure 8 depicts a wave from the point source S meeting a spherical interface of radius R centered at C. The ray SA is refracted toward P.

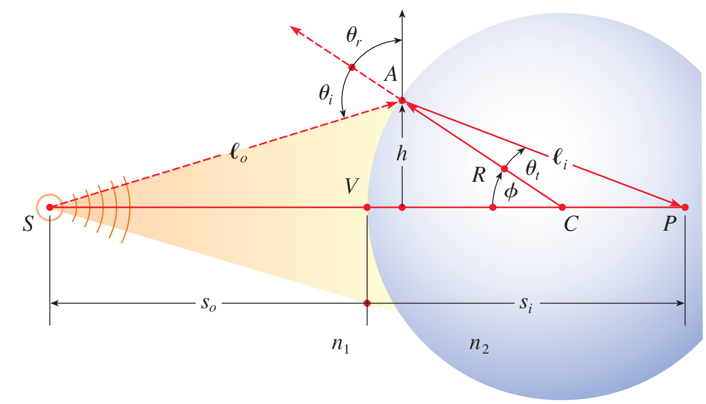


FIGURE 8
Refraction at a spherical interface

Using Fermat's principle that light travels so as to minimize the time taken, one can derive the equation

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \frac{n_1}{\ell_o} + \frac{n_2}{\ell_i} = \frac{1}{R}\left(\frac{n_2 s_i}{\ell_i} - \frac{n_1 s_o}{\ell_o}\right)$$

where n_1 and n_2 are indexes of refraction and ℓ_o, ℓ_i, s_o, and s_i are the distances indicated in Figure 8. By the Law of Cosines, applied to triangles ACS and ACP, we have

Here we use the identity

$$\cos(\pi - \phi) = -\cos\phi$$

$$\boxed{2} \qquad \ell_o = \sqrt{R^2 + (s_o + R)^2 - 2R(s_o + R)\cos\phi}$$

$$\ell_i = \sqrt{R^2 + (s_i - R)^2 + 2R(s_i - R)\cos\phi}$$

Because Equation 1 is cumbersome to work with, Gauss, in 1841, simplified it by using the linear approximation $\cos\phi \approx 1$ for small values of ϕ. (This amounts to using the Taylor polynomial of degree 1.) Then Equation 1 becomes the following simpler equation [as you are asked to show in Exercise 34(a)]:

$$\boxed{3} \qquad \frac{n_1}{s_o} + \frac{n_2}{s_i} = \frac{n_2 - n_1}{R}$$

The resulting optical theory is known as *Gaussian optics*, or *first-order optics*, and has become the basic theoretical tool used to design lenses.

A more accurate theory is obtained by approximating $\cos\phi$ by its Taylor polynomial of degree 3 (which is the same as the Taylor polynomial of degree 2). This takes into account rays for which ϕ is not so small, that is, rays that strike the surface at greater distances h above the axis. In Exercise 34(b) you are asked to use this approximation to derive the more accurate equation

$$\boxed{4} \qquad \frac{n_1}{s_o} + \frac{n_2}{s_i} = \frac{n_2 - n_1}{R} + h^2\left[\frac{n_1}{2s_o}\left(\frac{1}{s_o} + \frac{1}{R}\right)^2 + \frac{n_2}{2s_i}\left(\frac{1}{R} - \frac{1}{s_i}\right)^2\right]$$

The resulting optical theory is known as *third-order optics*.

Other applications of Taylor polynomials to physics and engineering are explored in Exercises 32, 33, 35, 36, 37, and 38, and in the Applied Project following this section.

11.11 Exercises

1. (a) Find the Taylor polynomials up to degree 5 for $f(x) = \sin x$ centered at $a = 0$. Graph f and these polynomials on a common screen.
(b) Evaluate f and these polynomials at $x = \pi/4$, $\pi/2$, and π.
(c) Comment on how the Taylor polynomials converge to $f(x)$.

2. (a) Find the Taylor polynomials up to degree 3 for $f(x) = \tan x$ centered at $a = 0$. Graph f and these polynomials on a common screen.
(b) Evaluate f and these polynomials at $x = \pi/6$, $\pi/4$, and $\pi/3$.
(c) Comment on how the Taylor polynomials converge to $f(x)$.

3–10 Find the Taylor polynomial $T_3(x)$ for the function f centered at the number a. Graph f and T_3 on the same screen.

3. $f(x) = e^x, \quad a = 1$

4. $f(x) = \sin x, \quad a = \pi/6$

5. $f(x) = \cos x, \quad a = \pi/2$

6. $f(x) = e^{-x} \sin x, \quad a = 0$

7. $f(x) = \ln x, \quad a = 1$

8. $f(x) = x \cos x, \quad a = 0$

9. $f(x) = xe^{-2x}, \quad a = 0$

10. $f(x) = \tan^{-1}x, \quad a = 1$

11–12 Use a computer algebra system to find the Taylor polynomials T_n centered at a for $n = 2, 3, 4, 5$. Then graph these polynomials and f on the same screen.

11. $f(x) = \cot x, \quad a = \pi/4$

12. $f(x) = \sqrt[3]{1 + x^2}, \quad a = 0$

13–22
(a) Approximate f by a Taylor polynomial with degree n at the number a.
(b) Use Taylor's Inequality to estimate the accuracy of the approximation $f(x) \approx T_n(x)$ when x lies in the given interval.
(c) Check your result in part (b) by graphing $|R_n(x)|$.

13. $f(x) = 1/x, \quad a = 1, \quad n = 2, \quad 0.7 \leqslant x \leqslant 1.3$

14. $f(x) = x^{-1/2}, \quad a = 4, \quad n = 2, \quad 3.5 \leqslant x \leqslant 4.5$

15. $f(x) = x^{2/3}, \quad a = 1, \quad n = 3, \quad 0.8 \leqslant x \leqslant 1.2$

16. $f(x) = \sin x, \quad a = \pi/6, \quad n = 4, \quad 0 \leqslant x \leqslant \pi/3$

17. $f(x) = \sec x, \quad a = 0, \quad n = 2, \quad -0.2 \leqslant x \leqslant 0.2$

18. $f(x) = \ln(1 + 2x), \quad a = 1, \quad n = 3, \quad 0.5 \leqslant x \leqslant 1.5$

19. $f(x) = e^{x^2}, \quad a = 0, \quad n = 3, \quad 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 0.1$

20. $f(x) = x \ln x, \quad a = 1, \quad n = 3, \quad 0.5 \leqslant x \leqslant 1.5$

21. $f(x) = x \sin x, \quad a = 0, \quad n = 4, \quad -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$

22. $f(x) = \sinh 2x, \quad a = 0, \quad n = 5, \quad -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$

23. Use the information from Exercise 5 to estimate $\cos 80°$ correct to five decimal places.

24. Use the information from Exercise 16 to estimate $\sin 38°$ correct to five decimal places.

25. Use Taylor's Inequality to determine the number of terms of the Maclaurin series for e^x that should be used to estimate $e^{0.1}$ to within 0.00001.

26. How many terms of the Maclaurin series for $\ln(1 + x)$ do you need to use to estimate $\ln 1.4$ to within 0.001?

27–29 Use the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem or Taylor's Inequality to estimate the range of values of x for which the given approximation is accurate to within the stated error. Check your answer graphically.

27. $\sin x \approx x - \dfrac{x^3}{6} \quad (|\text{error}| < 0.01)$

28. $\cos x \approx 1 - \dfrac{x^2}{2} + \dfrac{x^4}{24} \quad (|\text{error}| < 0.005)$

29. $\arctan x \approx x - \dfrac{x^3}{3} + \dfrac{x^5}{5} \quad (|\text{error}| < 0.05)$

30. Suppose you know that

$$f^{(n)}(4) = \frac{(-1)^n n!}{3^n(n + 1)}$$

and the Taylor series of f centered at 4 converges to $f(x)$ for all x in the interval of convergence. Show that the fifth-degree Taylor polynomial approximates $f(5)$ with error less than 0.0002.

31. A car is moving with speed 20 m/s and acceleration 2 m/s^2 at a given instant. Using a second-degree Taylor polynomial, estimate how far the car moves in the next second. Would it be reasonable to use this polynomial to estimate the distance traveled during the next minute?

32. The resistivity ρ of a conducting wire is the reciprocal of the conductivity and is measured in units of ohm-meters (Ω-m). The resistivity of a given metal depends on the temperature according to the equation

$$\rho(t) = \rho_{20} e^{\alpha(t-20)}$$

where t is the temperature in °C. There are tables that list the values of α (called the temperature coefficient) and ρ_{20} (the resistivity at 20°C) for various metals. Except at very low temperatures, the resistivity varies almost linearly with temperature and so it is common to approximate the expression for $\rho(t)$ by its first- or second-degree Taylor polynomial at $t = 20$.
(a) Find expressions for these linear and quadratic approximations.

(b) For copper, the tables give $\alpha = 0.0039/°\text{C}$ and $\rho_{20} = 1.7 \times 10^{-8}\ \Omega\text{-m}$. Graph the resistivity of copper and the linear and quadratic approximations for $-250°\text{C} \leqslant t \leqslant 1000°\text{C}$.

(c) For what values of t does the linear approximation agree with the exponential expression to within one percent?

33. An electric dipole consists of two electric charges of equal magnitude and opposite sign. If the charges are q and $-q$ and are located at a distance d from each other, then the electric field E at the point P in the figure is

$$E = \frac{q}{D^2} - \frac{q}{(D+d)^2}$$

By expanding this expression for E as a series in powers of d/D, show that E is approximately proportional to $1/D^3$ when P is far away from the dipole.

34. (a) Derive Equation 3 for Gaussian optics from Equation 1 by approximating $\cos \phi$ in Equation 2 by its first-degree Taylor polynomial.

(b) Show that if $\cos \phi$ is replaced by its third-degree Taylor polynomial in Equation 2, then Equation 1 becomes Equation 4 for third-order optics. [Hint: Use the first two terms in the binomial series for ℓ_o^{-1} and ℓ_i^{-1}. Also, use $\phi \approx \sin \phi$.]

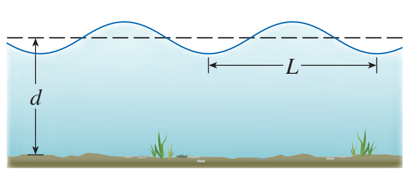
35. If a water wave with length L moves with velocity v across a body of water with depth d, as shown in the figure, then

$$v^2 = \frac{gL}{2\pi} \tanh \frac{2\pi d}{L}$$

(a) If the water is deep, show that $v \approx \sqrt{gL/(2\pi)}$.

(b) If the water is shallow, use the Maclaurin series for tanh to show that $v \approx \sqrt{gd}$. (Thus in shallow water the velocity of a wave tends to be independent of the length of the wave.)

(c) Use the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem to show that if $L > 10d$, then the estimate $v^2 \approx gd$ is accurate to within $0.014gL$.

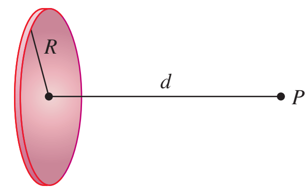


36. A uniformly charged disk has radius R and surface charge density σ as in the figure. The electric potential V at a point P at a distance d along the perpendicular central axis of the disk is

$$V = 2\pi k_e \sigma\left(\sqrt{d^2 + R^2} - d\right)$$

where k_e is a constant (called Coulomb's constant). Show that

$$V \approx \frac{\pi k_e R^2 \sigma}{d} \quad \text{for large } d$$



37. If a surveyor measures differences in elevation when making plans for a highway across a desert, corrections must be made for the curvature of the earth.

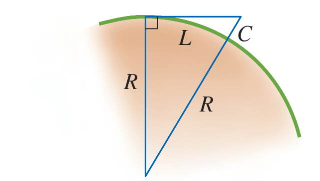
(a) If R is the radius of the earth and L is the length of the highway, show that the correction is

$$C = R \sec(L/R) - R$$

(b) Use a Taylor polynomial to show that

$$C \approx \frac{L^2}{2R} + \frac{5L^4}{24R^3}$$

(c) Compare the corrections given by the formulas in parts (a) and (b) for a highway that is 100 km long. (Take the radius of the earth to be 6370 km.)



38. The period of a pendulum with length L that makes a maximum angle θ_0 with the vertical is

$$T = 4\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}} \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1 - k^2 \sin^2 x}}$$

where $k = \sin\left(\frac{1}{2}\theta_0\right)$ and g is the acceleration due to gravity. (In Exercise 7.7.42 we approximated this integral using Simpson's Rule.)

(a) Expand the integrand as a binomial series and use the result of Exercise 7.1.56 to show that

$$T = 2\pi\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}\left[1 + \frac{1^2}{2^2}k^2 + \frac{1^2 3^2}{2^2 4^2}k^4 + \frac{1^2 3^2 5^2}{2^2 4^2 6^2}k^6 + \cdots\right]$$

If θ_0 is not too large, the approximation $T \approx 2\pi\sqrt{L/g}$, obtained by using only the first term in the series, is often used. A better approximation is obtained by using two terms:

$$T \approx 2\pi\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}\left(1 + \tfrac{1}{4}k^2\right)$$

(b) Notice that all the terms in the series after the first one have coefficients that are at most $\frac{1}{4}$. Use this fact to compare this series with a geometric series and show that

$$2\pi\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}\left(1+\tfrac{1}{4}k^2\right) \leqslant T \leqslant 2\pi\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}\,\frac{4-3k^2}{4-4k^2}$$

(c) Use the inequalities in part (b) to estimate the period of a pendulum with $L = 1$ meter and $\theta_0 = 10°$. How does it compare with the estimate $T \approx 2\pi\sqrt{L/g}$? What if $\theta_0 = 42°$?

39. In Section 4.8 we considered Newton's method for approximating a solution r of the equation $f(x) = 0$, and from an initial approximation x_1 we obtained successive approximations $x_2, x_3, \ldots$, where

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

Use Taylor's Inequality with $n = 1$, $a = x_n$, and $x = r$ to show that if $f''(x)$ exists on an interval I containing r, x_n, and x_{n+1}, and $|f''(x)| \leqslant M$, $|f'(x)| \geqslant K$ for all $x \in I$, then

$$|x_{n+1} - r| \leqslant \frac{M}{2K}|x_n - r|^2$$

[This means that if x_n is accurate to d decimal places, then x_{n+1} is accurate to about $2d$ decimal places. More precisely, if the error at stage n is at most 10^{-m}, then the error at stage $n + 1$ is at most $(M/2K)10^{-2m}$.]

APPLIED PROJECT | RADIATION FROM THE STARS


Luke Dodd / SCIENCE PHOTO LIBRARY / Getty Images

Any object emits radiation when heated. A *blackbody* is a system that absorbs all the radiation that falls on it. For instance, a matte black surface or a large cavity with a small hole in its wall (like a blast furnace) is a blackbody and emits blackbody radiation. Even the radiation from the sun is close to being blackbody radiation.

Proposed in the late 19th century, the Rayleigh-Jeans Law expresses the energy density of blackbody radiation of wavelength λ as

$$f(\lambda) = \frac{8\pi kT}{\lambda^4}$$

where λ is measured in meters, T is the temperature in kelvins (K), and k is Boltzmann's constant. The Rayleigh-Jeans Law agrees with experimental measurements for long wavelengths but disagrees drastically for short wavelengths. [The law predicts that $f(\lambda) \to \infty$ as $\lambda \to 0^+$ but experiments have shown that $f(\lambda) \to 0$.] This fact is known as the *ultraviolet catastrophe.*

In 1900 Max Planck found a better model (known now as Planck's Law) for blackbody radiation:

$$f(\lambda) = \frac{8\pi hc\lambda^{-5}}{e^{hc/(\lambda kT)} - 1}$$

where λ is measured in meters, T is the temperature (in kelvins), and

$$h = \text{Planck's constant} = 6.6262 \times 10^{-34}\ \text{J}\cdot\text{s}$$

$$c = \text{speed of light} = 2.997925 \times 10^{8}\ \text{m/s}$$

$$k = \text{Boltzmann's constant} = 1.3807 \times 10^{-23}\ \text{J/K}$$

1. Use l'Hospital's Rule to show that

$$\lim_{\lambda\to 0^+} f(\lambda) = 0 \qquad \text{and} \qquad \lim_{\lambda\to\infty} f(\lambda) = 0$$

for Planck's Law. So this law models blackbody radiation better than the Rayleigh-Jeans Law for short wavelengths.

2. Use a Taylor polynomial to show that, for large wavelengths, Planck's Law gives approximately the same values as the Rayleigh-Jeans Law.

3. Graph f as given by both laws on the same screen and comment on the similarities and differences. Use $T = 5700$ K (the temperature of the sun). (You may want to change from meters to the more convenient unit of micrometers: $1\ \mu\text{m} = 10^{-6}$ m.)

4. Use your graph in Problem 3 to estimate the value of λ for which $f(\lambda)$ is a maximum under Planck's Law.

5. Investigate how the graph of f changes as T varies. (Use Planck's Law.) In particular, graph f for the stars Betelgeuse ($T = 3400$ K), Procyon ($T = 6400$ K), and Sirius ($T = 9200$ K), as well as the sun. How does the total radiation emitted (the area under the curve) vary with T? Use the graph to comment on why Sirius is known as a blue star and Betelgeuse as a red star.

11 REVIEW

CONCEPT CHECK

Answers to the Concept Check are available at StewartCalculus.com.

1. (a) What is a convergent sequence?
(b) What is a convergent series?
(c) What does $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 3$ mean?
(d) What does $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = 3$ mean?

2. (a) What is a bounded sequence?
(b) What is a monotonic sequence?
(c) What can you say about a bounded monotonic sequence?

3. (a) What is a geometric series? Under what circumstances is it convergent? What is its sum?
(b) What is a p-series? Under what circumstances is it convergent?

4. Suppose $\sum a_n = 3$ and s_n is the nth partial sum of the series. What is $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$? What is $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n$?

5. State the following.
(a) The Test for Divergence
(b) The Integral Test
(c) The Direct Comparison Test
(d) The Limit Comparison Test
(e) The Alternating Series Test
(f) The Ratio Test
(g) The Root Test

6. (a) What is an absolutely convergent series?
(b) What can you say about such a series?
(c) What is a conditionally convergent series?

7. (a) If a series is convergent by the Integral Test, how do you estimate its sum?
(b) If a series is convergent by the Direct Comparison Test, how do you estimate its sum?
(c) If a series is convergent by the Alternating Series Test, how do you estimate its sum?

8. (a) Write the general form of a power series.
(b) What is the radius of convergence of a power series?
(c) What is the interval of convergence of a power series?

9. Suppose $f(x)$ is the sum of a power series with radius of convergence R.
(a) How do you differentiate f? What is the radius of convergence of the series for f'?
(b) How do you integrate f? What is the radius of convergence of the series for $\int f(x)\,dx$?

10. (a) Write an expression for the nth-degree Taylor polynomial of f centered at a.
(b) Write an expression for the Taylor series of f centered at a.
(c) Write an expression for the Maclaurin series of f.
(d) How do you show that $f(x)$ is equal to the sum of its Taylor series?
(e) State Taylor's Inequality.

11. Write the Maclaurin series and the interval of convergence for each of the following functions.
(a) $1/(1 - x)$ (b) e^x (c) $\sin x$
(d) $\cos x$ (e) $\tan^{-1}x$ (f) $\ln(1 + x)$

12. Write the binomial series expansion of $(1 + x)^k$. What is the radius of convergence of this series?

TRUE-FALSE QUIZ

Determine whether the statement is true or false. If it is true, explain why. If it is false, explain why or give an example that disproves the statement.

1. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$, then $\Sigma\, a_n$ is convergent.

2. The series $\Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-\sin 1}$ is convergent.

3. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_{2n+1} = L$.

4. If $\Sigma\, c_n 6^n$ is convergent, then $\Sigma\, c_n(-2)^n$ is convergent.

5. If $\Sigma\, c_n 6^n$ is convergent, then $\Sigma\, c_n(-6)^n$ is convergent.

6. If $\Sigma\, c_n x^n$ diverges when $x = 6$, then it diverges when $x = 10$.

7. The Ratio Test can be used to determine whether $\Sigma\, 1/n^3$ converges.

8. The Ratio Test can be used to determine whether $\Sigma\, 1/n!$ converges.

9. If $0 \leqslant a_n \leqslant b_n$ and $\Sigma\, b_n$ diverges, then $\Sigma\, a_n$ diverges.

10. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} = \frac{1}{e}$

11. If $-1 < \alpha < 1$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} \alpha^n = 0$.

12. If $\Sigma\, a_n$ is divergent, then $\Sigma\, |\, a_n \,|$ is divergent.

13. If $f(x) = 2x - x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \cdots$ converges for all x, then $f'''(0) = 2$.

14. If $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are divergent, then $\{a_n + b_n\}$ is divergent.

15. If $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ are divergent, then $\{a_n b_n\}$ is divergent.

16. If $\{a_n\}$ is decreasing and $a_n > 0$ for all n, then $\{a_n\}$ is convergent.

17. If $a_n > 0$ and $\Sigma\, a_n$ converges, then $\Sigma\, (-1)^n a_n$ converges.

18. If $a_n > 0$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} (a_{n+1}/a_n) < 1$, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$.

19. $0.99999\ldots = 1$

20. If $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 2$, then $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} (a_{n+3} - a_n) = 0$.

21. If a finite number of terms are added to a convergent series, then the new series is still convergent.

22. If $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = A$ and $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = B$, then $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n b_n = AB$.

EXERCISES

1–8 Determine whether the sequence is convergent or divergent. If it is convergent, find its limit.

1. $a_n = \dfrac{2 + n^3}{1 + 2n^3}$

2. $a_n = \dfrac{9^{n+1}}{10^n}$

3. $a_n = \dfrac{n^3}{1 + n^2}$

4. $a_n = \cos(n\pi/2)$

5. $a_n = \dfrac{n \sin n}{n^2 + 1}$

6. $a_n = \dfrac{\ln n}{\sqrt{n}}$

7. $\{(1 + 3/n)^{4n}\}$

8. $\{(-10)^n/n!\}$

9. A sequence is defined recursively by the equations $a_1 = 1$, $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{3}(a_n + 4)$. Show that $\{a_n\}$ is increasing and $a_n < 2$ for all n. Deduce that $\{a_n\}$ is convergent and find its limit.

10. Show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} n^4 e^{-n} = 0$ and use a graph to find the smallest value of N that corresponds to $\varepsilon = 0.1$ in the precise definition of a limit.

11–22 Determine whether the series is convergent or divergent.

11. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^3 + 1}$

12. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 + 1}{n^3 + 1}$

13. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^3}{5^n}$

14. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt{n + 1}}$

15. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n\sqrt{\ln n}}$

16. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln\left(\frac{n}{3n + 1}\right)$

17. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos 3n}{1 + (1.2)^n}$

18. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^{2n}}{(1 + 2n^2)^n}$

19. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n - 1)}{5^n n!}$

20. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-5)^{2n}}{n^2 9^n}$

21. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{n + 1}$

22. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n + 1} - \sqrt{n - 1}}{n}$

23–26 Determine whether the series is absolutely convergent, conditionally convergent, or divergent.

23. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} n^{-1/3}$

24. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} n^{-3}$

25. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n (n + 1) 3^n}{2^{2n+1}}$

26. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \sqrt{n}}{\ln n}$

27–31 Find the sum of the series.

27. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^{n-1}}{2^{3n}}$

28. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+3)}$

29. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [\tan^{-1}(n+1) - \tan^{-1}n]$

30. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \pi^n}{3^{2n}(2n)!}$

31. $1 - e + \dfrac{e^2}{2!} - \dfrac{e^3}{3!} + \dfrac{e^4}{4!} - \cdots$

32. Express the repeating decimal 4.17326326326 . . . as a fraction.

33. Show that $\cosh x \geqslant 1 + \frac{1}{2}x^2$ for all x.

34. For what values of x does the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\ln x)^n$ converge?

35. Find the sum of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^5}$$

correct to four decimal places.

36. (a) Find the partial sum s_5 of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n^6$ and estimate the error in using it as an approximation to the sum of the series.
(b) Find the sum of this series correct to five decimal places.

37. Use the sum of the first eight terms to approximate the sum of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (2 + 5^n)^{-1}$. Estimate the error involved in this approximation.

38. (a) Show that the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{(2n)!}$ is convergent.

(b) Deduce that $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n^n}{(2n)!} = 0$.

39. Prove that if the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is absolutely convergent, then the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right) a_n$$

is also absolutely convergent.

40–43 Find the radius of convergence and interval of convergence of the series.

40. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^n}{n^2 5^n}$

41. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x+2)^n}{n\,4^n}$

42. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n(x-2)^n}{(n+2)!}$

43. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^n(x-3)^n}{\sqrt{n+3}}$

44. Find the radius of convergence of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2n)!}{(n!)^2} x^n$$

45. Find the Taylor series of $f(x) = \sin x$ at $a = \pi/6$.

46. Find the Taylor series of $f(x) = \cos x$ at $a = \pi/3$.

47–54 Find the Maclaurin series for f and the associated radius of convergence. You may use either the direct method (definition of a Maclaurin series) or the Maclaurin series listed in Table 11.10.1.

47. $f(x) = \dfrac{x^2}{1+x}$

48. $f(x) = \tan^{-1}(x^2)$

49. $f(x) = \ln(4 - x)$

50. $f(x) = xe^{2x}$

51. $f(x) = \sin(x^4)$

52. $f(x) = 10^x$

53. $f(x) = 1/\sqrt[4]{16 - x}$

54. $f(x) = (1 - 3x)^{-5}$

55. Evaluate $\displaystyle\int \frac{e^x}{x}\,dx$ as an infinite series.

56. Use series to approximate $\int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + x^4}\,dx$ correct to two decimal places.

57–58
(a) Approximate f by a Taylor polynomial with degree n at the number a.
(b) Graph f and T_n on a common screen.
(c) Use Taylor's Inequality to estimate the accuracy of the approximation $f(x) \approx T_n(x)$ when x lies in the given interval.
(d) Check your result in part (c) by graphing $|R_n(x)|$.

57. $f(x) = \sqrt{x}, \quad a = 1, \quad n = 3, \quad 0.9 \leqslant x \leqslant 1.1$

58. $f(x) = \sec x, \quad a = 0, \quad n = 2, \quad 0 \leqslant x \leqslant \pi/6$

59. Use series to evaluate the following limit.

$$\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\sin x - x}{x^3}$$

60. The force due to gravity on an object with mass m at a height h above the surface of the earth is

$$F = \frac{mgR^2}{(R+h)^2}$$

where R is the radius of the earth and g is the acceleration due to gravity for an object on the surface of the earth.

(a) Express F as a series in powers of h/R.

(b) Observe that if we approximate F by the first term in the series, we get the expression $F \approx mg$ that is usually used when h is much smaller than R. Use the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem to estimate the range of values of h for which the approximation $F \approx mg$ is accurate to within one percent. (Use $R = 6400$ km.)

61. Suppose that $f(x) = \Sigma_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$ for all x.

(a) If f is an odd function, show that

$$c_0 = c_2 = c_4 = \cdots = 0$$

(b) If f is an even function, show that

$$c_1 = c_3 = c_5 = \cdots = 0$$

62. If $f(x) = e^{x^2}$, show that $f^{(2n)}(0) = \dfrac{(2n)!}{n!}$.

Problems Plus

Before you look at the solution of the example, cover it up and first try to solve the problem yourself.

EXAMPLE Find the sum of the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x+2)^n}{(n+3)!}$.

SOLUTION The problem-solving principle that is relevant here is *recognizing something familiar*. Does the given series look anything like a series that we already know? Well, it does have some ingredients in common with the Maclaurin series for the exponential function:

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

We can make this series look more like our given series by replacing x by $x + 2$:

$$e^{x+2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x+2)^n}{n!} = 1 + (x+2) + \frac{(x+2)^2}{2!} + \frac{(x+2)^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

But here the exponent in the numerator matches the number in the denominator whose factorial is taken. To make that happen in the given series, let's multiply and divide by $(x+2)^3$:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x+2)^n}{(n+3)!} = \frac{1}{(x+2)^3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x+2)^{n+3}}{(n+3)!}$$

$$= (x+2)^{-3}\left[\frac{(x+2)^3}{3!} + \frac{(x+2)^4}{4!} + \cdots\right]$$

We see that the series between brackets is just the series for e^{x+2} with the first three terms missing. So

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x+2)^n}{(n+3)!} = (x+2)^{-3}\left[e^{x+2} - 1 - (x+2) - \frac{(x+2)^2}{2!}\right]$$ ■

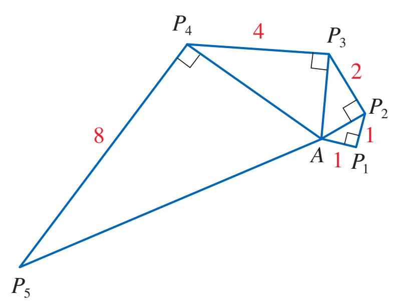
Problems

1. (a) Show that $\tan \frac{1}{2}x = \cot \frac{1}{2}x - 2 \cot x$.

(b) Find the sum of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} \tan \frac{x}{2^n}$$

2. Let $\{P_n\}$ be a sequence of points determined as in the figure. Thus $|AP_1| = 1$, $|P_nP_{n+1}| = 2^{n-1}$, and angle AP_nP_{n+1} is a right angle. Find $\lim_{n\to\infty} \angle P_nAP_{n+1}$.



3. To construct the **snowflake curve**, start with an equilateral triangle with sides of length 1. Step 1 in the construction is to divide each side into three equal parts, construct an equilateral triangle on the middle part, and then delete the middle part (see the figure). Step 2 is to repeat step 1 for each side of the resulting polygon. This process is repeated at each succeeding step. The snowflake curve is the curve that results from repeating this process indefinitely.

(a) Let s_n, l_n, and p_n represent the number of sides, the length of a side, and the total length of the nth approximating curve (the curve obtained after step n of the construction), respectively. Find formulas for s_n, l_n, and p_n.

(b) Show that $p_n \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$.

(c) Sum an infinite series to find the area enclosed by the snowflake curve.

Note: Parts (b) and (c) show that the snowflake curve is infinitely long but encloses only a finite area.

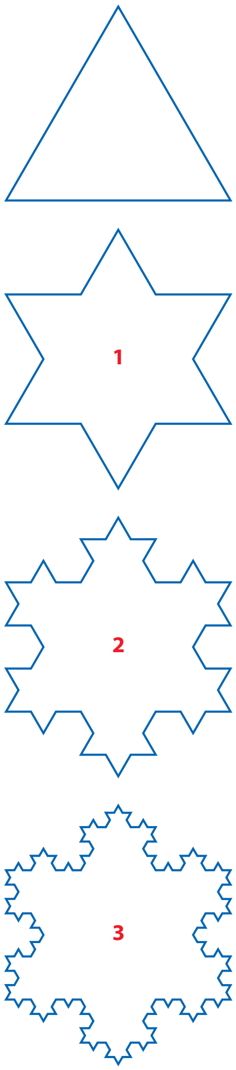


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 3

4. Find the sum of the series

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{12} + \cdots$$

where the terms are the reciprocals of the positive integers whose only prime factors are 2s and 3s.

5. (a) Show that for $xy \neq -1$,

$$\arctan x - \arctan y = \arctan \frac{x - y}{1 + xy}$$

if the left side lies between $-\pi/2$ and $\pi/2$.

(b) Show that $\arctan \frac{120}{119} - \arctan \frac{1}{239} = \pi/4$.

(c) Deduce the following formula of John Machin (1680–1751):

$$4 \arctan \tfrac{1}{5} - \arctan \tfrac{1}{239} = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

(d) Use the Maclaurin series for arctan to show that

$$0.1973955597 < \arctan \tfrac{1}{5} < 0.1973955616$$

(e) Show that

$$0.004184075 < \arctan \tfrac{1}{239} < 0.004184077$$

(f) Deduce that, correct to seven decimal places, $\pi \approx 3.1415927$.

Machin used this method in 1706 to find π correct to 100 decimal places. Recently, with the aid of computers, the value of π has been computed to increasingly greater accuracy, well into the trillions of decimal places.

6. (a) Prove a formula similar to the one in Problem 5(a) but involving arccot instead of arctan.

(b) Find the sum of the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \operatorname{arccot}(n^2 + n + 1)$.

7. Use the result of Problem 5(a) to find the sum of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \arctan(2/n^2)$.

8. If $a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_k = 0$, show that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(a_0\sqrt{n} + a_1\sqrt{n+1} + a_2\sqrt{n+2} + \cdots + a_k\sqrt{n+k}\right) = 0$$

If you don't see how to prove this, try the problem-solving strategy of *using analogy*. Try the special cases $k = 1$ and $k = 2$ first. If you can see how to prove the assertion for these cases, then you will probably see how to prove it in general.

PS See Principles of Problem Solving following Chapter 1.

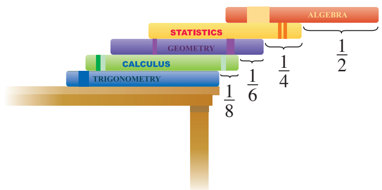


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 10

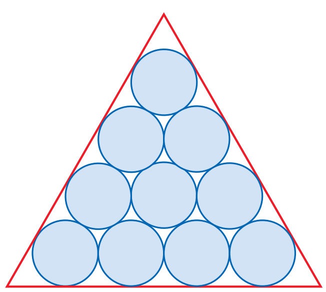


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 13

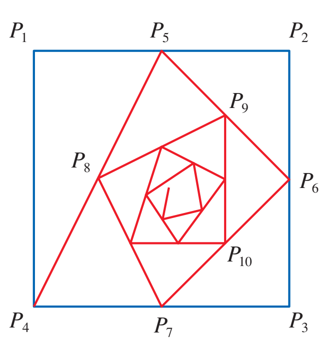


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 16

9. Find the interval of convergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^3 x^n$ and find its sum.

10. Suppose you have a large supply of books, all the same size, and you stack them at the edge of a table, with each book extending farther beyond the edge of the table than the one beneath it. Show that it is possible to do this so that the top book extends entirely beyond the table. In fact, show that the top book can extend any distance at all beyond the edge of the table if the stack is high enough. Use the following method of stacking: The top book extends half its length beyond the second book. The second book extends a quarter of its length beyond the third. The third extends one-sixth of its length beyond the fourth, and so on. (Try it yourself with a deck of cards.) Consider centers of mass.

11. Find the sum of the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \ln\left(1 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right)$.

12. If $p > 1$, evaluate the expression

$$\frac{1 + \dfrac{1}{2^p} + \dfrac{1}{3^p} + \dfrac{1}{4^p} + \cdots}{1 - \dfrac{1}{2^p} + \dfrac{1}{3^p} - \dfrac{1}{4^p} + \cdots}$$

13. Suppose that circles of equal diameter are packed tightly in n rows inside an equilateral triangle. (The figure illustrates the case $n = 4$.) If A is the area of the triangle and A_n is the total area occupied by the n rows of circles, show that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{A_n}{A} = \frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{3}}$$

14. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is defined recursively by the equations

$$a_0 = a_1 = 1 \qquad n(n-1)a_n = (n-1)(n-2)a_{n-1} - (n-3)a_{n-2}$$

Find the sum of the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$.

15. If the curve $y = e^{-x/10} \sin x$, $x \geqslant 0$, is rotated about the x-axis, the resulting solid looks like an infinite decreasing string of beads.

(a) Find the exact volume of the nth bead. (Use either a table of integrals or a computer algebra system.)

(b) Find the total volume of the beads.

16. Starting with the vertices $P_1(0, 1)$, $P_2(1, 1)$, $P_3(1, 0)$, $P_4(0, 0)$ of a square, we construct further points as shown in the figure: P_5 is the midpoint of P_1P_2, P_6 is the midpoint of P_2P_3, P_7 is the midpoint of P_3P_4, and so on. The polygonal spiral path $P_1P_2P_3P_4P_5P_6P_7 \ldots$ approaches a point P inside the square.

(a) If the coordinates of P_n are (x_n, y_n), show that $\frac{1}{2}x_n + x_{n+1} + x_{n+2} + x_{n+3} = 2$ and find a similar equation for the y-coordinates.

(b) Find the coordinates of P.

17. Find the sum of the series $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)3^n}$.

18. Carry out the following steps to show that

$$\frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} + \frac{1}{5 \cdot 6} + \frac{1}{7 \cdot 8} + \cdots = \ln 2$$

(a) Use the formula for the sum of a finite geometric series (11.2.3) to get an expression for

$$1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \cdots + x^{2n-2} - x^{2n-1}$$

(b) Integrate the result of part (a) from 0 to 1 to get an expression for

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2n-1} - \frac{1}{2n}$$

as an integral.

(c) Deduce from part (b) that

$$\left| \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} + \frac{1}{5 \cdot 6} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(2n-1)(2n)} - \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{1+x} \right| < \int_0^1 x^{2n}\, dx$$

(d) Use part (c) to show that the sum of the given series is ln 2.

19. Find all the solutions of the equation

$$1 + \frac{x}{2!} + \frac{x^2}{4!} + \frac{x^3}{6!} + \frac{x^4}{8!} + \cdots = 0$$

[*Hint:* Consider the cases $x \geqslant 0$ and $x < 0$ separately.]

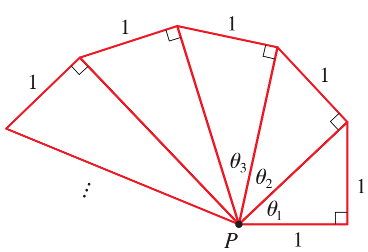


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 20

20. Right-angled triangles are constructed as in the figure. Each triangle has height 1 and its base is the hypotenuse of the preceding triangle. Show that this sequence of triangles makes infinitely many turns around P by showing that $\Sigma\,\theta_n$ is a divergent series.

21. Consider the series whose terms are the reciprocals of the positive integers that can be written in base 10 notation without using the digit 0. Show that this series is convergent and the sum is less than 90.

22. (a) Show that the Maclaurin series of the function

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{1 - x - x^2} \qquad \text{is} \qquad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n x^n$$

where f_n is the nth Fibonacci number, that is, $f_1 = 1$, $f_2 = 1$, and $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$ for $n \geqslant 3$. Find the radius of convergence of the series. [*Hint:* Write $x/(1 - x - x^2) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \cdots$ and multiply both sides of this equation by $1 - x - x^2$.]

(b) By writing $f(x)$ as a sum of partial fractions and thereby obtaining the Maclaurin series in a different way, find an explicit formula for the nth Fibonacci number.

23. Let

$$u = 1 + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} + \frac{x^9}{9!} + \cdots$$

$$v = x + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^7}{7!} + \frac{x^{10}}{10!} + \cdots$$

$$w = \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^8}{8!} + \cdots$$

Show that $u^3 + v^3 + w^3 - 3uvw = 1$.

24. Prove that if $n > 1$, the nth partial sum of the harmonic series is not an integer.

Hint: Let 2^k be the largest power of 2 that is less than or equal to n and let M be the product of all odd integers that are less than or equal to n. Suppose that $s_n = m$, an integer. Then $M2^k s_n = M2^k m$. The right side of this equation is even. Prove that the left side is odd by showing that each of its terms is an even integer, except for one.

The forces created by wind and water on the sails and keel of a sailboat determine the direction in which the boat travels. Forces such as these are conveniently represented by vectors because they have both magnitude and direction. In Exercise 12.3.52 you are asked to compute the work done by the wind in moving a sailboat along a specified p th.

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12 Vectors and the Geometry of Space

IN THIS CHAPTER WE INTRODUCE vectors and coordinate systems for three-dimensional space. This will be the setting for our study of the calculus of curves in space and of functions of two variables (whose graphs are surfaces in space) in Chapters 13–16. Here we will also see that vectors provide particularly simple descriptions of lines and planes in space.

12.1 Three-Dimensional Coordinate Systems

To locate a point in a plane, we need two numbers. We know that any point in the plane can be represented as an ordered pair (a, b) of real numbers, where a is the x-coordinate and b is the y-coordinate. For this reason, a plane is called two-dimensional. To locate a point in space, three numbers are required. We represent any point in space by an ordered triple (a, b, c) of real numbers.

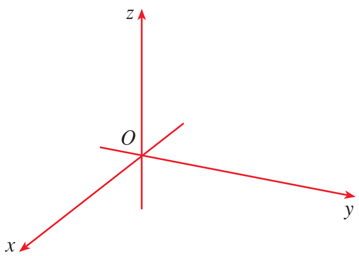


FIGURE 1
Coordinate axes

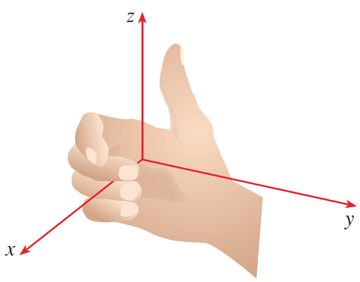


FIGURE 2
Right-hand rule

3D Space

In order to represent points in space, we first choose a fixed point O (the origin) and three directed lines through O that are perpendicular to each other, called the **coordinate axes** and labeled the x-axis, y-axis, and z-axis. Usually we think of the x- and y-axes as being horizontal and the z-axis as being vertical, and we draw the orientation of the axes as in Figure 1. The direction of the z-axis is determined by the **right-hand rule** as illustrated in Figure 2: if you curl the fingers of your right hand around the z-axis in the direction of a 90° counterclockwise rotation from the positive x-axis to the positive y-axis, then your thumb points in the positive direction of the z-axis.

The three coordinate axes determine the three **coordinate planes** illustrated in Figure 3(a). The xy-plane is the plane that contains the x- and y-axes; the yz-plane contains the y- and z-axes; the xz-plane contains the x- and z-axes. These three coordinate planes divide space into eight parts, called **octants**. The **first octant**, in the foreground, is determined by the positive axes.

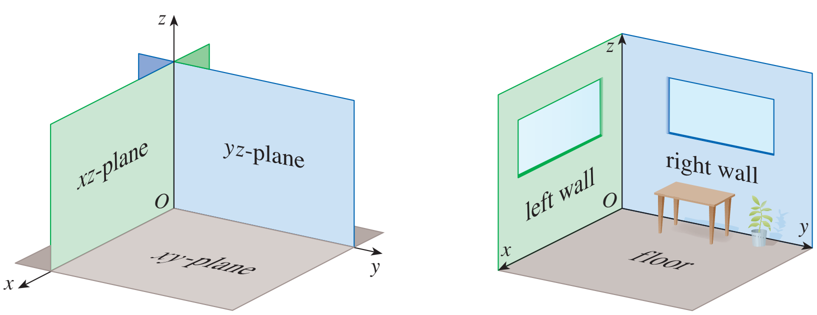


FIGURE 3 (a) Coordinate planes (b)

Because many people have some difficulty visualizing diagrams of three-dimensional figures, you may find it helpful to do the following [see Figure 3(b)]. Look at any bottom corner of a room and call the corner the origin. The wall on your left is in the xz-plane, the wall on your right is in the yz-plane, and the floor is in the xy-plane. The x-axis runs along the intersection of the floor and the left wall. The y-axis runs along the intersection of the floor and the right wall. The z-axis runs up from the floor toward the ceiling along the intersection of the two walls. You are situated in the first octant, and you can now imagine seven other rooms situated in the other seven octants (three on the same floor and four on the floor below), all connected by the common corner point O.

Now if P is any point in space, let a be the (directed) distance from the yz-plane to P, let b be the distance from the xz-plane to P, and let c be the distance from the xy-plane to P. We represent the point P by the ordered triple (a, b, c) of real numbers and we call a, b, and c the **coordinates** of P; a is the x-coordinate, b is the y-coordinate, and c is the z-coordinate. Thus, to locate the point (a, b, c), we can start at the origin O and move a units along the x-axis, then b units parallel to the y-axis, and then c units parallel to the z-axis as in Figure 4.

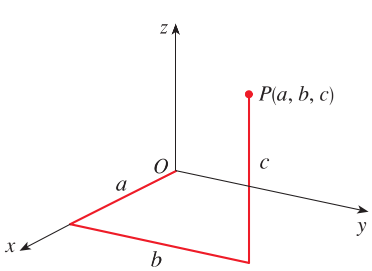


FIGURE 4

The point $P(a, b, c)$ determines a rectangular box as in Figure 5. If we drop a perpendicular from P to the xy-plane, we get a point Q with coordinates $(a, b, 0)$ called the **projection** of P onto the xy-plane. Similarly, $R(0, b, c)$ and $S(a, 0, c)$ are the projections of P onto the yz-plane and xz-plane, respectively.

As numerical illustrations, the points $(-4, 3, -5)$ and $(3, -2, -6)$ are plotted in Figure 6.

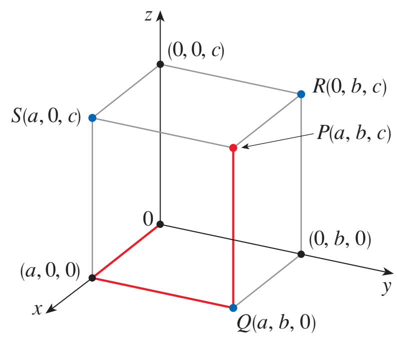


FIGURE 5

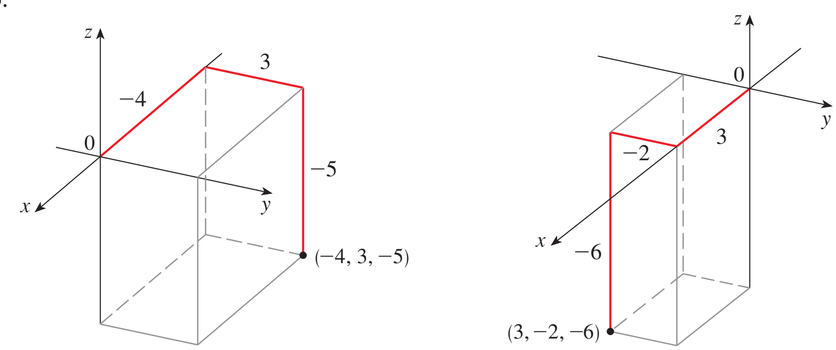


FIGURE 6

The Cartesian product $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \{(x, y, z) \mid x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is the set of all ordered triples of real numbers and is denoted by $\mathbb{R}^3$. We have given a one-to-one correspondence between points P in space and ordered triples (a, b, c) in $\mathbb{R}^3$. It is called a **three-dimensional rectangular coordinate system**. Notice that, in terms of coordinates, the first octant can be described as the set of points whose coordinates are all positive.

Surfaces and Solids

In two-dimensional analytic geometry, the graph of an equation involving x and y is a curve in $\mathbb{R}^2$. In three-dimensional analytic geometry, an equation in x, y, and z represents a *surface* in $\mathbb{R}^3$.

EXAMPLE 1 What surface in $\mathbb{R}^3$ is represented by each of the following equations?

(a) $z = 3$ (b) $y = 5$

SOLUTION

(a) The equation $z = 3$ represents the set $\{(x, y, z) \mid z = 3\}$, which is the set of all points in $\mathbb{R}^3$ whose z-coordinate is 3 (x and y can each be any value). This is the horizontal plane that is parallel to the xy-plane and three units above it as in Figure 7(a).

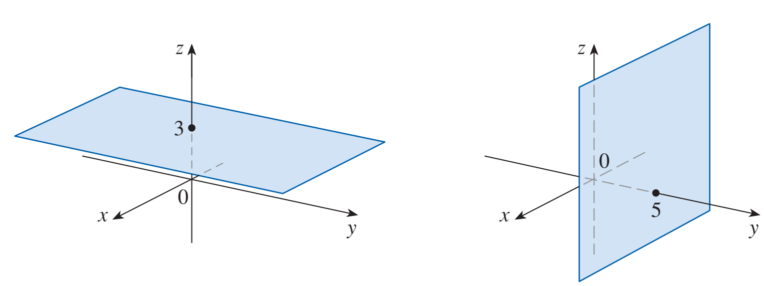
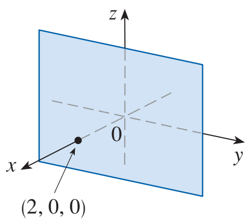
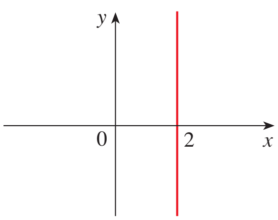


FIGURE 7 (a) $z = 3$, a plane in $\mathbb{R}^3$ (b) $y = 5$, a plane in $\mathbb{R}^3$

(b) The equation $y = 5$ represents the set of all points in $\mathbb{R}^3$ whose y-coordinate is 5. This is the vertical plane that is parallel to the xz-plane and five units to the right of it as in Figure 7(b). ■



(a) In $\mathbb{R}^3$, $x = 2$ is a plane.



(b) In $\mathbb{R}^2$, $x = 2$ is a line.

FIGURE 8

NOTE When an equation is given, we must understand from the context whether it represents a curve in $\mathbb{R}^2$ or a surface in $\mathbb{R}^3$. For example, $x = 2$ represents a plane in $\mathbb{R}^3$, but of course $x = 2$ can also represent a line in $\mathbb{R}^2$ if we are dealing with two-dimensional analytic geometry. See Figure 8.

In general, if k is a constant, then $x = k$ represents a plane parallel to the yz-plane, $y = k$ is a plane parallel to the xz-plane, and $z = k$ is a plane parallel to the xy-plane. In Figure 5, the faces of the rectangular box are formed by the three coordinate planes $x = 0$ (the yz-plane), $y = 0$ (the xz-plane), and $z = 0$ (the xy-plane), and the planes $x = a$, $y = b$, and $z = c$.

EXAMPLE 2

(a) Which points (x, y, z) satisfy the equations

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1 \qquad \text{and} \qquad z = 3$$

(b) What does the equation $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ represent as a surface in $\mathbb{R}^3$?
(c) What solid region in $\mathbb{R}^3$ is represented by the inequalities $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$, $2 \leqslant z \leqslant 4$?

SOLUTION

(a) Because $z = 3$, the points lie in the horizontal plane $z = 3$ from Example 1(a). Because $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, the points lie on the circle with radius 1 and center on the z-axis. See Figure 9.

(b) Given that $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, with no restriction on z, we see that the point (x, y, z) could lie on a circle in any horizontal plane $z = k$. So the surface $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$ consists of all possible horizontal circles $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, $z = k$, and is therefore the circular cylinder with radius 1 whose axis is the z-axis. See Figure 10.

(c) Because $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$, any point (x, y, z) in the region must lie on or inside the circle of radius 1, centered on the z-axis, in a horizontal plane $z = k$. We are given that $2 \leqslant z \leqslant 4$, so the given inequalities represent the portion of the solid circular cylinder of radius 1, with axis the z-axis, that lies on or between the planes $z = 2$ and $z = 4$. See Figure 11.

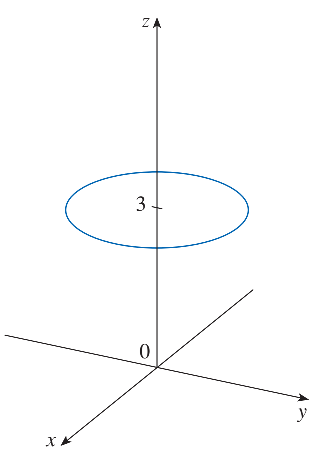


FIGURE 9
The circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, $z = 3$

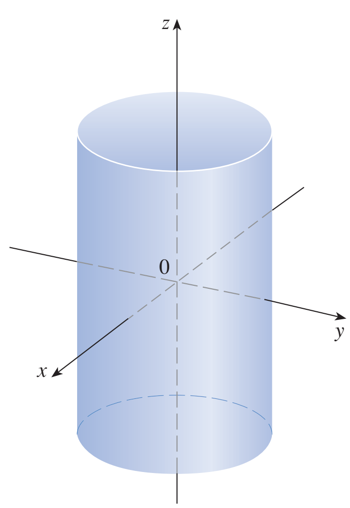


FIGURE 10
The cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

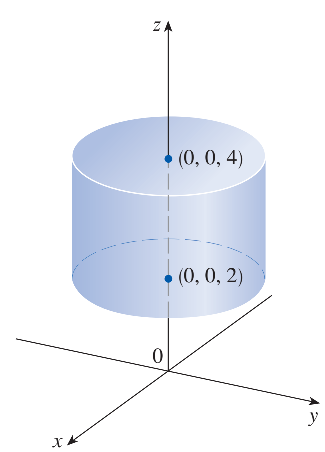


FIGURE 11
The solid region $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$, $2 \leqslant z \leqslant 4$

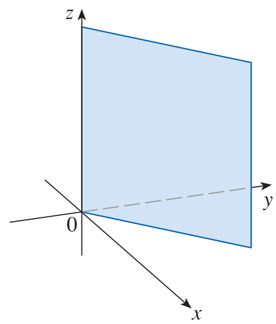


FIGURE 12
Part of the plane $y = x$

EXAMPLE 3 Describe and sketch the surface in $\mathbb{R}^3$ represented by the equation $y = x$.

SOLUTION The equation represents the set of all points in $\mathbb{R}^3$ whose x- and y-coordinates are equal, that is, $\{(x, x, z) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}, z \in \mathbb{R}\}$. This is a vertical plane that intersects the xy-plane in the line $y = x$, $z = 0$. The portion of this plane that lies in the first octant is sketched in Figure 12. ■

Distance and Spheres

The familiar formula for the distance between two points in a plane is easily extended to the following three-dimensional formula.

Distance Formula in Three Dimensions The distance $|P_1P_2|$ between the points $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $P_2(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ is

$$|P_1P_2| = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$$

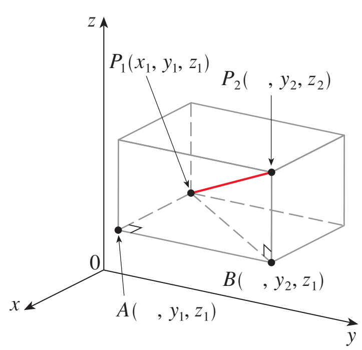


FIGURE 13

To see why this formula is true, we construct a rectangular box as in Figure 13, where P_1 and P_2 are opposite vertices and the faces of the box are parallel to the coordinate planes. If $A(x_2, y_1, z_1)$ and $B(x_2, y_2, z_1)$ are the vertices of the box indicated in the figure, then

$$|P_1A| = |x_2 - x_1| \qquad |AB| = |y_2 - y_1| \qquad |BP_2| = |z_2 - z_1|$$

Because triangles P_1BP_2 and P_1AB are both right-angled, two applications of the Pythagorean Theorem give

$$|P_1P_2|^2 = |P_1B|^2 + |BP_2|^2$$

and

$$|P_1B|^2 = |P_1A|^2 + |AB|^2$$

Combining these equations, we get

$$\begin{aligned} |P_1P_2|^2 &= |P_1A|^2 + |AB|^2 + |BP_2|^2 \\ &= |x_2 - x_1|^2 + |y_2 - y_1|^2 + |z_2 - z_1|^2 \\ &= (x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$|P_1P_2| = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$$

EXAMPLE 4 The distance from the point $P(2, -1, 7)$ to the point $Q(1, -3, 5)$ is

$$|PQ| = \sqrt{(1 - 2)^2 + (-3 + 1)^2 + (5 - 7)^2} = \sqrt{1 + 4 + 4} = 3 \qquad ■$$

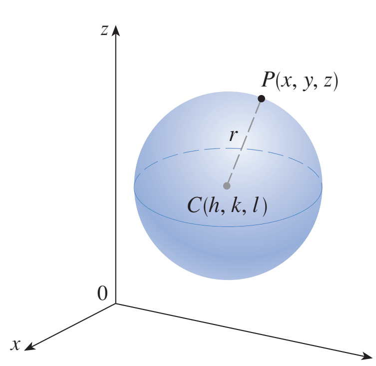


FIGURE 14

A sphere with radius r and center $C(h, k, l)$ is defined as the set of all points $P(x, y, z)$ whose distance from C is r. (See Figure 14.) Thus P is on the sphere if and only if $|PC| = r$, that is

$$\sqrt{(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 + (z - l)^2} = r$$

Squaring both sides, we have the following result.

Equation of a Sphere An equation of a sphere with center $C(h, k, l)$ and radius r is

$$(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 + (z - l)^2 = r^2$$

In particular, if the center is the origin O, then an equation of the sphere is

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = r^2$$

EXAMPLE 5 Find an equation of the sphere with center $(3, -1, 6)$ that passes through the point $(5, 2, 3)$.

SOLUTION The radius r of the sphere is the distance between the points $(3, -1, 6)$ and $(5, 2, 3)$:

$$r = \sqrt{(5 - 3)^2 + [2 - (-1)]^2 + (3 - 6)^2} = \sqrt{22}$$

Then an equation of the sphere is

$$(x - 3)^2 + [y - (-1)]^2 + (z - 6)^2 = (\sqrt{22})^2$$

or

$$(x - 3)^2 + (y + 1)^2 + (z - 6)^2 = 22$$

■

EXAMPLE 6 Show that $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 4x - 6y + 2z + 6 = 0$ is the equation of a sphere, and find its center and radius.

SOLUTION We can rewrite the given equation in the form of an equation of a sphere if we complete squares:

$$(x^2 + 4x + 4) + (y^2 - 6y + 9) + (z^2 + 2z + 1) = -6 + 4 + 9 + 1$$

$$(x + 2)^2 + (y - 3)^2 + (z + 1)^2 = 8$$

Comparing this equation with the standard form, we see that it is the equation of a sphere with center $(-2, 3, -1)$ and radius $\sqrt{8} = 2\sqrt{2}$. ■

EXAMPLE 7 What region in $\mathbb{R}^3$ is represented by the following inequalities?

$$1 \leqslant x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 4 \qquad z \leqslant 0$$

SOLUTION The inequalities

$$1 \leqslant x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 4$$

can be rewritten as

$$1 \leqslant \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \leqslant 2$$

so they represent the points (x, y, z) whose distance from the origin is at least 1 and at most 2. But we are also given that $z \leqslant 0$, so the points lie on or below the xy-plane. Thus the given inequalities represent the region that lies between (or on) the spheres $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ and $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ and beneath (or on) the xy-plane. It is sketched in Figure 15. ■

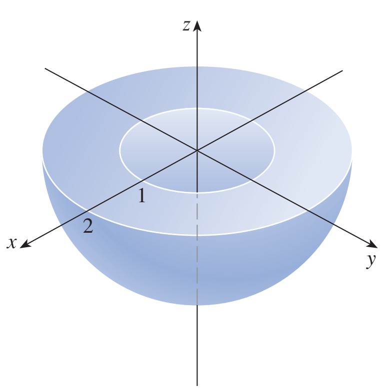


FIGURE 15

12.1 Exercises

1. Suppose you start at the origin, move along the x-axis a distance of 4 units in the positive direction, and then move downward a distance of 3 units. What are the coordinates of your position?

2. Sketch the points $(1, 5, 3)$, $(0, 2, -3)$, $(-3, 0, 2)$, and $(2, -2, -1)$ on a single set of coordinate axes.

3. Which of the points $A(-4, 0, -1)$, $B(3, 1, -5)$, and $C(2, 4, 6)$ is closest to the yz-plane? Which point lies in the xz-plane?

4. What are the projections of the point $(2, 3, 5)$ on the xy-, yz-, and xz-planes? Draw a rectangular box with the origin and $(2, 3, 5)$ as opposite vertices and with its faces parallel to the coordinate planes. Label all vertices of the box. Find the length of the diagonal of the box.

5. What does the equation $x = 4$ represent in $\mathbb{R}^2$? What does it represent in $\mathbb{R}^3$? Illustrate with sketches.

6. What does the equation $y = 3$ represent in $\mathbb{R}^3$? What does $z = 5$ represent? What does the pair of equations $y = 3$, $z = 5$ represent? In other words, describe the set of points (x, y, z) such that $y = 3$ and $z = 5$. Illustrate with a sketch.

7. Describe and sketch the surface in $\mathbb{R}^3$ represented by the equation $x + y = 2$.

8. Describe and sketch the surface in $\mathbb{R}^3$ represented by the equation $x^2 + z^2 = 9$.

9–10 Find the distance between the given points.

9. $(3, 5, -2)$, $(-1, 1, -4)$ **10.** $(-6, -3, 0)$, $(2, 4, 5)$

11–12 Find the lengths of the sides of the triangle PQR. Is it a right triangle? Is it an isosceles triangle?

11. $P(3, -2, -3)$, $Q(7, 0, 1)$, $R(1, 2, 1)$

12. $P(2, -1, 0)$, $Q(4, 1, 1)$, $R(4, -5, 4)$

13. Determine whether the points lie on a straight line.
(a) $A(2, 4, 2)$, $B(3, 7, -2)$, $C(1, 3, 3)$
(b) $D(0, -5, 5)$, $E(1, -2, 4)$, $F(3, 4, 2)$

14. Find the distance from $(4, -2, 6)$ to each of the following.
(a) The xy-plane (b) The yz-plane
(c) The xz-plane (d) The x-axis
(e) The y-axis (f) The z-axis

15. Find an equation of the sphere with center $(-3, 2, 5)$ and radius 4. What is the intersection of this sphere with the yz-plane?

16. Find an equation of the sphere with center $(2, -6, 4)$ and radius 5. Describe its intersection with each of the coordinate planes.

17. Find an equation of the sphere that passes through the point $(4, 3, -1)$ and has center $(3, 8, 1)$.

18. Find an equation of the sphere that passes through the origin and whose center is $(1, 2, 3)$.

19–22 Show that the equation represents a sphere, and find its center and radius.

19. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 8x - 2z = 8$

20. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 6x - 4y - 10z$

21. $2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2 - 2x + 4y + 1 = 0$

22. $4x^2 + 4y^2 + 4z^2 = 16x - 6y - 12$

23. Midpoint Formula Prove that the midpoint of the line segment from $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ to $P_2(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ is

$$\left(\frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2}, \frac{z_1 + z_2}{2}\right)$$

24. Use the Midpoint Formula in Exercise 23 to find the center of a sphere if one of its diameters has endpoints $(5, 4, 3)$ and $(1, 6, -9)$. Then find an equation of the sphere.

25. Find an equation of the sphere with center $(-1, 4, 5)$ that just touches (at only one point) the (a) xy-plane, (b) yz-plane, and (c) xz-plane.

26. Which coordinate plane is closest to the point $(7, 3, 8)$? Find an equation of the sphere with center $(7, 3, 8)$ that just touches (at one point) that coordinate plane.

27–42 Describe in words the region of $\mathbb{R}^3$ represented by the equation(s) or inequalities.

27. $z = -2$ **28.** $x = 3$

29. $y \geqslant 1$ **30.** $x < 4$

31. $-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 2$ **32.** $z = y$

33. $x^2 + y^2 = 4$, $z = -1$ **34.** $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

35. $y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 25$ **36.** $x^2 + z^2 \leqslant 25$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2$

37. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ **38.** $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 4$

39. $1 \leqslant x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 5$ **40.** $1 \leqslant x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 5$

41. $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 3$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 3$, $0 \leqslant z \leqslant 3$

42. $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 > 2z$

43–46 Write inequalities to describe the region.

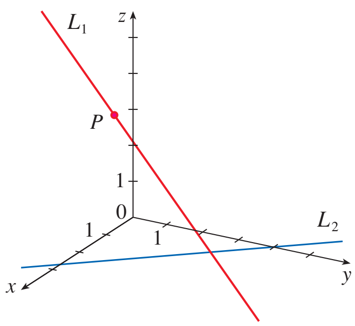
43. The region between the yz-plane and the vertical plane $x = 5$

44. The solid cylinder that lies on or below the plane $z = 8$ and on or above the disk in the xy-plane with center the origin and radius 2

45. The region consisting of all points between (but not on) the spheres of radius r and R centered at the origin, where $r < R$

46. The solid upper hemisphere of the sphere of radius 2 centered at the origin

47. The figure shows a line L_1 in space and a second line L_2, which is the projection of L_1 onto the xy-plane. (In other words, the points on L_2 are directly beneath, or above, the points on L_1.)
(a) Find the coordinates of the point P on the line L_1.
(b) Locate on the diagram the points A, B, and C, where the line L_1 intersects the xy-plane, the yz-plane, and the xz-plane, respectively.



48. Consider the points P such that the distance from P to $A(-1, 5, 3)$ is twice the distance from P to $B(6, 2, -2)$. Show that the set of all such points is a sphere, and find its center and radius.

49. Find an equation of the set of all points equidistant from the points $A(-1, 5, 3)$ and $B(6, 2, -2)$. Describe the set.

50. Find the volume of the solid that lies inside both of the spheres

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 4x - 2y + 4z + 5 = 0$$

and $$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$$

51. Find the distance between the spheres $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ and $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4x + 4y + 4z - 11$.

52. Describe and sketch a solid with the following properties: When illuminated by rays parallel to the z-axis, its shadow is a circular disk. If the rays are parallel to the y-axis, its shadow is a square. If the rays are parallel to the x-axis, its shadow is an isosceles triangle.

12.2 Vectors

The term **vector** is used in mathematics and the sciences to indicate a quantity that has both magnitude and direction. For instance, to describe the velocity of a moving object, we must specify both the speed of the object and the direction of travel. Other examples of vectors include force, displacement, and acceleration.

Geometric Description of Vectors

A vector is often represented by an arrow or a directed line segment. The length of the arrow represents the magnitude of the vector and the arrow points in the direction of the vector. We denote a vector by printing a letter in boldface ($\mathbf{v}$) or by putting an arrow above the letter ($\vec{v}$).

For instance, suppose a particle moves along a line segment from point A to point B. The corresponding **displacement vector** $\mathbf{v}$, shown in Figure 1, has **initial point** A (the tail) and **terminal point** B (the tip) and we indicate this by writing $\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{AB}$. Notice that the vector $\mathbf{u} = \overrightarrow{CD}$ has the same length and the same direction as $\mathbf{v}$ even though it is in a different position. We say that $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are **equivalent** (or **equal**) and we write $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$. The **zero vector**, denoted by $\mathbf{0}$, has length 0. It is the only vector with no specific direction.

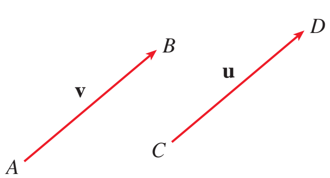


FIGURE 1
Equivalent vectors

We will often find it useful to combine vectors. For example, suppose a particle moves from A to B with displacement vector $\overrightarrow{AB}$, and then the particle changes direction and moves from B to C, with displacement vector $\overrightarrow{BC}$, as shown in Figure 2. The combined effect of these displacements is that the particle has moved from A to C. The resulting displacement vector $\overrightarrow{AC}$ is called the *sum* of $\overrightarrow{AB}$ and $\overrightarrow{BC}$ and we write

$$\overrightarrow{AC} = \overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BC}$$

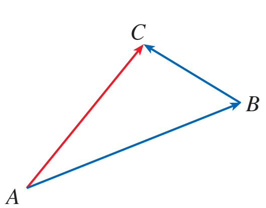


FIGURE 2

In general, if we start with vectors **u** and **v**, we first place **v** so that its tail coincides with the tip of **u** and define the sum of **u** and **v** as follows.

> **Definition of Vector Addition** If **u** and **v** are vectors positioned so the initial point of **v** is at the terminal point of **u**, then the **sum u + v** is the vector from the initial point of **u** to the terminal point of **v**.

The definition of vector addition is illustrated in Figure 3. You can see why this definition is sometimes called the **Triangle Law**.

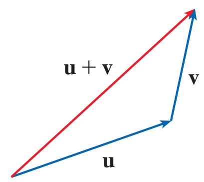


FIGURE 3
Triangle Law

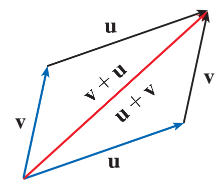


FIGURE 4
Parallelogram Law

In Figure 4 we start with the same vectors **u** and **v** as in Figure 3 and draw another copy of **v** with the same initial point as **u**. Completing the parallelogram, we see that $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$. This also gives another way to construct the sum: if we place **u** and **v** so they start at the same point, then $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ lies along the diagonal of the parallelogram with **u** and **v** as sides. (This is called the **Parallelogram Law**.)

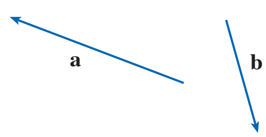


FIGURE 5

EXAMPLE 1 Draw the sum of the vectors **a** and **b** shown in Figure 5.

SOLUTION First we place **b** with its tail at the tip of **a**, being careful to draw a copy of **b** that has the same length and direction. Then we draw the vector $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ [see Figure 6(a)] starting at the initial point of **a** and ending at the terminal point of the copy of **b**.

Alternatively, we could place **b** so it starts where **a** starts and construct $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ by the Parallelogram Law as shown in Figure 6(b).

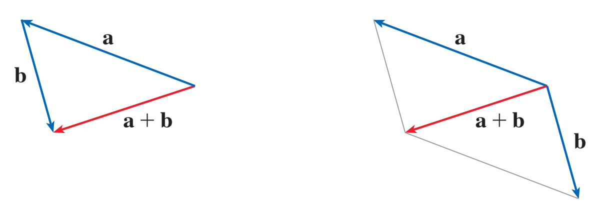


FIGURE 6 (a) (b) ■

We now define multiplication of a vector **v** by a real number c. In this context we call the real number c a **scalar** to distinguish it from a vector. For instance, we want the *scalar multiple* $2\mathbf{v}$ to be the same vector as the sum $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}$, which has the same direction as **v** but is twice as long. In general, we multiply a vector by a scalar as follows.

> **Definition of calar Multiplication** If c is a scalar and **v** is a vector, then the **scalar multiple** $c\mathbf{v}$ is the vector whose length is $|c|$ times the length of **v** and whose direction is the same as **v** if $c > 0$ and is opposite to **v** if $c < 0$. If $c = 0$ or $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$, then $c\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$.

This definition is illustrated in Figure 7. We see that real numbers work like scaling factors here; that's why we call them scalars. Notice that two nonzero vectors are **parallel** if they are scalar multiples of one another. In particular, the vector $-\mathbf{v} = (-1)\mathbf{v}$ has the same length as $\mathbf{v}$ but points in the opposite direction. We call it the **negative** of $\mathbf{v}$.

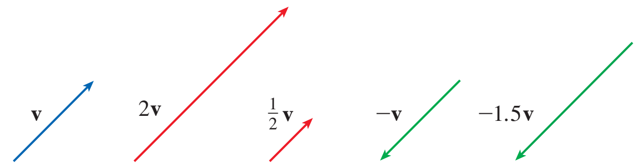


FIGURE 7
Scalar multiples of $\mathbf{v}$

By the **difference** $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ of two vectors we mean

$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{v})$$

For the vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ shown in Figure 8(a), we can construct the difference $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ by first drawing the negative of $\mathbf{v}$, $-\mathbf{v}$, and then adding it to $\mathbf{u}$ by the Parallelogram Law as in Figure 8(b). Alternatively, since $\mathbf{v} + (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{u}$, the vector $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$, when added to $\mathbf{v}$, gives $\mathbf{u}$. So we could construct $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ as in Figure 8(c) by means of the Triangle Law. Notice that if $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ both start from the same initial point, then $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ connects the tip of $\mathbf{v}$ to the tip of $\mathbf{u}$.

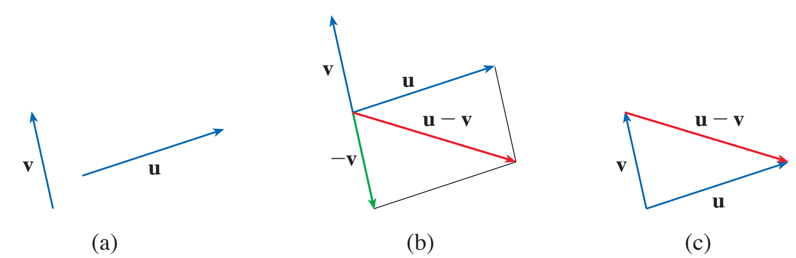


FIGURE 8
Drawing the difference $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$

EXAMPLE 2 If $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ are the vectors shown in Figure 9, draw $\mathbf{a} - 2\mathbf{b}$.

SOLUTION We first draw the vector $-2\mathbf{b}$ pointing in the direction opposite to $\mathbf{b}$ and twice as long. We place it with its tail at the tip of $\mathbf{a}$ and then use the Triangle Law to draw $\mathbf{a} + (-2\mathbf{b})$ as shown in Figure 10.

FIGURE 9

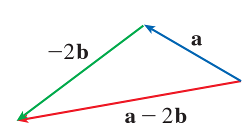


FIGURE 10 ■

■ Components of a Vector

For some purposes it's convenient to introduce a coordinate system that allows us to treat vectors algebraically. If we place the initial point of a vector $\mathbf{a}$ at the origin of a rectangular coordinate system, then the terminal point of $\mathbf{a}$ has coordinates of the form (a_1, a_2) or (a_1, a_2, a_3), depending on whether our coordinate system is two- or three-dimensional (see Figure 11). These coordinates are called the **components** of $\mathbf{a}$ and we write

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle \qquad \text{or} \qquad \mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$$

We use the notation $\langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$ for the ordered pair that refers to a vector so as not to confuse it with the ordered pair (a_1, a_2) that refers to a point in the plane.

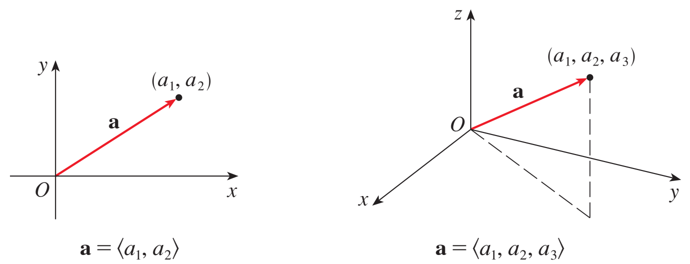


FIGURE 11

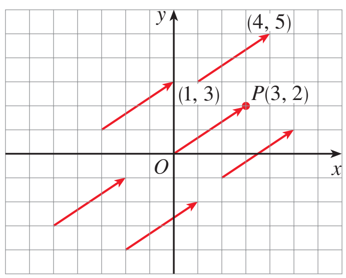


FIGURE 12
Representations of $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, 2 \rangle$

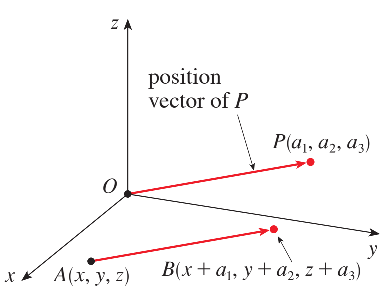


FIGURE 13
Representations of $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$

For instance, all of the vectors shown in Figure 12 are equivalent to the vector $\overrightarrow{OP} = \langle 3, 2 \rangle$ whose terminal point is $P(3, 2)$. What they have in common is that the terminal point is reached from the initial point by a displacement of three units to the right and two upward. We can think of all these geometric vectors as **representations** of the algebraic vector $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, 2 \rangle$. The particular representation $\overrightarrow{OP}$ from the origin to the point $P(3, 2)$ is called the **position vector** of the point P.

In three dimensions, the vector $\mathbf{a} = \overrightarrow{OP} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ is the **position vector** of the point $P(a_1, a_2, a_3)$. (See Figure 13.) Let's consider any other representation of $\mathbf{a}$ by a directed line segment $\overrightarrow{AB}$ with initial point $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and terminal point $B(x_2, y_2, z_2)$. Then we must have $x_1 + a_1 = x_2$, $y_1 + a_2 = y_2$, and $z_1 + a_3 = z_2$ and so $a_1 = x_2 - x_1$, $a_2 = y_2 - y_1$, and $a_3 = z_2 - z_1$. Thus we have the following result.

1 Given the points $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $B(x_2, y_2, z_2)$, the vector $\mathbf{a}$ with representation $\overrightarrow{AB}$ is

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1, z_2 - z_1 \rangle$$

EXAMPLE 3 Find the vector represented by the directed line segment with initial point $A(2, -3, 4)$ and terminal point $B(-2, 1, 1)$.

SOLUTION By (1), the vector corresponding to $\overrightarrow{AB}$ is

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle -2 - 2, 1 - (-3), 1 - 4 \rangle = \langle -4, 4, -3 \rangle$$ ■

The **magnitude** or **length** of the vector $\mathbf{v}$ is the length of any of its representations and is denoted by the symbol $|\mathbf{v}|$ or $\|\mathbf{v}\|$. By using the distance formula to compute the length of a segment OP, we obtain the following formulas.

The length of the two-dimensional vector $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$ is

$$|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2}$$

The length of the three-dimensional vector $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ is

$$|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2}$$

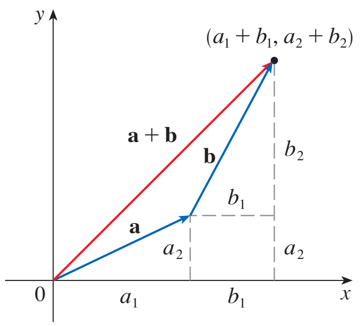


FIGURE 14

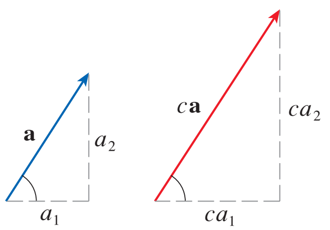


FIGURE 15

How do we add vectors algebraically? Figure 14 shows that if $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2\rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2\rangle$, then their sum is $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \langle a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2\rangle$, at least for the case where the components are positive. In other words, *to add algebraic vectors we add corresponding components*. Similarly, *to subtract vectors we subtract corresponding components*. From the similar triangles in Figure 15 we see that the components of $c\mathbf{a}$ are ca_1 and ca_2. So *to multiply a vector by a scalar we multiply each component by that scalar.*

If $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2\rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2\rangle$, then

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \langle a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2\rangle \qquad \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} = \langle a_1 - b_1, a_2 - b_2\rangle$$

$$c\mathbf{a} = \langle ca_1, ca_2\rangle$$

Similarly, for three-dimensional vectors,

$$\langle a_1, a_2, a_3\rangle + \langle b_1, b_2, b_3\rangle = \langle a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, a_3 + b_3\rangle$$

$$\langle a_1, a_2, a_3\rangle - \langle b_1, b_2, b_3\rangle = \langle a_1 - b_1, a_2 - b_2, a_3 - b_3\rangle$$

$$c\langle a_1, a_2, a_3\rangle = \langle ca_1, ca_2, ca_3\rangle$$

EXAMPLE 4 If $\mathbf{a} = \langle 4, 0, 3\rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle -2, 1, 5\rangle$, find $|\mathbf{a}|$ and the vectors $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$, $\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}$, $3\mathbf{b}$, and $2\mathbf{a} + 5\mathbf{b}$.

SOLUTION

$$|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{4^2 + 0^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{25} = 5$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} &= \langle 4, 0, 3\rangle + \langle -2, 1, 5\rangle \\ &= \langle 4 + (-2), 0 + 1, 3 + 5\rangle = \langle 2, 1, 8\rangle\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} &= \langle 4, 0, 3\rangle - \langle -2, 1, 5\rangle \\ &= \langle 4 - (-2), 0 - 1, 3 - 5\rangle = \langle 6, -1, -2\rangle\end{aligned}$$

$$3\mathbf{b} = 3\langle -2, 1, 5\rangle = \langle 3(-2), 3(1), 3(5)\rangle = \langle -6, 3, 15\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned}2\mathbf{a} + 5\mathbf{b} &= 2\langle 4, 0, 3\rangle + 5\langle -2, 1, 5\rangle \\ &= \langle 8, 0, 6\rangle + \langle -10, 5, 25\rangle = \langle -2, 5, 31\rangle\end{aligned}$$

■

Vectors in n dimensions are used to list various quantities in an organized way. For instance, the components of a six-dimensional vector

$$\mathbf{p} = \langle p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4, p_5, p_6\rangle$$

might represent the prices of six different ingredients required to make a particular product. Four-dimensional vectors $\langle x, y, z, t\rangle$ are used in relativity theory, where the first three components specify a position in space and the fourth represents time.

We denote by V_2 the set of all two-dimensional vectors and by V_3 the set of all three-dimensional vectors. More generally, we will later need to consider the set V_n of all n-dimensional vectors. An n-dimensional vector is an ordered n-tuple:

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n\rangle$$

where $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ are real numbers that are called the components of $\mathbf{a}$. Addition and scalar multiplication in V_n are defined in terms of components just as for the cases $n = 2$ and $n = 3$.

Properties of Vectors If $\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{b}$, and $\mathbf{c}$ are vectors in V_n and c and d are scalars, then

1. $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}$	**2.** $\mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c}$
3. $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{a}$	**4.** $\mathbf{a} + (-\mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{0}$
5. $c(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = c\mathbf{a} + c\mathbf{b}$	**6.** $(c + d)\mathbf{a} = c\mathbf{a} + d\mathbf{a}$
7. $(cd)\mathbf{a} = c(d\mathbf{a})$	**8.** $1\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}$

These eight properties of vectors can be readily verified either geometrically or algebraically. For instance, Property 1 can be seen from Figure 4 (it's equivalent to the Parallelogram Law) or as follows for the case $n = 2$:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} &= \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle + \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle = \langle a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2 \rangle \\ &= \langle b_1 + a_1, b_2 + a_2 \rangle = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle + \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle \\ &= \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}\end{aligned}$$

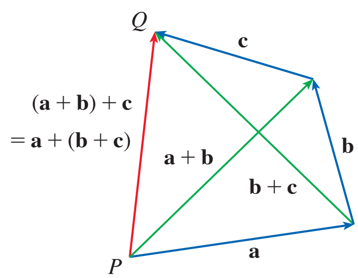


FIGURE 16

We can see why Property 2 (the associative law) is true by looking at Figure 16 and applying the Triangle Law several times: the vector $\overrightarrow{PQ}$ is obtained either by first constructing $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ and then adding $\mathbf{c}$ or by adding $\mathbf{a}$ to the vector $\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}$.

Three vectors in V_3 play a special role. Let

$$\boxed{\mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1, 0 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{k} = \langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle}$$

These vectors $\mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{j}$, and $\mathbf{k}$ are called the **standard basis vectors**. They have length 1 and point in the directions of the positive x-, y-, and z-axes. Similarly, in two dimensions we define $\mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1 \rangle$. (See Figure 17.)

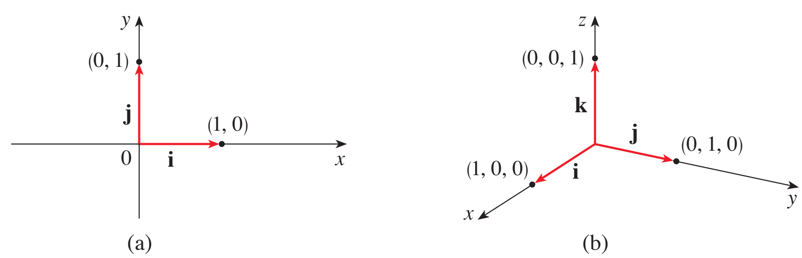


FIGURE 17
Standard basis vectors in V_2 and V_3

If $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$, then we can write

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{a} &= \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle = \langle a_1, 0, 0 \rangle + \langle 0, a_2, 0 \rangle + \langle 0, 0, a_3 \rangle \\ &= a_1\langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle + a_2\langle 0, 1, 0 \rangle + a_3\langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle\end{aligned}$$

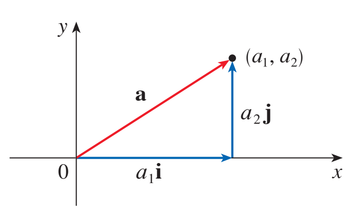
2 $$\mathbf{a} = a_1\,\mathbf{i} + a_2\,\mathbf{j} + a_3\,\mathbf{k}$$

Thus any vector in V_3 can be expressed in terms of $\mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{j}$, and $\mathbf{k}$. For instance,

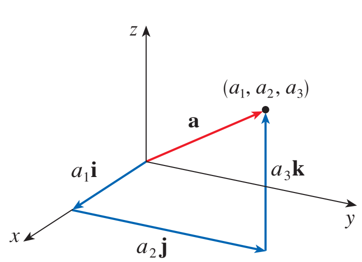
$$\langle 1, -2, 6 \rangle = \mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k}$$

Similarly, in two dimensions, we can write

3 $$\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle = a_1\,\mathbf{i} + a_2\,\mathbf{j}$$



(a) $\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j}$



(b) $\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j} + a_3\mathbf{k}$

FIGURE 18

See Figure 18 for the geometric interpretation of Equations 3 and 2 and compare with Figure 17.

EXAMPLE 5 If $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} + 7\mathbf{k}$, express the vector $2\mathbf{a} + 3\mathbf{b}$ in terms of $\mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{j}$, and $\mathbf{k}$.

SOLUTION Using Properties 1, 2, 5, 6, and 7 of vectors, we have

$$\begin{aligned}2\mathbf{a} + 3\mathbf{b} &= 2(\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}) + 3(4\mathbf{i} + 7\mathbf{k}) \\ &= 2\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} - 6\mathbf{k} + 12\mathbf{i} + 21\mathbf{k} = 14\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} + 15\mathbf{k}\end{aligned}$$ ■

Gibbs

Josiah Willard Gibbs (1839–1903), a professor of mathematical physics at Yale College, published the first book on vectors, *Vector Analysis*, in 1881. More complicated objects, called quaternions, had earlier been invented by Sir William Rowan Hamilton as mathematical tools for describing space, but they weren't easy for scientists to use. Quaternions have a scalar part and a vector part. Gibb's idea was to use the vector part separately. Maxwell and Heaviside had similar ideas, but Gibb's approach has proved to be the most convenient way to study space.

A **unit vector** is a vector whose length is 1. For instance, **i**, **j**, and **k** are all unit vectors. In general, if $\mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{0}$, then the unit vector that has the same direction as **a** is

$$\boxed{4} \qquad \mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{a}|}\mathbf{a} = \frac{\mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|}$$

In order to verify this, we let $c = 1/|\mathbf{a}|$. Then $\mathbf{u} = c\mathbf{a}$ and c is a positive scalar, so **u** has the same direction as **a**. Also

$$|\mathbf{u}| = |c\mathbf{a}| = |c||\mathbf{a}| = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{a}|}|\mathbf{a}| = 1$$

EXAMPLE 6 Find the unit vector in the direction of the vector $2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$.

SOLUTION The given vector has length

$$|2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}| = \sqrt{2^2 + (-1)^2 + (-2)^2} = \sqrt{9} = 3$$

so, by Equation 4, the unit vector with the same direction is

$$\tfrac{1}{3}(2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}) = \tfrac{2}{3}\mathbf{i} - \tfrac{1}{3}\mathbf{j} - \tfrac{2}{3}\mathbf{k}$$ ■

Applications

Vectors are useful in many aspects of physics and engineering. In Chapter 13 we will see how they describe the velocity and acceleration of objects moving in space. Here we first look at forces.

A force is represented by a vector because it has both magnitude (measured in pounds or newtons) and direction. If several forces are acting on an object, the **resultant force** experienced by the object is the vector sum of these forces.

EXAMPLE 7 A 100 kg weight hangs from two wires as shown in Figure 19. Find the tensions (forces) $\mathbf{T}_1$ and $\mathbf{T}_2$ in the wires and the magnitudes of these tensions.

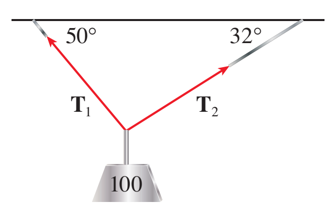


FIGURE 19

SOLUTION We first express $\mathbf{T}_1$ and $\mathbf{T}_2$ in terms of their horizontal and vertical components. From Figure 20 we see that

$$\boxed{5} \qquad \mathbf{T}_1 = -|\mathbf{T}_1|\cos 50°\,\mathbf{i} + |\mathbf{T}_1|\sin 50°\,\mathbf{j}$$

$$\boxed{6} \qquad \mathbf{T}_2 = |\mathbf{T}_2|\cos 32°\,\mathbf{i} + |\mathbf{T}_2|\sin 32°\,\mathbf{j}$$

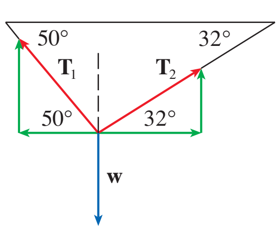


FIGURE 20

The force of gravity acting on the load is $\mathbf{F} = -100(9.8)\,\mathbf{j} = -980\,\mathbf{j}$. The resultant $\mathbf{T}_1 + \mathbf{T}_2$ of the tensions counterbalances **F** and so we must have

$$\mathbf{T}_1 + \mathbf{T}_2 = -\mathbf{F} = 980\,\mathbf{j}$$

Thus

$$\big(-|\mathbf{T}_1|\cos 50° + |\mathbf{T}_2|\cos 32°\big)\,\mathbf{i} + \big(|\mathbf{T}_1|\sin 50° + |\mathbf{T}_2|\sin 32°\big)\,\mathbf{j} = 980\,\mathbf{j}$$

Equating components, we get

$$-|\mathbf{T}_1|\cos 50° + |\mathbf{T}_2|\cos 32° = 0$$

$$|\mathbf{T}_1|\sin 50° + |\mathbf{T}_2|\sin 32° = 980$$

Solving the first of these equations for $|\mathbf{T}_2|$ and substituting into the second, we get

$$|\mathbf{T}_1|\sin 50° + \frac{|\mathbf{T}_1|\cos 50°}{\cos 32°}\sin 32° = 980$$

$$|\mathbf{T}_1|\left(\sin 50° + \cos 50°\,\frac{\sin 32°}{\cos 32°}\right) = 980$$

So the magnitudes of the tensions are

$$|\mathbf{T}_1| = \frac{980}{\sin 50° + \tan 32° \cos 50°} \approx 839 \text{ N}$$

and $$|\mathbf{T}_2| = \frac{|\mathbf{T}_1|\cos 50°}{\cos 32°} \approx 636 \text{ N}$$

Substituting these values in (5) and (6), we obtain the tension vectors

$$\mathbf{T}_1 \approx -539\,\mathbf{i} + 643\,\mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{T}_2 \approx 539\,\mathbf{i} + 337\,\mathbf{j}$$

■

If an airplane is flying in wind, then the *true course*, or *track*, of the plane is the direction of the resultant of the velocity vectors of the plane and of the wind. The *ground speed* of the plane is the magnitude of the resultant. Similarly, a boat navigating through flowing water follows a true course in the direction of the resultant of the velocity vectors of the boat and of the water current.

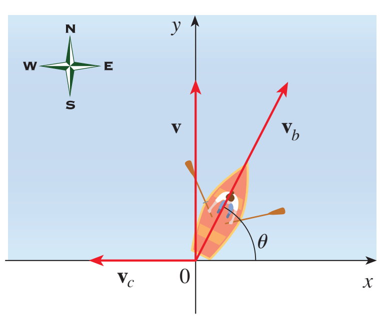


FIGURE 21

When describing directions for navigation, we often use a *bearing*, such as N 20° W, which means from the northerly direction, turn 20° toward west. (Note that a bearing always begins with either north or south.)

EXAMPLE 8 A woman launches a boat from the south shore of a straight river that flows directly west at 4 km/h. She wants to land at the point directly across on the opposite shore. If the speed of the boat (relative to the water) is 8 km/h, in what direction should she steer the boat in order to arrive at the desired landing point?

SOLUTION Let's choose coordinate axes with the origin at the initial position of the boat, as shown in Figure 21. The velocity of the river current is $\mathbf{v}_c = -4\,\mathbf{i}$ and, since the speed of the boat (in still water) is 8 km/h, the boat's velocity is $\mathbf{v}_b = 8(\cos\theta\,\mathbf{i} + \sin\theta\,\mathbf{j})$, where θ is as shown in the figure. The resultant velocity is

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}_b + \mathbf{v}_c$$

$$= 8\cos\theta\,\mathbf{i} + 8\sin\theta\,\mathbf{j} - 4\,\mathbf{i} = (-4 + 8\cos\theta)\mathbf{i} + (8\sin\theta)\mathbf{j}$$

We want the true course of the boat to be directly north, so the x-component of $\mathbf{v}$ must be zero:

$$-4 + 8\cos\theta = 0 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \cos\theta = \tfrac{1}{2} \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \theta = 60°$$

Thus the woman should steer the boat in the direction $\theta = 60°$, or N 30° E. ■

12.2 Exercises

1. Is each of the following quantities a vector or a scalar? Explain.

(a) The cost of a theater ticket

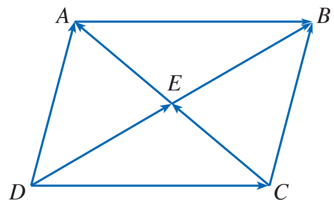
(b) The current in a river

(c) The initial flight path from Houston to Dallas

(d) The population of the world

2. What is the relationship between the point (4, 7) and the vector $\langle 4, 7\rangle$? Illustrate with a sketch.

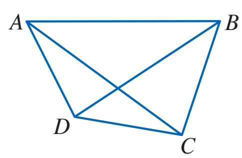
3. Name all the equal vectors in the parallelogram shown.



4. Using the vectors shown in the figure, write each sum or difference as a single vector.

(a) $\overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BC}$ (b) $\overrightarrow{CD} + \overrightarrow{DB}$

(c) $\overrightarrow{DB} - \overrightarrow{AB}$ (d) $\overrightarrow{DC} + \overrightarrow{CA} + \overrightarrow{AB}$

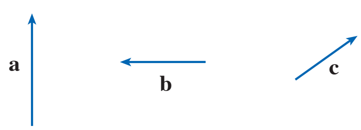


5. Copy the vectors in the figure and use them to draw the following vectors.

(a) $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ (b) $\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}$

(c) $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{c}$ (d) $\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{c}$

(e) $\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{c}$ (f) $\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{c}$

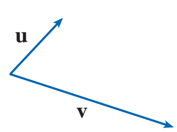


6. Copy the vectors in the figure and use them to draw the following vectors.

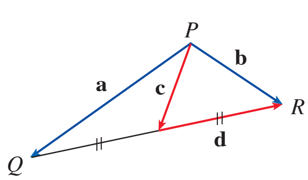
(a) $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ (b) $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$

(c) $2\mathbf{u}$ (d) $-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{v}$

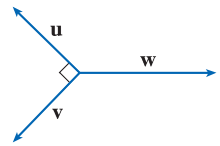
(e) $3\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ (f) $\mathbf{v} - 2\mathbf{u}$



7. In the figure, the tip of $\mathbf{c}$ and the tail of $\mathbf{d}$ are both the midpoint of QR. Express $\mathbf{c}$ and $\mathbf{d}$ in terms of $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$.



8. If the vectors in the figure satisfy $|\mathbf{u}| = |\mathbf{v}| = 1$ and $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$, what is $|\mathbf{w}|$?



9–14 Find a vector $\mathbf{a}$ with representation given by the directed line segment $\overrightarrow{AB}$. Draw $\overrightarrow{AB}$ and the equivalent representation starting at the origin.

9. $A(-2, 1)$, $B(1, 2)$ **10.** $A(-5, -1)$, $B(-3, 3)$

11. $A(3, -1)$, $B(2, 3)$ **12.** $A(3, 2)$, $B(1, 0)$

13. $A(1, -2, 4)$, $B(-2, 3, 0)$ **14.** $A(3, 0, -2)$, $B(0, 5, 0)$

15–18 Find the sum of the given vectors and illustrate geometrically.

15. $\langle -1, 4\rangle$, $\langle 6, -2\rangle$ **16.** $\langle 3, -1\rangle$, $\langle -1, 5\rangle$

17. $\langle 3, 0, 1\rangle$, $\langle 0, 8, 0\rangle$ **18.** $\langle 1, 3, -2\rangle$, $\langle 0, 0, 6\rangle$

19–22 Find $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$, $4\mathbf{a} + 2\mathbf{b}$, $|\mathbf{a}|$, and $|\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}|$.

19. $\mathbf{a} = \langle -3, 4\rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 9, -1\rangle$

20. $\mathbf{a} = 5\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$, $\mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j}$

21. $\mathbf{a} = 4\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{b} = 2\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{k}$

22. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 8, 1, -4\rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 5, -2, 1\rangle$

23–25 Find a unit vector that has the same direction as the given vector.

23. $\langle 6, -2\rangle$ **24.** $-5\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$

25. $8\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 4\mathbf{k}$

26. Find the vector that has the same direction as $\langle 6, 2, -3\rangle$ but has length 4.

27–28 What is the angle between the given vector and the positive direction of the x-axis?

27. $\mathbf{i} + \sqrt{3}\,\mathbf{j}$ **28.** $8\mathbf{i} + 6\mathbf{j}$

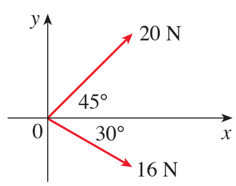
29. The initial point of a vector $\mathbf{v}$ in V_2 is the origin and the terminal point is in quadrant II. If $\mathbf{v}$ makes an angle $5\pi/6$ with the positive x-axis and $|\mathbf{v}| = 4$, find $\mathbf{v}$ in component form.

30. If a child pulls a sled through the snow on a level path with a force of 50 N exerted at an angle of 38° above the horizontal, find the horizontal and vertical components of the force.

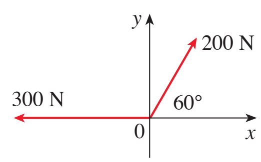
31. A quarterback throws a football with angle of elevation 40° and speed 20 m/s. Find the horizontal and vertical components of the velocity vector.

32–33 Find the magnitude of the resultant force and the angle it makes with the positive x-axis.

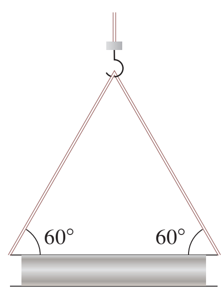
32.



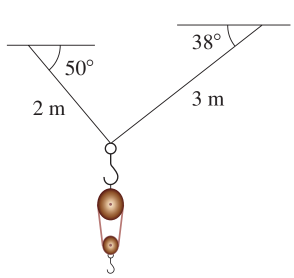
33.



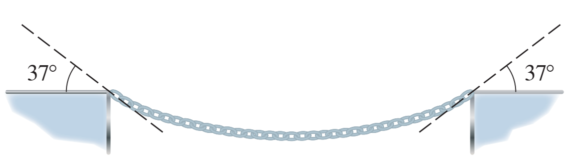
34. A crane suspends a 500 kg steel beam horizontally by support cables (with negligible weight) attached from a hook to each end of the beam. The support cables each make an angle of 60° with the beam. Find the tension vector in each support cable and the magnitude of each tension.



35. A block-and-tackle pulley hoist is suspended in a warehouse by ropes of lengths 2 m and 3 m. The hoist weighs 350 N. The ropes, fastened at different heights, make angles of 50° and 38° with the horizontal. Find the tension in each rope and the magnitude of each tension.



36. The tension vector at each end of a chain has magnitude 25 N (see the figure). What is the weight of the chain?



37. Three forces act on an object. Two of the forces are at an angle of 100° to each other and have magnitudes 25 N and 12 N. The third is perpendicular to the plane of these two forces and has magnitude 4 N. Calculate the magnitude of the force that would exactly counterbalance these three forces.

38. A rower wants to row her kayak across a channel that is 400 m wide and land at a point 250 m upstream from her starting point. She can row (in still water) at 2 m/s and the current in the channel flows at 0.5 m/s.
(a) In what direction should she steer the kayak?
(b) How long will the trip take?

39. A pilot is steering a plane in the direction N 45° W at an airspeed (speed in still air) of 290 km/h. A wind is blowing in the direction S 30° E at a speed of 55 km/h. Find the true course and the ground speed of the plane.

40. A ship is sailing west at a speed of 32 km/h and a dog is running due north on the deck of the ship at 4 km/h. Find the speed and direction of the dog relative to the surface of the water.

41. Find the unit vectors that are parallel to the tangent line to the parabola $y = x^2$ at the point $(2, 4)$.

42. (a) Find the unit vectors that are parallel to the tangent line to the curve $y = 2 \sin x$ at the point $(\pi/6, 1)$.
(b) Find the unit vectors that are perpendicular to the tangent line.
(c) Sketch the curve $y = 2 \sin x$ and the vectors in parts (a) and (b), all starting at $(\pi/6, 1)$.

43. If A, B, and C are the vertices of a triangle, find

$$\overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{BC} + \overrightarrow{CA}$$

44. Let C be the point on the line segment AB that is twice as far from B as it is from A. If $\mathbf{a} = \overrightarrow{OA}$, $\mathbf{b} = \overrightarrow{OB}$, and $\mathbf{c} = \overrightarrow{OC}$, show that $\mathbf{c} = \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{a} + \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{b}$.

45. (a) Draw the vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, 2 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 2, -1 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{c} = \langle 7, 1 \rangle$.
(b) Show, by means of a sketch, that there are scalars s and t such that $\mathbf{c} = s\mathbf{a} + t\mathbf{b}$.
(c) Use the sketch to estimate the values of s and t.
(d) Find the exact values of s and t.

46. Suppose that $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ are nonzero vectors that are not parallel and $\mathbf{c}$ is any vector in the plane determined by $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$. Give a geometric argument to show that $\mathbf{c}$ can be written as $\mathbf{c} = s\mathbf{a} + t\mathbf{b}$ for suitable scalars s and t. Then give an argument using components.

47. If $\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$, describe the set of all points (x, y, z) such that $|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0| = 1$.

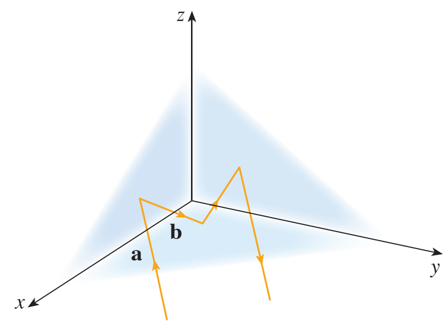
48. If $\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y \rangle$, $\mathbf{r}_1 = \langle x_1, y_1 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{r}_2 = \langle x_2, y_2 \rangle$, describe the set of all points (x, y) such that $|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_1| + |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_2| = k$, where $k > |\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2|$.

49. Figure 16 gives a geometric demonstration of Property 2 of vectors. Use components to give an algebraic proof of this fact for the case $n = 2$.

50. Prove Property 5 of vectors algebraically for the case $n = 3$. Then use similar triangles to give a geometric proof.

51. Use vectors to prove that the line joining the midpoints of two sides of a triangle is parallel to the third side and half its length.

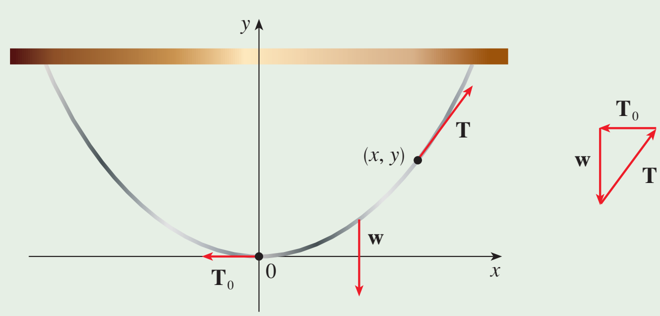
52. Corner Reflectors Suppose the three coordinate planes are all mirrored, forming a *corner reflector*, and a light ray given by the vector $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ first strikes the xz-plane, as shown in the figure. Use the fact that the angle of incidence equals the angle of reflection to show that the direction of the reflected ray is given by $\mathbf{b} = \langle a_1, -a_2, a_3 \rangle$. Deduce that, after being reflected by all three mutually perpendicular mirrors, the resulting ray is parallel to the initial ray. (Scientists have used this principle, together with laser beams and an array of corner reflectors on the moon, to calculate very precisely the distance from Earth to the moon.)



DISCOVERY PROJECT | THE SHAPE OF A HANGING CHAIN

In Section 3.11 we stated that a heavy flexible chain or cable suspended between two points at the same height takes the shape of a curve called a *catenary* (a term reportedly coined by Thomas Jefferson) with equation $y = a\cosh(x/a)$. Here we use the interpretation of the derivative as the slope of a tangent to derive this equation.

Suppose that a chain (or cable) of uniform linear mass density ρ is hanging between two points, as shown in the figure. We place the origin at the vertex of the catenary, and let (x, y) be any point on the curve, $x > 0$. (By symmetry, if $x < 0$ we obtain a similar result.)



Consider the section of the chain from the origin to (x, y). The forces that act on the section are the downward gravitational force $\mathbf{w}$ and the tensions $\mathbf{T}_0$ and $\mathbf{T}$ at each end of the section—each of which is tangent to the curve. Because the section of chain is in equilibrium, we know that

$$\mathbf{T}_0 + \mathbf{T} + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$$

1. Let $y = f(x)$ be the equation of the curve and let $s(x)$ be the arc length function (Equation 8.1.5) from the origin to the point (x, y). Show that $\mathbf{T} = \langle |\mathbf{T}_0|, g\rho s(x) \rangle$, where g is the acceleration due to gravity.

2. By interpreting dy/dx as the slope of a tangent at (x, y), show that

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{s(x)}{a}$$

where $a = |\mathbf{T}_0|/(g\rho)$, a constant.

3. Differentiate both sides of the differential equation in Problem 2 and use Equation 8.1.6 to obtain the second-order differential equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{a}\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}$$

with initial conditions $y(0) = 0$ (the curve passes through the origin) and $y'(0) = 0$ (the tangent at the origin is horizontal). Solve this equation by first substituting $z = dy/dx$ and then solving the resulting first-order differential equation. Conclude that the equation of the curve is

$$y = a\cosh\frac{x}{a} - a$$

4. Graph $y = a\cosh(x/a) - a$ for $a = \frac{1}{2}$, $a = 1$, and $a = 3$. How does the value of a affect the shape of the curve?

12.3 The Dot Product

So far we have seen how to add two vectors and how to multiply a vector by a scalar. The question arises: is it possible to multiply two vectors so that their product is a useful quantity? One such product is the dot product, which we now define. Another is the cross product, which is discussed in the next section.

The Dot Product of Two Vectors

To find the dot product of vectors **a** and **b** we multiply corresponding components and add.

> **1 Definition of the Dot roduct** If $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3\rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3\rangle$, then the **dot product** of **a** and **b** is the number $\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b}$ given by
>
> $$\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b} = a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3$$

The dot product of two vectors is a real number, not a vector. For this reason, the dot product is sometimes called the **scalar product** (or **inner product**). Although Definition 1 is given for three-dimensional vectors, the dot product of two-dimensional vectors is defined in a similar fashion:

$$\langle a_1, a_2\rangle\cdot\langle b_1, b_2\rangle = a_1b_1 + a_2b_2$$

EXAMPLE 1

$$\langle 2, 4\rangle\cdot\langle 3, -1\rangle = 2(3) + 4(-1) = 2$$

$$\langle -1, 7, 4\rangle\cdot\left\langle 6, 2, -\tfrac{1}{2}\right\rangle = (-1)(6) + 7(2) + 4\left(-\tfrac{1}{2}\right) = 6$$

$$(\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k})\cdot(2\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}) = 1(0) + 2(2) + (-3)(-1) = 7$$

The dot product obeys many of the laws that hold for ordinary products of real numbers. These are stated in the following theorem.

2 Properties of the Dot Product If $\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{b}$, and $\mathbf{c}$ are vectors in V_3 and c is a scalar, then

1. $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} = |\mathbf{a}|^2$

2. $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}$

3. $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c}$

4. $(c\mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = c(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot (c\mathbf{b})$

5. $\mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{a} = 0$

PROOF These properties are easily proved using Definition 1. For instance, here are the proofs of Properties 1 and 3:

1. $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} = a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2 = |\mathbf{a}|^2$

3.
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) &= \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle \cdot \langle b_1 + c_1, b_2 + c_2, b_3 + c_3 \rangle \\ &= a_1(b_1 + c_1) + a_2(b_2 + c_2) + a_3(b_3 + c_3) \\ &= a_1b_1 + a_1c_1 + a_2b_2 + a_2c_2 + a_3b_3 + a_3c_3 \\ &= (a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3) + (a_1c_1 + a_2c_2 + a_3c_3) \\ &= \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c} \end{aligned}$$

The proofs of the remaining properties are left as exercises. ■

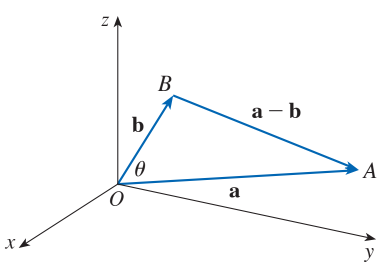


FIGURE 1

The dot product $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ can be given a geometric interpretation in terms of the **angle θ between a and b**, which is defined to be the angle between the representations of $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ that start at the origin, where $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi$. In other words, θ is the angle between the line segments $\overrightarrow{OA}$ and $\overrightarrow{OB}$ in Figure 1. Note that if $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ are parallel vectors, then $\theta = 0$ or $\theta = \pi$.

The formula in the following theorem is used by physicists as the *definition* of the dot product.

3 Theorem If θ is the angle between the vectors $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$, then

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}| \cos\theta$$

The Law of Cosines is reviewed in Appendix D.

PROOF If we apply the Law of Cosines to triangle OAB in Figure 1, we get

4 $$|AB|^2 = |OA|^2 + |OB|^2 - 2|OA||OB| \cos\theta$$

(Observe that the Law of Cosines still applies in the limiting cases when $\theta = 0$ or π, or $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$ or $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$.) But $|OA| = |\mathbf{a}|$, $|OB| = |\mathbf{b}|$, and $|AB| = |\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}|$, so Equation 4 becomes

5 $$|\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}|^2 = |\mathbf{a}|^2 + |\mathbf{b}|^2 - 2|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}| \cos\theta$$

Using Properties 1, 2, and 3 of the dot product, we can rewrite the left side of this equation as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}|^2 &= (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}) \cdot (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}) \\ &= \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{b} \\ &= |\mathbf{a}|^2 - 2\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + |\mathbf{b}|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore Equation 5 gives

$$|\mathbf{a}|^2 - 2\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b} + |\mathbf{b}|^2 = |\mathbf{a}|^2 + |\mathbf{b}|^2 - 2|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\cos\theta$$

Thus
$$-2\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b} = -2|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\cos\theta$$

or
$$\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\cos\theta$$

EXAMPLE 2 If the vectors **a** and **b** have lengths 4 and 6, and the angle between them is $\pi/3$, find $\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b}$.

SOLUTION Using Theorem 3, we have

$$\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\cos(\pi/3) = 4\cdot 6\cdot \tfrac{1}{2} = 12$$

The formula in Theorem 3 also enables us to find the angle between two vectors.

6 Corollary If θ is the angle between the nonzero vectors **a** and **b**, then

$$\cos\theta = \frac{\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|}$$

EXAMPLE 3 Find the angle between the vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle 2, 2, -1\rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle 5, -3, 2\rangle$.

SOLUTION Since

$$|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{2^2 + 2^2 + (-1)^2} = 3 \qquad \text{and} \qquad |\mathbf{b}| = \sqrt{5^2 + (-3)^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{38}$$

and since

$$\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b} = 2(5) + 2(-3) + (-1)(2) = 2$$

we have, from Corollary 6,

$$\cos\theta = \frac{\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|} = \frac{2}{3\sqrt{38}}$$

So the angle between **a** and **b** is

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{2}{3\sqrt{38}}\right) \approx 1.46 \quad (\text{or } 84°)$$

Two nonzero vectors **a** and **b** are called **perpendicular** or **orthogonal** if the angle between them is $\theta = \pi/2$. Then Theorem 3 gives

$$\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\cos(\pi/2) = 0$$

and conversely if $\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b} = 0$, then $\cos\theta = 0$, so $\theta = \pi/2$. The zero vector $\mathbf{0}$ is considered to be perpendicular to all vectors. Therefore we have the following method for determining whether two vectors are orthogonal.

7 Two vectors **a** and **b** are orthogonal if and only if $\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b} = 0$.

EXAMPLE 4 Show that $2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$ is perpendicular to $5\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$.

SOLUTION Since

$$(2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}) \cdot (5\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}) = 2(5) + 2(-4) + (-1)(2) = 0$$

these vectors are perpendicular by (7). ■

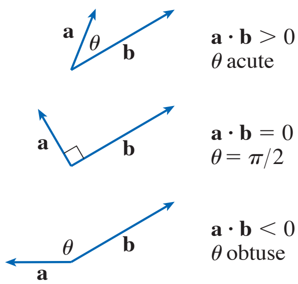


FIGURE 2

Because $\cos\theta > 0$ if $0 \leqslant \theta < \pi/2$ and $\cos\theta < 0$ if $\pi/2 < \theta \leqslant \pi$, we see that $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ is positive for $\theta < \pi/2$ and negative for $\theta > \pi/2$. We can think of $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ as measuring the extent to which $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ point in the same direction. The dot product $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ is positive if $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ point in the same general direction, 0 if they are perpendicular, and negative if they point in generally opposite directions (see Figure 2). In the extreme case where $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ point in exactly the same direction, we have $\theta = 0$, so $\cos\theta = 1$ and

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|$$

If $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ point in exactly opposite directions, then we have $\theta = \pi$ and so $\cos\theta = -1$ and $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = -|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|$.

Direction Angles and Direction Cosines

The **direction angles** of a nonzero vector $\mathbf{a}$ are the angles α, β, and γ (in the interval $[0, \pi]$) that $\mathbf{a}$ makes with the positive x-, y-, and z-axes, respectively (see Figure 3).

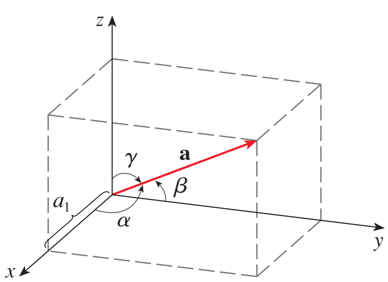


FIGURE 3

The cosines of these direction angles, $\cos\alpha$, $\cos\beta$, and $\cos\gamma$, are called the **direction cosines** of the vector $\mathbf{a}$. Using Corollary 6 with $\mathbf{b}$ replaced by $\mathbf{i}$, we obtain

8
$$\cos\alpha = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{i}}{|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{i}|} = \frac{a_1}{|\mathbf{a}|}$$

(This can also be seen directly from Figure 3.)

Similarly, we also have

9
$$\cos\beta = \frac{a_2}{|\mathbf{a}|} \qquad \cos\gamma = \frac{a_3}{|\mathbf{a}|}$$

By squaring the expressions in Equations 8 and 9 and adding, we see that

10
$$\cos^2\alpha + \cos^2\beta + \cos^2\gamma = 1$$

We can also use Equations 8 and 9 to write

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle &= \big\langle |\mathbf{a}|\cos\alpha, |\mathbf{a}|\cos\beta, |\mathbf{a}|\cos\gamma \big\rangle \\ &= |\mathbf{a}|\langle \cos\alpha, \cos\beta, \cos\gamma \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

11
$$\frac{1}{|\mathbf{a}|}\mathbf{a} = \langle \cos\alpha, \cos\beta, \cos\gamma \rangle$$

which says that the direction cosines of $\mathbf{a}$ are the components of the unit vector in the direction of $\mathbf{a}$.

EXAMPLE 5 Find the direction angles of the vector $\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle$.

SOLUTION Since $|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{14}$, Equations 8 and 9 give

$$\cos\alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \qquad \cos\beta = \frac{2}{\sqrt{14}} \qquad \cos\gamma = \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}}$$

and so

$$\alpha = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{14}}\right) \approx 74^\circ \qquad \beta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{14}}\right) \approx 58^\circ \qquad \gamma = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{3}{\sqrt{14}}\right) \approx 37^\circ$$

Projections

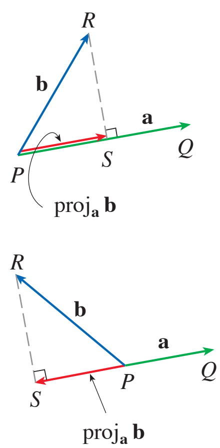


FIGURE 4
Vector projections

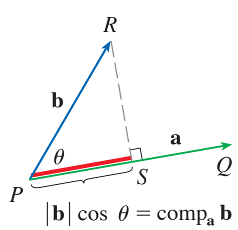


FIGURE 5
Scalar projection

Figure 4 shows representations $\overrightarrow{PQ}$ and $\overrightarrow{PR}$ of two vectors $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ with the same initial point P. If S is the foot of the perpendicular from R to the line containing $\overrightarrow{PQ}$, then the vector with representation $\overrightarrow{PS}$ is called the **vector projection** of $\mathbf{b}$ onto $\mathbf{a}$ and is denoted by $\text{proj}_\mathbf{a}\, \mathbf{b}$. (You can think of it as a shadow of $\mathbf{b}$.)

The **scalar projection** of $\mathbf{b}$ onto $\mathbf{a}$ (also called the **component of b along a**) is defined to be the signed magnitude of the vector projection, which is the number $|\mathbf{b}| \cos\theta$, where θ is the angle between $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$. (See Figure 5.) This is denoted by $\text{comp}_\mathbf{a}\, \mathbf{b}$. Observe that it is negative if $\pi/2 < \theta \leqslant \pi$. The equation

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}| \cos\theta = |\mathbf{a}|(|\mathbf{b}| \cos\theta)$$

shows that the dot product of $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ can be interpreted as the length of $\mathbf{a}$ times the scalar projection of $\mathbf{b}$ onto $\mathbf{a}$. Since

$$|\mathbf{b}| \cos\theta = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}|} = \frac{\mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|} \cdot \mathbf{b}$$

the component of $\mathbf{b}$ along $\mathbf{a}$ can be computed by taking the dot product of $\mathbf{b}$ with the unit vector in the direction of $\mathbf{a}$. We summarize these ideas as follows.

Scalar projection of **b** onto **a**:	$\text{comp}_\mathbf{a}\, \mathbf{b} = \dfrac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}|}$
Vector projection of **b** onto **a**:	$\text{proj}_\mathbf{a}\, \mathbf{b} = \left(\dfrac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}|}\right) \dfrac{\mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|} = \dfrac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}|^2}\, \mathbf{a}$

Notice that the vector projection is the scalar projection times the unit vector in the direction of $\mathbf{a}$.

EXAMPLE 6 Find the scalar projection and vector projection of $\mathbf{b} = \langle 1, 1, 2 \rangle$ onto $\mathbf{a} = \langle -2, 3, 1 \rangle$.

SOLUTION Since $|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{(-2)^2 + 3^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{14}$, the scalar projection of $\mathbf{b}$ onto $\mathbf{a}$ is

$$\text{comp}_\mathbf{a}\, \mathbf{b} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}|} = \frac{(-2)(1) + 3(1) + 1(2)}{\sqrt{14}} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}}$$

The vector projection is this scalar projection times the unit vector in the direction of $\mathbf{a}$:

$$\text{proj}_\mathbf{a}\, \mathbf{b} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}} \frac{\mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|} = \frac{3}{14}\mathbf{a} = \left\langle -\frac{3}{7}, \frac{9}{14}, \frac{3}{14} \right\rangle$$

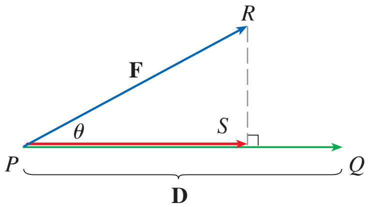


FIGURE 6

Application: Work

One use of projections occurs in physics in calculating work. In Section 6.4 we defined the work done by a constant force F in moving an object through a distance d as $W = Fd$, but this applies only when the force is directed along the line of motion of the object. Suppose, however, that the constant force is a vector $\mathbf{F} = \overrightarrow{PR}$ pointing in some other direction, as illustrated in Figure 6. If the force moves the object from P to Q, then the **displacement vector** is $\mathbf{D} = \overrightarrow{PQ}$. The **work** done by this force is defined to be the product of the component of the force along $\mathbf{D}$ and the distance moved:

$$W = \left(|\mathbf{F}| \cos \theta\right)|\mathbf{D}|$$

But then, from Theorem 3, we have

$$\boxed{12} \qquad W = |\mathbf{F}||\mathbf{D}| \cos \theta = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{D}$$

Thus the work done by a constant force $\mathbf{F}$ is the dot product $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{D}$, where $\mathbf{D}$ is the displacement vector.

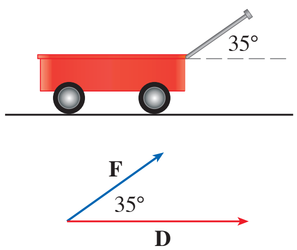


FIGURE 7

EXAMPLE 7 A wagon is pulled a distance of 100 m along a horizontal path by a constant force of 70 N. The handle of the wagon is held at an angle 35° above the horizontal. Find the work done by the force.

SOLUTION If $\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{D}$ are the force and displacement vectors, as pictured in Figure 7, then the work done is

$$W = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{D} = |\mathbf{F}||\mathbf{D}| \cos 35°$$

$$= (70)(100) \cos 35° \approx 5734 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m} = 5734 \text{ J}$$ ■

EXAMPLE 8 A force is given by a vector $\mathbf{F} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$ and moves a particle from the point $P(2, 1, 0)$ to the point $Q(4, 6, 2)$. Find the work done.

SOLUTION The displacement vector is $\mathbf{D} = \overrightarrow{PQ} = \langle 2, 5, 2 \rangle$, so by Equation 12, the work done is

$$W = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{D} = \langle 3, 4, 5 \rangle \cdot \langle 2, 5, 2 \rangle$$

$$= 6 + 20 + 10 = 36$$

If the unit of length is meters and the magnitude of the force is measured in newtons, then the work done is 36 J. ■

12.3 Exercises

1. Which of the following expressions are meaningful? Which are meaningless? Explain.
(a) $(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c}$ (b) $(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})\mathbf{c}$
(c) $|\mathbf{a}|(\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c})$ (d) $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c})$
(e) $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}$ (f) $|\mathbf{a}| \cdot (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c})$

2–10 Find $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$.

2. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 5, -2 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 3, 4 \rangle$

3. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 1.5, 0.4 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle -4, 6 \rangle$

4. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 6, -2, 3 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 2, 5, -1 \rangle$

5. $\mathbf{a} = \left\langle 4, 1, \frac{1}{4} \right\rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 6, -3, -8 \rangle$

6. $\mathbf{a} = \langle p, -p, 2p \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 2q, q, -q \rangle$

7. $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$

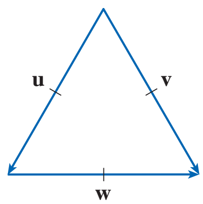
8. $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{k}$

9. $|\mathbf{a}| = 7, \quad |\mathbf{b}| = 4,$ the angle between $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ is $30°$

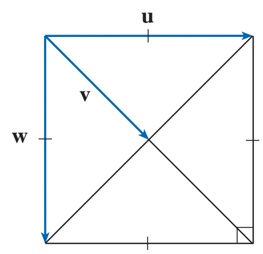
10. $|\mathbf{a}| = 80, \quad |\mathbf{b}| = 50,$ the angle between $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ is $3\pi/4$

11–12 If $\mathbf{u}$ is a unit vector, find $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$.

11.



12.



13. (a) Show that $\mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{i} = 0$.
(b) Show that $\mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{k} = 1$.

14. A street vendor sells a hamburgers, b hot dogs, and c bottles of water on a given day. He charges \$4 for a hamburger, \$2.50 for a hot dog, and \$1 for a bottle of water. If $\mathbf{A} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ and $\mathbf{P} = \langle 4, 2.5, 1 \rangle$, what is the meaning of the dot product $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{P}$?

15–20 Find the angle between the vectors. (First find an exact expression and then approximate to the nearest degree.)

15. $\mathbf{u} = \langle 5, 1 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{v} = \langle 3, 2 \rangle$

16. $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j}, \quad \mathbf{b} = -3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$

17. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, -4, 1 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle 0, 2, -2 \rangle$

18. $\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 3, 4 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle 5, 2, 1 \rangle$

19. $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{v} = -3\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$

20. $\mathbf{a} = 8\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 4\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$

21–22 Find, correct to the nearest degree, the three angles of the triangle with the given vertices.

21. $P(2, 0), \quad Q(0, 3), \quad R(3, 4)$

22. $A(1, 0, -1), \quad B(3, -2, 0), \quad C(1, 3, 3)$

23–24 Determine whether the given vectors are orthogonal, parallel, or neither.

23. (a) $\mathbf{a} = \langle 9, 3 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle -2, 6 \rangle$
(b) $\mathbf{a} = \langle 4, 5, -2 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle 3, -1, 5 \rangle$
(c) $\mathbf{a} = -8\mathbf{i} + 12\mathbf{j} + 4\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{b} = 6\mathbf{i} - 9\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$
(d) $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{b} = 5\mathbf{i} + 9\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$

24. (a) $\mathbf{u} = \langle -5, 4, -2 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{v} = \langle 3, 4, -1 \rangle$
(b) $\mathbf{u} = 9\mathbf{i} - 6\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{v} = -6\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$
(c) $\mathbf{u} = \langle c, c, c \rangle, \quad \mathbf{v} = \langle c, 0, -c \rangle$

25. Use vectors to determine whether the triangle with vertices $P(1, -3, -2)$, $Q(2, 0, -4)$, and $R(6, -2, -5)$ is right-angled.

26. Find the values of x such that the angle between the vectors $\langle 2, 1, -1 \rangle$, and $\langle 1, x, 0 \rangle$ is $45°$.

27. Find a unit vector that is orthogonal to both $\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{k}$.

28. Find two unit vectors that make an angle of $60°$ with $\mathbf{v} = \langle 3, 4 \rangle$.

29–30 Find the acute angle between the lines. Use degrees rounded to one decimal place.

29. $y = 4 - 3x, \quad y = 3x + 2$

30. $5x - y = 8, \quad x + 3y = 15$

31–32 Find the acute angles between the curves at their points of intersection. Use degrees rounded to one decimal place. (The angle between two curves is the angle between their tangent lines at the point of intersection.)

31. $y = x^2, \quad y = x^3$

32. $y = \sin x, \quad y = \cos x, \quad 0 \leqslant x \leqslant \pi/2$

33–37 Find the direction cosines and direction angles of the vector. (Give the direction angles correct to the nearest tenth of a degree.)

33. $\langle 4, 1, 8 \rangle$

34. $\langle -6, 2, 9 \rangle$

35. $3\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$

36. $-0.7\mathbf{i} + 1.2\mathbf{j} - 0.8\mathbf{k}$

37. $\langle c, c, c \rangle, \quad$ where $c > 0$

38. If a vector has direction angles $\alpha = \pi/4$ and $\beta = \pi/3$, find the third direction angle γ.

39–44 Find the scalar and vector projections of $\mathbf{b}$ onto $\mathbf{a}$.

39. $\mathbf{a} = \langle -5, 12 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle 4, 6 \rangle$

40. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, 4 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle 2, 3 \rangle$

41. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 4, 7, -4 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle 3, -1, 1 \rangle$

42. $\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 4, 8 \rangle, \quad \mathbf{b} = \langle 12, 1, 2 \rangle$

43. $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{b} = 2\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$

44. $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{b} = 5\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{k}$

45. Show that the vector $\text{orth}_{\mathbf{a}}\,\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} - \text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}\,\mathbf{b}$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{a}$. (It is called an **orthogonal projection** of $\mathbf{b}$.)

46. For the vectors in Exercise 40, find $\text{orth}_{\mathbf{a}}\,\mathbf{b}$ and illustrate by drawing the vectors $\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{b}$, $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}\,\mathbf{b}$, and $\text{orth}_{\mathbf{a}}\,\mathbf{b}$.

47. If $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, 0, -1 \rangle$, find a vector $\mathbf{b}$ such that $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{a}}\,\mathbf{b} = 2$.

48. Suppose that $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ are nonzero vectors.
(a) Under what circumstances is $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{a}}\,\mathbf{b} = \text{comp}_{\mathbf{b}}\,\mathbf{a}$?
(b) Under what circumstances is $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}\,\mathbf{b} = \text{proj}_{\mathbf{b}}\,\mathbf{a}$?

49. Find the work done by a force $\mathbf{F} = 8\,\mathbf{i} - 6\,\mathbf{j} + 9\,\mathbf{k}$ that moves an object from the point $(0, 10, 8)$ along a straight line to the point $(6, 12, 20)$. The distance is measured in meters and the force in newtons.

50. A tow truck drags a stalled car along a road. The chain makes an angle of $30°$ with the road and the tension in the chain is 1500 N. How much work is done by the truck in pulling the car 1 km?

51. A sled is pulled along a level path through snow by a rope. A 30 N force acting at an angle of $40°$ above the horizontal moves the sled 80 m. Find the work done by the force.

52. A boat sails south with the help of a wind blowing in the direction S 36° E with magnitude 2000 N. Find the work done by the wind as the boat moves 40 m.

53. Distance from a Point to a Line Use a scalar projection to show that the distance from a point $P_1(x_1, y_1)$ to the line $ax + by + c = 0$ is

$$\frac{|ax_1 + by_1 + c|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}$$

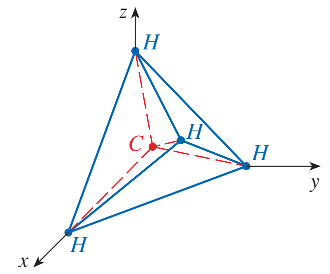
Use this formula to find the distance from the point $(-2, 3)$ to the line $3x - 4y + 5 = 0$.

54. If $\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$, $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$, show that the vector equation $(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{a}) \cdot (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{b}) = 0$ represents a sphere, and find its center and radius.

55. Find the angle, in degrees rounded to one decimal place, between a diagonal of a cube and one of its edges.

56. Find the angle, in degrees rounded to one decimal place, between a diagonal of a cube and a diagonal of one of its faces.

57. A molecule of methane, CH_4, is structured with the four hydrogen atoms at the vertices of a regular tetrahedron and the carbon atom at the centroid. The *bond angle* is the angle formed by the H—C—H combination; it is the angle between the lines that join the carbon atom to two of the hydrogen atoms. Show that the bond angle is about 109.5°.
[*Hint:* Take the vertices of the tetrahedron to be the points $(1, 0, 0)$, $(0, 1, 0)$, $(0, 0, 1)$, and $(1, 1, 1)$, as shown in the figure. Then the centroid is $\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$.]



58. If $\mathbf{c} = |\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{b} + |\mathbf{b}|\mathbf{a}$, where $\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{b}$, and $\mathbf{c}$ are all nonzero vectors, show that $\mathbf{c}$ bisects the angle between $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$.

59. Prove Properties 2, 4, and 5 of the dot product (Theorem 2).

60. Suppose that all sides of a quadrilateral are equal in length and opposite sides are parallel. Use vector methods to show that the diagonals are perpendicular.

61. Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality Use Theorem 3 to prove the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

$$|\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}| \leqslant |\mathbf{a}|\,|\mathbf{b}|$$

62. Triangle Inequality The Triangle Inequality for vectors is

$$|\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}| \leqslant |\mathbf{a}| + |\mathbf{b}|$$

(a) Give a geometric interpretation of the Triangle Inequality.
(b) Use the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality from Exercise 61 to prove the Triangle Inequality. [*Hint:* Use the fact that $|\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}|^2 = (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) \cdot (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b})$ and use Property 3 of the dot product.]

63. Parallelogram Identity The Parallelogram Identity states that

$$|\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}|^2 + |\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}|^2 = 2|\mathbf{a}|^2 + 2|\mathbf{b}|^2$$

(a) Give a geometric interpretation of the Parallelogram Identity.
(b) Prove the Parallelogram Identity. (See the hint in Exercise 62.)

64. Show that if $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ are orthogonal, then the vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ must have the same length.

65. If θ is the angle between vectors $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$, show that

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}\,\mathbf{b} \cdot \text{proj}_{\mathbf{b}}\,\mathbf{a} = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) \cos^2\theta$$

66. (a) Show that if $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are nonzero orthogonal vectors, then $|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}|^2 = |\mathbf{u}|^2 + |\mathbf{v}|^2$.
(b) Show that the converse of part (a) is also true: if $|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}|^2 = |\mathbf{u}|^2 + |\mathbf{v}|^2$, then $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are orthogonal.

12.4 The Cross Product

Given two nonzero vectors, it is very useful to be able to find a nonzero vector that is perpendicular to both of them, as we will see in the next section and in Chapters 13 and 14. We now define an operation, called the cross product, that produces such a vector.

The Cross Product of Two Vectors

Given two nonzero vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$, suppose that a nonzero vector $\mathbf{c} = \langle c_1, c_2, c_3 \rangle$ is perpendicular to both $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$. Then $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c} = 0$ and $\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c} = 0$ and so

$$\boxed{1} \qquad a_1c_1 + a_2c_2 + a_3c_3 = 0$$

$$\boxed{2} \qquad b_1c_1 + b_2c_2 + b_3c_3 = 0$$

To eliminate c_3 we multiply (1) by b_3 and (2) by a_3 and subtract:

$$\boxed{3} \qquad (a_1b_3 - a_3b_1)c_1 + (a_2b_3 - a_3b_2)c_2 = 0$$

Equation 3 has the form $pc_1 + qc_2 = 0$, for which an obvious solution is $c_1 = q$ and $c_2 = -p$. So a solution of (3) is

$$c_1 = a_2b_3 - a_3b_2 \qquad c_2 = a_3b_1 - a_1b_3$$

Substituting these values into (1) and (2), we then get

$$c_3 = a_1b_2 - a_2b_1$$

This means that a vector perpendicular to both $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ is

$$\langle c_1, c_2, c_3 \rangle = \langle a_2b_3 - a_3b_2, a_3b_1 - a_1b_3, a_1b_2 - a_2b_1 \rangle$$

The resulting vector is called the *cross product* of $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ and is denoted by $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$.

Hamilton

The cross product was invented by the Irish mathematician Sir William Rowan Hamilton (1805–1865), who had created a precursor of vectors, called quaternions. When he was fi e years old Hamilton could read Latin, Greek, and Hebrew. At age eight he added French and Italian and at ten he could read Arabic and Sanskrit. At the age of 21, while still an undergraduate at Trinity College in Dublin, Hamilton was appointed Professor of Astronomy at the university and Royal Astronomer of Ireland!

4 Definition of the ross Product If $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$, then the **cross product** of $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ is the vector

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \langle a_2b_3 - a_3b_2, a_3b_1 - a_1b_3, a_1b_2 - a_2b_1 \rangle$$

Notice that the cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ of two vectors $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ is a vector (whereas the dot product is a scalar). For this reason it is also called the **vector product**. Note that $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is defined only when $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ are *three-dimensional* vectors.

In order to make Definition 4 easier to remember, we use the notation of determinants. A **determinant of order 2** is defined by

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

(Multiply across the diagonals and subtract.) For example,

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -6 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = 2(4) - 1(-6) = 14$$

A **determinant of order 3** can be defined in terms of second-order determinants:

$$\boxed{5} \qquad \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = a_1 \begin{vmatrix} b_2 & b_3 \\ c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} - a_2 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} + a_3 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \\ c_1 & c_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

Observe that each term on the right side of Equation 5 involves a number a_i in the first row of the determinant, and a_i is multiplied by the second-order determinant obtained from the left side by deleting the row and column in which a_i appears. Notice also the minus sign in the second term. For example,

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \\ -5 & 4 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{vmatrix} - 2 \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ -5 & 2 \end{vmatrix} + (-1) \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ -5 & 4 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 1(0 - 4) - 2(6 + 5) + (-1)(12 - 0) = -38$$

If we now rewrite Definition 4 using second-order determinants and the standard basis vectors $\mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{j}$, and $\mathbf{k}$, we see that 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

$$\boxed{6} \qquad \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & a_3 \\ b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} - \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{j} + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}$$

In view of the similarity between Equations 5 and 6, we often write

$$\boxed{7} \qquad \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

Although the first row of the symbolic determinant in Equation 7 consists of vectors, if we expand it as if it were an ordinary determinant using the rule in Equation 5, we obtain Equation 6. The symbolic formula in Equation 7 is probably the easiest way of remembering and computing cross products.

EXAMPLE 1 If $\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, 3, 4 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle 2, 7, -5 \rangle$, then

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 7 & -5 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 7 & -5 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & -5 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{j} + \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 7 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}$$

$$= (-15 - 28)\mathbf{i} - (-5 - 8)\mathbf{j} + (7 - 6)\mathbf{k} = -43\mathbf{i} + 13\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$ ■

EXAMPLE 2 Show that $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$ for any vector $\mathbf{a}$ in V_3.

SOLUTION If $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$, then

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{a} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (a_2a_3 - a_3a_2)\,\mathbf{i} - (a_1a_3 - a_3a_1)\,\mathbf{j} + (a_1a_2 - a_2a_1)\,\mathbf{k}$$

$$= 0\,\mathbf{i} - 0\,\mathbf{j} + 0\,\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{0}$$

Properties of the Cross Product

We constructed the cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ so that it would be perpendicular to both $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$. This is one of the most important properties of a cross product, so let's emphasize and verify it in the following theorem and give a formal proof.

8 Theorem The vector $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is orthogonal to both $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$.

PROOF In order to show that $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{a}$, we compute their dot product as follows:

$$(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{a} = \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & a_3 \\ b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} a_1 - \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} a_2 + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} a_3$$

$$= a_1(a_2b_3 - a_3b_2) - a_2(a_1b_3 - a_3b_1) + a_3(a_1b_2 - a_2b_1)$$

$$= a_1a_2b_3 - a_1b_2a_3 - a_1a_2b_3 + b_1a_2a_3 + a_1b_2a_3 - b_1a_2a_3$$

$$= 0$$

A similar computation shows that $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$. Therefore $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is orthogonal to both $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$.

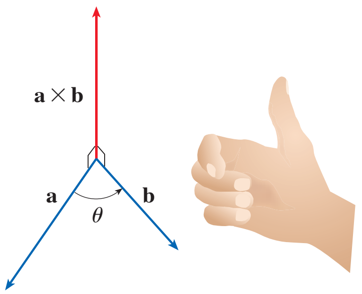


FIGURE 1
The right-hand rule gives the direction of $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$.

If $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ are represented by directed line segments with the same initial point (as in Figure 1), then Theorem 8 says that the cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ points in a direction perpendicular to the plane through $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$. It turns out that the direction of $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is given by the *right-hand rule:* if the fingers of your right hand curl in the direction of a rotation (through an angle less than 180°) from $\mathbf{a}$ to $\mathbf{b}$, then your thumb points in the direction of $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$.

Now that we know the direction of the vector $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$, the remaining thing we need to complete its geometric description is its length $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|$. This is given by the following theorem.

9 Theorem If θ is the angle between $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ (so $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi$), then the length of the cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is given by

$$|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}| = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta$$

PROOF From the definitions of the cross product and length of a vector, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|^2 &= (a_2b_3 - a_3b_2)^2 + (a_3b_1 - a_1b_3)^2 + (a_1b_2 - a_2b_1)^2 \\
&= a_2^2b_3^2 - 2a_2a_3b_2b_3 + a_3^2b_2^2 + a_3^2b_1^2 - 2a_1a_3b_1b_3 + a_1^2b_3^2 \\
&\qquad + a_1^2b_2^2 - 2a_1a_2b_1b_2 + a_2^2b_1^2 \\
&= (a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2)(b_1^2 + b_2^2 + b_3^2) - (a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3)^2 \\
&= |\mathbf{a}|^2|\mathbf{b}|^2 - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})^2 \\
&= |\mathbf{a}|^2|\mathbf{b}|^2 - |\mathbf{a}|^2|\mathbf{b}|^2\cos^2\theta \qquad \text{(by Theorem 12.3.3)} \\
&= |\mathbf{a}|^2|\mathbf{b}|^2(1 - \cos^2\theta) \\
&= |\mathbf{a}|^2|\mathbf{b}|^2\sin^2\theta
\end{aligned}$$

Taking square roots and observing that $\sqrt{\sin^2\theta} = \sin\theta$ because $\sin\theta \geqslant 0$ when $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi$, we have

$$|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}| = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\sin\theta$$

■

10 Corollary Two nonzero vectors **a** and **b** are parallel if and only if

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$$

PROOF Two nonzero vectors **a** and **b** are parallel if and only if $\theta = 0$ or π. In either case $\sin\theta = 0$, so $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}| = 0$ and therefore $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$. ■

Geometric characterization of $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$

Since a vector is completely determined by its magnitude and direction, we can now say that for nonparallel vectors **a** and **b**, $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is the vector that is perpendicular to both **a** and **b**, whose orientation is determined by the right-hand rule, and whose length is $|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\sin\theta$. In fact, that is exactly how physicists *define* $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$.

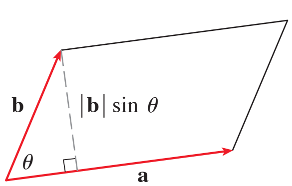


FIGURE 2

The geometric interpretation of Theorem 9 can be seen by looking at Figure 2. If **a** and **b** are represented by directed line segments with the same initial point, then they determine a parallelogram with base $|\mathbf{a}|$, altitude $|\mathbf{b}|\sin\theta$, and area

$$A = |\mathbf{a}|\left(|\mathbf{b}|\sin\theta\right) = |\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|$$

Thus we have the following way of interpreting the magnitude of a cross product.

> The length of the cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is equal to the area of the parallelogram determined by **a** and **b**.

EXAMPLE 3 Find a vector perpendicular to the plane that passes through the points $P(1, 4, 6)$, $Q(-2, 5, -1)$, and $R(1, -1, 1)$.

SOLUTION The vector $\overrightarrow{PQ} \times \overrightarrow{PR}$ is perpendicular to both $\overrightarrow{PQ}$ and $\overrightarrow{PR}$ and is therefore perpendicular to the plane through P, Q, and R. We know from (12.2.1) that

$$\overrightarrow{PQ} = (-2 - 1)\,\mathbf{i} + (5 - 4)\,\mathbf{j} + (-1 - 6)\,\mathbf{k} = -3\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - 7\mathbf{k}$$

$$\overrightarrow{PR} = (1 - 1)\,\mathbf{i} + (-1 - 4)\,\mathbf{j} + (1 - 6)\,\mathbf{k} = -5\,\mathbf{j} - 5\,\mathbf{k}$$

We compute the cross product of these vectors:

$$\vec{PQ} \times \vec{PR} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -3 & 1 & -7 \\ 0 & -5 & -5 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (-5 - 35)\,\mathbf{i} - (15 - 0)\,\mathbf{j} + (15 - 0)\,\mathbf{k} = -40\,\mathbf{i} - 15\,\mathbf{j} + 15\,\mathbf{k}$$

So the vector $\langle -40, -15, 15 \rangle$ is perpendicular to the given plane. Any nonzero scalar multiple of this vector, such as $\langle -8, -3, 3 \rangle$, is also perpendicular to the plane. ■

EXAMPLE 4 Find the area of the triangle with vertices $P(1, 4, 6)$, $Q(-2, 5, -1)$, and $R(1, -1, 1)$.

SOLUTION In Example 3 we computed that $\vec{PQ} \times \vec{PR} = \langle -40, -15, 15 \rangle$. The area of the parallelogram with adjacent sides PQ and PR is the length of this cross product:

$$|\vec{PQ} \times \vec{PR}| = \sqrt{(-40)^2 + (-15)^2 + 15^2} = 5\sqrt{82}$$

The area A of the triangle PQR is half the area of this parallelogram, that is, $\frac{5}{2}\sqrt{82}$. ■

If we apply Theorems 8 and 9 to the standard basis vectors **i**, **j**, and **k** using $\theta = \pi/2$, we obtain

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{lll} \mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k} & \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j} \\ \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{i} = -\mathbf{k} & \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{j} = -\mathbf{i} & \mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{k} = -\mathbf{j} \end{array}}$$

Observe that $\qquad \mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} \neq \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{i}$

Thus the cross product is not commutative. Also

$$\mathbf{i} \times (\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j}) = \mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{k} = -\mathbf{j}$$

whereas $\qquad (\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{i}) \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{0} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{0}$

So the associative law for multiplication does not usually hold; that is, in general,

$$(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{c} \neq \mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$$

However, some of the usual laws of algebra *do* hold for cross products. The following theorem summarizes the properties of vector products.

11 Properties of the Cross Product If **a**, **b**, and **c** are vectors and c is a scalar, then

1. $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a}$
2. $(c\mathbf{a}) \times \mathbf{b} = c(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a} \times (c\mathbf{b})$
3. $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{c}$
4. $(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$
5. $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c}$
6. $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c})\mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})\mathbf{c}$

These properties can be proved by writing the vectors in terms of their components and using the definition of a cross product. We give the proof of Property 5 and leave the remaining proofs as exercises.

PROOF OF PROPERTY 5 If $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{c} = \langle c_1, c_2, c_3 \rangle$, then

$$\boxed{12} \quad \begin{aligned} \mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) &= a_1(b_2c_3 - b_3c_2) + a_2(b_3c_1 - b_1c_3) + a_3(b_1c_2 - b_2c_1) \\ &= a_1b_2c_3 - a_1b_3c_2 + a_2b_3c_1 - a_2b_1c_3 + a_3b_1c_2 - a_3b_2c_1 \\ &= (a_2b_3 - a_3b_2)c_1 + (a_3b_1 - a_1b_3)c_2 + (a_1b_2 - a_2b_1)c_3 \\ &= (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c} \end{aligned}$$

■

Triple Products

The product $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$ that occurs in Property 5 is called the **scalar triple product** of the vectors $\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{b}$, and $\mathbf{c}$. Notice from Equation 12 that we can write the scalar triple product as a determinant:

$$\boxed{13} \qquad \mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

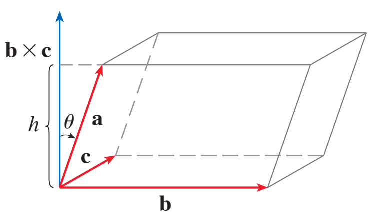


FIGURE 3

The geometric significance of the scalar triple product can be seen by considering the parallelepiped determined by the vectors $\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{b}$, and $\mathbf{c}$. (See Figure 3.) The area of the base parallelogram is $A = |\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}|$. If θ is the angle between $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$, then the height h of the parallelepiped is $h = |\mathbf{a}||\cos\theta|$. (We must use $|\cos\theta|$ instead of $\cos\theta$ in case $\theta > \pi/2$.) Therefore the volume of the parallelepiped is

$$V = Ah = |\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}||\mathbf{a}||\cos\theta| = |\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})| \qquad \text{(by Theorem 12.3.3)}$$

Thus we have proved the following formula.

> $\boxed{14}$ The volume of the parallelepiped determined by the vectors $\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{b}$, and $\mathbf{c}$ is the magnitude of their scalar triple product:
>
> $$V = |\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})|$$

If we use the formula in (14) and discover that the volume of the parallelepiped determined by $\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{b}$, and $\mathbf{c}$ is 0, then the vectors must lie in the same plane; that is, they are **coplanar**.

EXAMPLE 5 Use the scalar triple product to show that the vectors $\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, 4, -7 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 2, -1, 4 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{c} = \langle 0, -9, 18 \rangle$ are coplanar.

SOLUTION We use Equation 13 to compute their scalar triple product:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) &= \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 4 & -7 \\ 2 & -1 & 4 \\ 0 & -9 & 18 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= 1\begin{vmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ -9 & 18 \end{vmatrix} - 4\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 18 \end{vmatrix} - 7\begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -9 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= 1(18) - 4(36) - 7(-18) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, by (14), the volume of the parallelepiped determined by **a**, **b**, and **c** is 0. This means that **a**, **b**, and **c** are coplanar. ■

The product $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$ that occurs in Property 6 is called the **vector triple product** of **a**, **b**, and **c**. Property 6 will be used to derive Kepler's First Law of planetary motion in Chapter 13. Its proof is left as Exercise 50.

Application: Torque

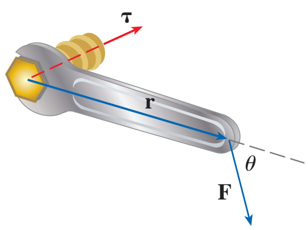


FIGURE 4

The idea of a cross product occurs often in physics. In particular, we consider a force **F** acting on a rigid body at a point given by a position vector **r**. (For instance, if we tighten a bolt by applying a force to a wrench as in Figure 4, we produce a turning effect.) The **torque** $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ (relative to the origin) is defined to be the cross product of the position and force vectors

$$\boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}$$

and measures the tendency of the body to rotate about the origin. The direction of the torque vector indicates the axis of rotation. According to Theorem 9, the magnitude of the torque vector is

$$|\boldsymbol{\tau}| = |\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}| = |\mathbf{r}||\mathbf{F}|\sin\theta$$

where θ is the angle between the position and force vectors. Observe that the only component of **F** that can cause a rotation is the one perpendicular to **r**, that is, $|\mathbf{F}|\sin\theta$. The magnitude of the torque is equal to the area of the parallelogram determined by **r** and **F**.

EXAMPLE 6 A bolt is tightened by applying a 40-N force to a 0.25-m wrench, as shown in Figure 5. Find the magnitude of the torque about the center of the bolt.

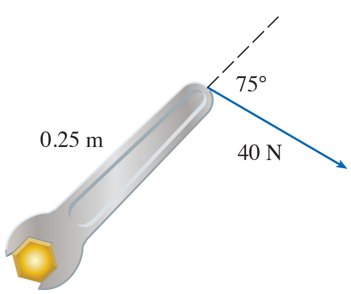


FIGURE 5

SOLUTION The magnitude of the torque vector is

$$\begin{aligned}|\boldsymbol{\tau}| = |\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}| = |\mathbf{r}||\mathbf{F}|\sin 75° &= (0.25)(40)\sin 75° \\ &= 10\sin 75° \approx 9.66\ \text{N}\cdot\text{m}\end{aligned}$$

If the bolt is right-threaded, then the torque vector itself is

$$\boldsymbol{\tau} = |\boldsymbol{\tau}|\,\mathbf{n} \approx 9.66\,\mathbf{n}$$

where **n** is a unit vector directed down into the page (by the right-hand rule). ■

12.4 Exercises

1–7 Find the cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ and verify that it is orthogonal to both **a** and **b**.

1. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 2, 3, 0 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 1, 0, 5 \rangle$
2. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 4, 3, -2 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 2, -1, 1 \rangle$
3. $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$
4. $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{b} = 3\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$
5. $\mathbf{a} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{4}\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$
6. $\mathbf{a} = t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin t\,\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{i} - \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + \cos t\,\mathbf{k}$
7. $\mathbf{a} = \langle t^3, t^2, t \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle t, 2t, 3t \rangle$

8. If $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$, find $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$. Sketch **a**, **b**, and $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ as vectors starting at the origin.

9–12 Find the vector, not with determinants, but by using properties of cross products.

9. $(\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j}) \times \mathbf{k}$
10. $\mathbf{k} \times (\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j})$

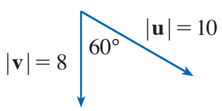
11. $(\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}) \times (\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{i})$

12. $(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}) \times (\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j})$

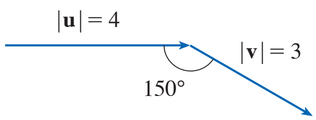
13. State whether each expression is meaningful. If not, explain why. If so, state whether it is a vector or a scalar.
(a) $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$
(b) $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c})$
(c) $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$
(d) $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c})$
(e) $(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) \times (\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{d})$
(f) $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot (\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{d})$

14–15 Find $|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|$ and determine whether $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ is directed into the page or out of the page.

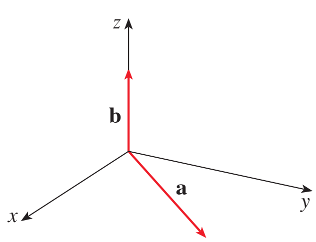
14.



15.



16. The figure shows a vector $\mathbf{a}$ in the xy-plane and a vector $\mathbf{b}$ in the direction of $\mathbf{k}$. Their lengths are $|\mathbf{a}| = 3$ and $|\mathbf{b}| = 2$.
(a) Find $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|$.
(b) Use the right-hand rule to decide whether the components of $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ are positive, negative, or 0.



17. If $\mathbf{a} = \langle 2, -1, 3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{b} = \langle 4, 2, 1 \rangle$, find $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ and $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a}$.

18. If $\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, 0, 1 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle 2, 1, -1 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{c} = \langle 0, 1, 3 \rangle$, show that $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) \neq (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{c}$.

19. Find two unit vectors orthogonal to both $\langle 3, 2, 1 \rangle$ and $\langle -1, 1, 0 \rangle$.

20. Find two unit vectors orthogonal to both $\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$.

21. Show that $\mathbf{0} \times \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{0}$ for any vector $\mathbf{a}$ in V_3.

22. Show that $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$ for all vectors $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ in V_3.

23–26 Prove the specified property of cross products (Theorem 11).

23. Property 1: $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a}$

24. Property 2: $(c\mathbf{a}) \times \mathbf{b} = c(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a} \times (c\mathbf{b})$

25. Property 3: $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{c}$

26. Property 4: $(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$

27. Find the area of the parallelogram with vertices $A(-3, 0)$, $B(-1, 3)$, $C(5, 2)$, and $D(3, -1)$.

28. Find the area of the parallelogram with vertices $P(1, 0, 2)$, $Q(3, 3, 3)$, $R(7, 5, 8)$, and $S(5, 2, 7)$.

29–32 (a) Find a nonzero vector orthogonal to the plane through the points P, Q, and R, and (b) find the area of triangle PQR.

29. $P(3, 1, 1)$, $Q(5, 2, 4)$, $R(8, 5, 3)$

30. $P(-2, 0, 4)$, $Q(1, 3, -2)$, $R(0, 3, 5)$

31. $P(7, -2, 0)$, $Q(3, 1, 3)$, $R(4, -4, 2)$

32. $P(2, -3, 4)$, $Q(-1, -2, 2)$, $R(3, 1, -3)$

33–34 Find the volume of the parallelepiped determined by the vectors $\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{b}$, and $\mathbf{c}$.

33. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 1, 2, 3 \rangle$, $\mathbf{b} = \langle -1, 1, 2 \rangle$, $\mathbf{c} = \langle 2, 1, 4 \rangle$

34. $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$, $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$

35–36 Find the volume of the parallelepiped with adjacent edges PQ, PR, and PS.

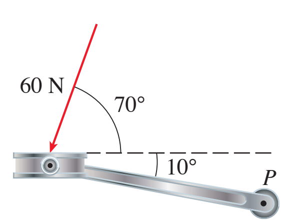
35. $P(-2, 1, 0)$, $Q(2, 3, 2)$, $R(1, 4, -1)$, $S(3, 6, 1)$

36. $P(3, 0, 1)$, $Q(-1, 2, 5)$, $R(5, 1, -1)$, $S(0, 4, 2)$

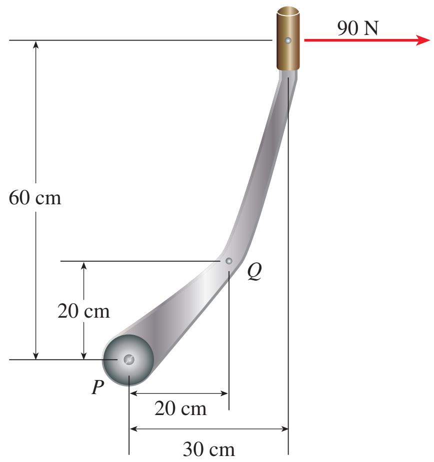
37. Use the scalar triple product to verify that the vectors $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$, $\mathbf{v} = 3\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$, and $\mathbf{w} = 5\mathbf{i} + 9\mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k}$ are coplanar.

38. Use the scalar triple product to determine whether the points $A(1, 3, 2)$, $B(3, -1, 6)$, $C(5, 2, 0)$, and $D(3, 6, -4)$ lie in the same plane.

39. A bicycle pedal is pushed by a foot with a 60-N force as shown in the figure. The shaft of the pedal is 18 cm long. Find the magnitude of the torque about P.



40. (a) A horizontal force of 90 N is applied to the handle of a gearshift lever as shown in the figure. Find the magnitude of the torque about the pivot point P.
(b) Find the magnitude of the torque about P if the same force is applied at the elbow Q of the lever.



41. A wrench 30 cm long lies along the positive y-axis and grips a bolt at the origin. A force is applied in the direction $\langle 0, 3, -4 \rangle$ at the end of the wrench. Find the magnitude of the force needed to supply 100 N·m of torque to the bolt.

42. Let $\mathbf{v} = 5\mathbf{j}$ and let $\mathbf{u}$ be a vector with length 3 that starts at the origin and rotates in the xy-plane. Find the maximum and minimum values of the length of the vector $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$. In what direction does $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ point?

43. If $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \sqrt{3}$ and $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \langle 1, 2, 2 \rangle$, find the angle between $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$.

44. (a) Find all vectors $\mathbf{v}$ such that

$$\langle 1, 2, 1 \rangle \times \mathbf{v} = \langle 3, 1, -5 \rangle$$

(b) Explain why there is no vector $\mathbf{v}$ such that

$$\langle 1, 2, 1 \rangle \times \mathbf{v} = \langle 3, 1, 5 \rangle$$

45. Distance from a Point to a Line Let P be a point not on the line L that passes through the points Q and R.
(a) Show that the distance d from the point P to the line L is

$$d = \frac{|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|}{|\mathbf{a}|}$$

where $\mathbf{a} = \overrightarrow{QR}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \overrightarrow{QP}$.
(b) Use the formula in part (a) to find the distance from the point $P(1, 1, 1)$ to the line through $Q(0, 6, 8)$ and $R(-1, 4, 7)$.

46. Distance from a Point to a Plane Let P be a point not on the plane that passes through the points Q, R, and S.
(a) Show that the distance d from P to the plane is

$$d = \frac{|\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})|}{|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|}$$

where $\mathbf{a} = \overrightarrow{QR}$, $\mathbf{b} = \overrightarrow{QS}$, and $\mathbf{c} = \overrightarrow{QP}$.
(b) Use the formula in part (a) to find the distance from the point $P(2, 1, 4)$ to the plane through the points $Q(1, 0, 0)$, $R(0, 2, 0)$, and $S(0, 0, 3)$.

47. Show that $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|^2 = |\mathbf{a}|^2 |\mathbf{b}|^2 - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})^2$.

48. If $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{0}$, show that

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{a}$$

49. Prove that $(\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}) \times (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = 2(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b})$.

50. Prove Property 6 of cross products, that is,

$$\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c})\mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})\mathbf{c}$$

51. Use Exercise 50 to prove that

$$\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) + \mathbf{b} \times (\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{a}) + \mathbf{c} \times (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{0}$$

52. Prove that

$$(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot (\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{d}) = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c} & \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c} \\ \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{d} & \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{d} \end{vmatrix}$$

53. Suppose that $\mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{0}$.
(a) If $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c}$, does it follow that $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c}$?
(b) If $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{c}$, does it follow that $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c}$?
(c) If $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c}$ and $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{c}$, does it follow that $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c}$?

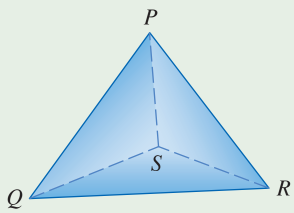
54. If $\mathbf{v}_1$, $\mathbf{v}_2$, and $\mathbf{v}_3$ are noncoplanar vectors, let

$$\mathbf{k}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_2 \times \mathbf{v}_3}{\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot (\mathbf{v}_2 \times \mathbf{v}_3)} \qquad \mathbf{k}_2 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_3 \times \mathbf{v}_1}{\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot (\mathbf{v}_2 \times \mathbf{v}_3)}$$

$$\mathbf{k}_3 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_1 \times \mathbf{v}_2}{\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot (\mathbf{v}_2 \times \mathbf{v}_3)}$$

(These vectors occur in the study of crystallography. Vectors of the form $n_1\mathbf{v}_1 + n_2\mathbf{v}_2 + n_3\mathbf{v}_3$, where each n_i is an integer, form a *lattice* for a crystal. Vectors written similarly in terms of $\mathbf{k}_1$, $\mathbf{k}_2$, and $\mathbf{k}_3$ form the *reciprocal lattice*.)
(a) Show that $\mathbf{k}_i$ is perpendicular to $\mathbf{v}_j$ if $i \neq j$.
(b) Show that $\mathbf{k}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_i = 1$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$.
(c) Show that $\mathbf{k}_1 \cdot (\mathbf{k}_2 \times \mathbf{k}_3) = \dfrac{1}{\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot (\mathbf{v}_2 \times \mathbf{v}_3)}$.

DISCOVERY PROJECT | THE GEOMETRY OF A TETRAHEDRON



A tetrahedron is a solid with four vertices, P, Q, R, and S, and four triangular faces, as shown in the figure.

1. Let $\mathbf{v}_1$, $\mathbf{v}_2$, $\mathbf{v}_3$, and $\mathbf{v}_4$ be vectors with lengths equal to the areas of the faces opposite the vertices P, Q, R, and S, respectively, and directions perpendicular to the respective faces and pointing outward. Show that

$$\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2 + \mathbf{v}_3 + \mathbf{v}_4 = \mathbf{0}$$

2. The volume V of a tetrahedron is one-third the distance from a vertex to the opposite face, times the area of that face.

(a) Find a formula for the volume of a tetrahedron in terms of the coordinates of its vertices P, Q, R, and S.

(b) Find the volume of the tetrahedron whose vertices are $P(1, 1, 1)$, $Q(1, 2, 3)$, $R(1, 1, 2)$, and $S(3, -1, 2)$.

3. Suppose the tetrahedron in the figure has a trirectangular vertex S. (This means that the three angles at S are all right angles.) Let A, B, and C be the areas of the three faces that meet at S, and let D be the area of the opposite face PQR. Using the result of Problem 1, or otherwise, show that

$$D^2 = A^2 + B^2 + C^2$$

(This is a three-dimensional version of the Pythagorean Theorem.)

12.5 Equations of Lines and Planes

Lines

A line in the xy-plane is determined when a point on the line and the direction of the line (its slope or angle of inclination) are given. The equation of the line can then be written using the point-slope form.

Likewise, a line L in three-dimensional space is determined when we know a point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ on L and a direction for L, which is conveniently described by a vector $\mathbf{v}$ parallel to the line. Let $P(x, y, z)$ be an arbitrary point on L and let $\mathbf{r}_0$ and $\mathbf{r}$ be the position vectors of P_0 and P (that is, they have representations $\overrightarrow{OP_0}$ and $\overrightarrow{OP}$). If $\mathbf{a}$ is the vector with representation $\overrightarrow{P_0P}$, as in Figure 1, then the Triangle Law for vector addition gives $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_0 + \mathbf{a}$.

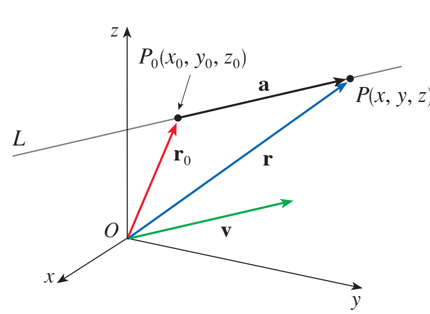


FIGURE 1

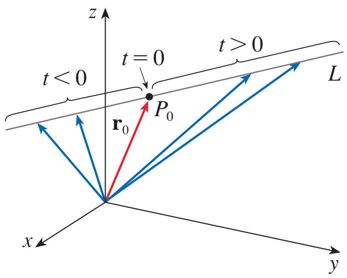


FIGURE 2

Since $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are parallel vectors, there is a scalar t such that $\mathbf{a} = t\mathbf{v}$. Thus

1
$$\boxed{\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{v}}$$

which is a **vector equation** of L. Each value of the **parameter** t gives the position vector $\mathbf{r}$ of a point on L. In other words, as t varies, the line is traced out by the tip of the vector $\mathbf{r}$. As Figure 2 indicates, positive values of t correspond to points on L that lie on one side of P_0, whereas negative values of t correspond to points that lie on the other side of P_0.

If the vector $\mathbf{v}$ that gives the direction of the line L is written in component form as $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$, then we have $t\mathbf{v} = \langle ta, tb, tc \rangle$. We can also write $\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$, so the vector equation (1) becomes

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

Two vectors are equal if and only if corresponding components are equal. Therefore we have the three scalar equations:

$$x = x_0 + at \qquad y = y_0 + bt \qquad z = z_0 + ct$$

where $t \in \mathbb{R}$. These equations are called **parametric equations** of the line L through the point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and parallel to the vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$. Each value of the parameter t gives a point (x, y, z) on L.

> **2** Parametric equations for a line through the point (x_0, y_0, z_0) and parallel to the direction vector $\langle a, b, c \rangle$ are
>
> $$x = x_0 + at \qquad y = y_0 + bt \qquad z = z_0 + ct$$

EXAMPLE 1

(a) Find a vector equation and parametric equations for the line that passes through the point $(5, 1, 3)$ and is parallel to the vector $\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$.
(b) Find two other points on the line.

Figure 3 shows the line L in Example 1 and its relation to the given point and to the vector that gives its direction.

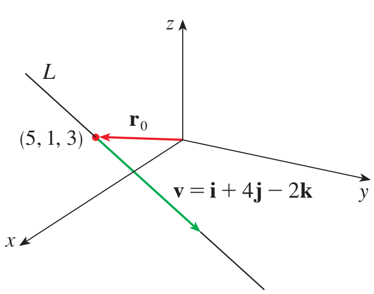


FIGURE 3

SOLUTION

(a) Here $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle 5, 1, 3 \rangle = 5\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$, so the vector equation (1) becomes

$$\mathbf{r} = (5\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}) + t(\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k})$$

or

$$\mathbf{r} = (5 + t)\,\mathbf{i} + (1 + 4t)\,\mathbf{j} + (3 - 2t)\,\mathbf{k}$$

Parametric equations are

$$x = 5 + t \qquad y = 1 + 4t \qquad z = 3 - 2t$$

(b) Choosing the parameter value $t = 1$ gives $x = 6$, $y = 5$, and $z = 1$, so $(6, 5, 1)$ is a point on the line. Similarly, $t = -1$ gives the point $(4, -3, 5)$. ■

The vector equation and parametric equations of a line are not unique. If we change the point or the parameter or choose a different parallel vector, then the equations change. For instance, if, instead of $(5, 1, 3)$, we choose the point $(6, 5, 1)$ in Example 1, then the parametric equations of the line become

$$x = 6 + t \qquad y = 5 + 4t \qquad z = 1 - 2t$$

Or, if we stay with the point (5, 1, 3) but choose the parallel vector $2\mathbf{i} + 8\mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k}$, we arrive at the equations

$$x = 5 + 2t \qquad y = 1 + 8t \qquad z = 3 - 4t$$

In general, if a vector $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ is used to describe the direction of a line L, then the numbers a, b, and c are called **direction numbers** of L. Since any vector parallel to $\mathbf{v}$ could also be used, we see that any three numbers proportional to a, b, and c could also be used as a set of direction numbers for L.

Another way of describing a line L is to eliminate the parameter t from Equations 2. If none of a, b, or c is 0, we can solve each of these equations for t:

$$t = \frac{x - x_0}{a} \qquad t = \frac{y - y_0}{b} \qquad t = \frac{z - z_0}{c}$$

Equating the results, we obtain

3
$$\boxed{\frac{x - x_0}{a} = \frac{y - y_0}{b} = \frac{z - z_0}{c}}$$

These equations are called **symmetric equations** of L. Notice that the numbers a, b, and c that appear in the denominators of Equations 3 are direction numbers of L, that is, components of a vector parallel to L. If one of a, b, or c is 0, we can still eliminate t. For instance, if $a = 0$, we could write the equations of L as

$$x = x_0 \qquad \frac{y - y_0}{b} = \frac{z - z_0}{c}$$

This means that L lies in the vertical plane $x = x_0$.

EXAMPLE 2

(a) Find parametric equations and symmetric equations of the line that passes through the points $A(2, 4, -3)$ and $B(3, -1, 1)$.
(b) At what point does this line intersect the xy-plane?

Figure 4 shows the line L in Example 2 and the point P where it intersects the xy-plane.

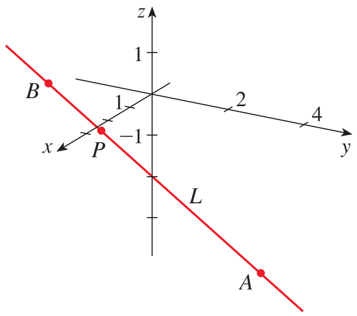


FIGURE 4

SOLUTION

(a) We are not explicitly given a vector parallel to the line, but we observe that the vector $\mathbf{v}$ with representation $\overrightarrow{AB}$ is parallel to the line and

$$\mathbf{v} = \langle 3 - 2, -1 - 4, 1 - (-3) \rangle = \langle 1, -5, 4 \rangle$$

Thus direction numbers are $a = 1$, $b = -5$, and $c = 4$. Taking the point $(2, 4, -3)$ as P_0, we see that parametric equations (2) are

$$x = 2 + t \qquad y = 4 - 5t \qquad z = -3 + 4t$$

and symmetric equations (3) are

$$\frac{x - 2}{1} = \frac{y - 4}{-5} = \frac{z + 3}{4}$$

(b) The line intersects the xy-plane when $z = 0$. From the parametric equations we have $z = -3 + 4t = 0$, which gives $t = \frac{3}{4}$. Using this value of t, we get $x = 2 + \frac{3}{4} = \frac{11}{4}$ and $y = 4 - 5\left(\frac{3}{4}\right) = \frac{1}{4}$. Thus the line intersects the xy-plane at the point $\left(\frac{11}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, 0\right)$.

Alternatively, we can put $z = 0$ in the symmetric equations and obtain

$$\frac{x-2}{1} = \frac{y-4}{-5} = \frac{3}{4}$$

which again gives $x = \frac{11}{4}$ and $y = \frac{1}{4}$. ■

In general, the procedure of Example 2 shows that direction numbers of the line L through the points $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ are $x_1 - x_0$, $y_1 - y_0$, and $z_1 - z_0$ and so symmetric equations of L are

$$\frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} = \frac{y - y_0}{y_1 - y_0} = \frac{z - z_0}{z_1 - z_0}$$

Often, we need a description, not of an entire line, but of just a line segment. How, for instance, could we describe the line segment AB in Example 2? If we put $t = 0$ in the parametric equations in Example 2(a), we get the point $(2, 4, -3)$ and if we put $t = 1$ we get $(3, -1, 1)$. So the line segment AB is described by the parametric equations

$$x = 2 + t \qquad y = 4 - 5t \qquad z = -3 + 4t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

or by the corresponding vector equation

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2 + t, 4 - 5t, -3 + 4t \rangle \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

In general, we know from Equation 1 that the vector equation of a line through the (tip of the) vector $\mathbf{r}_0$ in the direction of a vector $\mathbf{v}$ is $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{v}$. If the line also passes through (the tip of) $\mathbf{r}_1$, then we can take $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_0$ and so its vector equation is

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_0 + t(\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_0) = (1 - t)\mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{r}_1$$

The line segment from $\mathbf{r}_0$ to $\mathbf{r}_1$ is given by the parameter interval $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$.

4 The line segment from $\mathbf{r}_0$ to $\mathbf{r}_1$ is given by the vector equation

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 - t)\mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{r}_1 \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

The lines L_1 and L_2 in Example 3, shown in Figure 5, are skew lines.

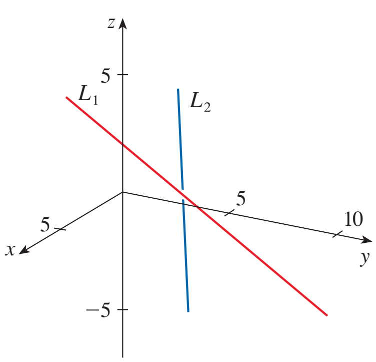


FIGURE 5

EXAMPLE 3 Show that the lines L_1 and L_2 with parametric equations

$$L_1: \quad x = 1 + t \qquad y = -2 + 3t \qquad z = 4 - t$$

$$L_2: \quad x = 2s \qquad y = 3 + s \qquad z = -3 + 4s$$

are **skew lines**; that is, they do not intersect and are not parallel (and therefore do not lie in the same plane).

SOLUTION The lines are not parallel because the corresponding direction vectors $\langle 1, 3, -1 \rangle$ and $\langle 2, 1, 4 \rangle$ are not parallel. (Their components are not proportional.) If L_1 and L_2 had a point of intersection, there would be values of t and s such that

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + t &= 2s \\ -2 + 3t &= 3 + s \\ 4 - t &= -3 + 4s \end{aligned}$$

But if we solve the first two equations, we get $t = \frac{11}{5}$ and $s = \frac{8}{5}$, and these values don't satisfy the third equation. Therefore there are no values of t and s that satisfy the three equations, so L_1 and L_2 do not intersect. Thus L_1 and L_2 are skew lines. ■

Planes

Although a line in space is determined by a point and a direction, a plane in space is more difficult to describe. A single vector parallel to a plane is not enough to convey the "direction" of the plane, but a vector perpendicular to the plane does completely specify its direction. Thus a plane in space is determined by a point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ in the plane and a vector $\mathbf{n}$ that is orthogonal to the plane. This orthogonal vector $\mathbf{n}$ is called a **normal vector**. Let $P(x, y, z)$ be an arbitrary point in the plane, and let $\mathbf{r}_0$ and $\mathbf{r}$ be the position vectors of P_0 and P. Then the vector $\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0$ is represented by $\overrightarrow{P_0P}$. (See Figure 6.) The normal vector $\mathbf{n}$ is orthogonal to every vector in the given plane. In particular, $\mathbf{n}$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0$ and so we have

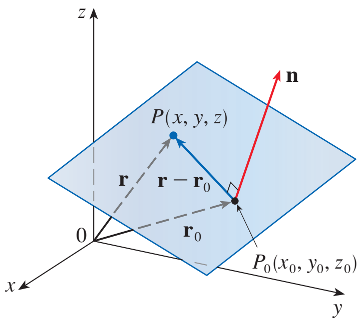


FIGURE 6

5 $$\mathbf{n} \cdot (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0) = 0$$

which can be rewritten as

6 $$\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r}_0$$

Either Equation 5 or Equation 6 is called a **vector equation of the plane**.

To obtain a scalar equation for the plane, we write $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$, $\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$, and $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$. Then the vector equation (5) becomes

$$\langle a, b, c \rangle \cdot \langle x - x_0, y - y_0, z - z_0 \rangle = 0$$

Expanding the left side of this equation gives the following.

7 A **scalar equation of the plane** through point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ with normal vector $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ is

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

EXAMPLE 4 Find an equation of the plane through the point $(2, 4, -1)$ with normal vector $\mathbf{n} = \langle 2, 3, 4 \rangle$. Find the intercepts and sketch the plane.

SOLUTION Putting $a = 2$, $b = 3$, $c = 4$, $x_0 = 2$, $y_0 = 4$, and $z_0 = -1$ in Equation 7, we see that an equation of the plane is

$$2(x - 2) + 3(y - 4) + 4(z + 1) = 0$$

or

$$2x + 3y + 4z = 12$$

To find the x-intercept we set $y = z = 0$ in this equation and obtain $x = 6$. Similarly, the y-intercept is 4 and the z-intercept is 3. This enables us to sketch the portion of the plane that lies in the first octant (see Figure 7). ■

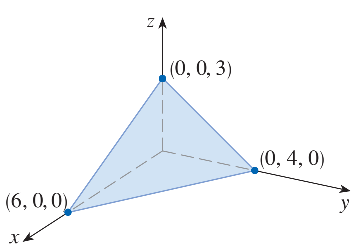


FIGURE 7

By collecting terms in Equation 7 as we did in Example 4, we can rewrite the equation of a plane as

8 $$ax + by + cz + d = 0$$

where $d = -(ax_0 + by_0 + cz_0)$. Equation 8 is called a **linear equation** in x, y, and z. Conversely, it can be shown that if a, b, and c are not all 0, then the linear equation (8) represents a plane with normal vector $\langle a, b, c \rangle$. (See Exercise 83.)

Figure 8 shows the portion of the plane in Example 5 that is enclosed by triangle *PQR*.

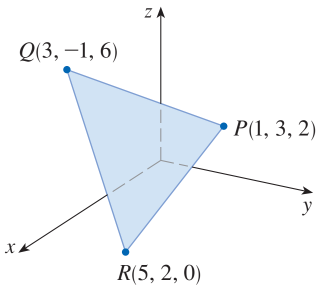


FIGURE 8

EXAMPLE 5 Find an equation of the plane that passes through the points $P(1, 3, 2)$, $Q(3, -1, 6)$, and $R(5, 2, 0)$.

SOLUTION The vectors $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ corresponding to $\overrightarrow{PQ}$ and $\overrightarrow{PR}$ are

$$\mathbf{a} = \langle 2, -4, 4 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{b} = \langle 4, -1, -2 \rangle$$

Since both $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ lie in the plane, their cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ is orthogonal to the plane and can be taken as the normal vector. Thus

$$\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 2 & -4 & 4 \\ 4 & -1 & -2 \end{vmatrix} = 12\,\mathbf{i} + 20\,\mathbf{j} + 14\,\mathbf{k}$$

With the point $P(1, 3, 2)$ and the normal vector $\mathbf{n}$, an equation of the plane is

$$12(x - 1) + 20(y - 3) + 14(z - 2) = 0$$

or

$$6x + 10y + 7z = 50$$

■

EXAMPLE 6 Find the point at which the line with parametric equations $x = 2 + 3t$, $y = -4t$, $z = 5 + t$ intersects the plane $4x + 5y - 2z = 18$.

SOLUTION We substitute the expressions for x, y, and z from the parametric equations into the equation of the plane:

$$4(2 + 3t) + 5(-4t) - 2(5 + t) = 18$$

This simplifies to $-10t = 20$, so $t = -2$. Therefore the point of intersection occurs when the parameter value is $t = -2$. Then $x = 2 + 3(-2) = -4$, $y = -4(-2) = 8$, $z = 5 - 2 = 3$ and so the point of intersection is $(-4, 8, 3)$. ■

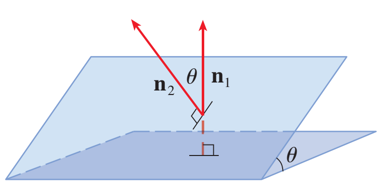


FIGURE 9

Two planes are **parallel** if their normal vectors are parallel. For instance, the planes $x + 2y - 3z = 4$ and $2x + 4y - 6z = 3$ are parallel because their normal vectors are $\mathbf{n}_1 = \langle 1, 2, -3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{n}_2 = \langle 2, 4, -6 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{n}_2 = 2\mathbf{n}_1$. If two planes are not parallel, then they intersect in a straight line and the angle between the two planes is defined as the acute angle between their normal vectors (see angle θ in Figure 9).

Figure 10 shows the planes in Example 7 and their line of intersection *L*.

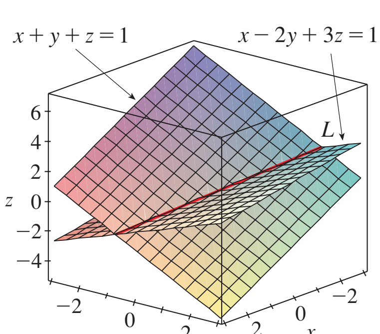


FIGURE 10

EXAMPLE 7

(a) Find the angle between the planes $x + y + z = 1$ and $x - 2y + 3z = 1$.

(b) Find symmetric equations for the line of intersection L of these two planes.

SOLUTION

(a) The normal vectors of these planes are

$$\mathbf{n}_1 = \langle 1, 1, 1 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{n}_2 = \langle 1, -2, 3 \rangle$$

and so, if θ is the angle between the planes, Corollary 12.3.6 gives

$$\cos\theta = \frac{\mathbf{n}_1 \cdot \mathbf{n}_2}{|\mathbf{n}_1||\mathbf{n}_2|} = \frac{1(1) + 1(-2) + 1(3)}{\sqrt{1 + 1 + 1}\,\sqrt{1 + 4 + 9}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{42}}$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{42}}\right) \approx 72^\circ$$

(b) We first need to find a point on L. For instance, we can find the point where the line intersects the xy-plane by setting $z = 0$ in the equations of both planes. This gives the equations $x + y = 1$ and $x - 2y = 1$, whose solution is $x = 1$, $y = 0$. So the point $(1, 0, 0)$ lies on L.

Now we observe that, since L lies in both planes, it is perpendicular to both of the normal vectors. Thus a vector $\mathbf{v}$ parallel to L is given by the cross product

Another way to find the line of intersection is to solve the equations of the planes for two of the variables in terms of the third, which can be taken as the parameter.

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{n}_1 \times \mathbf{n}_2 = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 5\,\mathbf{i} - 2\,\mathbf{j} - 3\,\mathbf{k}$$

and so the symmetric equations of L can be written as

$$\frac{x-1}{5} = \frac{y}{-2} = \frac{z}{-3}$$

NOTE Since a linear equation in x, y, and z represents a plane and two nonparallel planes intersect in a line, it follows that two linear equations can represent a line. The points (x, y, z) that satisfy both $a_1x + b_1y + c_1z + d_1 = 0$ and $a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2 = 0$ lie on both of these planes, and so the pair of linear equations represents the line of intersection of the planes (if they are not parallel). For instance, in Example 7 the line L was given as the line of intersection of the planes $x + y + z = 1$ and $x - 2y + 3z = 1$. The symmetric equations that we found for L could be written as

$$\frac{x-1}{5} = \frac{y}{-2} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{y}{-2} = \frac{z}{-3}$$

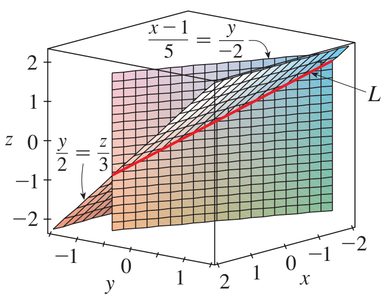


FIGURE 11

which is again a pair of linear equations. They exhibit L as the line of intersection of the planes $(x - 1)/5 = y/(-2)$ and $y/(-2) = z/(-3)$. (See Figure 11.)

In general, when we write the equations of a line in the symmetric form

Figure 11 shows how the line L in Example 7 can also be regarded as the line of intersection of planes derived from its symmetric equations.

$$\frac{x - x_0}{a} = \frac{y - y_0}{b} = \frac{z - z_0}{c}$$

we can regard the line as the line of intersection of the two planes

$$\frac{x - x_0}{a} = \frac{y - y_0}{b} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{y - y_0}{b} = \frac{z - z_0}{c}$$

Distances

In order to find a formula for the distance D from a point $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ to the plane $ax + by + cz + d = 0$, we let $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ be any point in the given plane and $\mathbf{b}$ be the vector corresponding to $\overrightarrow{P_0P_1}$. Then

$$\mathbf{b} = \langle x_1 - x_0, y_1 - y_0, z_1 - z_0 \rangle$$

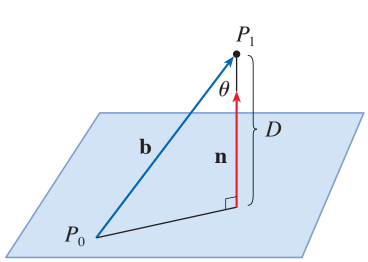


FIGURE 12

From Figure 12 you can see that the distance D from P_1 to the plane is equal to the absolute value of the scalar projection of $\mathbf{b}$ onto the normal vector $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$. (See Section 12.3.) Thus

$$D = |\operatorname{comp}_{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{b}| = \frac{|\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{b}|}{|\mathbf{n}|}$$

$$= \frac{|a(x_1 - x_0) + b(y_1 - y_0) + c(z_1 - z_0)|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$

$$= \frac{|(ax_1 + by_1 + cz_1) - (ax_0 + by_0 + cz_0)|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$

Since P_0 lies in the plane, its coordinates satisfy the equation of the plane and so we have $ax_0 + by_0 + cz_0 + d = 0$. Thus we have the following formula.

9 The distance D from the point $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ to the plane $ax + by + cz + d = 0$ is

$$D = \frac{|ax_1 + by_1 + cz_1 + d|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$

EXAMPLE 8 Find the distance between the parallel planes $10x + 2y - 2z = 5$ and $5x + y - z = 1$.

SOLUTION First we note that the planes are parallel because their normal vectors $\langle 10, 2, -2 \rangle$ and $\langle 5, 1, -1 \rangle$ are parallel. To find the distance D between the planes, we choose any point on one plane and calculate its distance to the other plane. In particular, if we put $y = z = 0$ in the equation of the first plane, we get $10x = 5$ and so $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0, 0\right)$ is a point in this plane. By Formula 9, the distance between $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0, 0\right)$ and the plane $5x + y - z - 1 = 0$ is

$$D = \frac{\left|5\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + 1(0) - 1(0) - 1\right|}{\sqrt{5^2 + 1^2 + (-1)^2}} = \frac{\frac{3}{2}}{3\sqrt{3}} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}$$

So the distance between the planes is $\sqrt{3}/6$. ■

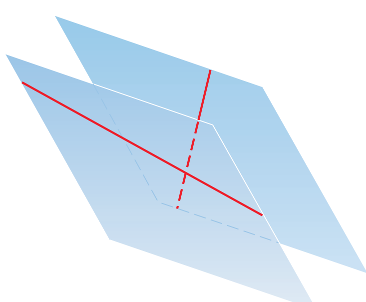


FIGURE 13
Skew lines, like those in Example 9, always lie on (nonidentical) parallel planes.

EXAMPLE 9 In Example 3 we showed that the lines

$$L_1: \quad x = 1 + t \qquad y = -2 + 3t \qquad z = 4 - t$$
$$L_2: \quad x = 2s \qquad y = 3 + s \qquad z = -3 + 4s$$

are skew. Find the distance between them.

SOLUTION Since the two lines L_1 and L_2 are skew, they can be viewed as lying on two parallel planes P_1 and P_2. The distance between L_1 and L_2 is the same as the distance between P_1 and P_2, which can be computed as in Example 8. The common normal vector to both planes must be orthogonal to both $\mathbf{v}_1 = \langle 1, 3, -1 \rangle$ (the direction of L_1) and $\mathbf{v}_2 = \langle 2, 1, 4 \rangle$ (the direction of L_2). So a normal vector is

$$\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{v}_1 \times \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 3 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = 13\mathbf{i} - 6\mathbf{j} - 5\mathbf{k}$$

If we put $s = 0$ in the equations of L_2, we get the point $(0, 3, -3)$ on L_2 and so an equation for P_2 is

$$13(x - 0) - 6(y - 3) - 5(z + 3) = 0 \qquad \text{or} \qquad 13x - 6y - 5z + 3 = 0$$

If we now set $t = 0$ in the equations for L_1, we get the point $(1, -2, 4)$ on P_1. So the distance between L_1 and L_2 is the same as the distance from $(1, -2, 4)$ to $13x - 6y - 5z + 3 = 0$. By Formula 9, this distance is

$$D = \frac{|13(1) - 6(-2) - 5(4) + 3|}{\sqrt{13^2 + (-6)^2 + (-5)^2}} = \frac{8}{\sqrt{230}} \approx 0.53$$ ■

12.5 Exercises

1. Determine whether each statement is true or false in $\mathbb{R}^3$.
(a) Two lines parallel to a third line are parallel.
(b) Two lines perpendicular to a third line are parallel.
(c) Two planes parallel to a third plane are parallel.
(d) Two planes perpendicular to a third plane are parallel.
(e) Two lines parallel to a plane are parallel.
(f) Two lines perpendicular to a plane are parallel.
(g) Two planes parallel to a line are parallel.
(h) Two planes perpendicular to a line are parallel.
(i) Two planes either intersect or are parallel.
(j) Two lines either intersect or are parallel.
(k) A plane and a line either intersect or are parallel.

2–5 Find a vector equation and parametric equations for the line.

2. The line through the point $(4, 2, -3)$ and parallel to the vector $2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k}$

3. The line through the point $(-1, 8, 7)$ and parallel to the vector $\langle \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4} \rangle$

4. The line through the point $(6, 0, -2)$ and parallel to the line

$$x = 4 - 3t \qquad y = -1 + 4t \qquad z = 6 + 5t$$

5. The line through the point $(5, 7, 1)$ and perpendicular to the plane $3x - 2y + 2z = 8$

6–12 Find parametric equations and symmetric equations for the line.

6. The line through the points $(-5, 2, 5)$ and $(1, 6, -2)$

7. The line through the origin and the point $(8, -1, 3)$

8. The line through the points $(0.4, -0.2, 1.1)$ and $(1.3, 0.8, -2.3)$

9. The line through the points $(12, 9, -13)$ and $(-7, 9, 11)$

10. The line through $(2, 1, 0)$ and perpendicular to both $\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$

11. The line through $(-6, 2, 3)$ and parallel to the line $\frac{1}{2}x = \frac{1}{3}y = z + 1$

12. The line of intersection of the planes $x + 2y + 3z = 1$ and $x - y + z = 1$

13. Is the line through $(-4, -6, 1)$ and $(-2, 0, -3)$ parallel to the line through $(10, 18, 4)$ and $(5, 3, 14)$?

14. Is the line through $(-2, 4, 0)$ and $(1, 1, 1)$ perpendicular to the line through $(2, 3, 4)$ and $(3, -1, -8)$?

15. (a) Find symmetric equations for the line that passes through the point $(1, -5, 6)$ and is parallel to the vector $\langle -1, 2, -3 \rangle$.
(b) Find the points in which the required line in part (a) intersects the coordinate planes.

16. (a) Find parametric equations for the line through $(2, 4, 6)$ that is perpendicular to the plane $x - y + 3z = 7$.
(b) In what points does this line intersect the coordinate planes?

17. Find a vector equation for the line segment from $(6, -1, 9)$ to $(7, 6, 0)$.

18. Find parametric equations for the line segment from $(-2, 18, 31)$ to $(11, -4, 48)$.

19–22 Determine whether the lines L_1 and L_2 are parallel, skew, or intersecting. If they intersect, find the point of intersection.

19. L_1: $x = 3 + 2t, \quad y = 4 - t, \quad z = 1 + 3t$
L_2: $x = 1 + 4s, \quad y = 3 - 2s, \quad z = 4 + 5s$

20. L_1: $x = 5 - 12t, \quad y = 3 + 9t, \quad z = 1 - 3t$
L_2: $x = 3 + 8s, \quad y = -6s, \quad z = 7 + 2s$

21. L_1: $\dfrac{x - 2}{1} = \dfrac{y - 3}{-2} = \dfrac{z - 1}{-3}$
L_2: $\dfrac{x - 3}{1} = \dfrac{y + 4}{3} = \dfrac{z - 2}{-7}$

22. L_1: $\dfrac{x}{1} = \dfrac{y - 1}{-1} = \dfrac{z - 2}{3}$
L_2: $\dfrac{x - 2}{2} = \dfrac{y - 3}{-2} = \dfrac{z}{7}$

23–40 Find an equation of the plane.

23. The plane through the point $(3, 2, 1)$ and with normal vector $5\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k}$

24. The plane through the point $(-3, 4, 2)$ and with normal vector $\langle 6, 1, -1 \rangle$

25. The plane through the point $(5, -2, 4)$ and perpendicular to the vector $-\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$

26. The plane through the origin and perpendicular to the line

$$x = 1 - 8t \qquad y = -1 - 7t \qquad z = 4 + 2t$$

27. The plane through the point $(1, 3, -1)$ and perpendicular to the line

$$\frac{x + 3}{4} = -y = \frac{z - 1}{5}$$

28. The plane through the point $(9, -4, -5)$ and parallel to the plane $z = 2x - 3y$

29. The plane through the point $(2.1, 1.7, -0.9)$ and parallel to the plane $2x - y + 3z = 1$

30. The plane that contains the line $x = 1 + t, y = 2 - t, z = 4 - 3t$ and is parallel to the plane $5x + 2y + z = 1$

31. The plane through the points $(0, 1, 1)$, $(1, 0, 1)$, and $(1, 1, 0)$

32. The plane through the origin and the points $(3, -2, 1)$ and $(1, 1, 1)$

33. The plane through the points $(2, 1, 2)$, $(3, -8, 6)$, and $(-2, -3, 1)$

34. The plane through the points $(3, 0, -1)$, $(-2, -2, 3)$, and $(7, 1, -4)$

35. The plane that passes through the point $(3, 5, -1)$ and contains the line $x = 4 - t$, $y = 2t - 1$, $z = -3t$

36. The plane that passes through the point $(6, -1, 3)$ and contains the line with symmetric equations $x/3 = y + 4 = z/2$

37. The plane that passes through the point $(3, 1, 4)$ and contains the line of intersection of the planes $x + 2y + 3z = 1$ and $2x - y + z = -3$

38. The plane that passes through the points $(0, -2, 5)$ and $(-1, 3, 1)$ and is perpendicular to the plane $2z = 5x + 4y$

39. The plane that passes through the point $(1, 5, 1)$ and is perpendicular to the planes $2x + y - 2z = 2$ and $x + 3z = 4$

40. The plane that passes through the line of intersection of the planes $x - z = 1$ and $y + 2z = 3$ and is perpendicular to the plane $x + y - 2z = 1$

41–44 Use intercepts to help sketch the plane.

41. $2x + 5y + z = 10$

42. $3x + y + 2z = 6$

43. $6x - 3y + 4z = 6$

44. $6x + 5y - 3z = 15$

45–47 Find the point at which the line intersects the given plane.

45. $x = 2 - 2t$, $y = 3t$, $z = 1 + t$; $x + 2y - z = 7$

46. $x = t - 1$, $y = 1 + 2t$, $z = 3 - t$; $3x - y + 2z = 5$

47. $5x = y/2 = z + 2$; $10x - 7y + 3z + 24 = 0$

48. Where does the line through $(-3, 1, 0)$ and $(-1, 5, 6)$ intersect the plane $2x + y - z = -2$?

49. Find direction numbers for the line of intersection of the planes $x + y + z = 1$ and $x + z = 0$.

50. Find the cosine of the angle between the planes $x + y + z = 0$ and $x + 2y + 3z = 1$.

51–56 Determine whether the planes are parallel, perpendicular, or neither. If neither, find the angle between them. (Use degrees and round to one decimal place.)

51. $x + 4y - 3z = 1$, $-3x + 6y + 7z = 0$

52. $9x - 3y + 6z = 2$, $2y = 6x + 4z$

53. $x + 2y - z = 2$, $2x - 2y + z = 1$

54. $x - y + 3z = 1$, $3x + y - z = 2$

55. $2x - 3y = z$, $4x = 3 + 6y + 2z$

56. $5x + 2y + 3z = 2$, $y = 4x - 6z$

57–58

(a) Find parametric equations for the line of intersection of the planes.

(b) Find the angle, in degrees rounded to one decimal place, between the planes.

57. $x + y + z = 1$, $x + 2y + 2z = 1$

58. $3x - 2y + z = 1$, $2x + y - 3z = 3$

59–60 Find symmetric equations for the line of intersection of the planes.

59. $5x - 2y - 2z = 1$, $4x + y + z = 6$

60. $z = 2x - y - 5$, $z = 4x + 3y - 5$

61. Find an equation for the plane consisting of all points that are equidistant from the points $(1, 0, -2)$ and $(3, 4, 0)$.

62. Find an equation for the plane consisting of all points that are equidistant from the points $(2, 5, 5)$ and $(-6, 3, 1)$.

63. Find an equation of the plane with x-intercept a, y-intercept b, and z-intercept c.

64. (a) Find the point at which the given lines intersect:

$$\mathbf{r} = \langle 1, 1, 0 \rangle + t\langle 1, -1, 2 \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{r} = \langle 2, 0, 2 \rangle + s\langle -1, 1, 0 \rangle$$

(b) Find an equation of the plane that contains these lines.

65. Find parametric equations for the line through the point $(0, 1, 2)$ that is parallel to the plane $x + y + z = 2$ and perpendicular to the line $x = 1 + t$, $y = 1 - t$, $z = 2t$.

66. Find parametric equations for the line through the point $(0, 1, 2)$ that is perpendicular to the line $x = 1 + t$, $y = 1 - t$, $z = 2t$ and intersects this line.

67. Which of the following four planes are parallel? Are any of them identical?

P_1: $3x + 6y - 3z = 6$ $\qquad$ P_2: $4x - 12y + 8z = 5$

P_3: $9y = 1 + 3x + 6z$ $\qquad$ P_4: $z = x + 2y - 2$

68. Which of the following four lines are parallel? Are any of them identical?

L_1: $x = 1 + 6t$, $y = 1 - 3t$, $z = 12t + 5$

L_2: $x = 1 + 2t$, $y = t$, $z = 1 + 4t$

L_3: $2x - 2 = 4 - 4y = z + 1$

L_4: $\mathbf{r} = \langle 3, 1, 5 \rangle + t\langle 4, 2, 8 \rangle$

69–70 Use the formula in Exercise 12.4.45 to find the distance from the point to the given line.

69. $(4, 1, -2)$; $x = 1 + t$, $y = 3 - 2t$, $z = 4 - 3t$

70. $(0, 1, 3)$; $x = 2t$, $y = 6 - 2t$, $z = 3 + t$

71–72 Find the distance from the point to the given plane.

71. $(1, -2, 4)$, $3x + 2y + 6z = 5$

72. $(-6, 3, 5)$, $x - 2y - 4z = 8$

73–74 Find the distance between the given parallel planes.

73. $2x - 3y + z = 4$, $4x - 6y + 2z = 3$

74. $6z = 4y - 2x$, $9z = 1 - 3x + 6y$

75. Distance between Parallel Planes Show that the distance between the parallel planes $ax + by + cz + d_1 = 0$ and $ax + by + cz + d_2 = 0$ is

$$D = \frac{|d_1 - d_2|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$

76. Find equations of the planes that are parallel to the plane $x + 2y - 2z = 1$ and two units away from it.

77. Show that the lines with symmetric equations $x = y = z$ and $x + 1 = y/2 = z/3$ are skew, and find the distance between these lines.

78. Find the distance between the skew lines with parametric equations $x = 1 + t$, $y = 1 + 6t$, $z = 2t$, and $x = 1 + 2s$, $y = 5 + 15s$, $z = -2 + 6s$.

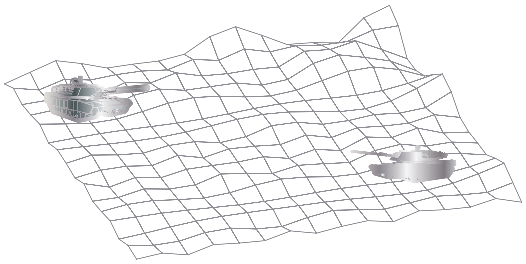
79. Let L_1 be the line through the origin and the point $(2, 0, -1)$. Let L_2 be the line through the points $(1, -1, 1)$ and $(4, 1, 3)$. Find the distance between L_1 and L_2.

80. Let L_1 be the line through the points $(1, 2, 6)$ and $(2, 4, 8)$. Let L_2 be the line of intersection of the planes P_1 and P_2, where P_1 is the plane $x - y + 2z + 1 = 0$ and P_2 is the plane through the points $(3, 2, -1)$, $(0, 0, 1)$, and $(1, 2, 1)$. Calculate the distance between L_1 and L_2.

81. Two tanks are participating in a battle simulation. Tank A is at point $(325, 810, 561)$ and tank B is positioned at point $(765, 675, 599)$.

(a) Find parametric equations for the line of sight between the tanks.

(b) If we divide the line of sight into 5 equal segments, the elevations of the terrain at the four intermediate points from tank A to tank B are 549, 566, 586, and 589. Can the tanks see each other?



82. Give a geometric description of each family of planes.

(a) $x + y + z = c$ (b) $x + y + cz = 1$

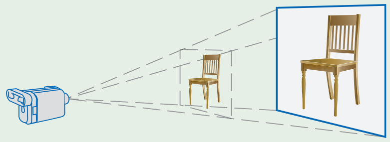
(c) $y \cos\theta + z \sin\theta = 1$

83. If a, b, and c are not all 0, show that the equation $ax + by + cz + d = 0$ represents a plane and $\langle a, b, c\rangle$ is a normal vector to the plane.

Hint: Suppose $a \neq 0$ and rewrite the equation in the form

$$a\left(x + \frac{d}{a}\right) + b(y - 0) + c(z - 0) = 0$$

DISCOVERY PROJECT | PUTTING 3D IN PERSPECTIVE



Computer graphics programmers face the same challenge as the great painters of the past: how to represent a three-dimensional scene as a flat image on a two-dimensional plane (a screen or a canvas). To create the illusion of perspective, in which closer objects appear larger than those farther away, three-dimensional objects in the computer's memory are projected onto a rectangular screen window from a viewpoint where the eye, or camera, is located. The viewing volume—the portion of space that will be visible—is the region contained by the four planes that pass through the viewpoint and an edge of the screen window. If objects in the scene extend beyond these four planes, they must be truncated before pixel data are sent to the screen. These planes are therefore called *clipping planes*.

1. Suppose the screen is represented by a rectangle in the yz-plane with vertices $(0, \pm 400, 0)$ and $(0, \pm 400, 600)$, and the camera is placed at $(1000, 0, 0)$. A line L in the scene passes through the points $(230, -285, 102)$ and $(860, 105, 264)$. At what points should L be clipped by the clipping planes?

2. If the clipped line segment is projected onto the screen window, identify the resulting line segment.

3. Use parametric equations to plot the edges of the screen window, the clipped line segment, and its projection onto the screen window. Then add sight lines connecting the viewpoint to each end of the clipped segments to verify that the projection is correct.

4. A rectangle with vertices $(621, -147, 206)$, $(563, 31, 242)$, $(657, -111, 86)$, and $(599, 67, 122)$ is added to the scene. The line L intersects this rectangle. To make the rectangle appear opaque, a programmer can use *hidden line rendering,* which removes portions of objects that are behind other objects. Identify the portion of L that should be removed.

12.6 Cylinders and Quadric Surfaces

We have already looked at two special types of surfaces: planes (in Section 12.5) and spheres (in Section 12.1). Here we investigate two other types of surfaces: cylinders and quadric surfaces.

In order to sketch the graph of a surface, it is useful to determine the curves of intersection of the surface with planes parallel to the coordinate planes. These curves are called **traces** (or cross-sections) of the surface.

Cylinders

A **cylinder** is a surface that consists of all lines (called **rulings**) that are parallel to a given line and pass through a given plane curve.

EXAMPLE 1 Sketch the graph of the surface $z = x^2$.

SOLUTION Notice that the equation of the graph, $z = x^2$, doesn't involve y. This means that any vertical plane with equation $y = k$ (parallel to the xz-plane) intersects the graph in a curve with equation $z = x^2$. So these vertical traces are parabolas. Figure 1 shows how the graph is formed by taking the parabola $z = x^2$ in the xz-plane and moving it in the direction of the y-axis. The graph is a surface, called a **parabolic cylinder**, made up of infinitely many shifted copies of the same parabola. Here the rulings of the cylinder are parallel to the y-axis. ■

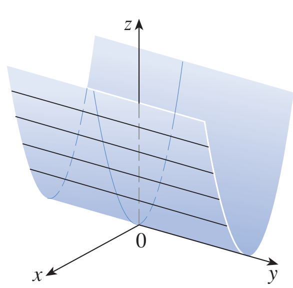


FIGURE 1
The surface $z = x^2$ is a parabolic cylinder.

In Example 1 the variable y is missing from the equation of the cylinder. This is typical of a surface whose rulings are parallel to one of the coordinate axes. If one of the variables x, y, or z is missing from the equation of a surface, then the surface is a cylinder.

EXAMPLE 2 Identify and sketch the surfaces.

(a) $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ (b) $y^2 + z^2 = 1$

SOLUTION

(a) Since z is missing and the equations $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, $z = k$ represent a circle with radius 1 in the plane $z = k$, the surface $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is a circular cylinder whose axis is the z-axis. (See Figure 2. We first encountered this surface in Example 12.1.2.) Here the rulings are vertical lines.

(b) In this case x is missing and the surface is a circular cylinder whose axis is the x-axis. (See Figure 3.) It is obtained by taking the circle $y^2 + z^2 = 1$, $x = 0$ in the yz-plane and moving it parallel to the x-axis.

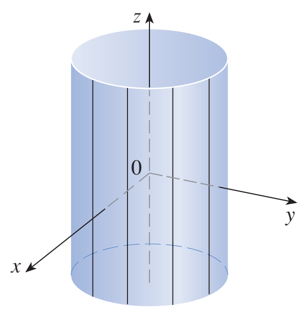


FIGURE 2
$x^2 + y^2 = 1$

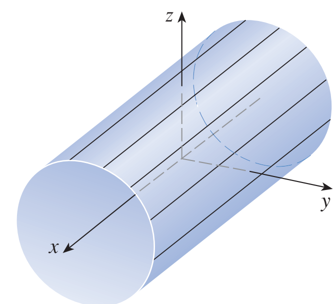


FIGURE 3
$y^2 + z^2 = 1$

NOTE When you are dealing with surfaces, it is important to recognize that an equation like $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ represents a cylinder and not a circle. The trace of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ in the xy-plane is the circle with equations $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, $z = 0$.

Quadric Surfaces

A **quadric surface** is the graph of a second-degree equation in three variables x, y, and z. The most general such equation is

$$Ax^2 + By^2 + Cz^2 + Dxy + Eyz + Fxz + Gx + Hy + Iz + J = 0$$

where $A, B, C, \ldots, J$ are constants, but by translation and rotation it can be brought into one of the two *standard forms*

$$Ax^2 + By^2 + Cz^2 + J = 0 \qquad \text{or} \qquad Ax^2 + By^2 + Iz = 0$$

Quadric surfaces are the counterparts in three dimensions of the conic sections in the plane. (See Section 10.5 for a review of conic sections.)

EXAMPLE 3 Use traces to sketch the quadric surface with equation

$$x^2 + \frac{y^2}{9} + \frac{z^2}{4} = 1$$

SOLUTION By substituting $z = 0$, we find that the trace in the xy-plane is $x^2 + y^2/9 = 1$, which we recognize as an equation of an ellipse. In general, the horizontal trace in the plane $z = k$ is

$$x^2 + \frac{y^2}{9} = 1 - \frac{k^2}{4} \qquad z = k$$

which is an ellipse, provided that $k^2 < 4$, that is, $-2 < k < 2$. (If $|k| = 2$, the trace consists of a single point, and the trace is empty for $|k| > 2$.)

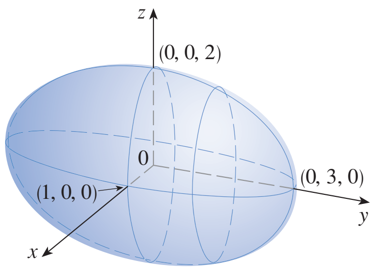


FIGURE 4
The ellipsoid $x^2 + \frac{y^2}{9} + \frac{z^2}{4} = 1$

Similarly, vertical traces parallel to the yz- and xz-planes are also ellipses:

$$\frac{y^2}{9} + \frac{z^2}{4} = 1 - k^2 \qquad x = k \qquad (\text{if } -1 < k < 1)$$

$$x^2 + \frac{z^2}{4} = 1 - \frac{k^2}{9} \qquad y = k \qquad (\text{if } -3 < k < 3)$$

Figure 4 shows how drawing some traces indicates the shape of the surface. It's called an **ellipsoid** because all of its traces are ellipses. Notice that it is symmetric with respect to each coordinate plane; this is because its equation involves only even powers of x, y, and z. ■

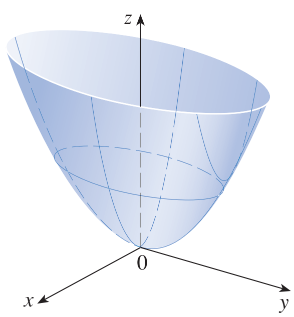


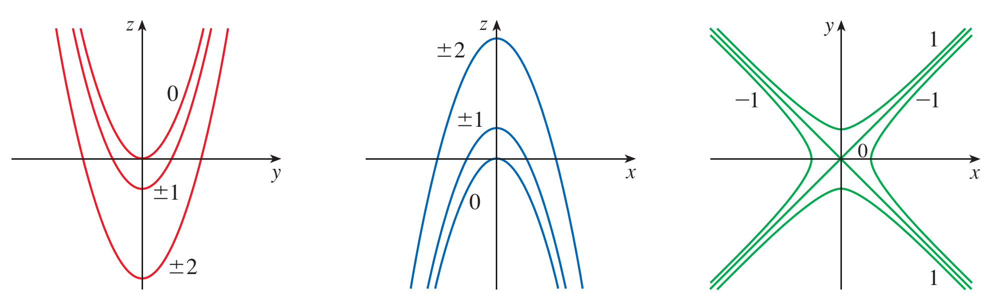
FIGURE 5
The surface $z = 4x^2 + y^2$ is an elliptic paraboloid. Horizontal traces are ellipses; vertical traces are parabolas.

EXAMPLE 4 Use traces to sketch the surface $z = 4x^2 + y^2$.

SOLUTION If we put $x = 0$, we get $z = y^2$, so the yz-plane intersects the surface in a parabola. If we put $x = k$ (a constant), we get $z = y^2 + 4k^2$. This means that if we slice the graph with any plane parallel to the yz-plane, we obtain a parabola that opens upward. Similarly, if $y = k$, the trace is $z = 4x^2 + k^2$, which is again a parabola that opens upward. If we put $z = k$, we get the horizontal traces $4x^2 + y^2 = k$, which we recognize as a family of ellipses ($k > 0$). Knowing the shapes of the traces, we can sketch the graph in Figure 5. Because of the elliptical and parabolic traces, the quadric surface $z = 4x^2 + y^2$ is called an **elliptic paraboloid**. ■

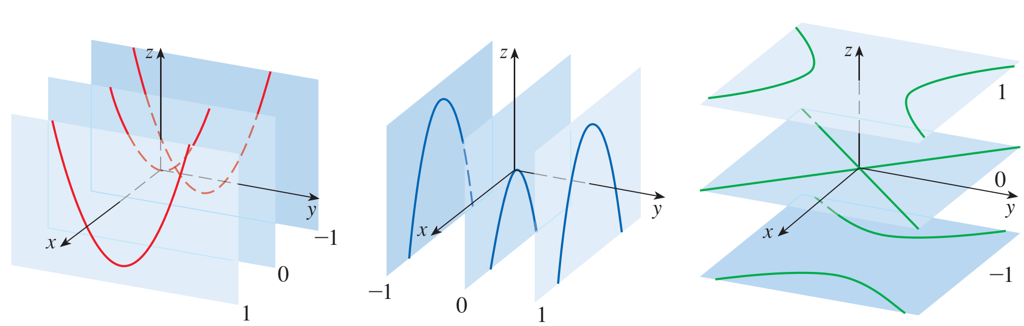
EXAMPLE 5 Sketch the surface $z = y^2 - x^2$.

SOLUTION The traces in the vertical planes $x = k$ are the parabolas $z = y^2 - k^2$, which open upward. The traces in $y = k$ are the parabolas $z = -x^2 + k^2$, which open downward. The horizontal traces are $y^2 - x^2 = k$, a family of hyperbolas. We draw the families of traces in Figure 6, and we show how the traces appear when placed in their correct planes in Figure 7.



Traces in $x = k$ are $z = y^2 - k^2$. Traces in $y = k$ are $z = -x^2 + k^2$. Traces in $z = k$ are $y^2 - x^2 = k$.

FIGURE 6
Vertical traces are parabolas; horizontal traces are hyperbolas. All traces are labeled with the value of k.



Traces in $x = k$ Traces in $y = k$ Traces in $z = k$

FIGURE 7
Traces moved to their correct planes

In Figure 8 we fit together the traces from Figure 7 to form the surface $z = y^2 - x^2$, a **hyperbolic paraboloid**. Notice that the shape of the surface near the origin resembles that of a saddle. This surface will be investigated further in Section 14.7 when we discuss saddle points.

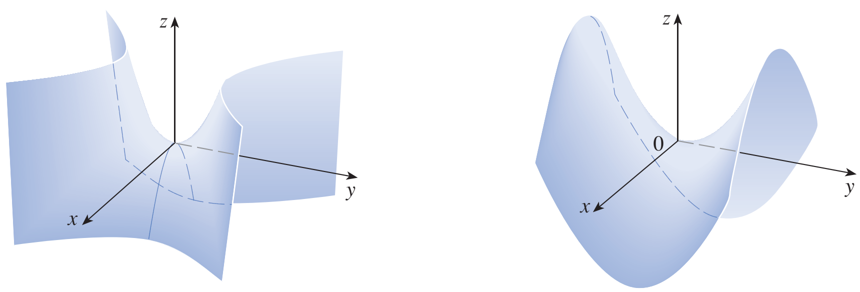


FIGURE 8
Two views of the surface $z = y^2 - x^2$, a hyperbolic paraboloid

EXAMPLE 6 Sketch the surface $\dfrac{x^2}{4} + y^2 - \dfrac{z^2}{4} = 1$.

SOLUTION The trace in any horizontal plane $z = k$ is the ellipse

$$\frac{x^2}{4} + y^2 = 1 + \frac{k^2}{4} \qquad z = k$$

but the traces in the xz- and yz-planes are the hyperbolas

$$\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{z^2}{4} = 1 \qquad y = 0 \qquad \text{and} \qquad y^2 - \frac{z^2}{4} = 1 \qquad x = 0$$

This surface is called a **hyperboloid of one sheet** and is sketched in Figure 9.

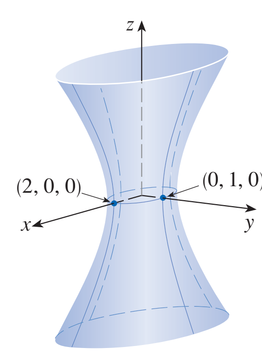
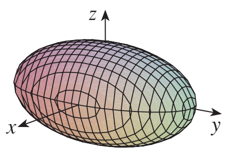
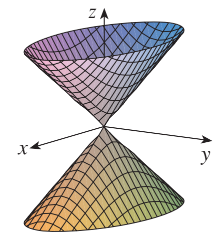
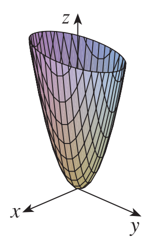
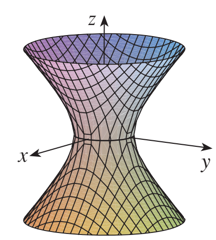
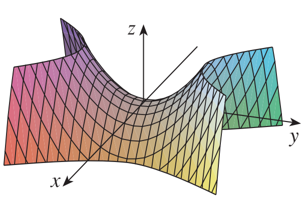
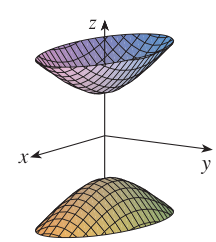


FIGURE 9
The surface $\dfrac{x^2}{4} + y^2 - \dfrac{z^2}{4} = 1$, a hyperboloid of one sheet

The idea of using traces to draw a surface is employed in three-dimensional graphing software. In most such software, traces in the vertical planes $x = k$ and $y = k$ are drawn for equally spaced values of k.

Table 1 shows computer-drawn graphs of the six basic types of quadric surfaces in standard form. All surfaces are symmetric with respect to the z-axis. If a quadric surface is symmetric about a different axis, its equation changes accordingly.

Table 1 Graphs of Quadric Surfaces

Surface	Equation	Surface	Equation
Ellipsoid 	$\dfrac{x^2}{a^2} + \dfrac{y^2}{b^2} + \dfrac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$ All traces are ellipses. If $a = b = c$, the ellipsoid is a sphere.	**Cone** 	$\dfrac{z^2}{c^2} = \dfrac{x^2}{a^2} + \dfrac{y^2}{b^2}$ Horizontal traces are ellipses. Vertical traces in the planes $x = k$ and $y = k$ are hyperbolas if $k \neq 0$ but are pairs of lines if $k = 0$.
Elliptic Paraboloid 	$\dfrac{z}{c} = \dfrac{x^2}{a^2} + \dfrac{y^2}{b^2}$ Horizontal traces are ellipses. Vertical traces are parabolas. The variable raised to the first power indicates the axis of the paraboloid.	**Hyperboloid of One Sheet** 	$\dfrac{x^2}{a^2} + \dfrac{y^2}{b^2} - \dfrac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$ Horizontal traces are ellipses. Vertical traces are hyperbolas. The axis of symmetry corresponds to the variable whose coefficient is negative.
Hyperbolic Paraboloid 	$\dfrac{z}{c} = \dfrac{x^2}{a^2} - \dfrac{y^2}{b^2}$ Horizontal traces are hyperbolas. Vertical traces are parabolas. The case where $c < 0$ is illustrated.	**Hyperboloid of Two Sheets** 	$-\dfrac{x^2}{a^2} - \dfrac{y^2}{b^2} + \dfrac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$ Horizontal traces in $z = k$ are ellipses if $k > c$ or $k < -c$. Vertical traces are hyperbolas. The two minus signs indicate two sheets.

EXAMPLE 7 Identify and sketch the surface $4x^2 - y^2 + 2z^2 + 4 = 0$.

SOLUTION Dividing by -4, we first put the equation in standard form:

$$-x^2 + \frac{y^2}{4} - \frac{z^2}{2} = 1$$

Comparing this equation with Table 1, we see that it represents a hyperboloid of two sheets, the only difference being that in this case the axis of the hyperboloid is the y-axis. The traces in the xy- and yz-planes are the hyperbolas

$$-x^2 + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1 \qquad z = 0 \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{y^2}{4} - \frac{z^2}{2} = 1 \qquad x = 0$$

The surface has no trace in the xz-plane, but traces in the vertical planes $y = k$ for $|k| > 2$ are the ellipses

$$x^2 + \frac{z^2}{2} = \frac{k^2}{4} - 1 \qquad y = k$$

which can be written as

$$\frac{x^2}{\dfrac{k^2}{4} - 1} + \frac{z^2}{2\left(\dfrac{k^2}{4} - 1\right)} = 1 \qquad y = k$$

These traces are used to make the sketch in Figure 10. ■

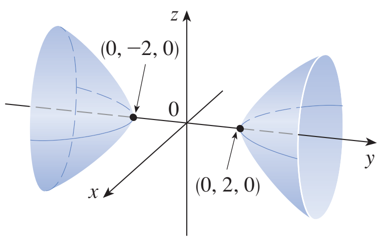


FIGURE 10
The surface $4x^2 - y^2 + 2z^2 + 4 = 0$, a hyperboloid of two sheets

EXAMPLE 8 Classify the quadric surface $x^2 + 2z^2 - 6x - y + 10 = 0$.

SOLUTION By completing the square we rewrite the equation as

$$y - 1 = (x - 3)^2 + 2z^2$$

Comparing this equation with Table 1, we see that it represents an elliptic paraboloid. Here, however, the axis of the paraboloid is parallel to the y-axis, and it has been shifted so that its vertex is the point $(3, 1, 0)$. The traces in the plane $y = k$ $(k > 1)$ are the ellipses

$$(x - 3)^2 + 2z^2 = k - 1 \qquad y = k$$

The trace in the xy-plane is the parabola with equation $y = 1 + (x - 3)^2$, $z = 0$. The paraboloid is sketched in Figure 11. ■

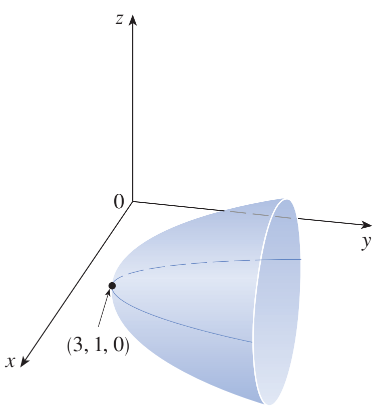


FIGURE 11
$x^2 + 2z^2 - 6x - y + 10 = 0$, a paraboloid

■ Applications of Quadric Surfaces

Examples of quadric surfaces can be found in the world around us. In fact, the world itself is a good example. Although the earth is commonly modeled as a sphere, a more accurate model is an ellipsoid because the earth's rotation has caused a flattening at the poles. (See Exercise 51.)

Circular paraboloids, obtained by rotating a parabola about its axis, are used to collect and reflect light, sound, and radio and television signals [see Figure 12(a)]. In a radio telescope, for instance, signals from distant stars that strike the bowl are all reflected to the receiver at the focus and are therefore amplified. (The idea is explained in Problem 22 in the Problems Plus following Chapter 3.) The same principle applies to microphones and satellite dishes in the shape of paraboloids.

Cooling towers for nuclear reactors are usually designed in the shape of hyperboloids of one sheet [Figure 12(b)] for reasons of structural stability. Pairs of hyperboloids are used to transmit rotational motion between skew axes. [See Figure 12(c); the cogs of the gears are the generating lines of the hyperboloids. See Exercise 53.]

David Frazier / Spirit / Corbis

(a) A satellite dish reflects signals to the focus of a paraboloid.

Petr Student / Shutterstock.com

(b) Nuclear reactors have cooling towers in the shape of hyperboloids.

(c) Gears in the shape of hyperboloids mesh and rotate along skew axes.

FIGURE 12 Applications of quadric surfaces

12.6 Exercises

1. (a) What does the equation $y = x^2$ represent as a curve in $\mathbb{R}^2$?
(b) What does it represent as a surface in $\mathbb{R}^3$?
(c) What does the equation $z = y^2$ represent?

2. (a) Sketch the graph of $y = e^x$ as a curve in $\mathbb{R}^2$.
(b) Sketch the graph of $y = e^x$ as a surface in $\mathbb{R}^3$.
(c) Describe and sketch the surface $z = e^y$.

3–8 Describe and sketch the surface.

3. $x^2 + z^2 = 4$

4. $y^2 + 9z^2 = 9$

5. $x^2 + y + 1 = 0$

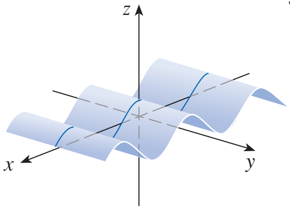
6. $z = -\sqrt{x}$

7. $xy = 1$

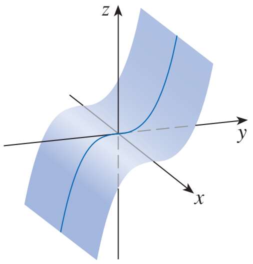
8. $z = \sin y$

9–10 Write an equation whose graph could be the surface shown.

9.



10.



11. (a) Find and identify the traces of the quadric surface $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 1$ and explain why the graph looks like the graph of the hyperboloid of one sheet in Table 1.
(b) If we change the equation in part (a) to $x^2 - y^2 + z^2 = 1$, how is the graph affected?
(c) What if we change the equation in part (a) to $x^2 + y^2 + 2y - z^2 = 0$?

12. (a) Find and identify the traces of the quadric surface $-x^2 - y^2 + z^2 = 1$ and explain why the graph looks like the graph of the hyperboloid of two sheets in Table 1.
(b) If the equation in part (a) is changed to $x^2 - y^2 - z^2 = 1$, what happens to the graph? Sketch the new graph.

13–22 Use traces to sketch and identify the surface.

13. $x = y^2 + 4z^2$

14. $4x^2 + 9y^2 + 9z^2 = 36$

15. $x^2 = 4y^2 + z^2$

16. $z^2 - 4x^2 - y^2 = 4$

17. $9y^2 + 4z^2 = x^2 + 36$

18. $3x^2 + y + 3z^2 = 0$

19. $\dfrac{x^2}{9} + \dfrac{y^2}{25} + \dfrac{z^2}{4} = 1$

20. $3x^2 - y^2 + 3z^2 = 0$

21. $y = z^2 - x^2$

22. $x = y^2 - z^2$

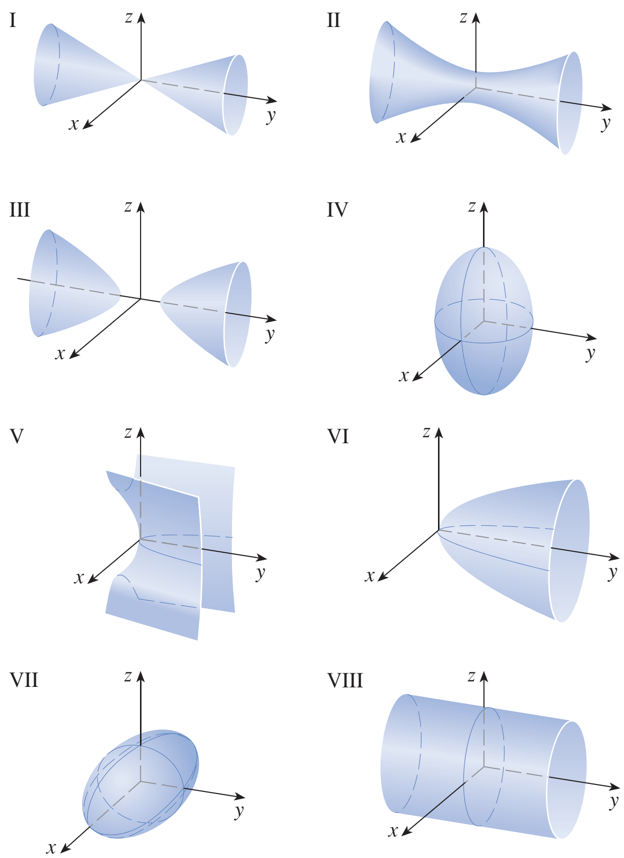
23–30 Match the equation with its graph (labeled I–VIII). Give reasons for your choice.

23. $x^2 + 4y^2 + 9z^2 = 1$ **24.** $9x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 = 1$

25. $x^2 - y^2 + z^2 = 1$ **26.** $-x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 1$

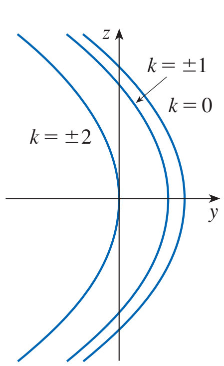
27. $y = 2x^2 + z^2$ **28.** $y^2 = x^2 + 2z^2$

29. $x^2 + 2z^2 = 1$ **30.** $y = x^2 - z^2$

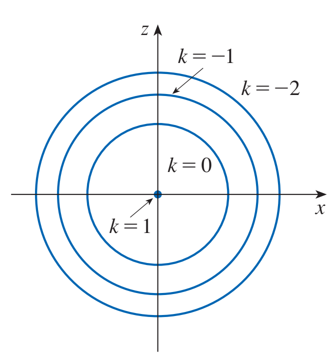


31–32 Sketch and identify a quadric surface that could have the traces shown.

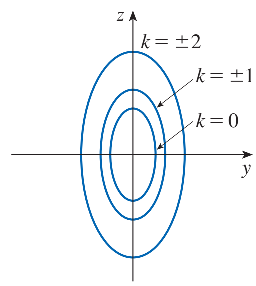
31. Traces in $x = k$



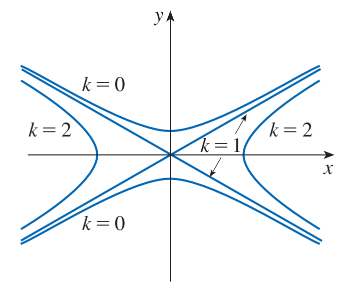
Traces in $y = k$



32. Traces in $x = k$



Traces in $z = k$



33–40 Reduce the equation to one of the standard forms, classify the surface, and sketch it.

33. $y^2 = x^2 + \frac{1}{9}z^2$ **34.** $4x^2 - y + 2z^2 = 0$

35. $x^2 + 2y - 2z^2 = 0$ **36.** $y^2 = x^2 + 4z^2 + 4$

37. $x^2 + y^2 - 2x - 6y - z + 10 = 0$

38. $x^2 - y^2 - z^2 - 4x - 2z + 3 = 0$

39. $x^2 - y^2 + z^2 - 4x - 2z = 0$

40. $4x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 24x - 8y + 4z + 55 = 0$

41–44 Graph the surface. Experiment with viewpoints and with domains for the variables until you get a good view of the surface.

41. $-4x^2 - y^2 + z^2 = 1$ **42.** $x^2 - y^2 - z = 0$

43. $-4x^2 - y^2 + z^2 = 0$ **44.** $x^2 - 6x + 4y^2 - z = 0$

45. Sketch the region bounded by the surfaces $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ for $1 \leqslant z \leqslant 2$.

46. Sketch the region bounded by the paraboloids $z = x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 2 - x^2 - y^2$.

47. Find an equation for the surface obtained by rotating the curve $y = \sqrt{x}$ about the x-axis.

48. Find an equation for the surface obtained by rotating the line $z = 2y$ about the z-axis.

49. Find an equation for the surface consisting of all points that are equidistant from the point $(-1, 0, 0)$ and the plane $x = 1$. Identify the surface.

50. Find an equation for the surface consisting of all points P for which the distance from P to the x-axis is twice the distance from P to the yz-plane. Identify the surface.

51. Traditionally, the earth's surface has been modeled as a sphere, but the World Geodetic System of 1984 (WGS-84) uses an ellipsoid as a more accurate model. It places the center of the earth at the origin and the north pole on the positive z-axis. The distance from the center to the poles is 6356.523 km and the distance to a point on the equator is 6378.137 km.

(a) Find an equation of the earth's surface as used by WGS-84.

(b) Curves of equal latitude are traces in the planes $z = k$. What is the shape of these curves?

(c) Meridians (curves of equal longitude) are traces in planes of the form $y = mx$. What is the shape of these meridians?

52. A cooling tower for a nuclear reactor is to be constructed in the shape of a hyperboloid of one sheet [see Figure 12(b)]. The diameter at the base is 280 m and the minimum diameter, 500 m above the base, is 200 m. Find an equation for the tower.

53. Show that if the point (a, b, c) lies on the hyperbolic paraboloid $z = y^2 - x^2$, then the lines with parametric equations $x = a + t$, $y = b + t$, $z = c + 2(b - a)t$ and $x = a + t$, $y = b - t$, $z = c - 2(b + a)t$ both lie entirely on this paraboloid. (This shows that the hyperbolic paraboloid is what is called a **ruled surface**; that is, it can be generated by the motion of a straight line. In fact, this exercise shows that through each point on the hyperbolic paraboloid there are two generating lines. The only other quadric surfaces that are ruled surfaces are cylinders, cones, and hyperboloids of one sheet.)

54. Show that the curve of intersection of the surfaces $x^2 + 2y^2 - z^2 + 3x = 1$ and $2x^2 + 4y^2 - 2z^2 - 5y = 0$ lies in a plane.

55. Graph the surfaces $z = x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 1 - y^2$ on a common screen using the domain $|x| \leqslant 1.2$, $|y| \leqslant 1.2$ and observe the curve of intersection of these surfaces. Show that the projection of this curve onto the xy-plane is an ellipse.

12 REVIEW

CONCEPT CHECK

Answers to the Concept Check are available at StewartCalculus.com.

1. What is the difference between a vector and a scalar?

2. How do you add two vectors geometrically? How do you add them algebraically?

3. If **a** is a vector and c is a scalar, how is c**a** related to **a** geometrically? How do you find c**a** algebraically?

4. How do you find the vector from one point to another?

5. How do you find the dot product $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ of two vectors if you know their lengths and the angle between them? What if you know their components?

6. How are dot products useful?

7. Write expressions for the scalar and vector projections of **b** onto **a**. Illustrate with diagrams.

8. How do you find the cross product $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ of two vectors if you know their lengths and the angle between them? What if you know their components?

9. How are cross products useful?

10. (a) How do you find the area of the parallelogram determined by **a** and **b**?

(b) How do you find the volume of the parallelepiped determined by **a**, **b**, and **c**?

11. How do you find a vector perpendicular to a plane?

12. How do you find the angle between two intersecting planes?

13. Write a vector equation, parametric equations, and symmetric equations for a line.

14. Write a vector equation and a scalar equation for a plane.

15. (a) How do you tell if two vectors are parallel?

(b) How do you tell if two vectors are perpendicular?

(c) How do you tell if two planes are parallel?

16. (a) Describe a method for determining whether three points P, Q, and R lie on the same line.

(b) Describe a method for determining whether four points P, Q, R, and S lie in the same plane.

17. (a) How do you find the distance from a point to a line?

(b) How do you find the distance from a point to a plane?

(c) How do you find the distance between two lines?

18. What are the traces of a surface? How do you find them?

19. Write equations in standard form of the six types of quadric surfaces.

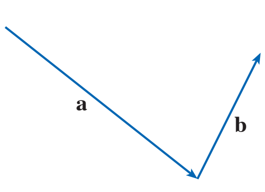
TRUE-FALSE QUIZ

Determine whether the statement is true or false. If it is true, explain why. If it is false, explain why or give an example that disproves the statement.

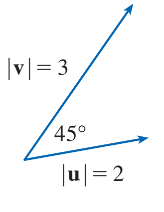
1. If $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$, then $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \langle u_1v_1, u_2v_2 \rangle$.
2. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in V_3, $|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}| = |\mathbf{u}| + |\mathbf{v}|$.
3. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in V_3, $|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}| = |\mathbf{u}||\mathbf{v}|$.
4. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in V_3, $|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}| = |\mathbf{u}||\mathbf{v}|$.
5. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in V_3, $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$.
6. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in V_3, $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u}$.
7. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in V_3, $|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}| = |\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u}|$.
8. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in V_3 and any scalar k,
$$k(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = (k\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v}$$
9. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in V_3 and any scalar k,
$$k(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) = (k\mathbf{u}) \times \mathbf{v}$$
10. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$, $\mathbf{v}$, and $\mathbf{w}$ in V_3,
$$(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}$$
11. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$, $\mathbf{v}$, and $\mathbf{w}$ in V_3,
$$\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w}$$
12. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$, $\mathbf{v}$, and $\mathbf{w}$ in V_3,
$$\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{w}$$
13. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in V_3, $(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$.
14. For any vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ in V_3, $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$.
15. The vector $\langle 3, -1, 2 \rangle$ is parallel to the plane
$$6x - 2y + 4z = 1$$
16. A linear equation $Ax + By + Cz + D = 0$ represents a line in space.
17. The set of points $\{(x, y, z) \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$ is a circle.
18. In $\mathbb{R}^3$ the graph of $y = x^2$ is a paraboloid.
19. If $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$, then $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$ or $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$.
20. If $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$, then $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$ or $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$.
21. If $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ and $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$, then $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$ or $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$.
22. If $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are in V_3, then $|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}| \leqslant |\mathbf{u}||\mathbf{v}|$.

EXERCISES

1. (a) Find an equation of the sphere that passes through the point $(6, -2, 3)$ and has center $(-1, 2, 1)$.
   (b) Find the curve in which this sphere intersects the yz-plane.
   (c) Find the center and radius of the sphere
$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 8x + 2y + 6z + 1 = 0$$
2. Copy the vectors in the figure and use them to draw each of the following vectors.
   (a) $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ (b) $\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}$
   (c) $-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}$ (d) $2\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$



3. If $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are the vectors shown in the figure, find $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ and $|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|$. Is $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ directed into the page or out of it?



4. Calculate the given quantity if
$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$$
$$\mathbf{b} = 3\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$
$$\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{j} - 5\mathbf{k}$$
   (a) $2\mathbf{a} + 3\mathbf{b}$ (b) $|\mathbf{b}|$
   (c) $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ (d) $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$

(e) $|\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}|$
(f) $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$
(g) $\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{c}$
(h) $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$
(i) $\text{comp}_{\mathbf{a}}\, \mathbf{b}$
(j) $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{a}}\, \mathbf{b}$
(k) The angle between $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ (correct to the nearest degree)

5. Find the values of x such that the vectors $\langle 3, 2, x \rangle$ and $\langle 2x, 4, x \rangle$ are orthogonal.

6. Find two unit vectors that are orthogonal to both $\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$.

7. Suppose that $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}) = 2$. Find the value of each of the following.
(a) $(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w}$
(b) $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{w} \times \mathbf{v})$
(c) $\mathbf{v} \cdot (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{w})$
(d) $(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}$

8. Show that if $\mathbf{a}$, $\mathbf{b}$, and $\mathbf{c}$ are in V_3, then

$$(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot [(\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) \times (\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{a})] = [\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})]^2$$

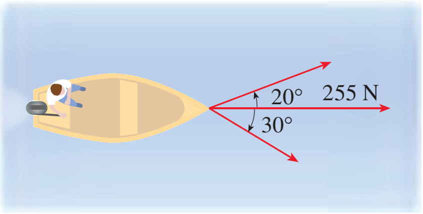
9. Find the acute angle between two diagonals of a cube.

10. Given the points $A(1, 0, 1)$, $B(2, 3, 0)$, $C(-1, 1, 4)$, and $D(0, 3, 2)$, find the volume of the parallelepiped with adjacent edges AB, AC, and AD.

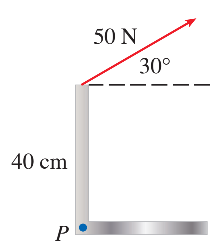
11. (a) Find a vector perpendicular to the plane through the points $A(1, 0, 0)$, $B(2, 0, -1)$, and $C(1, 4, 3)$.
(b) Find the area of triangle ABC.

12. A constant force $\mathbf{F} = 3\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j} + 10\mathbf{k}$ moves an object along the line segment from $(1, 0, 2)$ to $(5, 3, 8)$. Find the work done if the distance is measured in meters and the force in newtons.

13. A boat is pulled onto shore using two ropes, as shown in the diagram. If a force of 255 N is needed, find the magnitude of the force in each rope.



14. Find the magnitude of the torque about P if a 50-N force is applied as shown.



15–17 Find parametric equations for the line.

15. The line through $(4, -1, 2)$ and $(1, 1, 5)$

16. The line through $(1, 0, -1)$ and parallel to the line $\frac{1}{3}(x - 4) = \frac{1}{2}y = z + 2$

17. The line through $(-2, 2, 4)$ and perpendicular to the plane $2x - y + 5z = 12$

18–20 Find an equation of the plane.

18. The plane through $(2, 1, 0)$ and parallel to $x + 4y - 3z = 1$

19. The plane through $(3, -1, 1)$, $(4, 0, 2)$, and $(6, 3, 1)$

20. The plane through $(1, 2, -2)$ that contains the line $x = 2t$, $y = 3 - t$, $z = 1 + 3t$

21. Find the point in which the line with parametric equations $x = 2 - t$, $y = 1 + 3t$, $z = 4t$ intersects the plane $2x - y + z = 2$.

22. Find the distance from the origin to the line $x = 1 + t$, $y = 2 - t$, $z = -1 + 2t$.

23. Determine whether the lines given by the symmetric equations

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

and
$$\frac{x + 1}{6} = \frac{y - 3}{-1} = \frac{z + 5}{2}$$

are parallel, skew, or intersecting.

24. (a) Show that the planes $x + y - z = 1$ and $2x - 3y + 4z = 5$ are neither parallel nor perpendicular.
(b) Find, correct to the nearest degree, the angle between these planes.

25. Find an equation of the plane through the line of intersection of the planes $x - z = 1$ and $y + 2z = 3$ and perpendicular to the plane $x + y - 2z = 1$.

26. (a) Find an equation of the plane that passes through the points $A(2, 1, 1)$, $B(-1, -1, 10)$, and $C(1, 3, -4)$.
(b) Find symmetric equations for the line through B that is perpendicular to the plane in part (a).
(c) A second plane passes through $(2, 0, 4)$ and has normal vector $\langle 2, -4, -3 \rangle$. Show that the acute angle between the planes is approximately 43°.
(d) Find parametric equations for the line of intersection of the two planes.

27. Find the distance between the planes $3x + y - 4z = 2$ and $3x + y - 4z = 24$.

28–36 Identify and sketch the graph of each surface.

28. $x = 3$

29. $x = z$

30. $y = z^2$

31. $x^2 = y^2 + 4z^2$

32. $4x - y + 2z = 4$

33. $-4x^2 + y^2 - 4z^2 = 4$

34. $y^2 + z^2 = 1 + x^2$

35. $4x^2 + 4y^2 - 8y + z^2 = 0$

36. $x = y^2 + z^2 - 2y - 4z + 5$

37. An ellipsoid is created by rotating the ellipse $4x^2 + y^2 = 16$ about the x-axis. Find an equation of the ellipsoid.

38. A surface consists of all points P such that the distance from P to the plane $y = 1$ is twice the distance from P to the point $(0, -1, 0)$. Find an equation for this surface and identify it.

Problems Plus

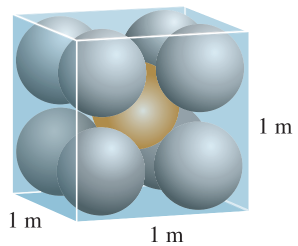


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 1

1. Each edge of a cubical box has length 1 m. The box contains nine spherical balls with the same radius r. The center of one ball is at the center of the cube and it touches the other eight balls. Each of the other eight balls touches three sides of the box. Thus the balls are tightly packed in the box (see the figure). Find r. (If you have trouble with this problem, read about the problem-solving strategy entitled *Use Analogy* in Principles of Problem Solving following Chapter 1.)

2. Let B be a solid box with length L, width W, and height H. Let S be the set of all points that are a distance at most 1 from some point of B. Express the volume of S in terms of L, W, and H.

3. Let L be the line of intersection of the planes $cx + y + z = c$ and $x - cy + cz = -1$, where c is a real number.

(a) Find symmetric equations for L.

(b) As the number c varies, the line L sweeps out a surface S. Find an equation for the curve of intersection of S with the horizontal plane $z = t$ (the trace of S in the plane $z = t$).

(c) Find the volume of the solid bounded by S and the planes $z = 0$ and $z = 1$.

4. A plane is capable of flying at a speed of 180 km/h in still air. The pilot takes off from an airfield and heads due north according to the plane's compass. After 30 minutes of flight time, the pilot notices that, due to the wind, the plane has actually traveled 80 km in the direction N 5° E.

(a) What is the wind velocity?

(b) In what direction should the pilot have headed to reach the intended destination?

5. Suppose $\mathbf{v}_1$ and $\mathbf{v}_2$ are vectors with $|\mathbf{v}_1| = 2$, $|\mathbf{v}_2| = 3$, and $\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = 5$. Let $\mathbf{v}_3 = \operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{v}_1} \mathbf{v}_2$, $\mathbf{v}_4 = \operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{v}_2} \mathbf{v}_3$, $\mathbf{v}_5 = \operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{v}_3} \mathbf{v}_4$, and so on. Compute $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\mathbf{v}_n|$.

6. Find an equation of the largest sphere that passes through the point $(-1, 1, 4)$ and is such that each of the points (x, y, z) inside the sphere satisfies the condition

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 < 136 + 2(x + 2y + 3z)$$

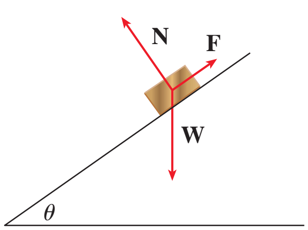


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 7

7. Suppose a block of mass m is placed on an inclined plane, as shown in the figure. The block's descent down the plane is slowed by friction; if θ is not too large, friction will prevent the block from moving at all. The forces acting on the block are the weight $\mathbf{W}$, where $|\mathbf{W}| = mg$ (g is the acceleration due to gravity); the normal force $\mathbf{N}$ (the normal component of the reactionary force of the plane on the block), where $|\mathbf{N}| = n$; and the force $\mathbf{F}$ due to friction, which acts parallel to the inclined plane, opposing the direction of motion. If the block is at rest and θ is increased, $|\mathbf{F}|$ must also increase until ultimately $|\mathbf{F}|$ reaches its maximum, beyond which the block begins to slide. At this angle θ_s, it has been observed that $|\mathbf{F}|$ is proportional to n. Thus, when $|\mathbf{F}|$ is maximal, we can say that $|\mathbf{F}| = \mu_s n$, where μ_s is called the *coefficient of static friction* and depends on the materials that are in contact.

(a) Observe that $\mathbf{N} + \mathbf{F} + \mathbf{W} = \mathbf{0}$ and deduce that $\mu_s = \tan \theta_s$.

(b) Suppose that, for $\theta > \theta_s$, an additional outside force $\mathbf{H}$ is applied to the block, horizontally from the left, and let $|\mathbf{H}| = h$. If h is small, the block may still slide down the plane; if h is large enough, the block will move up the plane. Let $h_{\min}$ be the smallest value of h that allows the block to remain motionless (so that $|\mathbf{F}|$ is maximal).

By choosing the coordinate axes so that $\mathbf{F}$ lies along the x-axis, resolve each force into components parallel and perpendicular to the inclined plane and show that

$$h_{\min} \sin\theta + mg\cos\theta = n \qquad \text{and} \qquad h_{\min}\cos\theta + \mu_s n = mg\sin\theta$$

(c) Show that

$$h_{\min} = mg\tan(\theta - \theta_s)$$

Does this equation seem reasonable? Does it make sense for $\theta = \theta_s$? Does it make sense as $\theta \to 90°$? Explain.

(d) Let $h_{\max}$ be the largest value of h that allows the block to remain motionless. (In which direction is **F** heading?) Show that

$$h_{\max} = mg \tan(\theta + \theta_s)$$

Does this equation seem reasonable? Explain.

8. A solid has the following properties. When illuminated by rays parallel to the z-axis, its shadow is a circular disk. If the rays are parallel to the y-axis, its shadow is a square. If the rays are parallel to the x-axis, its shadow is an isosceles triangle. (In Exercise 12.1.52 you were asked to describe and sketch an example of such a solid, but there are many such solids.) Assume that the projection onto the xz-plane is a square whose sides have length 1.

(a) What is the volume of the largest such solid?
(b) Is there a smallest volume?

The paths of objects moving through space—like the planes pictured here—can be described by vector functions. In Section 13.1 we will see how to use these vector functions to determine whether or not two such objects will collide.

Magdalena Zeglen / EyeEm / Getty Images

13 Vector Functions

THE FUNCTIONS THAT WE HAVE been using so far have been real-valued functions. We now study functions whose values are vectors because such functions are needed to describe curves and surfaces in space. We will also use vector-valued functions to describe the motion of objects through space. In particular, we will use them to derive Kepler's laws of planetary motion.

13.1 Vector Functions and Space Curves

Vector-Valued Functions

In general, a function is a rule that assigns to each element in the domain an element in the range. A **vector-valued function**, or **vector function**, is simply a function whose domain is a set of real numbers and whose range is a set of vectors. We are most interested in vector functions $\mathbf{r}$ whose values are three-dimensional vectors. This means that for every number t in the domain of $\mathbf{r}$ there is a unique vector in V_3 denoted by $\mathbf{r}(t)$. If $f(t)$, $g(t)$, and $h(t)$ are the components of the vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$, then f, g, and h are real-valued functions called the **component functions** of $\mathbf{r}$ and we can write

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle = f(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h(t)\,\mathbf{k}$$

We use the letter t to denote the independent variable because it represents time in most applications of vector functions.

EXAMPLE 1 If

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle t^3, \ln(3 - t), \sqrt{t} \right\rangle$$

then the component functions are

$$f(t) = t^3 \qquad g(t) = \ln(3 - t) \qquad h(t) = \sqrt{t}$$

By our usual convention, the domain of $\mathbf{r}$ consists of all values of t for which the expression for $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is defined. The expressions t^3, $\ln(3 - t)$, and $\sqrt{t}$ are all defined when $3 - t > 0$ and $t \geqslant 0$. Therefore the domain of $\mathbf{r}$ is the interval $[0, 3)$. ■

Limits and Continuity

The **limit** of a vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is defined by taking the limits of its component functions as follows.

If $\lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{L}$, this definition is equivalent to saying that the length and direction of the vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ approach the length and direction of the vector $\mathbf{L}$.

1 If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$, then

$$\lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle \lim_{t\to a} f(t), \lim_{t\to a} g(t), \lim_{t\to a} h(t) \right\rangle$$

provided the limits of the component functions exist.

Equivalently, we could have used an ε-δ definition (see Exercise 62). Limits of vector functions obey the same rules as limits of real-valued functions (see Exercise 61).

EXAMPLE 2 Find $\lim_{t\to 0} \mathbf{r}(t)$, where $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + t^3)\,\mathbf{i} + te^{-t}\,\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{\sin t}{t}\,\mathbf{k}$.

SOLUTION According to Definition 1, the limit of $\mathbf{r}$ is the vector whose components are the limits of the component functions of $\mathbf{r}$:

$$\lim_{t\to 0} \mathbf{r}(t) = \left[\lim_{t\to 0} (1 + t^3)\right]\mathbf{i} + \left[\lim_{t\to 0} te^{-t}\right]\mathbf{j} + \left[\lim_{t\to 0} \frac{\sin t}{t}\right]\mathbf{k}$$

$$= \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{k} \qquad \text{(by Equation 3.3.5)}$$ ■

A vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is **continuous at a** if

$$\lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(a)$$

In view of Definition 1, we see that $\mathbf{r}$ is continuous at a if and only if its component functions f, g, and h are continuous at a.

Space Curves

There is a close connection between continuous vector functions and space curves. Suppose that f, g, and h are continuous real-valued functions on an interval I. Then the set C of all points (x, y, z) in space, where

2 $$x = f(t) \qquad y = g(t) \qquad z = h(t)$$

and t varies throughout the interval I, is called a **space curve**. The equations in (2) are called **parametric equations of C** and t is called a **parameter**. We can think of C as being traced out by a moving particle whose position at time t is $(f(t), g(t), h(t))$. If we now consider the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t)\rangle$, then $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the position vector of the point $P(f(t), g(t), h(t))$ on C. Thus any continuous vector function $\mathbf{r}$ defines a space curve C that is traced out by the tip of the moving vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$, as shown in Figure 1.

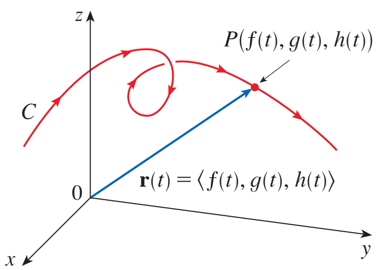


FIGURE 1
C is traced out by the tip of a moving position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

EXAMPLE 3 Describe the curve defined by the vector function

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 1 + t, 2 + 5t, -1 + 6t\rangle$$

SOLUTION The corresponding parametric equations are

$$x = 1 + t \qquad y = 2 + 5t \qquad z = -1 + 6t$$

which we recognize from Equations 12.5.2 as parametric equations of a line passing through the point $(1, 2, -1)$ and parallel to the vector $\langle 1, 5, 6\rangle$. Alternatively, we could observe that the function can be written as $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{v}$, where $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle 1, 2, -1\rangle$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle 1, 5, 6\rangle$, and this is the vector equation of a line as given by Equation 12.5.1. ■

Plane curves can also be represented in vector notation. For instance, the curve given by the parametric equations $x = t^2 - 2t$ and $y = t + 1$ (see Example 10.1.1) could also be described by the vector equation

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2 - 2t, t + 1\rangle = (t^2 - 2t)\,\mathbf{i} + (t + 1)\,\mathbf{j}$$

where $\mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0\rangle$ and $\mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1\rangle$.

EXAMPLE 4 Sketch the curve whose vector equation is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$$

SOLUTION The parametric equations for this curve are

$$x = \cos t \qquad y = \sin t \qquad z = t$$

Since $x^2 + y^2 = \cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$ for all values of t, the curve must lie on the circular cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. The point (x, y, z) lies directly above the point $(x, y, 0)$, which moves counterclockwise around the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ in the xy-plane. (The projection of the curve onto the xy-plane has vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos t, \sin t, 0\rangle$. See Example 10.1.2.) Since $z = t$, the curve spirals upward around the cylinder as t increases. The curve, shown in Figure 2, is called a **helix**. ■

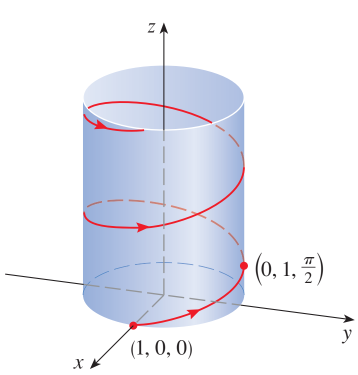


FIGURE 2

FIGURE 3
A double helix

The corkscrew shape of the helix in Example 4 is familiar from its occurrence in coiled springs. It also occurs in the model of DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid, the genetic material of living cells). In 1953 James Watson and Francis Crick showed that the structure of the DNA molecule is that of two linked, parallel helixes that are intertwined as in Figure 3.

In Examples 3 and 4 we were given vector equations of curves and asked for a geometric description or sketch. In the next three examples we are given a geometric description of a curve and are asked to find parametric equations for the curve.

EXAMPLE 5 Find a vector equation and parametric equations for the line segment that joins the point $P(1, 3, -2)$ to the point $Q(2, -1, 3)$.

Figure 4 shows the line segment PQ in Example 5.

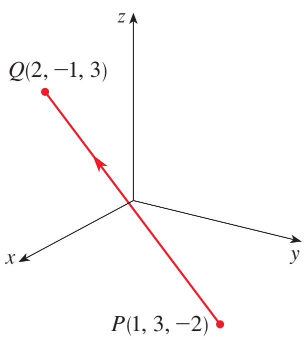


FIGURE 4

SOLUTION In Section 12.5 we found a vector equation for the line segment that joins the tip of the vector $\mathbf{r}_0$ to the tip of the vector $\mathbf{r}_1$:

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 - t)\mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{r}_1 \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

(See Equation 12.5.4.) Here we take $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle 1, 3, -2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}_1 = \langle 2, -1, 3 \rangle$ to obtain a vector equation of the line segment from P to Q:

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 - t)\langle 1, 3, -2 \rangle + t\langle 2, -1, 3 \rangle \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

or

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 1 + t, 3 - 4t, -2 + 5t \rangle \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

The corresponding parametric equations are

$$x = 1 + t \qquad y = 3 - 4t \qquad z = -2 + 5t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

■

EXAMPLE 6 Find a vector function that represents the curve of intersection of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the plane $y + z = 2$.

SOLUTION Figure 5 shows how the plane and the cylinder intersect, and Figure 6 shows the curve of intersection C, which is an ellipse.

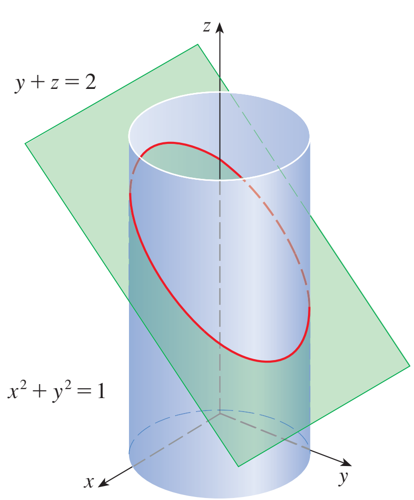


FIGURE 5

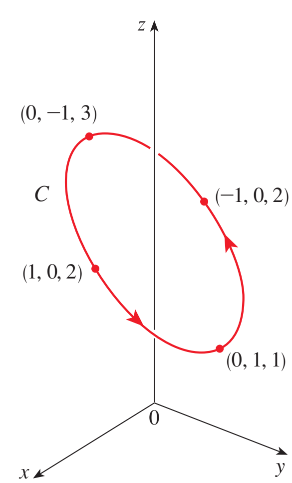


FIGURE 6

The projection of C onto the xy-plane is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, $z = 0$. So we know from Example 10.1.2 that we can write

$$x = \cos t \qquad y = \sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

From the equation of the plane, we have

$$z = 2 - y = 2 - \sin t$$

So we can write parametric equations for C as

$$x = \cos t \qquad y = \sin t \qquad z = 2 - \sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

The corresponding vector equation is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\, \mathbf{i} + \sin t\, \mathbf{j} + (2 - \sin t)\, \mathbf{k} \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

This equation is called a *parametrization* of the curve C. The arrows in Figure 6 indicate the direction in which C is traced as the parameter t increases. ■

Figure 7 shows the surfaces of Example 7 and their curve of intersection.

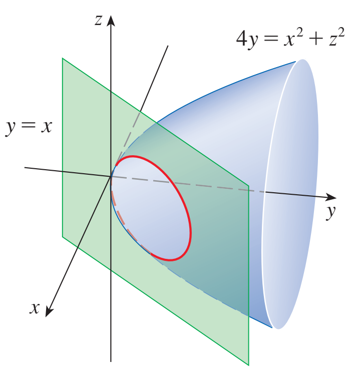


FIGURE 7

EXAMPLE 7 Find parametric equations for the curve of intersection of the paraboloid $4y = x^2 + z^2$ and the plane $y = x$.

SOLUTION Because any point on the curve C of intersection satisfies the equations of both surfaces, we can substitute $y = x$ into the equation of the paraboloid, giving $4x = x^2 + z^2$. Completing the square in x gives $(x - 2)^2 + z^2 = 4$, so C must be contained in the circular cylinder $(x - 2)^2 + z^2 = 4$, and the projection of C onto the xz-plane is the circle $(x - 2)^2 + z^2 = 4$, $y = 0$ [with center $(2, 0, 0)$ and radius 2]. From Example 10.1.4, we can write $x = 2 + 2\cos t$, $z = 2\sin t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$, and because $y = x$, parametric equations for C are

$$x = 2 + 2\cos t \qquad y = 2 + 2\cos t \qquad z = 2\sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$ ■

Using Technology to Draw Space Curves

Space curves are inherently more difficult to draw by hand than plane curves; for an accurate representation we need to use technology. For instance, Figure 8 shows a computer-generated graph of the curve with parametric equations

$$x = (4 + \sin 20t)\cos t \qquad y = (4 + \sin 20t)\sin t \qquad z = \cos 20t$$

It's called a **toroidal spiral** because it lies on a torus. Another interesting curve, the **trefoil knot**, with equations

$$x = (2 + \cos 1.5t)\cos t \qquad y = (2 + \cos 1.5t)\sin t \qquad z = \sin 1.5t$$

is graphed in Figure 9. It wouldn't be easy to plot either of these curves by hand.

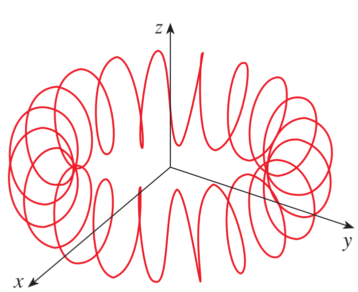


FIGURE 8
A toroidal spiral

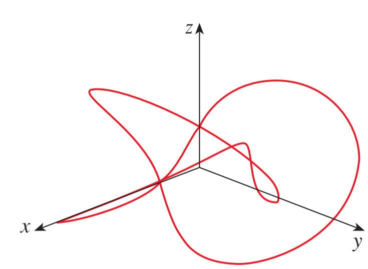


FIGURE 9
A trefoil knot

Even when a computer is used to draw a space curve, optical illusions make it difficult to get a good impression of what the curve really looks like. (This is especially true in Figure 9. See Exercise 60.) The next example shows how to cope with this problem.

EXAMPLE 8 Use a calculator or computer to draw the curve with vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$. This curve is called a **twisted cubic**.

SOLUTION We start by plotting the curve with parametric equations $x = t$, $y = t^2$, $z = t^3$ for $-2 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$. The result is shown in Figure 10(a), but it's hard to see the true nature of the curve from that graph alone. Some three-dimensional graphing software allows the user to enclose a curve or surface in a box instead of displaying the coordinate axes. When we look at the same curve in a box in Figure 10(b), we have a much clearer picture of the curve. We can see that it climbs from a lower corner of the box to the upper corner nearest us, and it twists as it climbs.

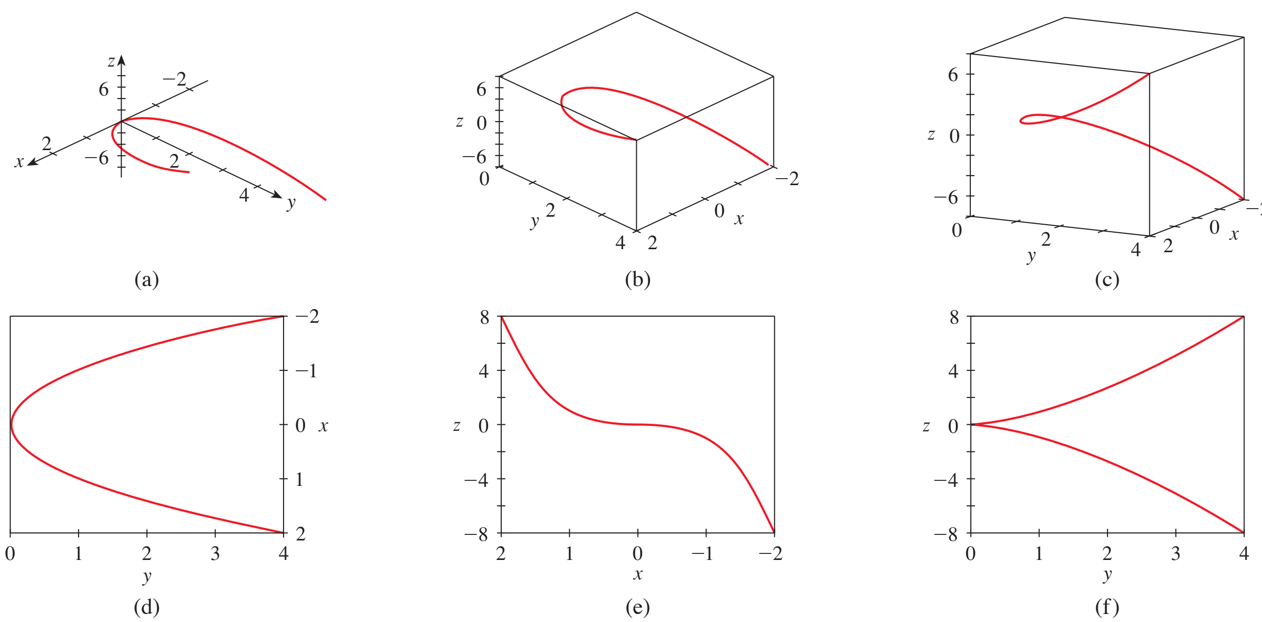


FIGURE 10 Views of the twisted cubic

We get an even better idea of the curve when we view it from different vantage points. Part (c) shows the result of rotating the box to give another viewpoint. Parts (d), (e), and (f) show the views we get when we look directly at a face of the box. In particular, part (d) shows the view from directly above the box. It is the projection of the curve onto the xy-plane, namely, the parabola $y = x^2$. Part (e) shows the projection onto the xz-plane, the cubic curve $z = x^3$. It's now obvious why the given curve is called a twisted cubic. ■

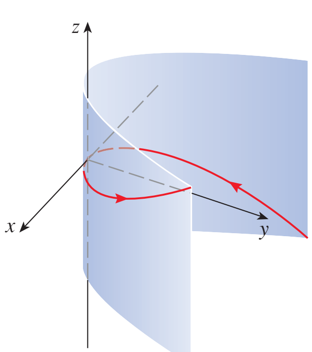


FIGURE 11

Another method of visualizing a space curve is to draw it on a surface. For instance, the twisted cubic in Example 8 lies on the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$. (Eliminate the parameter from the first two parametric equations, $x = t$ and $y = t^2$.) Figure 11 shows both the cylinder and the twisted cubic, and we see that the curve moves upward through the origin along the surface of the cylinder. We also used this method in Example 4 to visualize the helix lying on the circular cylinder (see Figure 2).

A third method for visualizing the twisted cubic is to realize that it also lies on the cylinder $z = x^3$. So it can be viewed as the curve of intersection of the cylinders $y = x^2$ and $z = x^3$. (See Figure 12.)

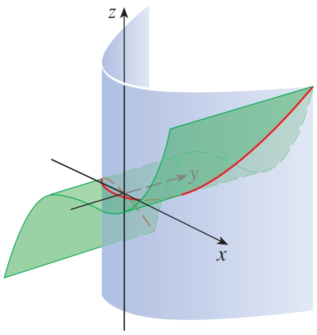
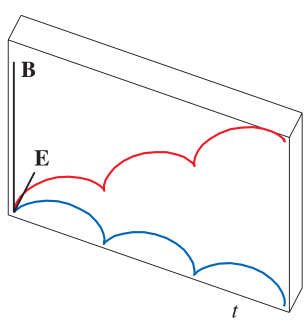


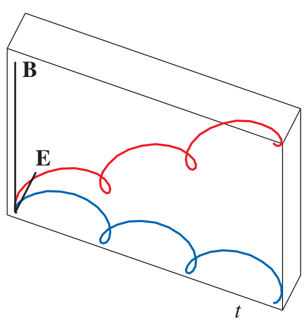
FIGURE 12

Some graphing software provides us with a clearer picture of a space curve by enclosing it in a tube. Such a plot enables us to see whether one part of a curve passes in front of or behind another part of the curve. For example, Figure 14 shows the curve of Figure 13(b) as rendered by the `tubeplot` command in Maple.

We have seen that an interesting space curve, the helix, occurs in the model of DNA. Another notable example of a space curve in science is the trajectory of a positively charged particle in orthogonally oriented electric and magnetic fields **E** and **B**. Depending on the initial velocity given the particle at the origin, the path of the particle is either a space curve whose projection onto the horizontal plane is the cycloid we studied in Section 10.1 [Figure 13(a)] or a curve whose projection is the trochoid investigated in Exercise 10.1.49 [Figure 13(b)].



(a) $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t - \sin t, 1 - \cos t, t \rangle$



(b) $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle t - \frac{3}{2}\sin t, 1 - \frac{3}{2}\cos t, t \right\rangle$

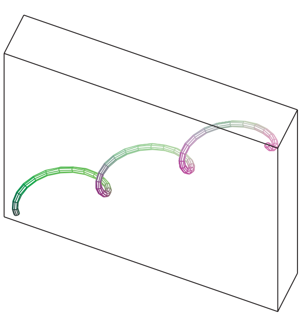


FIGURE 14

FIGURE 13
Motion of a charged particle in orthogonally oriented electric and magnetic fields

For further details concerning the physics involved and animations of the trajectories of the particles, see the following websites:

- www.physics.ucla.edu/plasma-exp/Beam/
- www.phy.ntnu.edu.tw/ntnujava/index.php?topic=36

13.1 Exercises

1–2 Find the domain of the vector function.

1. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle \ln(t+1), \dfrac{t}{\sqrt{9 - t^2}}, 2^t \right\rangle$

2. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \ln t\,\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{1}{t-2}\mathbf{k}$

3–6 Find the limit.

3. $\displaystyle\lim_{t\to 0}\left(e^{-3t}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{t^2}{\sin^2 t}\,\mathbf{j} + \cos 2t\,\mathbf{k} \right)$

4. $\displaystyle\lim_{t\to 1}\left(\frac{t^2 - t}{t - 1}\,\mathbf{i} + \sqrt{t+8}\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{\sin \pi t}{\ln t}\,\mathbf{k} \right)$

5. $\displaystyle\lim_{t\to\infty}\left\langle \frac{1+t^2}{1-t^2}, \tan^{-1}t, \frac{1-e^{-2t}}{t}\right\rangle$

6. $\displaystyle\lim_{t\to\infty}\left\langle te^{-t}, \frac{t^3+t}{2t^3-1}, t\sin\frac{1}{t}\right\rangle$

7–16 Sketch the curve with the given vector equation. Indicate with an arrow the direction in which t increases.

7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle -\cos t, t\rangle$ **8.** $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2 - 1, t\rangle$

9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 3\sin t, 2\cos t\rangle$ **10.** $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\,\mathbf{i} + e^{-t}\,\mathbf{j}$

11. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, 2 - t, 2t\rangle$

12. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin \pi t, t, \cos \pi t\rangle$

13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 3, t, 2 - t^2\rangle$

14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 2\cos t\,\mathbf{i} + 2\sin t\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$

15. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + t^4\,\mathbf{j} + t^6\,\mathbf{k}$

16. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} - \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin t\,\mathbf{k}$

17–18 Draw the projection of the curve onto the given plane.

17. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, t^3, t^{-3}\rangle$, yz-plane

18. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t + 1, 3t + 1, \cos(t/2)\rangle$, xy-plane

19–20 Draw the projections of the curve onto the three coordinate planes. Use these projections to help sketch the curve.

19. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, \sin t, 2\cos t\rangle$ **20.** $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t, t^2\rangle$

21–24 Find a vector equation and parametric equations for the line segment that joins P to Q.

21. $P(-2, 1, 0)$, $Q(5, 2, -3)$

22. $P(0, 0, 0)$, $Q(-7, 4, 6)$

23. $P(3.5, -1.4, 2.1)$, $Q(1.8, 0.3, 2.1)$

24. $P(a, b, c)$, $Q(u, v, w)$

25–30 Match the parametric equations with the graphs (labeled I–VI). Give reasons for your choices.

25. $x = t\cos t$, $y = t$, $z = t\sin t$, $t \geqslant 0$

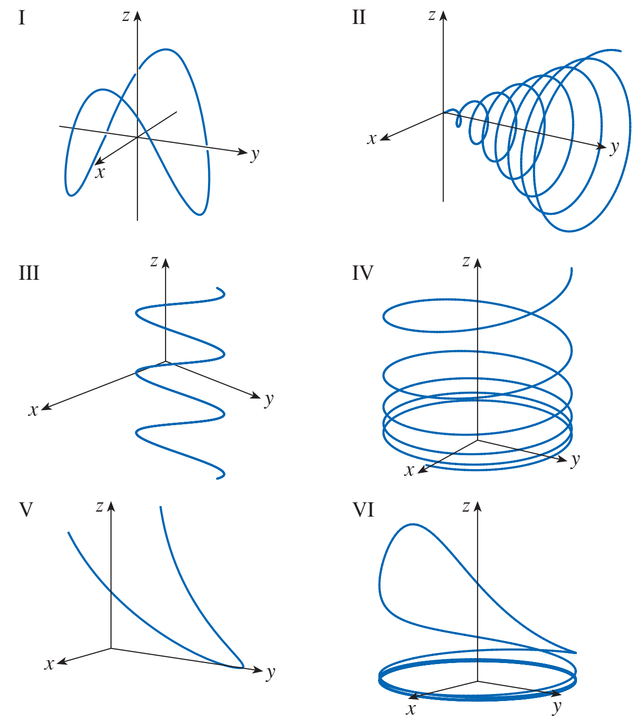
26. $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t$, $z = 1/(1 + t^2)$

27. $x = t$, $y = 1/(1 + t^2)$, $z = t^2$

28. $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t$, $z = \cos 2t$

29. $x = \cos 8t$, $y = \sin 8t$, $z = e^{0.8t}$, $t \geqslant 0$

30. $x = \cos^2 t$, $y = \sin^2 t$, $z = t$



31–34 Find an equation of the plane that contains the curve with the given vector equation.

31. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, 4, t^2\rangle$ **32.** $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t\rangle$

33. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin t, \cos t, -\cos t\rangle$

34. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2t, \sin t, t + 1\rangle$

35. Show that the curve with parametric equations $x = t\cos t$, $y = t\sin t$, $z = t$ lies on the cone $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$, and use this fact to help sketch the curve.

36. Show that the curve with parametric equations $x = \sin t$, $y = \cos t$, $z = \sin^2 t$ is the curve of intersection of the surfaces $z = x^2$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Use this fact to help sketch the curve.

37. Find three different surfaces that contain the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = 2t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\,\mathbf{j} + e^{2t}\,\mathbf{k}$$

38. Find three different surfaces that contain the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + \ln t\,\mathbf{j} + (1/t)\,\mathbf{k}$$

39. At what points does the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + (2t - t^2)\,\mathbf{k}$ intersect the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$?

40. At what points does the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin t, \cos t, t\rangle$ intersect the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 5$?

41–45 Graph the curve with the given vector equation. Make sure you choose a parameter domain and viewpoints that reveal the true nature of the curve.

41. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos t \sin 2t, \sin t \sin 2t, \cos 2t \rangle$

42. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle te^t, e^{-t}, t \rangle$

43. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle \sin 3t \cos t, \frac{1}{4}t, \sin 3t \sin t \right\rangle$

44. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos(8 \cos t) \sin t, \sin(8 \cos t) \sin t, \cos t \rangle$

45. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos 2t, \cos 3t, \cos 4t \rangle$

46. Graph the curve with parametric equations

$$x = \sin t \qquad y = \sin 2t \qquad z = \cos 4t$$

Explain its shape by graphing its projections onto the three coordinate planes.

47. Graph the curve with parametric equations

$$x = (1 + \cos 16t) \cos t$$
$$y = (1 + \cos 16t) \sin t$$
$$z = 1 + \cos 16t$$

Explain the appearance of the graph by showing that it lies on a cone.

48. Graph the curve with parametric equations

$$x = \sqrt{1 - 0.25 \cos^2 10t} \cos t$$
$$y = \sqrt{1 - 0.25 \cos^2 10t} \sin t$$
$$z = 0.5 \cos 10t$$

Explain the appearance of the graph by showing that it lies on a sphere.

49. Show that the curve with parametric equations $x = t^2$, $y = 1 - 3t$, $z = 1 + t^3$ passes through the points $(1, 4, 0)$ and $(9, -8, 28)$ but not through the point $(4, 7, -6)$.

50–54 Find a vector function that represents the curve of intersection of the two surfaces.

50. The cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the surface $z = xy$

51. The cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and the plane $z = 1 + y$

52. The paraboloid $z = 4x^2 + y^2$ and the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$

53. The hyperbolic paraboloid $z = x^2 - y^2$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

54. The semiellipsoid $x^2 + y^2 + 4z^2 = 4$, $y \geqslant 0$, and the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 1$

55. Try to sketch by hand the curve of intersection of the circular cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the parabolic cylinder $z = x^2$. Then find parametric equations for this curve and use these equations and a computer to graph the curve.

56. Try to sketch by hand the curve of intersection of the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$ and the top half of the ellipsoid $x^2 + 4y^2 + 4z^2 = 16$. Then find parametric equations for this curve and use these equations and a computer to graph the curve.

57–58 Intersection and Collision If two objects travel through space along two different curves, it's often important to know whether they will collide. (Will a missile hit its moving target? Will two aircraft collide?) Their paths might intersect, but we need to know whether the objects are in the same position *at the same time.* (See Exercises 10.1.55–57.)

57. The trajectories of two particles are given by the vector functions

$$\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle t^2, 7t - 12, t^2 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{r}_2(t) = \langle 4t - 3, t^2, 5t - 6 \rangle$$

for $t \geqslant 0$. Do the particles collide?

58. Two particles travel along the space curves

$$\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{r}_2(t) = \langle 1 + 2t, 1 + 6t, 1 + 14t \rangle$$

Do the particles collide? Do their paths intersect?

59. (a) Graph the curve with parametric equations

$$x = \tfrac{27}{26} \sin 8t - \tfrac{8}{39} \sin 18t$$
$$y = -\tfrac{27}{26} \cos 8t + \tfrac{8}{39} \cos 18t$$
$$z = \tfrac{144}{65} \sin 5t$$

(b) Show that the curve lies on the hyperboloid of one sheet $144x^2 + 144y^2 - 25z^2 = 100$.

60. Trefoil Knot The view of the trefoil knot shown in Figure 9 is accurate, but it doesn't reveal the whole story. Use the parametric equations

$$x = (2 + \cos 1.5t) \cos t$$
$$y = (2 + \cos 1.5t) \sin t$$
$$z = \sin 1.5t$$

to sketch the curve by hand as viewed from above, with gaps indicating where the curve passes over itself. Start by showing that the projection of the curve onto the xy-plane has polar coordinates $r = 2 + \cos 1.5t$ and $\theta = t$, so r varies between 1 and 3. Then show that z has maximum and minimum values when the projection is halfway between $r = 1$ and $r = 3$.

When you have finished your sketch, use a computer to draw the curve with viewpoint directly above and compare with your sketch. Then plot the curve from several other viewpoints. You can get a better impression of the curve if you plot a tube with radius 0.2 around the curve. (Use the `tubeplot` command in Maple or the `tubecurve` or `Tube` command in Mathematica.)

61. Properties of Limits Suppose **u** and **v** are vector functions that possess limits as $t \to a$ and let c be a constant. Prove the following properties of limits.

(a) $\lim_{t\to a} [\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)] = \lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{u}(t) + \lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{v}(t)$

(b) $\lim_{t\to a} c\mathbf{u}(t) = c \lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{u}(t)$

(c) $\lim_{t\to a} [\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)] = \lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{v}(t)$

(d) $\lim_{t\to a} [\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)] = \lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{u}(t) \times \lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{v}(t)$

62. Show that $\lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{b}$ if and only if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\text{if } 0 < |t - a| < \delta \quad \text{then} \quad |\mathbf{r}(t) - \mathbf{b}| < \varepsilon$$

13.2 Derivatives and Integrals of Vector Functions

Later in this chapter we are going to use vector functions to describe the motion of planets and other objects through space. Here we prepare the way by developing the calculus of vector functions.

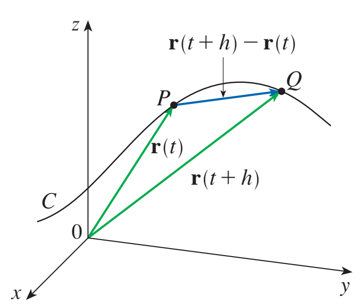
Derivatives

The derivative $\mathbf{r}'$ of a vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is defined in much the same way as for real-valued functions:

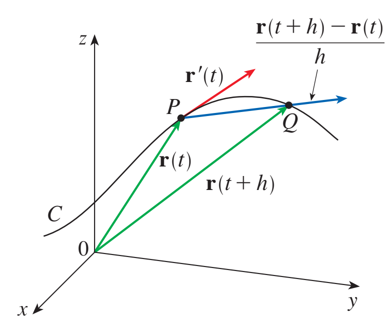
1
$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \mathbf{r}'(t) = \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t + h) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{h}$$

if this limit exists. The geometric significance of this definition is shown in Figure 1. If the points P and Q have position vectors $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}(t + h)$, then $\overrightarrow{PQ}$ represents the vector $\mathbf{r}(t + h) - \mathbf{r}(t)$, which can therefore be regarded as a secant vector. If $h > 0$, the scalar multiple $(1/h)(\mathbf{r}(t + h) - \mathbf{r}(t))$ has the same direction as $\mathbf{r}(t + h) - \mathbf{r}(t)$. As $h \to 0$, it appears that this vector approaches a vector that lies on the tangent line. For this reason, the vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is called the **tangent vector** to the curve defined by $\mathbf{r}$ at the point P, provided that $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ exists and $\mathbf{r}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$. The **tangent line** to C at P is defined to be the line through P parallel to the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$.

Notice that when $0 < h < 1$, multiplying the secant vector by $1/h$ *stretches* the vector, as shown in Figure 1(b).



(a) The secant vector $\overrightarrow{PQ}$



(b) The tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$

FIGURE 1

The following theorem gives us a convenient method for computing the derivative of a vector function $\mathbf{r}$: just differentiate each component of $\mathbf{r}$.

2 Theorem If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t)\rangle = f(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h(t)\,\mathbf{k}$, where f, g, and h are differentiable functions, then

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle f'(t), g'(t), h'(t)\rangle = f'(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\,\mathbf{k}$$

PROOF

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{r}'(t) &= \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t}[\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)] \\
&= \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t}[\langle f(t + \Delta t), g(t + \Delta t), h(t + \Delta t)\rangle - \langle f(t), g(t), h(t)\rangle] \\
&= \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \left\langle \frac{f(t + \Delta t) - f(t)}{\Delta t}, \frac{g(t + \Delta t) - g(t)}{\Delta t}, \frac{h(t + \Delta t) - h(t)}{\Delta t} \right\rangle \\
&= \left\langle \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{f(t + \Delta t) - f(t)}{\Delta t}, \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{g(t + \Delta t) - g(t)}{\Delta t}, \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{h(t + \Delta t) - h(t)}{\Delta t} \right\rangle \\
&= \langle f'(t), g'(t), h'(t)\rangle
\end{aligned}$$

■

A unit vector that has the same direction as the tangent vector is called the **unit tangent vector T** and is defined by

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

EXAMPLE 1

(a) Find the derivative of $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + t^3)\mathbf{i} + te^{-t}\mathbf{j} + \sin 2t\,\mathbf{k}$.
(b) Find the unit tangent vector at the point where $t = 0$.

SOLUTION

(a) According to Theorem 2, we differentiate each component of $\mathbf{r}$:

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = 3t^2\,\mathbf{i} + (1 - t)e^{-t}\,\mathbf{j} + 2\cos 2t\,\mathbf{k}$$

(b) Since $\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{r}'(0) = \mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$, the unit tangent vector at the point $(1, 0, 0)$ is

$$\mathbf{T}(0) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(0)}{|\mathbf{r}'(0)|} = \frac{\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{1 + 4}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\mathbf{j} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}\mathbf{k}$$

■

EXAMPLE 2 For the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{t}\,\mathbf{i} + (2 - t)\,\mathbf{j}$, find $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and sketch the position vector $\mathbf{r}(1)$ and the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(1)$.

SOLUTION We have

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}}\,\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \mathbf{r}'(1) = \frac{1}{2}\,\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$$

The curve is a plane curve and elimination of the parameter from the equations $x = \sqrt{t}$, $y = 2 - t$ gives $y = 2 - x^2$, $x \geqslant 0$. In Figure 2 we draw the position vector $\mathbf{r}(1) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$ starting at the origin and the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(1)$ starting at the corresponding point $(1, 1)$. ■

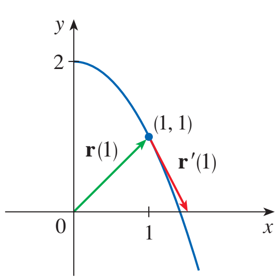


FIGURE 2

Notice from Figure 2 that the tangent vector points in the direction of increasing t. (See Exercise 60.)

EXAMPLE 3 Find parametric equations for the tangent line to the helix with parametric equations

$$x = 2\cos t \qquad y = \sin t \qquad z = t$$

at the point $(0, 1, \pi/2)$.

SOLUTION The vector equation of the helix is $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2\cos t, \sin t, t\rangle$, so

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle -2\sin t, \cos t, 1\rangle$$

The parameter value corresponding to the point $(0, 1, \pi/2)$ is $t = \pi/2$, so the tangent vector there is $\mathbf{r}'(\pi/2) = \langle -2, 0, 1 \rangle$. The tangent line is the line through $(0, 1, \pi/2)$ parallel to the vector $\langle -2, 0, 1 \rangle$, so by Equations 12.5.2 its parametric equations are

$$x = -2t \qquad y = 1 \qquad z = \frac{\pi}{2} + t$$

The helix and the tangent line in Example 3 are shown in Figure 3.

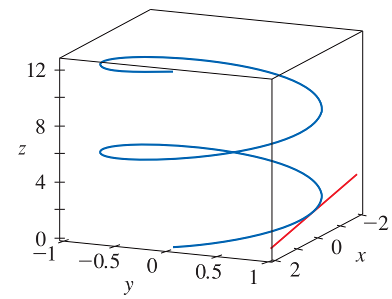


FIGURE 3

In Section 13.4 we will see how $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}''(t)$ can be interpreted as the velocity and acceleration vectors of a particle moving through space with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at time t.

Just as for real-valued functions, the **second derivative** of a vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is the derivative of $\mathbf{r}'$, that is, $\mathbf{r}'' = (\mathbf{r}')'$. For instance, the second derivative of the function in Example 3 is

$$\mathbf{r}''(t) = \langle -2\cos t, -\sin t, 0 \rangle$$

Differentiation Rules

The next theorem shows that the differentiation formulas for real-valued functions have their counterparts for vector-valued functions.

3 Theorem Suppose $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are differentiable vector functions, c is a scalar, and f is a real-valued function. Then

1. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) + \mathbf{v}'(t)$

2. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[c\mathbf{u}(t)] = c\mathbf{u}'(t)$

3. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[f(t)\,\mathbf{u}(t)] = f'(t)\,\mathbf{u}(t) + f(t)\,\mathbf{u}'(t)$

4. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}'(t)$

5. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}'(t)$

6. $\dfrac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(f(t))] = f'(t)\,\mathbf{u}'(f(t))$ (Chain Rule)

This theorem can be proved either directly from Definition 1 or by using Theorem 2 and the corresponding differentiation formulas for real-valued functions. The proof of Formula 4 follows; the remaining formulas are left as exercises.

PROOF OF FORMULA 4 Let

$$\mathbf{u}(t) = \langle f_1(t), f_2(t), f_3(t)\rangle \qquad \mathbf{v}(t) = \langle g_1(t), g_2(t), g_3(t)\rangle$$

Then $$\mathbf{u}(t)\cdot\mathbf{v}(t) = f_1(t)\,g_1(t) + f_2(t)\,g_2(t) + f_3(t)\,g_3(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{3} f_i(t)\,g_i(t)$$

so the ordinary Product Rule gives

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t)\cdot\mathbf{v}(t)] &= \frac{d}{dt}\sum_{i=1}^{3} f_i(t)\,g_i(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{3}\frac{d}{dt}[f_i(t)\,g_i(t)]\\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{3}[f_i'(t)\,g_i(t) + f_i(t)\,g_i'(t)]\\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{3} f_i'(t)\,g_i(t) + \sum_{i=1}^{3} f_i(t)\,g_i'(t)\\ &= \mathbf{u}'(t)\cdot\mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t)\cdot\mathbf{v}'(t)\end{aligned}$$

■

We use Formula 4 to prove the following theorem.

4 Theorem If $|\mathbf{r}(t)| = c$ (a constant), then $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{r}(t)$ for all t.

PROOF Since

$$\mathbf{r}(t)\cdot\mathbf{r}(t) = |\mathbf{r}(t)|^2 = c^2$$

and c^2 is a constant, Formula 4 of Theorem 3 gives

$$0 = \frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}(t)\cdot\mathbf{r}(t)] = \mathbf{r}'(t)\cdot\mathbf{r}(t) + \mathbf{r}(t)\cdot\mathbf{r}'(t) = 2\mathbf{r}'(t)\cdot\mathbf{r}(t)$$

Thus $\mathbf{r}'(t)\cdot\mathbf{r}(t) = 0$, which says that $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{r}(t)$. ■

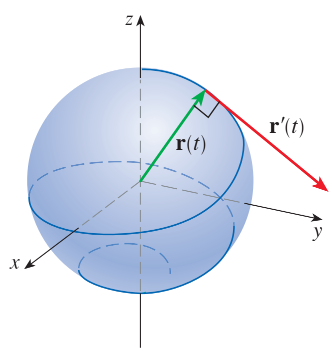


FIGURE 4

Geometrically, Theorem 4 says that if a curve lies on a sphere with center the origin, then the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is always perpendicular to the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$. (See Figure 4.)

Integrals

The **definite integral** of a continuous vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ can be defined in much the same way as for real-valued functions except that the integral is a vector. But then we can express the integral of $\mathbf{r}$ in terms of the integrals of its component functions f, g, and h as follows. (We use the notation of Chapter 5.)

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt &= \lim_{n\to\infty}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbf{r}(t_i^*)\,\Delta t\\ &= \lim_{n\to\infty}\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} f(t_i^*)\,\Delta t\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} g(t_i^*)\,\Delta t\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} h(t_i^*)\,\Delta t\right)\mathbf{k}\right]\end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\boxed{\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt = \left(\int_a^b f(t)\,dt\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\int_a^b g(t)\,dt\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\int_a^b h(t)\,dt\right)\mathbf{k}}$$

This means that we can evaluate an integral of a vector function by integrating each component function.

We can extend the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to continuous vector functions as follows:

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt = \mathbf{R}(t)\Big]_a^b = \mathbf{R}(b) - \mathbf{R}(a)$$

where $\mathbf{R}$ is an antiderivative of $\mathbf{r}$, that is, $\mathbf{R}'(t) = \mathbf{r}(t)$. We use the notation $\int \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt$ for indefinite integrals (antiderivatives).

EXAMPLE 4 If $\mathbf{r}(t) = 2\cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + 2t\,\mathbf{k}$, then

$$\int \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt = \left(\int 2\cos t\,dt\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\int \sin t\,dt\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\int 2t\,dt\right)\mathbf{k}$$

$$= 2\sin t\,\mathbf{i} - \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + t^2\,\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C}$$

where $\mathbf{C}$ is a vector constant of integration, and

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt = \Big[2\sin t\,\mathbf{i} - \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + t^2\,\mathbf{k}\Big]_0^{\pi/2} = 2\,\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \frac{\pi^2}{4}\,\mathbf{k}$$ ■

13.2 Exercises

1. The figure shows a curve C given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

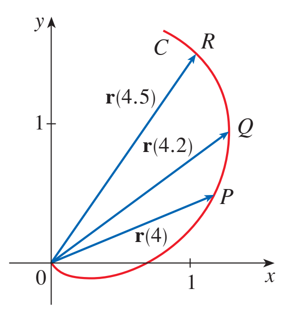
(a) Draw the vectors $\mathbf{r}(4.5) - \mathbf{r}(4)$ and $\mathbf{r}(4.2) - \mathbf{r}(4)$.

(b) Draw the vectors

$$\frac{\mathbf{r}(4.5) - \mathbf{r}(4)}{0.5} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\mathbf{r}(4.2) - \mathbf{r}(4)}{0.2}$$

(c) Write expressions for $\mathbf{r}'(4)$ and the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(4)$.

(d) Draw the vector $\mathbf{T}(4)$.



2. (a) Make a large sketch of the curve described by the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, t\rangle$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$, and draw the vectors $\mathbf{r}(1)$, $\mathbf{r}(1.1)$, and $\mathbf{r}(1.1) - \mathbf{r}(1)$.

(b) Draw the vector $\mathbf{r}'(1)$ starting at $(1, 1)$, and compare it with the vector

$$\frac{\mathbf{r}(1.1) - \mathbf{r}(1)}{0.1}$$

Explain why these vectors are so close to each other in length and direction.

3–8

(a) Sketch the plane curve with the given vector equation.

(b) Find $\mathbf{r}'(t)$.

(c) Sketch the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ for the given value of t.

3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t - 2, t^2 + 1\rangle, \quad t = -1$

4. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, t^3\rangle, \quad t = 1$

5. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^{2t}\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 0$

6. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 0$

7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 4\sin t\,\mathbf{i} - 2\cos t\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 3\pi/4$

8. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t + 1)\,\mathbf{i} + (\sin t - 1)\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = -\pi/3$

9–16 Find the derivative of the vector function.

9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle \sqrt{t-2}, 3, 1/t^2 \right\rangle$

10. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle e^{-t}, t - t^3, \ln t\rangle$

11. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + \cos(t^2)\,\mathbf{j} + \sin^2 t\,\mathbf{k}$

12. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \dfrac{1}{1+t}\,\mathbf{i} + \dfrac{t}{1+t}\,\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{t^2}{1+t}\,\mathbf{k}$

13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin t\cos t\,\mathbf{k}$

14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin^2 at\,\mathbf{i} + te^{bt}\,\mathbf{j} + \cos^2 ct\,\mathbf{k}$

15. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{a} + t\,\mathbf{b} + t^2\,\mathbf{c}$

16. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} + t\,\mathbf{c})$

17–20 Find the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(t)$ at the point with the given value of the parameter t.

17. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle t^2 - 2t,\ 1 + 3t,\ \frac{1}{3}t^3 + \frac{1}{2}t^2 \right\rangle, \quad t = 2$

18. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \tan^{-1} t,\ 2e^{2t},\ 8te^t \rangle, \quad t = 0$

19. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + 3t\,\mathbf{j} + 2\sin 2t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 0$

20. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin^2 t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos^2 t\,\mathbf{j} + \tan^2 t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad t = \pi/4$

21–22 Find the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(t)$ at the given point on the curve.

21. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^3 + 1,\ 3t - 5,\ 4/t \rangle, \quad (2, -2, 4)$

22. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t\,\mathbf{i} + 5t\,\mathbf{j} + \cos t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad (0, 0, 1)$

23. If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^4, t, t^2 \rangle$, find $\mathbf{r}'(t)$, $\mathbf{T}(1)$, $\mathbf{r}''(t)$, and $\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)$.

24. If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle e^{2t}, e^{-3t}, t \rangle$, find $\mathbf{r}'(0)$, $\mathbf{T}(0)$, $\mathbf{r}''(0)$, and $\mathbf{r}'(0) \times \mathbf{r}''(0)$.

25–28 Find parametric equations for the tangent line to the curve with the given parametric equations at the specified point.

25. $x = t^2 + 1, \quad y = 4\sqrt{t}, \quad z = e^{t^2 - t}; \quad (2, 4, 1)$

26. $x = \ln(t + 1), \quad y = t\cos 2t, \quad z = 2^t; \quad (0, 0, 1)$

27. $x = e^{-t}\cos t, \quad y = e^{-t}\sin t, \quad z = e^{-t}; \quad (1, 0, 1)$

28. $x = \sqrt{t^2 + 3}, \quad y = \ln(t^2 + 3), \quad z = t; \quad (2, \ln 4, 1)$

29. Find a vector equation for the tangent line to the curve of intersection of the cylinders $x^2 + y^2 = 25$ and $y^2 + z^2 = 20$ at the point $(3, 4, 2)$.

30. Find the point on the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2\cos t, 2\sin t, e^t \rangle$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$, where the tangent line is parallel to the plane $\sqrt{3}x + y = 1$.

31–33 Find parametric equations for the tangent line to the curve with the given parametric equations at the specified point. Illustrate by graphing both the curve and the tangent line on a common screen.

31. $x = t, \ y = e^{-t}, \ z = 2t - t^2; \quad (0, 1, 0)$

32. $x = 2\cos t, \ y = 2\sin t, \ z = 4\cos 2t; \quad (\sqrt{3}, 1, 2)$

33. $x = t\cos t, \ y = t, \ z = t\sin t; \quad (-\pi, \pi, 0)$

34. (a) Find the point of intersection of the tangent lines to the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin \pi t, 2\sin \pi t, \cos \pi t \rangle$ at the points where $t = 0$ and $t = 0.5$.

(b) Illustrate by graphing the curve and both tangent lines.

35. The curves $\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}_2(t) = \langle \sin t, \sin 2t, t \rangle$ intersect at the origin. Find their angle of intersection correct to the nearest degree.

36. At what point do the curves $\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle t, 1 - t, 3 + t^2 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}_2(s) = \langle 3 - s, s - 2, s^2 \rangle$ intersect? Find their angle of intersection correct to the nearest degree.

37–42 Evaluate the integral.

37. $\displaystyle\int_0^2 (t\,\mathbf{i} - t^3\,\mathbf{j} + 3t^5\,\mathbf{k})\,dt$

38. $\displaystyle\int_1^4 \left(2t^{3/2}\,\mathbf{i} + (t + 1)\sqrt{t}\,\mathbf{k}\right)dt$

39. $\displaystyle\int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{t + 1}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{t^2 + 1}\mathbf{j} + \frac{t}{t^2 + 1}\mathbf{k}\right)dt$

40. $\displaystyle\int_0^{\pi/4} (\sec t\tan t\,\mathbf{i} + t\cos 2t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin^2 2t\cos 2t\,\mathbf{k})\,dt$

41. $\displaystyle\int \left(\frac{1}{1 + t^2}\mathbf{i} + te^{t^2}\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{t}\,\mathbf{k}\right)dt$

42. $\displaystyle\int \left(t\cos t^2\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{t}\mathbf{j} + \sec^2 t\,\mathbf{k}\right)dt$

43. Find $\mathbf{r}(t)$ if $\mathbf{r}'(t) = 2t\,\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\,\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{t}\,\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{r}(1) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$.

44. Find $\mathbf{r}(t)$ if $\mathbf{r}'(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\,\mathbf{j} + te^t\,\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$.

45. Prove Formula 1 of Theorem 3.

46. Prove Formula 3 of Theorem 3.

47. Prove Formula 5 of Theorem 3.

48. Prove Formula 6 of Theorem 3.

49. If $\mathbf{u}(t) = \langle \sin t, \cos t, t \rangle$ and $\mathbf{v}(t) = \langle t, \cos t, \sin t \rangle$, use Formula 4 of Theorem 3 to find

$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)]$$

50. If $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are the vector functions in Exercise 49, use Formula 5 of Theorem 3 to find

$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)]$$

51. Find $f'(2)$, where $f(t) = \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)$, $\mathbf{u}(2) = \langle 1, 2, -1 \rangle$, $\mathbf{u}'(2) = \langle 3, 0, 4 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{v}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$.

52. If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)$, where $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are the vector functions in Exercise 51, find $\mathbf{r}'(2)$.

53. If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{a}\cos \omega t + \mathbf{b}\sin \omega t$, where $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ are constant vectors, show that $\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{r}'(t) = \omega\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$.

54. If $\mathbf{r}$ is the vector function in Exercise 53, show that $\mathbf{r}''(t) + \omega^2\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{0}$.

55. Show that if $\mathbf{r}$ is a vector function such that $\mathbf{r}''$ exists, then

$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{r}'(t)] = \mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)$$

56. Find an expression for $\dfrac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot (\mathbf{v}(t) \times \mathbf{w}(t))]$.

57. If $\mathbf{r}(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$, show that $\dfrac{d}{dt}|\mathbf{r}(t)| = \dfrac{1}{|\mathbf{r}(t)|}\mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)$.

[*Hint:* $|\mathbf{r}(t)|^2 = \mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t)$]

58. Prove the converse of Theorem 4: if a curve has the property that the position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is always orthogonal to the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$, then $|\mathbf{r}(t)|$ is constant and thus the curve lies on a sphere with center the origin.

59. If $\mathbf{u}(t) = \mathbf{r}(t) \cdot [\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)]$, show that

$$\mathbf{u}'(t) = \mathbf{r}(t) \cdot [\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}'''(t)]$$

60. Show that the tangent vector to a curve defined by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ points in the direction of increasing t. [*Hint:* Refer to Figure 1 and consider the cases $h > 0$ and $h < 0$ separately.]

13.3 Arc Length and Curvature

Arc Length

In Section 10.2 we defined the length of a plane curve with parametric equations $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, as the limit of lengths of approximating polygonal paths and, for the case where f' and g' are continuous, we arrived at the formula

$$\boxed{1} \qquad L = \int_a^b \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2}\, dt = \int_a^b \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}\, dt$$

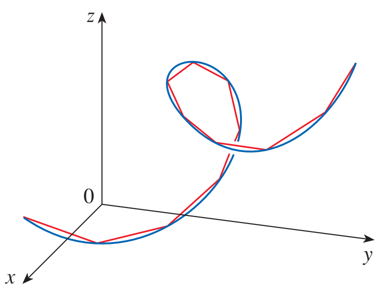


FIGURE 1
The length of a space curve is the limit of lengths of approximating polygonal paths.

The length of a space curve is defined in exactly the same way (see Figure 1). Suppose that the curve has the vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t)\rangle$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, or, equivalently, the parametric equations $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$, $z = h(t)$, where f', g', and h' are continuous. If the curve is traversed exactly once as t increases from a to b, then it can be shown that its length is

$$\boxed{2} \qquad \boxed{\begin{aligned} L &= \int_a^b \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2 + [h'(t)]^2}\, dt \\ &= \int_a^b \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2}\, dt \end{aligned}}$$

Notice that both of the arc length formulas (1) and (2) can be put into the more compact form

$$\boxed{3} \qquad \boxed{L = \int_a^b |\mathbf{r}'(t)|\, dt}$$

In Section 13.4 we will see that if $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the position vector of a moving object at time t, then $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is the velocity vector and $|\mathbf{r}'(t)|$ is the speed. Thus Equation 3 says that to compute distance traveled, we integrate speed.

because, for plane curves $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g(t)\,\mathbf{j}$,

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t)| = |f'(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\,\mathbf{j}| = \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2}$$

and for space curves $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h(t)\,\mathbf{k}$,

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t)| = |f'(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\,\mathbf{k}| = \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2 + [h'(t)]^2}$$

Figure 2 shows the arc of the helix whose length is computed in Example 1.

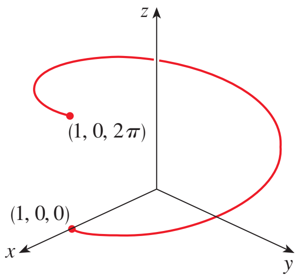


FIGURE 2

EXAMPLE 1 Find the length of the arc of the circular helix with vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$ from the point $(1, 0, 0)$ to the point $(1, 0, 2\pi)$.

SOLUTION Since $\mathbf{r}'(t) = -\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$, we have

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{(-\sin t)^2 + \cos^2 t + 1} = \sqrt{2}$$

The arc from $(1, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 0, 2\pi)$ is described by the parameter interval $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$ and so, from Formula 3, we have

$$L = \int_0^{2\pi} |\mathbf{r}'(t)|\,dt = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{2}\,dt = 2\sqrt{2}\pi$$ ■

A single curve C can be represented by more than one vector function. For instance, the twisted cubic

4 $$\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle \qquad 1 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$$

could also be represented by the function

5 $$\mathbf{r}_2(u) = \langle e^u, e^{2u}, e^{3u} \rangle \qquad 0 \leqslant u \leqslant \ln 2$$

where the connection between the parameters t and u is given by $t = e^u$. We say that Equations 4 and 5 are **parametrizations** of the curve C. If we were to use Equation 3 to compute the length of C using Equations 4 and 5, we would get the same answer. This is because arc length is a geometric property of the curve and hence is independent of the parametrization that is used.

The Arc Length Function

Now we suppose that C is a curve given by a vector function

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\,\mathbf{i} + g(t)\,\mathbf{j} + h(t)\,\mathbf{k} \qquad a \leqslant t \leqslant b$$

where $\mathbf{r}'$ is continuous and C is traversed exactly once as t increases from a to b. We define its **arc length function** s by

6 $$s(t) = \int_a^t |\mathbf{r}'(u)|\,du = \int_a^t \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{du}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{du}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{du}\right)^2}\,du$$

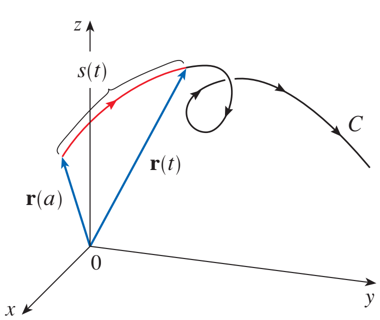


FIGURE 3

(Compare to Equation 10.2.7.) Thus $s(t)$ is the length of the part of C between $\mathbf{r}(a)$ and $\mathbf{r}(t)$. (See Figure 3.) If we differentiate both sides of Equation 6 using Part 1 of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, we obtain

7 $$\frac{ds}{dt} = |\mathbf{r}'(t)|$$

It is often useful to **parametrize a curve with respect to arc length** because arc length arises naturally from the shape of the curve and does not depend on a particular coordinate system or a particular parametrization. If a curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is already given in terms of a parameter t and $s(t)$ is the arc length function given by Equation 6, then we may be able to solve for t as a function of s: $t = t(s)$. Then the curve can be reparametrized in terms of s by substituting for t: $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t(s))$. Thus, if $s = 3$ for instance, $\mathbf{r}(t(3))$ is the position vector of the point 3 units of length along the curve from its starting point.

EXAMPLE 2 Reparametrize the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$ with respect to arc length measured from $(1, 0, 0)$ in the direction of increasing t.

SOLUTION The initial point $(1, 0, 0)$ corresponds to the parameter value $t = 0$. From Example 1 we have

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = |\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{2}$$

and so
$$s = s(t) = \int_0^t |\mathbf{r}'(u)|\,du = \int_0^t \sqrt{2}\,du = \sqrt{2}\,t$$

Therefore $t = s/\sqrt{2}$ and the required reparametrization is obtained by substituting for t:

$$\mathbf{r}(t(s)) = \cos\!\left(s/\sqrt{2}\right)\mathbf{i} + \sin\!\left(s/\sqrt{2}\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(s/\sqrt{2}\right)\mathbf{k}$$ ■

Curvature

A parametrization $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is called **smooth** on an interval I if $\mathbf{r}'$ is continuous and $\mathbf{r}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$ on I. A curve is called **smooth** if it has a smooth parametrization. A smooth curve has no sharp corner or cusp; when the tangent vector turns, it does so continuously.

If C is a smooth curve defined by the vector function $\mathbf{r}$, recall that the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(t)$ is given by

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

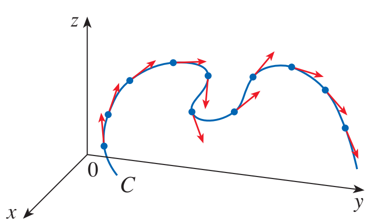


FIGURE 4
Unit tangent vectors at equally spaced points on C

and indicates the direction of the curve. From Figure 4 you can see that $\mathbf{T}(t)$ changes direction very slowly when C is fairly straight, but it changes direction more quickly when C bends or twists more sharply.

The curvature of C at a given point is a measure of how quickly the curve changes direction at that point. Specifically, we define it to be the magnitude of the rate of change of the unit tangent vector with respect to arc length. (We use arc length so that the definition of curvature will be independent of the parametrization.) Because the unit tangent vector has constant length, only changes in direction contribute to the rate of change of $\mathbf{T}$.

8 Definitio The **curvature** of a curve is

$$\kappa = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\right|$$

where $\mathbf{T}$ is the unit tangent vector.

The curvature is easier to compute if it is expressed in terms of the parameter t instead of s, so we use the Chain Rule (Theorem 13.2.3, Formula 6) to write

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} = \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\frac{ds}{dt} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \kappa = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\right| = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}/dt}{ds/dt}\right|$$

But $ds/dt = |\mathbf{r}'(t)|$ from Equation 7, so

9
$$\boxed{\kappa(t) = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}}$$

EXAMPLE 3 Show that the curvature of a circle of radius a is $1/a$.

SOLUTION We can take the circle to have center the origin, and then a parametrization is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = a\cos t\,\mathbf{i} + a\sin t\,\mathbf{j}$$

Therefore $\qquad \mathbf{r}'(t) = -a\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + a\cos t\,\mathbf{j} \qquad$ and $\qquad |\mathbf{r}'(t)| = a$

so
$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = -\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j}$$

and
$$\mathbf{T}'(t) = -\cos t\,\mathbf{i} - \sin t\,\mathbf{j}$$

This gives $|\mathbf{T}'(t)| = 1$, so using Formula 9, we have

$$\kappa(t) = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{1}{a}$$ ■

The result of Example 3 shows that small circles have large curvature and large circles have small curvature, in accordance with our intuition. We can see directly from the definition of curvature that the curvature of a straight line is always 0 because the tangent vector is constant.

Although Formula 9 can be used in all cases to compute the curvature, the formula given by the following theorem is often more convenient to apply.

10 Theorem The curvature of the curve given by the vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is

$$\kappa(t) = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^3}$$

PROOF Since $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{r}'/|\mathbf{r}'|$ and $|\mathbf{r}'| = ds/dt$, we have

$$\mathbf{r}' = |\mathbf{r}'|\mathbf{T} = \frac{ds}{dt}\mathbf{T}$$

so the Product Rule (Theorem 13.2.3, Formula 3) gives

$$\mathbf{r}'' = \frac{d^2s}{dt^2}\mathbf{T} + \frac{ds}{dt}\mathbf{T}'$$

Using the fact that $\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{0}$ (see Example 12.4.2), we have

$$\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}'' = \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 (\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{T}')$$

Now $|\mathbf{T}(t)| = 1$ for all t, so $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{T}'$ are orthogonal by Theorem 13.2.4. Therefore, by Theorem 12.4.9,

$$|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''| = \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 |\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{T}'| = \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 |\mathbf{T}||\mathbf{T}'| = \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 |\mathbf{T}'|$$

Thus
$$|\mathbf{T}'| = \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{(ds/dt)^2} = \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{|\mathbf{r}'|^2}$$

and
$$\kappa = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'|}{|\mathbf{r}'|} = \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{|\mathbf{r}'|^3}$$

EXAMPLE 4 Find the curvature of the twisted cubic $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$ at a general point and at $(0, 0, 0)$.

SOLUTION We first compute the required ingredients:

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle 1, 2t, 3t^2 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{r}''(t) = \langle 0, 2, 6t \rangle$$

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{1 + 4t^2 + 9t^4}$$

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t) = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 2t & 3t^2 \\ 0 & 2 & 6t \end{vmatrix} = 6t^2\,\mathbf{i} - 6t\,\mathbf{j} + 2\,\mathbf{k}$$

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)| = \sqrt{36t^4 + 36t^2 + 4} = 2\sqrt{9t^4 + 9t^2 + 1}$$

Theorem 10 then gives

$$\kappa(t) = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^3} = \frac{2\sqrt{1 + 9t^2 + 9t^4}}{(1 + 4t^2 + 9t^4)^{3/2}}$$

At the origin, where $t = 0$, the curvature is $\kappa(0) = 2$.

For the special case of a plane curve with equation $y = f(x)$, we choose x as the parameter and write $\mathbf{r}(x) = x\,\mathbf{i} + f(x)\,\mathbf{j}$. Then $\mathbf{r}'(x) = \mathbf{i} + f'(x)\,\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{r}''(x) = f''(x)\,\mathbf{j}$. Since $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{0}$, it follows that $\mathbf{r}'(x) \times \mathbf{r}''(x) = f''(x)\,\mathbf{k}$. We also have $|\mathbf{r}'(x)| = \sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2}$ and so, by Theorem 10,

11
$$\boxed{\kappa(x) = \frac{|f''(x)|}{[1 + (f'(x))^2]^{3/2}}}$$

EXAMPLE 5 Find the curvature of the parabola $y = x^2$ at the points $(0, 0)$, $(1, 1)$, and $(2, 4)$.

SOLUTION Since $y' = 2x$ and $y'' = 2$, Formula 11 gives

$$\kappa(x) = \frac{|y''|}{[1 + (y')^2]^{3/2}} = \frac{2}{(1 + 4x^2)^{3/2}}$$

The curvature at $(0, 0)$ is $\kappa(0) = 2$. At $(1, 1)$ it is $\kappa(1) = 2/5^{3/2} \approx 0.18$. At $(2, 4)$ it is $\kappa(2) = 2/17^{3/2} \approx 0.03$. Observe from the expression for $\kappa(x)$ or the graph of κ in Figure 5 that $\kappa(x) \to 0$ as $x \to \pm\infty$. This corresponds to the fact that the parabola appears to become nearly straight as $x \to \pm\infty$.

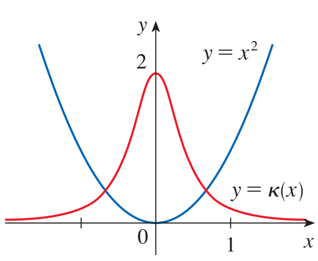


FIGURE 5
The parabola $y = x^2$ and its curvature function

The Normal and Binormal Vectors

At a given point on a smooth space curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$, there are many vectors that are orthogonal to the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(t)$. We single out one by observing that, because $|\mathbf{T}(t)| = 1$ for all t, we have $\mathbf{T}(t) \cdot \mathbf{T}'(t) = 0$ by Theorem 13.2.4, so $\mathbf{T}'(t)$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{T}(t)$. Note that, typically, $\mathbf{T}'(t)$ is itself not a unit vector. But at any point where $\kappa \neq 0$ we can define the **principal unit normal vector** $\mathbf{N}(t)$ (or simply **unit normal**) as

$$\mathbf{N}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{T}'(t)}{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}$$

We can think of the unit normal vector as indicating the direction in which the curve is turning at each point. The vector

$$\mathbf{B}(t) = \mathbf{T}(t) \times \mathbf{N}(t)$$

is called the **binormal vector**. It is perpendicular to both $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{N}$ and is also a unit vector. (See Figure 6.)

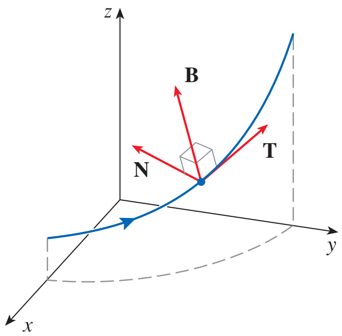


FIGURE 6

Figure 7 illustrates Example 6 by showing the vectors $\mathbf{T}$, $\mathbf{N}$, and $\mathbf{B}$ at two locations on the helix. In general, the vectors $\mathbf{T}$, $\mathbf{N}$, and $\mathbf{B}$, starting at the various points on a curve, form a set of orthogonal vectors, called the $\mathbf{TNB}$ frame, that moves along the curve as t varies. This $\mathbf{TNB}$ frame plays an important role in the branch of mathematics known as differential geometry and in its applications to the motion of spacecraft.

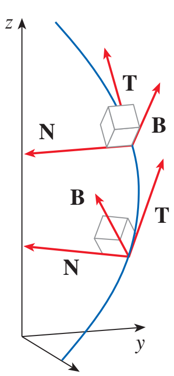


FIGURE 7

EXAMPLE 6 Find the unit normal and binormal vectors for the circular helix

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$$

SOLUTION We first compute the ingredients needed for the unit normal vector:

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = -\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k} \qquad |\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{2}$$

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(-\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})$$

$$\mathbf{T}'(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(-\cos t\,\mathbf{i} - \sin t\,\mathbf{j}) \qquad |\mathbf{T}'(t)| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\mathbf{N}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{T}'(t)}{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|} = -\cos t\,\mathbf{i} - \sin t\,\mathbf{j} = \langle -\cos t, -\sin t, 0\rangle$$

This shows that the unit normal vector at any point on the helix is horizontal and points toward the z-axis. The binormal vector is

$$\mathbf{B}(t) = \mathbf{T}(t) \times \mathbf{N}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -\sin t & \cos t & 1 \\ -\cos t & -\sin t & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\langle \sin t, -\cos t, 1\rangle \qquad \blacksquare$$

EXAMPLE 7 Find the unit tangent, unit normal, and binormal vectors and the curvature for the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, \sqrt{2}\ln t, 1/t\rangle$ at the point $(1, 0, 1)$.

SOLUTION We start by finding $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{T}'$ as functions of t.

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle 1, \sqrt{2}/t, -1/t^2\rangle$$

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{1 + \frac{2}{t^2} + \frac{1}{t^4}} = \frac{1}{t^2}\sqrt{t^4 + 2t^2 + 1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{t^2}\sqrt{(t^2+1)^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}(t^2 + 1) \qquad \text{(because } t^2 + 1 > 0\text{)}$$

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{t^2}{(t^2+1)}\left\langle 1, \frac{\sqrt{2}}{t}, -\frac{1}{t^2}\right\rangle = \frac{1}{(t^2+1)}\langle t^2, \sqrt{2}t, -1\rangle$$

We use Formula 3 of Theorem 13.2.3 to differentiate **T**:

$$\mathbf{T}'(t) = \frac{-2t}{(t^2+1)^2}\langle t^2, \sqrt{2}t, -1\rangle + \frac{1}{(t^2+1)}\langle 2t, \sqrt{2}, 0\rangle$$

The point (1, 0, 1) corresponds to $t = 1$, so we have

$$\mathbf{T}(1) = \tfrac{1}{2}\langle 1, \sqrt{2}, -1\rangle$$

$$\mathbf{T}'(1) = -\tfrac{1}{2}\langle 1, \sqrt{2}, -1\rangle + \tfrac{1}{2}\langle 2, \sqrt{2}, 0\rangle = \tfrac{1}{2}\langle 1, 0, 1\rangle$$

$$\mathbf{N}(1) = \frac{\mathbf{T}'(1)}{|\mathbf{T}'(1)|} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}\langle 1, 0, 1\rangle}{\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{1+0+1}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\langle 1, 0, 1\rangle$$

$$\mathbf{B}(1) = \mathbf{T}(1) \times \mathbf{N}(1) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}\langle \sqrt{2}, -2, -\sqrt{2}\rangle = \tfrac{1}{2}\langle 1, -\sqrt{2}, -1\rangle$$

and, by Formula 9, the curvature is

$$\kappa(1) = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'(1)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(1)|} = \frac{\sqrt{2}/2}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}$$

We could also use Theorem 10 to compute $\kappa(1)$; you can check that we get the same answer. ■

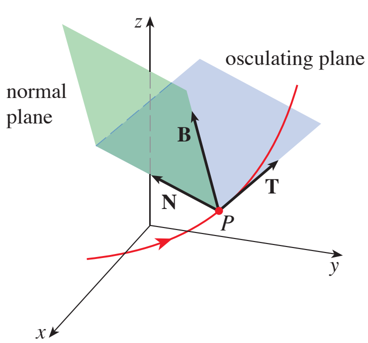


FIGURE 8

The plane determined by the normal and binormal vectors **N** and **B** at a point P on a curve C is called the **normal plane** of C at P. It consists of all lines that are orthogonal to the tangent vector **T**. The plane determined by the vectors **T** and **N** is called the **osculating plane** of C at P. (See Figure 8.) The name comes from the Latin *osculum*, meaning "kiss." It is the plane that comes closest to containing the part of the curve near P. (For a plane curve, the osculating plane is simply the plane that contains the curve.)

The **circle of curvature**, or the **osculating circle**, of C at P is the circle in the osculating plane that passes through P with radius $1/\kappa$ and center a distance $1/\kappa$ from P along the vector **N**. The center of the circle is called the **center of curvature** of C at P. We can think of the circle of curvature as the circle that best describes how C behaves near P—it shares the same tangent, normal, and curvature at P. Figure 9 illustrates two circles of curvature for a plane curve.

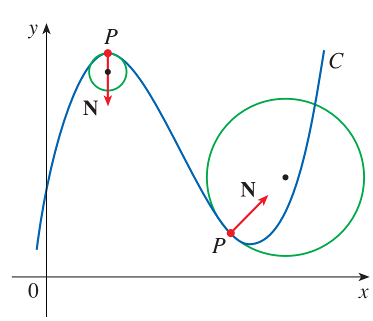


FIGURE 9

EXAMPLE 8 Find equations of the normal plane and osculating plane of the helix in Example 6 at the point $P(0, 1, \pi/2)$.

Figure 10 shows the helix and the osculating plane in Example 8.

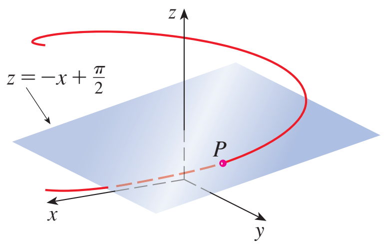


FIGURE 10

SOLUTION The point P corresponds to $t = \pi/2$ and the normal plane there has normal vector $\mathbf{r}'(\pi/2) = \langle -1, 0, 1 \rangle$, so an equation of the normal plane is

$$-1(x-0) + 0(y-1) + 1\left(z - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0 \qquad \text{or} \qquad z = x + \frac{\pi}{2}$$

The osculating plane at P contains the vectors $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{N}$, so a vector normal to the osculating plane is $\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N} = \mathbf{B}$. From Example 6 we have

$$\mathbf{B}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\langle \sin t,\ -\cos t,\ 1 \rangle \qquad \mathbf{B}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \left\langle \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right\rangle$$

The vector $\langle 1, 0, 1 \rangle$ is parallel to $\mathbf{B}(\pi/2)$ (so also normal to the osculating plane). Thus an equation of the osculating plane is

$$1(x-0) + 0(y-1) + 1\left(z - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0 \qquad \text{or} \qquad z = -x + \frac{\pi}{2}$$

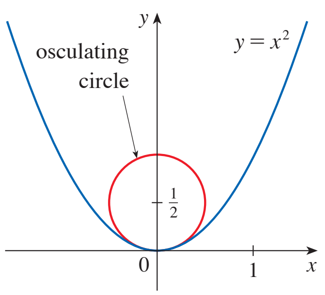


FIGURE 11
Notice that the circle and the parabola appear to bend similarly at the origin.

EXAMPLE 9 Find and graph the osculating circle of the parabola $y = x^2$ at the origin.

SOLUTION From Example 5, the curvature of the parabola at the origin is $\kappa(0) = 2$ so the radius of the osculating circle there is $1/\kappa = \frac{1}{2}$. Moving this distance in the direction of $\mathbf{N} = \langle 0, 1 \rangle$ (the tangent vector is horizontal at the origin so the normal vector is vertical) leads us to the center of curvature at $\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$, so an equation of the circle of curvature is

$$x^2 + \left(y - \tfrac{1}{2}\right)^2 = \tfrac{1}{4}$$

This circle is graphed in Figure 11.

We summarize here the formulas for unit tangent, unit normal and binormal vectors, and curvature.

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} \qquad \mathbf{N}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{T}'(t)}{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|} \qquad \mathbf{B}(t) = \mathbf{T}(t) \times \mathbf{N}(t)$$

$$\kappa = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}\right| = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^3}$$

Torsion

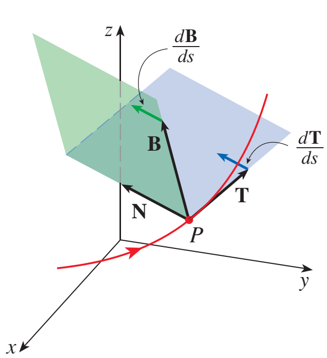


FIGURE 12

Curvature $\kappa = |d\mathbf{T}/ds|$ at a point P on a curve C indicates how tightly the curve "bends." Since $\mathbf{T}$ is a normal vector for the normal plane, $d\mathbf{T}/ds$ tells us how the normal plane changes as P moves along C. [Note that the vector $d\mathbf{T}/ds$ is parallel to $\mathbf{N}$ (Exercise 63), so as P moves along C, the tangent vector at P rotates in the direction of $\mathbf{N}$. A space curve can also lift or "twist" out of the osculating plane at P.] Since $\mathbf{B}$ is normal to the osculating plane, $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ gives us information about how the osculating plane changes as P moves along C. (See Figure 12.)

In Exercise 65 you are asked to show that $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ is parallel to $\mathbf{N}$. Thus there is a scalar τ such that

12
$$\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} = -\tau\mathbf{N}$$

(It is customary to include the negative sign in Equation 12.) The number τ is called the *torsion* of C at P. If we take the dot product with $\mathbf{N}$ of each side of Equation 12 and note that $\mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{N} = 1$, we get the following definition.

13 Definitio The **torsion** of a curve is

$$\tau = -\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} \cdot \mathbf{N}$$

Intuitively, the torsion τ at a point P on a curve is a measure of how much the curve "twists" at P. If τ is positive, the curve twists out of the osculating plane at P in the direction of the binormal vector $\mathbf{B}$; if τ is negative, the curve twists in the opposite direction.

Torsion is easier to compute if it is expressed in terms of the parameter t instead of s, so we use the Chain Rule to write

$$\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{dt} = \frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds}\frac{ds}{dt} \qquad \text{so} \qquad \frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} = \frac{d\mathbf{B}/dt}{ds/dt} = \frac{\mathbf{B}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

Now from Definition 13 we have

14
$$\tau(t) = -\frac{\mathbf{B}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{N}(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

EXAMPLE 10 Find the torsion of the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos t, \sin t, t \rangle$.

SOLUTION In Example 6 we computed $ds/dt = |\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{2}$, $\mathbf{N}(t) = \langle -\cos t, -\sin t, 0 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{B}(t) = \left(1/\sqrt{2}\right)\langle \sin t, -\cos t, 1 \rangle$. Then $\mathbf{B}'(t) = \left(1/\sqrt{2}\right)\langle \cos t, \sin t, 0 \rangle$ and Formula 14 gives

$$\tau(t) = -\frac{\mathbf{B}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{N}(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = -\frac{1}{2}\langle \cos t, \sin t, 0 \rangle \cdot \langle -\cos t, -\sin t, 0 \rangle = \frac{1}{2}$$ ■

Figure 13 shows the unit circle $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos t, \sin t, 0 \rangle$ in the xy-plane and Figure 14 shows the helix of Example 10. Both curves have constant curvature, but the circle has constant torsion 0 whereas the helix has constant torsion $\frac{1}{2}$. We can think of the circle as bending at each point but never twisting, while the helix both bends *and* twists (upward) at each point.

It can be shown that under certain conditions, the shape of a space curve is completely determined by the values of curvature and torsion at each point on the curve.

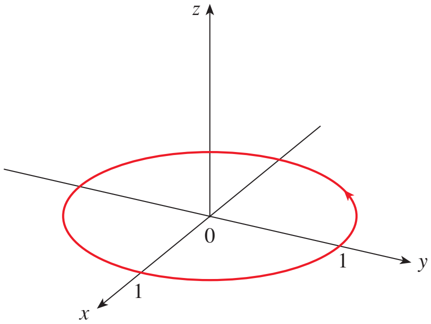


FIGURE 13 $\kappa = 1, \tau = 0$

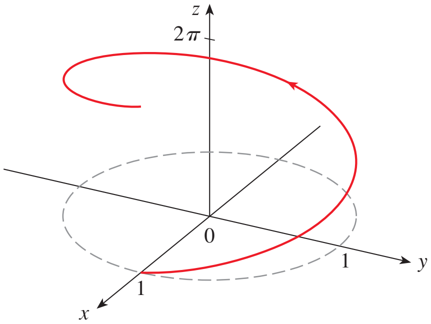


FIGURE 14 $\kappa = \frac{1}{2}, \tau = \frac{1}{2}$

The following theorem gives a formula that is often more convenient for computing torsion; a proof is outlined in Exercise 72.

15 Theorem The torsion of the curve given by the vector function $\mathbf{r}$ is

$$\tau(t) = \frac{[\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)] \cdot \mathbf{r}'''(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|^2}$$

In Exercises 68–70 you are asked to use Theorem 15 to compute the torsion of a curve.

13.3 Exercises

1–2
(a) Use Equation 2 to compute the length of the given line segment.
(b) Compute the length using the distance formula and compare to your answer from part (a).

1. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 3 - t, 2t, 4t + 1 \rangle, \quad 1 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$

2. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t + 2)\,\mathbf{i} - t\,\mathbf{j} + (3t - 5)\,\mathbf{k}, \quad -1 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

3–8 Find the length of the curve.

3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, 3\cos t, 3\sin t \rangle, \quad -5 \leqslant t \leqslant 5$

4. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2t, t^2, \frac{1}{3}t^3 \rangle, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

5. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{2}\,t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\,\mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\,\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

6. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + \ln\cos t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/4$

7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t^3\,\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

8. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + 9t\,\mathbf{j} + 4t^{3/2}\,\mathbf{k}, \quad 1 \leqslant t \leqslant 4$

T 9–11 Find the length of the curve correct to four decimal places. (Use a calculator or computer to approximate the integral.)

9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, t^3, t^4 \rangle, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

10. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, e^{-t}, te^{-t} \rangle, \quad 1 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$

11. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos \pi t, 2t, \sin 2\pi t \rangle$, from $(1, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 4, 0)$

T 12. Graph the curve with parametric equations $x = \sin t$, $y = \sin 2t$, $z = \sin 3t$. Find the total length of this curve, correct to four decimal places.

13. Let C be the curve of intersection of the parabolic cylinder $x^2 = 2y$ and the surface $3z = xy$. Find the exact length of C from the origin to the point $(6, 18, 36)$.

T 14. Find, correct to four decimal places, the length of the curve of intersection of the cylinder $4x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the plane $x + y + z = 2$.

15–16
(a) Find the arc length function for the curve measured from the point P in the direction of increasing t and then reparametrize the curve with respect to arc length starting from P.
(b) Find the point 4 units along the curve (in the direction of increasing t) from P.

15. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (5 - t)\,\mathbf{i} + (4t - 3)\,\mathbf{j} + 3t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad P(4, 1, 3)$

16. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t \sin t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{2}\,e^t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad P(0, 1, \sqrt{2})$

17. Suppose you start at the point $(0, 0, 3)$ and move 5 units along the curve $x = 3\sin t$, $y = 4t$, $z = 3\cos t$ in the positive direction. Where are you now?

18. Reparametrize the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\frac{2}{t^2 + 1} - 1\right)\mathbf{i} + \frac{2t}{t^2 + 1}\mathbf{j}$$

with respect to arc length measured from the point $(1, 0)$ in the direction of increasing t. Express the reparametrization in its simplest form. What can you conclude about the curve?

19–24
(a) Find the unit tangent and unit normal vectors $\mathbf{T}(t)$ and $\mathbf{N}(t)$.
(b) Use Formula 9 to find the curvature.

19. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, \sin t - t\cos t, \cos t + t\sin t \rangle, \quad t > 0$

20. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 5\sin t, t, 5\cos t \rangle$

21. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t^2, 4 \rangle$

22. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t, \frac{1}{2}t^2 \rangle$

23. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, \frac{1}{2}t^2, t^2 \rangle$

24. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sqrt{2}\,t, e^t, e^{-t} \rangle$

25–27 Use Theorem 10 to find the curvature.

25. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^3\,\mathbf{j} + t^2\,\mathbf{k}$

26. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + e^t\,\mathbf{k}$

27. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{6}\,t^2\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j} + 2t^3\,\mathbf{k}$

28. Find the curvature of $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, \ln t, t \ln t \rangle$ at the point $(1, 0, 0)$.

29. Find the curvature of $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle$ at the point $(1, 1, 1)$.

30. Graph the curve with parametric equations $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t$, $z = \sin 5t$ and find the curvature at the point $(1, 0, 0)$.

31–33 Use Formula 11 to find the curvature.

31. $y = x^4$ **32.** $y = \tan x$

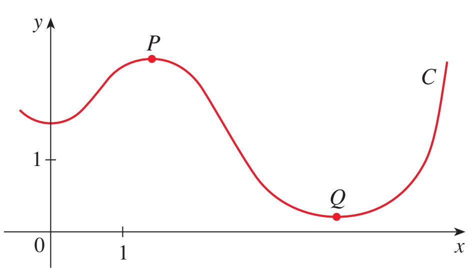
33. $y = xe^x$

34–35 At what point does the curve have maximum curvature? What happens to the curvature as $x \to \infty$?

34. $y = \ln x$ **35.** $y = e^x$

36. Find an equation of a parabola that has curvature 4 at the origin.

37. (a) Is the curvature of the curve C shown in the figure greater at P or at Q? Explain.
(b) Estimate the curvature at P and at Q by sketching the osculating circles at those points.



38–39 Use a graphing calculator or computer to graph both the curve and its curvature function $\kappa(x)$ on the same screen. Is the graph of κ what you would expect?

38. $y = x^4 - 2x^2$ **39.** $y = x^{-2}$

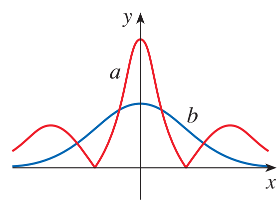
40–41 Use a computer algebra system to compute the curvature function $\kappa(t)$. Then graph the space curve and its curvature function. Comment on how the curvature reflects the shape of the curve.

40. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t - \sin t, 1 - \cos t, 4\cos(t/2) \rangle, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 8\pi$

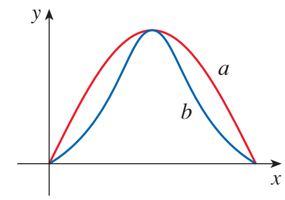
41. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle te^t, e^{-t}, \sqrt{2}t \right\rangle, \quad -5 \leqslant t \leqslant 5$

42–43 Two graphs, a and b, are shown. One is a curve $y = f(x)$ and the other is the graph of its curvature function $y = \kappa(x)$. Identify each curve and explain your choices.

42.



43.



44. (a) Graph the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin 3t, \sin 2t, \sin 3t \rangle$. At how many points on the curve does it appear that the curvature has a local or absolute maximum?
(b) Use a computer algebra system to find and graph the curvature function. Does this graph confirm your conclusion from part (a)?

45. The graph of $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle t - \frac{3}{2}\sin t, 1 - \frac{3}{2}\cos t, t \right\rangle$ is shown in Figure 13.1.13(b). Where do you think the curvature is largest? Use a computer algebra system to find and graph the curvature function. For which values of t is the curvature largest?

46–49 Curvature of Plane Parametric Curves The curvature of a plane parametric curve $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$ is given by

$$\kappa = \frac{|\dot{x}\ddot{y} - \dot{y}\ddot{x}|}{[\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2]^{3/2}}$$

where the dots indicate derivatives with respect to t.

46. Use Theorem 10 to prove the given formula for curvature.

47. Find the curvature of the curve $x = t^2$, $y = t^3$.

48. Find the curvature of the curve $x = a\cos \omega t$, $y = b \sin \omega t$.

49. Find the curvature of the curve $x = e^t \cos t$, $y = e^t \sin t$.

50. Consider the curvature at $x = 0$ for each member of the family of functions $f(x) = e^{cx}$. For which members is $\kappa(0)$ largest?

51–52 Find the vectors $\mathbf{T}$, $\mathbf{N}$, and $\mathbf{B}$ at the given point.

51. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle t^2, \frac{2}{3}t^3, t \right\rangle, \quad \left(1, \frac{2}{3}, 1\right)$

52. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos t, \sin t, \ln \cos t \rangle, \quad (1, 0, 0)$

53–54 Find equations of the normal plane and osculating plane of the curve at the given point.

53. $x = \sin 2t$, $y = -\cos 2t$, $z = 4t$; $(0, 1, 2\pi)$

54. $x = \ln t$, $y = 2t$, $z = t^2$; $(0, 2, 1)$

55. Find equations of the osculating circles of the ellipse $9x^2 + 4y^2 = 36$ at the points $(2, 0)$ and $(0, 3)$. Use a graphing calculator or computer to graph the ellipse and both osculating circles on the same screen.

56. Find equations of the osculating circles of the parabola $y = \frac{1}{2}x^2$ at the points $(0, 0)$ and $\left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right)$. Graph both osculating circles and the parabola on the same screen.

57. At what point on the curve $x = t^3$, $y = 3t$, $z = t^4$ is the normal plane parallel to the plane $6x + 6y - 8z = 1$?

T 58. Is there a point on the curve in Exercise 57 where the osculating plane is parallel to the plane $x + y + z = 1$? [*Note:* You will need a computer algebra system for differentiating, for simplifying, and for computing a cross product.]

59. Find equations of the normal and osculating planes of the curve of intersection of the parabolic cylinders $x = y^2$ and $z = x^2$ at the point $(1, 1, 1)$.

60. Show that the osculating plane at every point on the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle t + 2, 1 - t, \frac{1}{2}t^2 \right\rangle$ is the same plane. What can you conclude about the curve?

61. Show that at every point on the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle e^t \cos t, e^t \sin t, e^t \rangle$$

the angle between the unit tangent vector and the z-axis is the same. Then show that the same result holds true for the unit normal and binormal vectors.

62. The Rectifying Plane The *rectifying plane* of a curve at a point is the plane that contains the vectors $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ at that point. Find the rectifying plane of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \tan t\,\mathbf{k}$ at the point $\left(\sqrt{2}/2, \sqrt{2}/2, 1\right)$.

63. Show that the curvature κ is related to the tangent and normal vectors by the equation

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = \kappa \mathbf{N}$$

64. Show that the curvature of a plane curve is $\kappa = |d\phi/ds|$, where ϕ is the angle between $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{i}$; that is, ϕ is the angle of inclination of the tangent line. (This shows that the definition of curvature is consistent with the definition for plane curves given in Exercises 10.2.79–83.)

65. (a) Show that $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ is perpendicular to $\mathbf{B}$.
(b) Show that $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ is perpendicular to $\mathbf{T}$.
(c) Deduce from parts (a) and (b) that $d\mathbf{B}/ds$ is parallel to $\mathbf{N}$.

66–67 Use Formula 14 to find the torsion at the given value of t.

66. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin t, 3t, \cos t \rangle, \quad t = \pi/2$

67. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle \frac{1}{2}t^2, 2t, t \right\rangle, \quad t = 1$

68–70 Use Theorem 15 to find the torsion of the given curve at a general point and at the point corresponding to $t = 0$.

68. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle t, \frac{1}{2}t^2, \frac{1}{3}t^3 \right\rangle$

69. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle e^t, e^{-t}, t \rangle$

70. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos t, \sin t, \sin t \rangle$

71–72 Frenet-Serret Formulas The following formulas, called the *Frenet-Serret formulas*, are of fundamental importance in differential geometry:

1. $d\mathbf{T}/ds = \kappa \mathbf{N}$
2. $d\mathbf{N}/ds = -\kappa \mathbf{T} + \tau \mathbf{B}$
3. $d\mathbf{B}/ds = -\tau \mathbf{N}$

(Formula 1 comes from Exercise 63 and Formula 3 is Equation 12.)

71. Use the fact that $\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{T}$ to deduce Formula 2 from Formulas 1 and 3.

72. Use the Frenet-Serret formulas to prove each of the following. (Primes denote derivatives with respect to t. Start as in the proof of Theorem 10.)
(a) $\mathbf{r}'' = s''\mathbf{T} + \kappa(s')^2\mathbf{N}$
(b) $\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}'' = \kappa(s')^3\mathbf{B}$
(c) $\mathbf{r}''' = [s''' - \kappa^2(s')^3]\mathbf{T} + [3\kappa s's'' + \kappa'(s')^2]\mathbf{N} + \kappa\tau(s')^3\mathbf{B}$
(d) $\tau = \dfrac{(\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}'') \cdot \mathbf{r}'''}{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|^2}$

73. Show that the circular helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle a \cos t, a \sin t, bt \rangle$, where a and b are positive constants, has constant curvature and constant torsion. (Use Theorem 15.)

74. Find the curvature and torsion of the curve $x = \sinh t$, $y = \cosh t$, $z = t$ at the point $(0, 1, 0)$.

75. Evolute of a Curve The *evolute* of a smooth curve C is the curve generated by the centers of curvature of C.
(a) Explain why the evolute of a curve given by $\mathbf{r}$ is

$$\mathbf{r}_e(t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \frac{1}{\kappa(t)}\mathbf{N}(t) \qquad \kappa(t) \neq 0$$

(b) Find the evolute of the helix in Example 6.
(c) Find the evolute of the parabola in Example 5.

76. Planar Curves A space curve C given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$ is called *planar* if it lies in a plane.
(a) Show that C is planar if and only if there exist scalars a, b, c, and d, not all zero, such that $ax(t) + by(t) + cz(t) = d$ for all t.
(b) Show that if C is planar, then the binormal vector $\mathbf{B}$ is normal to the plane containing C.
(c) Show that if C is a planar curve then the torsion of C is zero for all t.
(d) Show that the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, 2t, t^2 \rangle$ is planar and find an equation of the plane that contains the curve. Use this equation to find the binormal vector $\mathbf{B}$.

77. The DNA molecule has the shape of a double helix (see Figure 13.1.3). The radius of each helix is about 10 angstroms ($1\ \text{Å} = 10^{-8}$ cm). Each helix rises about 34 Å during each complete turn, and there are about 2.9×10^8 complete turns. Estimate the length of each helix.

78. Let's consider the problem of designing a railroad track to make a smooth transition between sections of straight track. Existing track along the negative x-axis is to be joined smoothly to a track along the line $y = 1$ for $x \geqslant 1$.

(a) Find a polynomial $P = P(x)$ of degree 5 such that the function F defined by

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leqslant 0 \\ P(x) & \text{if } 0 < x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geqslant 1 \end{cases}$$

is continuous and has continuous slope and continuous curvature.

(b) Graph F.

13.4 Motion in Space: Velocity and Acceleration

In this section we show how the ideas of tangent and normal vectors and curvature can be used in physics to study the motion of an object—including its velocity and acceleration—along a space curve. In particular, we follow in the footsteps of Newton by using these methods to derive Kepler's First Law of planetary motion.

Velocity, Speed, and Acceleration

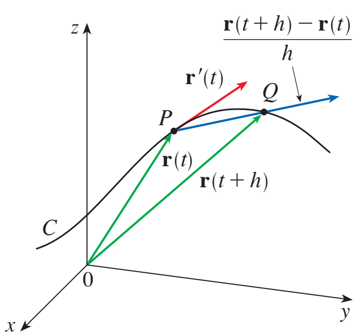


FIGURE 1

Suppose a particle moves through space so that its position vector at time t is $\mathbf{r}(t)$. Notice from Figure 1 that, for small values of h, the vector

1 $$\frac{\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{h}$$

approximates the direction of the particle moving along the curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$. Its magnitude measures the size of the displacement vector per unit time. The vector (1) gives the average velocity over a time interval of length h and its limit is the **velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(t)$** at time t:

2 $$\boxed{\mathbf{v}(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{h} = \mathbf{r}'(t)}$$

Thus the velocity vector is also the tangent vector and points in the direction of the tangent line.

The **speed** of the particle at time t is the magnitude of the velocity vector, that is, $|\mathbf{v}(t)|$. This is appropriate because, from (2) and from Equation 13.3.7, we have

Compare to Equation 10.2.8, where we defined speed for plane parametric curves.

$$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = |\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \frac{ds}{dt} = \text{rate of change of distance with respect to time}$$

As in the case of one-dimensional motion, the **acceleration** of the particle is defined as the derivative of the velocity:

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = \mathbf{r}''(t)$$

EXAMPLE 1 The position vector of an object moving in a plane is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^3\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j}$. Find its velocity, speed, and acceleration when $t = 1$ and illustrate geometrically.

SOLUTION The velocity and acceleration at time t are

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = 3t^2\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j} \qquad \mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{r}''(t) = 6t\,\mathbf{i} + 2\,\mathbf{j}$$

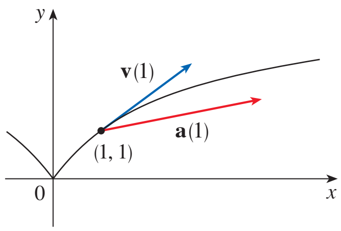


FIGURE 2

and the speed is

$$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{(3t^2)^2 + (2t)^2} = \sqrt{9t^4 + 4t^2}$$

When $t = 1$, we have

$$\mathbf{v}(1) = 3\,\mathbf{i} + 2\,\mathbf{j} \qquad \mathbf{a}(1) = 6\,\mathbf{i} + 2\,\mathbf{j} \qquad |\mathbf{v}(1)| = \sqrt{13}$$

These velocity and acceleration vectors are shown in Figure 2. ■

Figure 3 shows the path of the particle in Example 2 with the velocity and acceleration vectors when $t = 1$.

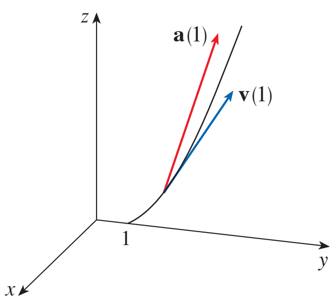


FIGURE 3

EXAMPLE 2 Find the velocity, acceleration, and speed of a particle with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, e^t, te^t \rangle$.

SOLUTION

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle 2t, e^t, (1 + t)e^t \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = \langle 2, e^t, (2 + t)e^t \rangle$$

$$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{4t^2 + e^{2t} + (1 + t)^2 e^{2t}}$$ ■

NOTE Earlier in the chapter we saw that a curve can be parametrized in different ways but the geometric properties of a curve—arc length, curvature, and torsion—are independent of the choice of parametrization. On the other hand, velocity, speed, and acceleration *do* depend on the parametrizations used. You can think of the curve as a road and a parametrization as describing how you travel along that road. The length and curvature of the road do not depend on how you travel on it, but your velocity and acceleration do.

The vector integrals that were introduced in Section 13.2 can be used to find position vectors when velocity or acceleration vectors are known, as in the next example.

EXAMPLE 3 A moving particle starts at an initial position $\mathbf{r}(0) = \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle$ with initial velocity $\mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$. Its acceleration is $\mathbf{a}(t) = 4t\,\mathbf{i} + 6t\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$. Find its velocity and position at time t.

SOLUTION Since $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t)$, we have

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \int \mathbf{a}(t)\,dt = \int (4t\,\mathbf{i} + 6t\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})\,dt$$

$$= 2t^2\,\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C}$$

To determine the value of the constant vector $\mathbf{C}$, we use the fact that $\mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$. The preceding equation gives $\mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{C}$, so $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ and

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = 2t^2\,\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$

$$= (2t^2 + 1)\,\mathbf{i} + (3t^2 - 1)\,\mathbf{j} + (t + 1)\,\mathbf{k}$$

The expression for $\mathbf{r}(t)$ that we obtained in Example 3 was used to plot the path of the particle in Figure 4 for $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$.

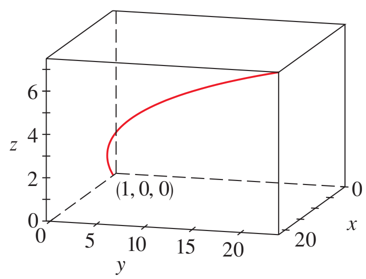


FIGURE 4

Since $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t)$, we have

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \int \mathbf{v}(t)\,dt$$

$$= \int [(2t^2 + 1)\,\mathbf{i} + (3t^2 - 1)\,\mathbf{j} + (t + 1)\,\mathbf{k}]\,dt$$

$$= \left(\tfrac{2}{3}t^3 + t\right)\mathbf{i} + (t^3 - t)\,\mathbf{j} + \left(\tfrac{1}{2}t^2 + t\right)\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{D}$$

Putting $t = 0$, we find that $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{i}$, so the position at time t is given by

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\tfrac{2}{3}t^3 + t + 1\right)\mathbf{i} + (t^3 - t)\,\mathbf{j} + \left(\tfrac{1}{2}t^2 + t\right)\mathbf{k}$$ ■

In general, vector integrals allow us to recover velocity when acceleration is known and position when velocity is known:

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{v}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^{t} \mathbf{a}(u)\,du \qquad \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^{t} \mathbf{v}(u)\,du$$

If the force that acts on a particle is known, then the acceleration can be found from **Newton's Second Law of Motion**. The vector version of this law states that if, at any time t, a force $\mathbf{F}(t)$ acts on an object of mass m producing an acceleration $\mathbf{a}(t)$, then

$$\mathbf{F}(t) = m\mathbf{a}(t)$$

EXAMPLE 4 An object with mass m that moves in a circular path with constant angular speed ω has position vector $\mathbf{r}(t) = a\cos\omega t\,\mathbf{i} + a\sin\omega t\,\mathbf{j}$. Find the force acting on the object and show that it is directed toward the origin.

The object moving with position P has angular speed $\omega = d\theta/dt$, where θ is the angle shown in Figure 5.

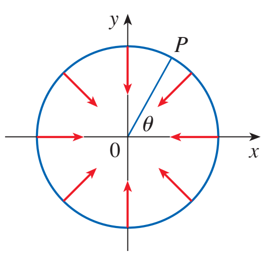


FIGURE 5

SOLUTION To find the force, we first need to know the acceleration:

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = -a\omega\sin\omega t\,\mathbf{i} + a\omega\cos\omega t\,\mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = -a\omega^2\cos\omega t\,\mathbf{i} - a\omega^2\sin\omega t\,\mathbf{j}$$

Therefore Newton's Second Law gives the force as

$$\mathbf{F}(t) = m\mathbf{a}(t) = -m\omega^2(a\cos\omega t\,\mathbf{i} + a\sin\omega t\,\mathbf{j})$$

Notice that $\mathbf{F}(t) = -m\omega^2\mathbf{r}(t)$. This shows that the force acts in the direction opposite to the radius vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and therefore points toward the origin (see Figure 5). Such a force is called a *centripetal* (center-seeking) force. ■

■ Projectile Motion

EXAMPLE 5 A projectile is fired with angle of elevation α and initial velocity $\mathbf{v}_0$. (See Figure 6.) Assuming that air resistance is negligible and the only external force is due to gravity, find the position function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ of the projectile. What value of α maximizes the range (the horizontal distance traveled)?

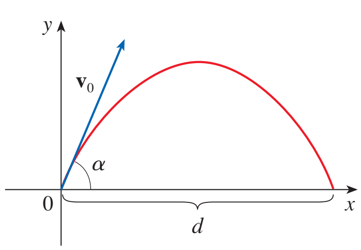


FIGURE 6

SOLUTION We set up the axes so that the projectile starts at the origin. Since the force due to gravity acts downward, we have

$$\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a} = -mg\,\mathbf{j}$$

where $g = |\mathbf{a}| \approx 9.8\text{ m/s}^2$. Thus

$$\mathbf{a} = -g\,\mathbf{j}$$

Since $\mathbf{v}'(t) = \mathbf{a}$, we have $\qquad \mathbf{v}(t) = -gt\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{C}$

where $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{v}_0$. Therefore

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{v}(t) = -gt\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{v}_0$$

Integrating again, we obtain

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = -\tfrac{1}{2}gt^2\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{v}_0 + \mathbf{D}$$

But $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{0}$, so the position vector of the projectile is given by

$$\boxed{3} \qquad \mathbf{r}(t) = -\tfrac{1}{2}gt^2\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{v}_0$$

If we write $|\mathbf{v}_0| = v_0$ (the initial speed of the projectile), then

$$\mathbf{v}_0 = v_0 \cos\alpha\, \mathbf{i} + v_0 \sin\alpha\, \mathbf{j}$$

and Equation 3 becomes

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (v_0 \cos\alpha)t\, \mathbf{i} + \left[(v_0 \sin\alpha)t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2\right]\mathbf{j}$$

The parametric equations of the trajectory are therefore

If you eliminate t from Equations 4, you will see that y is a quadratic function of x. So the path of the projectile is part of a parabola.

4 $$\boxed{x = (v_0 \cos\alpha)t \qquad y = (v_0 \sin\alpha)t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2}$$

The horizontal distance d is the value of x when $y = 0$. Setting $y = 0$, we obtain $t = 0$ or $t = (2v_0 \sin\alpha)/g$. This second value of t then gives

$$d = x = (v_0 \cos\alpha)\frac{2v_0 \sin\alpha}{g} = \frac{v_0^2(2 \sin\alpha\ \cos\alpha)}{g} = \frac{v_0^2 \sin 2\alpha}{g}$$

Clearly, d has its maximum value when $\sin 2\alpha = 1$, that is, $\alpha = 45°$. ■

EXAMPLE 6 A projectile is fired with initial speed 150 m/s and angle of elevation 30° from a position 10 m above ground level. Where does the projectile hit the ground, and with what speed?

SOLUTION If we place the origin at ground level, then the initial position of the projectile is (0, 10) and so we need to adjust Equations 4 by adding 10 to the expression for y. With $v_0 = 150$ m/s, $\alpha = 30°$, and $g = 9.8\ \text{m/s}^2$, we have

$$x = 150 \cos(30°)t = 75\sqrt{3}\, t$$

$$y = 10 + 150 \sin(30°)t - \tfrac{1}{2}(9.8)t^2 = 10 + 75t - 4.9t^2$$

Impact occurs when $y = 0$, that is, $4.9t^2 - 75t - 10 = 0$. Using the quadratic formula to solve this equation (and taking only the positive value of t), we get

$$t = \frac{75 + \sqrt{5625 + 196}}{9.8} \approx 15.44$$

Then $x \approx 75\sqrt{3}(15.44) \approx 2006$, so the projectile hits the ground about 2006 m away.

The velocity of the projectile is

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = 75\sqrt{3}\, \mathbf{i} + (75 - 9.8t)\, \mathbf{j}$$

So its speed at impact is

$$|\mathbf{v}(15.44)| = \sqrt{(75\sqrt{3})^2 + (75 - 9.8 \cdot 15.44)^2} \approx 151 \text{ m/s}$$ ■

■ Tangential and Normal Components of Acceleration

When we study the motion of a particle, it is often useful to resolve the acceleration into two components, one in the direction of the tangent and the other in the direction of the normal. If we write $v = |\mathbf{v}|$ for the speed of the particle, then

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{|\mathbf{v}(t)|} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{v}$$

and so $$\mathbf{v} = v\mathbf{T}$$

If we differentiate both sides of this equation with respect to t, we get

$$\boxed{5} \qquad \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{v}' = v'\mathbf{T} + v\mathbf{T}'$$

If we use the expression for the curvature given by Equation 13.3.9, then we have

$$\boxed{6} \qquad \kappa = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'|}{|\mathbf{r}'|} = \frac{|\mathbf{T}'|}{v} \qquad \text{so} \qquad |\mathbf{T}'| = \kappa v$$

The unit normal vector was defined in Section 13.3 as $\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{T}'/|\mathbf{T}'|$, so (6) gives

$$\mathbf{T}' = |\mathbf{T}'|\mathbf{N} = \kappa v \mathbf{N}$$

and Equation 5 becomes

$$\boxed{7} \qquad \boxed{\mathbf{a} = v'\mathbf{T} + \kappa v^2 \mathbf{N}}$$

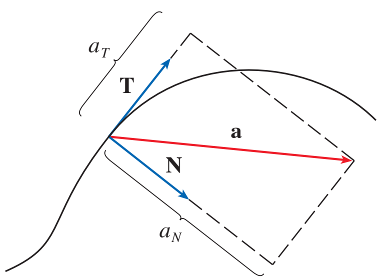


FIGURE 7

Writing a_T and a_N for the tangential and normal components of acceleration, we have

$$\mathbf{a} = a_T \mathbf{T} + a_N \mathbf{N}$$

where

$$\boxed{8} \qquad a_T = v' \qquad \text{and} \qquad a_N = \kappa v^2$$

This resolution is illustrated in Figure 7.

Let's look at what Formula 7 says. The first thing to notice is that the binormal vector **B** is absent. No matter how an object moves through space, its acceleration always lies in the plane of **T** and **N** (the osculating plane). (Recall that **T** gives the direction of motion and **N** points in the direction the curve is turning.) Next we notice that the tangential component of acceleration is v', the rate of change of speed, and the normal component of acceleration is κv^2, the curvature times the square of the speed. This makes sense if we think of a passenger in a car—a sharp turn in a road means a large value of the curvature κ, so the component of the acceleration perpendicular to the motion is large and the passenger is thrown against the car door. High speed around the turn has the same effect; in fact, if you double your speed, a_N is increased by a factor of 4.

Although we have expressions for the tangential and normal components of acceleration in Equations 8, it's desirable to have expressions that depend only on $\mathbf{r}$, $\mathbf{r}'$, and $\mathbf{r}''$. To this end we take the dot product of $\mathbf{v} = v\mathbf{T}$ with $\mathbf{a}$ as given by Equation 7:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a} &= v\mathbf{T} \cdot (v'\mathbf{T} + \kappa v^2 \mathbf{N}) \\
&= vv'\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{T} + \kappa v^3 \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{N} \\
&= vv' \qquad (\text{since } \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{T} = 1 \text{ and } \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{N} = 0)
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\boxed{9} \qquad a_T = v' = \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{v} = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}''(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

Using the formula for curvature given by Theorem 13.3.10, we have

$$\boxed{10} \qquad a_N = \kappa v^2 = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^3} |\mathbf{r}'(t)|^2 = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

EXAMPLE 7 A particle moves with position function $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, t^2, t^3 \rangle$. Find the tangential and normal components of acceleration.

SOLUTION

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t^3\,\mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = 2t\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j} + 3t^2\,\mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{r}''(t) = 2\,\mathbf{i} + 2\,\mathbf{j} + 6t\,\mathbf{k}$$

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{8t^2 + 9t^4}$$

Therefore Equation 9 gives the tangential component as

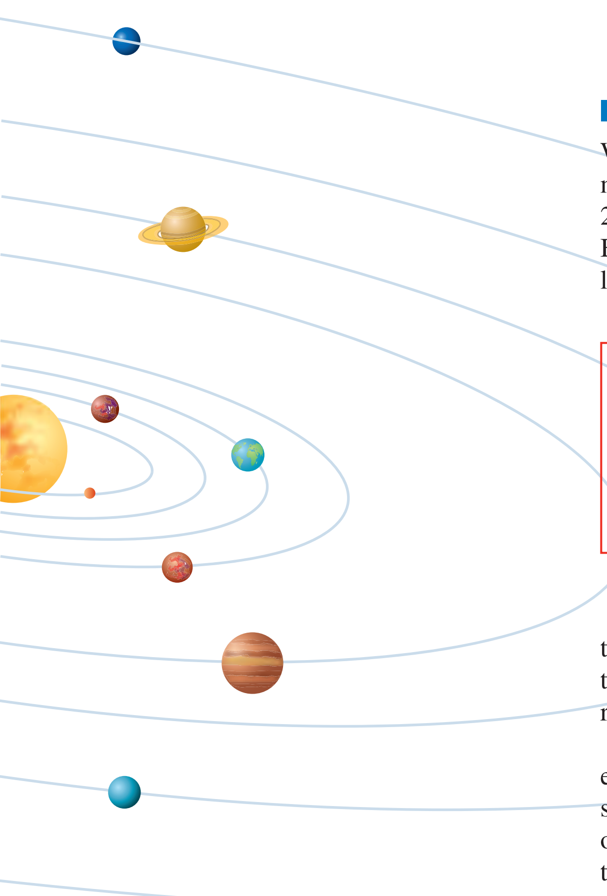
$$a_T = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}''(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{8t + 18t^3}{\sqrt{8t^2 + 9t^4}}$$

Since
$$\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t) = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 2t & 2t & 3t^2 \\ 2 & 2 & 6t \end{vmatrix} = 6t^2\,\mathbf{i} - 6t^2\,\mathbf{j}$$

Equation 10 gives the normal component as

$$a_N = \frac{|\mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t)|}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{6\sqrt{2}\,t^2}{\sqrt{8t^2 + 9t^4}}$$ ■

Kepler's Laws of Planetary Motion



We now describe one of the great accomplishments of calculus by showing how the material of this chapter can be used to prove Kepler's laws of planetary motion. After 20 years of studying the astronomical observations of the Danish astronomer Tycho Brahe, the German mathematician and astronomer Johannes Kepler (1571–1630) formulated the following three laws.

Kepler's Laws

1. A planet revolves around the sun in an elliptical orbit with the sun at one focus.
2. The line joining the sun to a planet sweeps out equal areas in equal times.
3. The square of the period of revolution of a planet is proportional to the cube of the length of the major axis of its orbit.

In his book *Principia Mathematica* of 1687, Sir Isaac Newton was able to show that these three laws are consequences of two of his own laws, the Second Law of Motion and the Law of Universal Gravitation. In what follows we prove Kepler's First Law. The remaining laws are left as exercises (with hints).

Since the gravitational force of the sun on a planet is so much larger than the forces exerted by other celestial bodies, we can safely ignore all bodies in the universe except the sun and one planet revolving about it. We use a coordinate system with the sun at the origin and we let $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$ be the position vector of the planet. (Equally well, $\mathbf{r}$ could be the position vector of the moon or a satellite moving around the earth or a comet moving around a star.) The velocity vector is $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{r}'$ and the acceleration vector is $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{r}''$. We use the following laws of Newton:

$$\text{Second Law of Motion:} \quad \mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$$

$$\text{Law of Gravitation:} \quad \mathbf{F} = -\frac{GMm}{r^3}\mathbf{r} = -\frac{GMm}{r^2}\mathbf{u}$$

where $\mathbf{F}$ is the gravitational force on the planet, m and M are the masses of the planet and the sun, G is the gravitational constant, $r = |\mathbf{r}|$, and $\mathbf{u} = (1/r)\mathbf{r}$ is the unit vector in the direction of $\mathbf{r}$.

We first show that the planet moves in one plane. By equating the expressions for $\mathbf{F}$ in Newton's two laws, we find that

$$\mathbf{a} = -\frac{GM}{r^3}\mathbf{r}$$

and so $\mathbf{a}$ is parallel to $\mathbf{r}$. It follows that $\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$. We use Formula 5 in Theorem 13.2.3 to write

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v}) &= \mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v}' \\ &= \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{h}$$

where $\mathbf{h}$ is a constant vector. (We may assume that $\mathbf{h} \neq \mathbf{0}$; that is, $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are not parallel.) This means that the vector $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$ is perpendicular to $\mathbf{h}$ for all values of t, so the planet always lies in the plane through the origin perpendicular to $\mathbf{h}$. Thus the orbit of the planet is a plane curve.

To prove Kepler's First Law we rewrite the vector $\mathbf{h}$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{h} &= \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{r}' = r\mathbf{u} \times (r\mathbf{u})' \\ &= r\mathbf{u} \times (r\mathbf{u}' + r'\mathbf{u}) = r^2(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}') + rr'(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}) \\ &= r^2(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}') \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{h} &= \frac{-GM}{r^2}\mathbf{u} \times (r^2\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}') = -GM\,\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}') \\ &= -GM[(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}')\mathbf{u} - (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u})\mathbf{u}'] \qquad \text{(by Theorem 12.4.11, Property 6)} \end{aligned}$$

But $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = |\mathbf{u}|^2 = 1$ and, since $|\mathbf{u}(t)| = 1$, it follows from Theorem 13.2.4 that

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}' = 0$$

Therefore

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{h} = GM\,\mathbf{u}'$$

and so

$$(\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h})' = \mathbf{v}' \times \mathbf{h} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h}' = \mathbf{v}' \times \mathbf{h} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{h} = GM\,\mathbf{u}'$$

Integrating both sides of this equation, we get

$$\boxed{11} \qquad \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h} = GM\,\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{c}$$

where $\mathbf{c}$ is a constant vector.

At this point it is convenient to choose the coordinate axes so that the standard basis vector $\mathbf{k}$ points in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{h}$. Then the planet moves in the

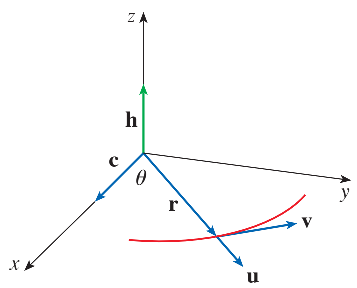


FIGURE 8

xy-plane. Since both $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h}$ and $\mathbf{u}$ are perpendicular to $\mathbf{h}$, Equation 11 shows that $\mathbf{c}$ lies in the xy-plane. This means that we can choose the x- and y-axes so that the vector $\mathbf{i}$ lies in the direction of $\mathbf{c}$, as shown in Figure 8.

If θ is the angle between $\mathbf{c}$ and $\mathbf{r}$, then (r, θ) are polar coordinates of the planet. From Equation 11 we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h}) &= \mathbf{r} \cdot (GM\,\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{c}) = GM\,\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{c} \\ &= GMr\,\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} + |\mathbf{r}||\mathbf{c}|\cos\theta = GMr + rc\cos\theta \end{aligned}$$

where $c = |\mathbf{c}|$. Then

$$r = \frac{\mathbf{r} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h})}{GM + c\cos\theta} = \frac{1}{GM}\,\frac{\mathbf{r} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h})}{1 + e\cos\theta}$$

where $e = c/(GM)$. But

$$\mathbf{r} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{h}) = (\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{h} = \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{h} = |\mathbf{h}|^2 = h^2$$

where $h = |\mathbf{h}|$. So

$$r = \frac{h^2/(GM)}{1 + e\cos\theta} = \frac{eh^2/c}{1 + e\cos\theta}$$

Writing $d = h^2/c$, we obtain the equation

$$\boxed{12} \qquad r = \frac{ed}{1 + e\cos\theta}$$

Comparing with Theorem 10.6.6, we see that Equation 12 is the polar equation of a conic section with focus at the origin and eccentricity e. We know that the orbit of a planet is a closed curve and so the conic must be an ellipse.

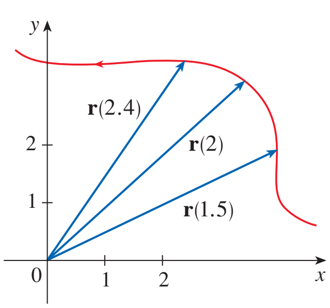
This completes the derivation of Kepler's First Law. We will guide you through the derivation of the Second and Third Laws in the Applied Project following this section. The proofs of these three laws show that the methods of this chapter provide a powerful tool for describing some of the laws of nature.

13.4 Exercises

1. The table gives coordinates of a particle moving through space along a smooth curve.
(a) Find the average velocities over the time intervals [0, 1], [0.5, 1], [1, 2], and [1, 1.5].
(b) Estimate the velocity and speed of the particle at $t = 1$.

t	x	y	z
0	2.7	9.8	3.7
0.5	3.5	7.2	3.3
1.0	4.5	6.0	3.0
1.5	5.9	6.4	2.8
2.0	7.3	7.8	2.7

2. The figure shows the path of a particle that moves with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at time t.
(a) Draw a vector that represents the average velocity of the particle over the time interval $2 \leqslant t \leqslant 2.4$.
(b) Draw a vector that represents the average velocity over the time interval $1.5 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$.
(c) Write an expression for the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}(2)$.
(d) Draw an approximation to the vector $\mathbf{v}(2)$ and estimate the speed of the particle at $t = 2$.



3–8 Find the velocity, acceleration, and speed of a particle with the given position function. Sketch the path of the particle and draw the velocity and acceleration vectors for the specified value of t.

3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle -\frac{1}{2}t^2, t \rangle, \quad t = 2$

4. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, 1/t^2 \rangle, \quad t = 1$

5. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 3\cos t\,\mathbf{i} + 2\sin t\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = \pi/3$

6. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\,\mathbf{i} + e^{2t}\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t = 0$

7. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + 2\,\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 1$

8. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + 2\cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad t = 0$

9–14 Find the velocity, acceleration, and speed of a particle with the given position function.

9. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2 + t, t^2 - t, t^3 \rangle$

10. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2\cos t, 3t, 2\sin t \rangle$

11. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{2}\,t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\,\mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\,\mathbf{k}$

12. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j} + \ln t\,\mathbf{k}$

13. $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t(\cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k})$

14. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, \sin t - t\cos t, \cos t + t\sin t \rangle, \quad t \geqslant 0$

15–16 Find the velocity and position vectors of a particle that has the given acceleration and the given initial velocity and position.

15. $\mathbf{a}(t) = 2\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{v}(0) = 3\,\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}, \quad \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$

16. $\mathbf{a}(t) = \sin t\,\mathbf{i} + 2\cos t\,\mathbf{j} + 6t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{v}(0) = -\mathbf{k},$
$\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{j} - 4\,\mathbf{k}$

17–18

(a) Find the position vector of a particle that has the given acceleration and the specified initial velocity and position.

(b) Graph the path of the particle.

17. $\mathbf{a}(t) = 2t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + \cos 2t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{j}$

18. $\mathbf{a}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\,\mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\,\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$

19. The position function of a particle is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^2, 5t, t^2 - 16t \rangle$. When is the speed a minimum?

20. What force is required so that a particle of mass m has the position function $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^3\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t^3\,\mathbf{k}$?

21. A force with magnitude 20 N acts directly upward from the xy-plane on an object with mass 4 kg. The object starts at the origin with initial velocity $\mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$. Find its position function and its speed at time t.

22. Show that if a particle moves with constant speed, then the velocity and acceleration vectors are orthogonal.

23. A projectile is fired with an initial speed of 200 m/s and angle of elevation 60°. Find (a) the range of the projectile, (b) the maximum height reached, and (c) the speed at impact.

24. Rework Exercise 23 if the projectile is fired from a position 100 m above the ground.

25. A ball is thrown upward at an angle of 45° to the ground. If the ball lands 90 m away, what was the initial speed of the ball?

26. A projectile is fired from a tank with initial speed 400 m/s. Find two angles of elevation that can be used to hit a target 3000 m away.

27. A rifle is fired with angle of elevation 36°. What is the initial speed if the maximum height of the bullet is 500 m?

28. A batter hits a baseball 1 m above the ground toward the center field fence, which is 4 m high and 120 m from home plate. The ball leaves the bat with speed 35 m/s at an angle 50° above the horizontal. Is it a home run? (In other words, does the ball clear the fence?)

29. A medieval city has the shape of a square and is protected by walls with length 500 m and height 15 m. You are the commander of an attacking army and the closest you can get to the wall is 100 m. Your plan is to set fire to the city by catapulting heated rocks over the wall (with an initial speed of 80 m/s). At what range of angles should you tell your men to set the catapult? (Assume the path of the rocks is perpendicular to the wall.)

30. Show that a projectile reaches three-quarters of its maximum height in half the time needed to reach its maximum height.

31. A ball is thrown eastward into the air from the origin (in the direction of the positive x-axis). The initial velocity is $50\,\mathbf{i} + 80\,\mathbf{k}$, with speed measured in meters per second. The spin of the ball results in a southward acceleration of 4 m/s^2, so the acceleration vector is $\mathbf{a} = -4\,\mathbf{j} - 32\,\mathbf{k}$. Where does the ball land and with what speed?

32. A ball with mass 0.8 kg is thrown southward into the air with a speed of 30 m/s at an angle of 30° to the ground. A west wind applies a steady force of 4 N to the ball in an easterly direction. Where does the ball land and with what speed?

33. Water traveling along a straight portion of a river normally flows fastest in the middle, and the speed slows to almost zero at the banks. Consider a long straight stretch of river flowing north, with parallel banks 40 m apart. If the maximum water speed is 3 m/s, we can use a quadratic function as a basic model for the rate of water flow x units from the west bank: $f(x) = \frac{3}{400}x(40 - x)$.

(a) A boat proceeds at a constant speed of 5 m/s from a point A on the west bank while maintaining a heading perpendicular to the bank. How far down the river on the opposite bank will the boat touch shore? Graph the path of the boat.

(b) Suppose we would like to pilot the boat to land at the point B on the east bank directly opposite A. If we maintain a constant speed of 5 m/s and a constant heading, find the angle at which the boat should head. Then graph the actual path the boat follows. Does the path seem realistic?

34. Another reasonable model for the water speed of the river in Exercise 33 is a sine function: $f(x) = 3\sin(\pi x/40)$. If a boater would like to cross the river from A to B with constant heading and a constant speed of 5 m/s, determine the angle at which the boat should head.

35. A particle has position function $\mathbf{r}(t)$. If $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{r}(t)$, where $\mathbf{c}$ is a constant vector, describe the path of the particle.

36. (a) If a particle moves along a straight line, what can you say about its acceleration vector?

(b) If a particle moves with constant speed along a curve, what can you say about its acceleration vector?

37–40 Find the tangential and normal components of the acceleration vector.

37. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^2 + 1)\,\mathbf{i} + t^3\,\mathbf{j}, \quad t \geqslant 0$

38. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 2t^2\,\mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{2}{3}t^3 - 2t\right)\mathbf{j}$

39. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$

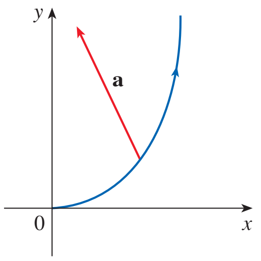
40. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + 2e^t\,\mathbf{j} + e^{2t}\,\mathbf{k}$

41–42 Find the tangential and normal components of the acceleration vector at the given point.

41. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \ln t\,\mathbf{i} + (t^2 + 3t)\,\mathbf{j} + 4\sqrt{t}\,\mathbf{k}, \quad (0, 4, 4)$

42. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \dfrac{1}{t}\,\mathbf{i} + \dfrac{1}{t^2}\,\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{1}{t^3}\,\mathbf{k}, \quad (1, 1, 1)$

43. The magnitude of the acceleration vector $\mathbf{a}$ is 10 cm/s^2. Use the figure to estimate the tangential and normal components of $\mathbf{a}$.



44. Angular Momentum and Torque If a particle with mass m moves with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$, then its *angular momentum* is defined as $\mathbf{L}(t) = m\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)$ and its *torque* as $\boldsymbol{\tau}(t) = m\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{a}(t)$. Show that $\mathbf{L}'(t) = \boldsymbol{\tau}(t)$. Deduce that if $\boldsymbol{\tau}(t) = \mathbf{0}$ for all t, then $\mathbf{L}(t)$ is constant. (This is the *law of conservation of angular momentum.*)

45. The position function of a spacecraft is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (3 + t)\,\mathbf{i} + (2 + \ln t)\,\mathbf{j} + \left(7 - \frac{4}{t^2 + 1}\right)\mathbf{k}$$

and the coordinates of a space station are (6, 4, 9). The captain wants the craft to coast into the space station. When should the engines be turned off?

46. A rocket burning its onboard fuel while moving through space has velocity $\mathbf{v}(t)$ and mass $m(t)$ at time t. If the exhaust gases escape with velocity $\mathbf{v}_e$ relative to the rocket, it can be deduced from Newton's Second Law of Motion that

$$m\frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \frac{dm}{dt}\mathbf{v}_e$$

(a) Show that $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{v}(0) - \ln \dfrac{m(0)}{m(t)}\,\mathbf{v}_e$.

(b) For the rocket to accelerate in a straight line from rest to twice the speed of its own exhaust gases, what fraction of its initial mass would the rocket have to burn as fuel?

APPLIED PROJECT | KEPLER'S LAWS

Johannes Kepler stated the following three laws of planetary motion on the basis of massive amounts of data on the positions of the planets at various times.

Kepler's Laws

1. A planet revolves around the sun in an elliptical orbit with the sun at one focus.
2. The line joining the sun to a planet sweeps out equal areas in equal times.
3. The square of the period of revolution of a planet is proportional to the cube of the length of the major axis of its orbit.

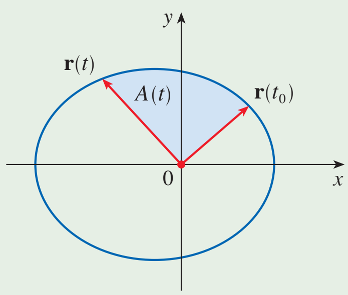
(continued)

Kepler formulated these laws because they fitted the astronomical data. He wasn't able to see why they were true or how they related to each other. But Sir Isaac Newton, in his *Principia Mathematica* of 1687, showed how to deduce Kepler's three laws from two of Newton's own laws, the Second Law of Motion and the Law of Universal Gravitation. In Section 13.4 we proved Kepler's First Law using the calculus of vector functions. In this project we guide you through the proofs of Kepler's Second and Third Laws and explore some of their consequences.

1. Use the following steps to prove Kepler's Second Law. The notation is the same as in the proof of the First Law in Section 13.4. In particular, use polar coordinates so that $\mathbf{r} = (r\cos\theta)\,\mathbf{i} + (r\sin\theta)\,\mathbf{j}$.

(a) Show that $\mathbf{h} = r^2 \dfrac{d\theta}{dt}\mathbf{k}$.

(b) Deduce that $r^2 \dfrac{d\theta}{dt} = h$.



(c) If $A = A(t)$ is the area swept out by the radius vector $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$ in the time interval $[t_0, t]$ as in the figure, show that

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \tfrac{1}{2} r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

(d) Deduce that

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \tfrac{1}{2} h = \text{constant}$$

This says that the rate at which A is swept out is constant and proves Kepler's Second Law.

2. Let T be the period of a planet about the sun; that is, T is the time required for it to travel once around its elliptical orbit. Suppose that the lengths of the major and minor axes of the ellipse are $2a$ and $2b$.

(a) Use part (d) of Problem 1 to show that $T = 2\pi ab/h$.

(b) Show that $\dfrac{h^2}{GM} = ed = \dfrac{b^2}{a}$.

(c) Use parts (a) and (b) to show that $T^2 = \dfrac{4\pi^2}{GM} a^3$.

This proves Kepler's Third Law. [Notice that the proportionality constant $4\pi^2/(GM)$ is independent of the planet.]

3. The period of the earth's orbit is approximately 365.25 days. Use this fact and Kepler's Third Law to find the length of the major axis of the earth's orbit. You will need the mass of the sun, $M = 1.99 \times 10^{30}$ kg, and the gravitational constant, $G = 6{,}67 \times 10^{-11}\ \mathrm{N \cdot m^2/kg^2}$.

4. It's possible to place a satellite into orbit about the earth so that it remains fixed above a given location on the equator. Compute the altitude that is needed for such a satellite. The earth's mass is 5.98×10^{24} kg; its radius is 6.37×10^6 m. (This orbit is called the Clarke Geosynchronous Orbit after Arthur C. Clarke, who first proposed the idea in 1945. The first such satellite, *Syncom II,* was launched in July 1963.)

13 REVIEW

CONCEPT CHECK

Answers to the Concept Check are available at StewartCalculus.com.

1. What is a vector function? How do you find its derivative and its integral?

2. What is the connection between vector functions and space curves?

3. How do you find the tangent vector to a smooth curve at a point? How do you find the tangent line? The unit tangent vector?

4. If $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are differentiable vector functions, c is a scalar, and f is a real-valued function, write the rules for differentiating the following vector functions.
   (a) $\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)$ (b) $c\mathbf{u}(t)$ (c) $f(t)\,\mathbf{u}(t)$
   (d) $\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)$ (e) $\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)$ (f) $\mathbf{u}(f(t))$

5. How do you find the length of a space curve given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$?

6. (a) What is the definition of curvature?
   (b) Write a formula for curvature in terms of $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and $\mathbf{T}'(t)$.
   (c) Write a formula for curvature in terms of $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}''(t)$.
   (d) Write a formula for the curvature of a plane curve with equation $y = f(x)$.

7. (a) Write formulas for the unit normal and binormal vectors of a smooth space curve $\mathbf{r}(t)$.
   (b) What is the normal plane of a curve at a point? What is the osculating plane? What is the osculating circle?

8. (a) How do you find the velocity, speed, and acceleration of a particle that moves along a space curve?
   (b) Write the acceleration in terms of its tangential and normal components.

9. State Kepler's Laws.

TRUE-FALSE QUIZ

Determine whether the statement is true or false. If it is true, explain why. If it is false, explain why or give an example that disproves the statement.

1. The curve with vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^3\,\mathbf{i} + 2t^3\,\mathbf{j} + 3t^3\,\mathbf{k}$ is a line.

2. The curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 0, t^2, 4t \rangle$ is a parabola.

3. The curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2t, 3 - t, 0 \rangle$ is a line that passes through the origin.

4. The derivative of a vector function is obtained by differentiating each component function.

5. If $\mathbf{u}(t)$ and $\mathbf{v}(t)$ are differentiable vector functions, then
$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \times \mathbf{v}'(t)$$

6. If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is a differentiable vector function, then
$$\frac{d}{dt}|\mathbf{r}(t)| = |\mathbf{r}'(t)|$$

7. If $\mathbf{T}(t)$ is the unit tangent vector of a smooth curve, then the curvature is $\kappa = |d\mathbf{T}/dt|$.

8. The binormal vector is $\mathbf{B}(t) = \mathbf{N}(t) \times \mathbf{T}(t)$.

9. Suppose f is twice continuously differentiable. At an inflection point of the curve $y = f(x)$, the curvature is 0.

10. If $\kappa(t) = 0$ for all t, the curve is a straight line.

11. If $|\mathbf{r}(t)| = 1$ for all t, then $|\mathbf{r}'(t)|$ is a constant.

12. If $|\mathbf{r}(t)| = 1$ for all t, then $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{r}(t)$ for all t.

13. The osculating circle of a curve C at a point has the same tangent vector, normal vector, and curvature as C at that point.

14. Different parametrizations of the same curve result in identical tangent vectors at a given point on the curve.

15. The projection of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos 2t, t, \sin 2t \rangle$ onto the xz-plane is a circle.

16. The vector equations $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, 2t, t + 1 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t - 1, 2t - 2, t \rangle$ are parametrizations of the same line.

EXERCISES

1. (a) Sketch the curve with vector function

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos \pi t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin \pi t\,\mathbf{k} \qquad t \geqslant 0$$

(b) Find $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}''(t)$.

2. Let $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle \sqrt{2 - t},\, (e^t - 1)/t,\, \ln(t + 1) \right\rangle$.
(a) Find the domain of $\mathbf{r}$.
(b) Find $\lim_{t \to 0} \mathbf{r}(t)$.
(c) Find $\mathbf{r}'(t)$.

3. Find a vector function that represents the curve of intersection of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 16$ and the plane $x + z = 5$.

4. Find parametric equations for the tangent line to the curve $x = 2 \sin t$, $y = 2 \sin 2t$, $z = 2 \sin 3t$ at the point $(1, \sqrt{3}, 2)$. Graph the curve and the tangent line on a common screen.

5. If $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + t \cos \pi t\,\mathbf{j} + \sin \pi t\,\mathbf{k}$, evaluate $\int_0^1 \mathbf{r}(t)\,dt$.

6. Let C be the curve with equations $x = 2 - t^3$, $y = 2t - 1$, $z = \ln t$. Find (a) the point where C intersects the xz-plane, (b) parametric equations of the tangent line at $(1, 1, 0)$, and (c) an equation of the normal plane to C at $(1, 1, 0)$.

7. Use Simpson's Rule with $n = 6$ to estimate the length of the arc of the curve with equations $x = t^2$, $y = t^3$, $z = t^4$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$.

8. Find the length of the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2t^{3/2}, \cos 2t, \sin 2t \rangle$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$.

9. The helix $\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$ intersects the curve $\mathbf{r}_2(t) = (1 + t)\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t^3\,\mathbf{k}$ at the point $(1, 0, 0)$. Find the angle of intersection of these curves.

10. Reparametrize the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + e^t \cos t\,\mathbf{k}$ with respect to arc length measured from the point $(1, 0, 1)$ in the direction of increasing t.

11. For the curve given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin^3 t, \cos^3 t, \sin^2 t \rangle$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/2$, find
(a) the unit tangent vector.
(b) the unit normal vector.
(c) the unit binormal vector.
(d) the curvature.
(e) the torsion.

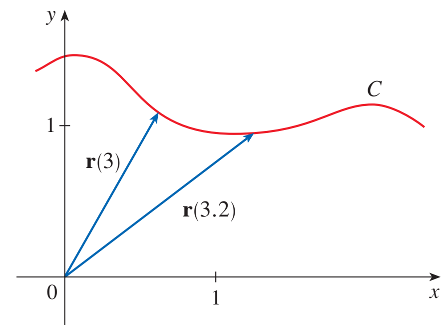
12. Find the curvature of the ellipse $x = 3 \cos t$, $y = 4 \sin t$ at the points $(3, 0)$ and $(0, 4)$.

13. Find the curvature of the curve $y = x^4$ at the point $(1, 1)$.

14. Find an equation of the osculating circle of the curve $y = x^4 - x^2$ at the origin. Graph both the curve and its osculating circle.

15. Find an equation of the osculating plane of the curve $x = \sin 2t$, $y = t$, $z = \cos 2t$ at the point $(0, \pi, 1)$.

16. The figure shows the curve C traced by a particle with position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at time t.
(a) Draw a vector that represents the average velocity of the particle over the time interval $3 \leqslant t \leqslant 3.2$.
(b) Write an expression for the velocity $\mathbf{v}(3)$.
(c) Write an expression for the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}(3)$ and draw it.



17. A particle moves with position function $\mathbf{r}(t) = t \ln t\,\mathbf{i} + t\,\mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\,\mathbf{k}$. Find the velocity, speed, and acceleration of the particle.

18. Find the velocity, speed, and acceleration of a particle moving with position function $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2t^2 - 3)\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j}$. Sketch the path of the particle and draw the position, velocity, and acceleration vectors for $t = 1$.

19. A particle starts at the origin with initial velocity $\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$. Its acceleration is $\mathbf{a}(t) = 6t\,\mathbf{i} + 12t^2\,\mathbf{j} - 6t\,\mathbf{k}$. Find its position function.

20. An athlete throws a shot at an angle of $45°$ to the horizontal at an initial speed of 13 m/s. It leaves the athlete's hand 2 m above the ground.
(a) Where is the shot 2 seconds later?
(b) How high does the shot go?
(c) Where does the shot land?

21. A projectile is launched with an initial speed of 40 m/s from the floor of a tunnel whose height is 30 m. What angle of elevation should be used to achieve the maximum possible horizontal range of the projectile? What is the maximum range?

22. Find the tangential and normal components of the acceleration vector of a particle with position function

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j} + t^2\,\mathbf{k}$$

23. A disk of radius 1 is rotating in the counterclockwise direction at a constant angular speed ω. A particle starts at the center of the disk and moves toward the edge along a fixed radius so that its position at time t, $t \geqslant 0$, is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{R}(t)$, where

$$\mathbf{R}(t) = \cos \omega t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin \omega t\,\mathbf{j}$$

(a) Show that the velocity $\mathbf{v}$ of the particle is

$$\mathbf{v} = \cos \omega t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin \omega t\,\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{v}_d$$

where $\mathbf{v}_d = \mathbf{R}'(t)$ is the velocity of a point on the edge of the disk.

(b) Show that the acceleration $\mathbf{a}$ of the particle is

$$\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{v}_d + t\mathbf{a}_d$$

where $\mathbf{a}_d = \mathbf{R}''(t)$ is the acceleration of a point on the edge of the disk. The extra term $2\mathbf{v}_d$ is called the *Coriolis acceleration*; it is the result of the interaction of the rotation of the disk and the motion of the particle. One can obtain a physical demonstration of this acceleration by walking toward the edge of a moving merry-go-round.

(c) Determine the Coriolis acceleration of a particle that moves on a rotating disk according to the equation

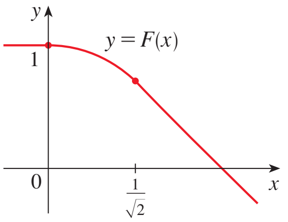
$$\mathbf{r}(t) = e^{-t}\cos \omega t\,\mathbf{i} + e^{-t}\sin \omega t\,\mathbf{j}$$

24. In designing *transfer curves* to connect sections of straight railroad tracks, it's important to realize that the acceleration of the train should be continuous so that the reactive force exerted by the train on the track is also continuous. Because of the formulas for the components of acceleration in Section 13.4, this will be the case if the curvature varies continuously.

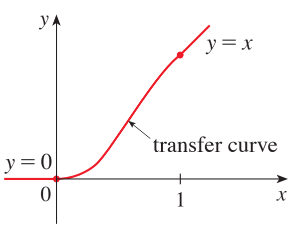
(a) A logical candidate for a transfer curve to join existing tracks given by $y = 1$ for $x \leqslant 0$ and $y = \sqrt{2} - x$ for $x \geqslant 1/\sqrt{2}$ might be the function $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$, $0 < x < 1/\sqrt{2}$, whose graph is the arc of the circle shown in the figure. It looks reasonable at first glance. Show that the function

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \leqslant 0 \\ \sqrt{1 - x^2} & \text{if } 0 < x < 1/\sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} - x & \text{if } x \geqslant 1/\sqrt{2} \end{cases}$$

is continuous and has continuous slope, but does not have continuous curvature. Therefore f is not an appropriate transfer curve.



(b) Find a fifth-degree polynomial to serve as a transfer curve between the following straight line segments: $y = 0$ for $x \leqslant 0$ and $y = x$ for $x \geqslant 1$. Could this be done with a fourth-degree polynomial? Use a graphing calculator or computer to sketch the graph of the "connected" function and check to see that it looks like the one in the figure.



Problems Plus

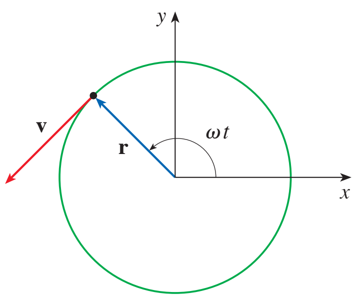


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 1

1. A particle P moves with constant angular speed ω around a circle whose center is at the origin and whose radius is R. The particle is said to be in *uniform circular motion*. Assume that the motion is counterclockwise and that the particle is at the point $(R, 0)$ when $t = 0$. The position vector at time $t \geqslant 0$ is $\mathbf{r}(t) = R\cos\omega t\,\mathbf{i} + R\sin\omega t\,\mathbf{j}$.

(a) Find the velocity vector $\mathbf{v}$ and show that $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{r} = 0$. Conclude that $\mathbf{v}$ is tangent to the circle and points in the direction of the motion.

(b) Show that the speed $|\mathbf{v}|$ of the particle is the constant ωR. The *period* T of the particle is the time required for one complete revolution. Conclude that

$$T = \frac{2\pi R}{|\mathbf{v}|} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

(c) Find the acceleration vector $\mathbf{a}$. Show that it is proportional to $\mathbf{r}$ and that it points toward the origin. An acceleration with this property is called a *centripetal acceleration*. Show that the magnitude of the acceleration vector is $|\mathbf{a}| = R\omega^2$.

(d) Suppose that the particle has mass m. Show that the magnitude of the force $\mathbf{F}$ that is required to produce this motion, called a *centripetal force*, is

$$|\mathbf{F}| = \frac{m|\mathbf{v}|^2}{R}$$

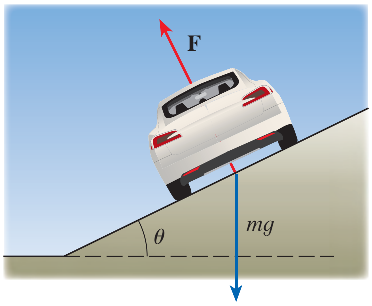


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 2

2. A circular curve of radius R on a highway is banked at an angle θ so that a car can safely traverse the curve without skidding when there is no friction between the road and the tires. The loss of friction could occur, for example, if the road is covered with a film of water or ice. The rated speed v_R of the curve is the maximum speed that a car can attain without skidding. Suppose a car of mass m is traversing the curve at the rated speed v_R. Two forces are acting on the car: the vertical force, mg, due to the weight of the car, and a force $\mathbf{F}$ exerted by, and normal to, the road (see the figure).

The vertical component of $\mathbf{F}$ balances the weight of the car, so that $|\mathbf{F}|\cos\theta = mg$. The horizontal component of $\mathbf{F}$ produces a centripetal force on the car so that, by Newton's Second Law and part (d) of Problem 1,

$$|\mathbf{F}|\sin\theta = \frac{mv_R^2}{R}$$

(a) Show that $v_R^2 = Rg\tan\theta$.

(b) Find the rated speed of a circular curve with radius 120 m that is banked at an angle of 12°.

(c) Suppose the design engineers want to keep the banking at 12°, but wish to increase the rated speed by 50%. What should the radius of the curve be?

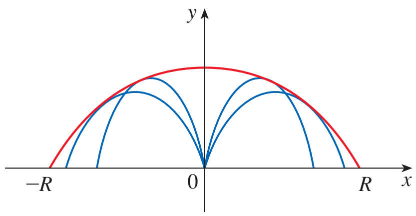


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 3

3. A projectile is fired from the origin with angle of elevation α and initial speed v_0. Assuming that air resistance is negligible and that the only force acting on the projectile is gravity, g, we showed in Example 13.4.5 that the position vector of the projectile is

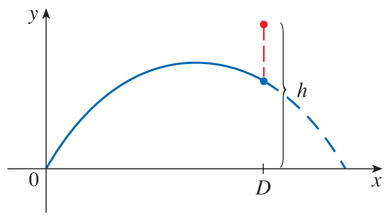
$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (v_0\cos\alpha)t\,\mathbf{i} + \left[(v_0\sin\alpha)t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2\right]\mathbf{j}$$

We also showed that the maximum horizontal distance of the projectile is achieved when $\alpha = 45°$ and in this case the range is $R = v_0^2/g$.

(a) At what angle should the projectile be fired to achieve maximum height and what is the maximum height?

(b) Fix the initial speed v_0 and consider the parabola $x^2 + 2Ry - R^2 = 0$, whose graph is shown in the figure at the left. Show that the projectile can hit any target inside or on the boundary of the region bounded by the parabola and the x-axis, and it can't hit any target outside this region.

(c) Suppose that the gun is elevated to an angle of inclination α in order to aim at a target that is suspended at a height h directly over a point D units downrange (see the following figure). The target is released at the instant the gun is fired. Show that the projectile always hits the target, regardless of the value v_0, provided the projectile does not hit the ground "before" D.



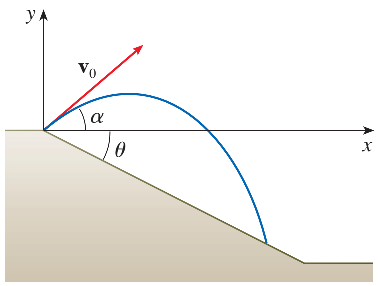


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 4

4. (a) A projectile is fired from the origin down an inclined plane that makes an angle θ with the horizontal. The angle of elevation of the gun and the initial speed of the projectile are α and v_0, respectively. Find the position vector of the projectile and the parametric equations of the path of the projectile as functions of the time t. (Ignore air resistance.)

(b) Show that the angle of elevation α that will maximize the downhill range is the angle halfway between the plane and the vertical.

(c) Suppose the projectile is fired up an inclined plane whose angle of inclination is θ. Show that, in order to maximize the (uphill) range, the projectile should be fired in the direction halfway between the plane and the vertical.

(d) In a paper presented in 1686, Edmond Halley summarized the laws of gravity and projectile motion and applied them to gunnery. One problem he posed involved firing a projectile to hit a target a distance R up an inclined plane. Show that the angle at which the projectile should be fired to hit the target but use the least amount of energy is the same as the angle in part (c). (Use the fact that the energy needed to fire the projectile is proportional to the square of the initial speed, so minimizing the energy is equivalent to minimizing the initial speed.)

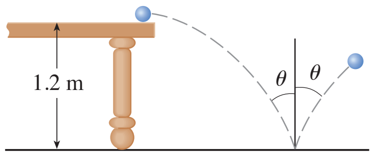


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 5

5. A ball rolls off a table with a speed of 0.5 m/s. The table is 1.2 m high.

(a) Determine the point at which the ball hits the floor and find its speed at the instant of impact.

(b) Find the angle θ between the path of the ball and the vertical line drawn through the point of impact (see the figure).

(c) Suppose the ball rebounds from the floor at the same angle with which it hits the floor, but loses 20% of its speed due to energy absorbed by the ball on impact. Where does the ball strike the floor on the second bounce?

6. Find the curvature of the curve with parametric equations

$$x = \int_0^t \sin\left(\tfrac{1}{2}\pi\theta^2\right) d\theta \qquad y = \int_0^t \cos\left(\tfrac{1}{2}\pi\theta^2\right) d\theta$$

T **7.** If a projectile is fired with angle of elevation α and initial speed v, then parametric equations for its trajectory are

$$x = (v \cos \alpha)t \qquad y = (v \sin \alpha)t - \tfrac{1}{2}gt^2$$

(See Example 13.4.5.) We know that the range (horizontal distance traveled) is maximized when $\alpha = 45°$. What value of α maximizes the total distance traveled by the projectile? (State your answer correct to the nearest degree.)

8. A cable has radius r and length L and is wound around a spool with radius R without overlapping. What is the shortest length along the spool that is covered by the cable?

9. Show that the curve with vector equation

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle a_1t^2 + b_1t + c_1, a_2t^2 + b_2t + c_2, a_3t^2 + b_3t + c_3 \rangle$$

lies in a plane and find an equation of the plane.

A function of two variables can describe the shape of a surface like the one formed by these sand dunes. In Exercise 14.6.40 you are asked to use partial derivatives to compute the rate of change of elevation as a hiker walks in different directions.

SeppFriedhuber / E+ / Getty Images

14 Partial Derivatives

SO FAR WE HAVE DEALT with the calculus of functions of a single variable. But, in the real world, physical quantities often depend on two or more variables, so in this chapter we turn our attention to functions of several variables and extend the basic ideas of differential calculus to such functions.

14.1 Functions of Several Variables

In this section we study functions of two or more variables from four points of view:

- verbally (by a description in words)
- numerically (by a table of values)
- algebraically (by an explicit formula)
- visually (by a graph or level curves)

Functions of Two Variables

The temperature T at a point on the surface of the earth at any given time depends on the longitude x and latitude y of the point. We can think of T as being a function of the two variables x and y, or as a function of the pair (x, y). We indicate this functional dependence by writing $T = f(x, y)$.

The volume V of a circular cylinder depends on its radius r and its height h. In fact, we know that $V = \pi r^2 h$. We say that V is a function of r and h, and we can write $V(r, h) = \pi r^2 h$.

Definitio A **function f of two variables** is a rule that assigns to each ordered pair of real numbers (x, y) in a set D a unique real number denoted by $f(x, y)$. The set D is the **domain** of f and its **range** is the set of values that f takes on, that is, $\{f(x, y) \mid (x, y) \in D\}$.

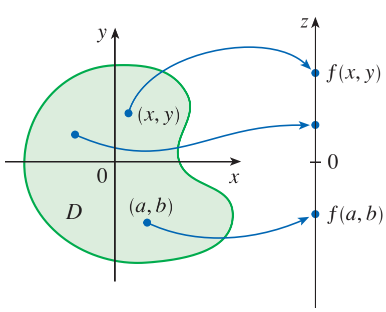


FIGURE 1

We often write $z = f(x, y)$ to make explicit the value taken on by f at the general point (x, y). The variables x and y are **independent variables** and z is the **dependent variable**. [Compare this with the notation $y = f(x)$ for functions of a single variable.]

A function of two variables is just a function whose domain is a subset of $\mathbb{R}^2$ and whose range is a subset of $\mathbb{R}$. One way of visualizing such a function is by means of an arrow diagram (see Figure 1), where the domain D is represented as a subset of the xy-plane and the range is a set of numbers on a real line, shown as a z-axis. For instance, if $f(x, y)$ represents the temperature at a point (x, y) in a flat metal plate with the shape of D, we can think of the z-axis as a thermometer displaying the recorded temperatures.

If a function f is given by a formula and no domain is specified, then the domain of f is understood to be the set of all pairs (x, y) for which the given expression defines a real number.

EXAMPLE 1 For each of the following functions, evaluate $f(3, 2)$ and find and sketch the domain.

(a) $f(x, y) = \dfrac{\sqrt{x + y + 1}}{x - 1}$ (b) $f(x, y) = x \ln(y^2 - x)$

SOLUTION

(a) $f(3, 2) = \dfrac{\sqrt{3 + 2 + 1}}{3 - 1} = \dfrac{\sqrt{6}}{2}$

The expression for f makes sense if the denominator is not 0 and the quantity under the square root sign is nonnegative. So the domain of f is

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid x + y + 1 \geqslant 0,\ x \neq 1\}$$

The inequality $x + y + 1 \geqslant 0$, or $y \geqslant -x - 1$, describes the points that lie on or above the line $y = -x - 1$, while $x \neq 1$ means that the points on the line $x = 1$ must be excluded from the domain (see Figure 2).

(b) $f(3, 2) = 3 \ln(2^2 - 3) = 3 \ln 1 = 0$

Since $\ln(y^2 - x)$ is defined only when $y^2 - x > 0$, that is, $x < y^2$, the domain of f is $D = \{(x, y) \mid x < y^2\}$. This is the set of points to the left of the parabola $x = y^2$. (See Figure 3.)

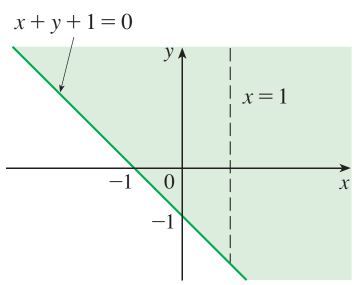


FIGURE 2
Domain of $f(x, y) = \dfrac{\sqrt{x + y + 1}}{x - 1}$

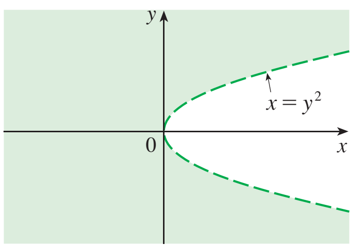


FIGURE 3
Domain of $f(x, y) = x \ln(y^2 - x)$

EXAMPLE 2 Find the domain and range of $g(x, y) = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2}$.

SOLUTION The domain of g is

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid 9 - x^2 - y^2 \geqslant 0\} = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 9\}$$

which is the disk with center $(0, 0)$ and radius 3. (See Figure 4.) The range of g is

$$\left\{z \mid z = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2},\ (x, y) \in D\right\}$$

Since z is a positive square root, $z \geqslant 0$. Also, because $9 - x^2 - y^2 \leqslant 9$, we have

$$\sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2} \leqslant 3$$

So the range is

$$\{z \mid 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 3\} = [0, 3]$$

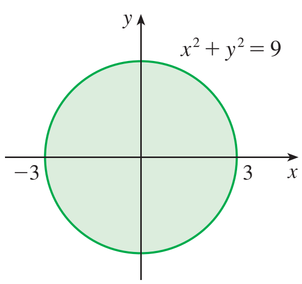


FIGURE 4
Domain of $g(x, y) = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2}$

Not all functions can be represented by explicit formulas. The function in the next example is described verbally and by numerical estimates of its values.

EXAMPLE 3 In regions with severe winter weather, the *wind-chill index* is often used to describe the apparent severity of the cold. This index W is a subjective temperature that depends on the actual temperature T and the wind speed v. So W is a function of

T and v, and we can write $W = f(T, v)$. Table 1 records values of W compiled by the US National Weather Service and the Meteorological Service of Canada.

Table 1 Wind-chill index as a function of air temperature and wind speed

Wind speed (km/h); Actual temperature (°C)

T \ v	5	10	15	20	25	30	40	50	60	70	80
5	4	3	2	1	1	0	−1	−1	−2	−2	−3
0	−2	−3	−4	−5	−6	−6	−7	−8	−9	−9	−10
−5	−7	−9	−11	−12	−12	−13	−14	−15	−16	−16	−17
−10	−13	−15	−17	−18	−19	−20	−21	−22	−23	−23	−24
−15	−19	−21	−23	−24	−25	−26	−27	−29	−30	−30	−31
−20	−24	−27	−29	−30	−32	−33	−34	−35	−36	−37	−38
−25	−30	−33	−35	−37	−38	−39	−41	−42	−43	−44	−45
−30	−36	−39	−41	−43	−44	−46	−48	−49	−50	−51	−52
−35	−41	−45	−48	−49	−51	−52	−54	−56	−57	−58	−60
−40	−47	−51	−54	−56	−57	−59	−61	−63	−64	−65	−67

The Wind-Chill Index

The wind-chill index measures how cold it feels when it's windy. It is based on a model of how fast a human face loses heat. It was developed through clinical trials in which volunteers were exposed to a variety of temperatures and wind speeds in a refrigerated wind tunnel.

For instance, the table shows that if the actual temperature is −5°C and the wind speed is 50 km/h, then subjectively it would feel as cold as a temperature of about −15°C with no wind. So

$$f(-5, 50) = -15$$ ■

Table 2

Year	P	L	K
1899	100	100	100
1900	101	105	107
1901	112	110	114
1902	122	117	122
1903	124	122	131
1904	122	121	138
1905	143	125	149
1906	152	134	163
1907	151	140	176
1908	126	123	185
1909	155	143	198
1910	159	147	208
1911	153	148	216
1912	177	155	226
1913	184	156	236
1914	169	152	244
1915	189	156	266
1916	225	183	298
1917	227	198	335
1918	223	201	366
1919	218	196	387
1920	231	194	407
1921	179	146	417
1922	240	161	431

EXAMPLE 4 In 1928 Charles Cobb and Paul Douglas published a study in which they modeled the growth of the American economy during the period 1899–1922. They considered a simplified view of the economy in which production output is determined by the amount of labor involved and the amount of capital invested. While many other factors affect economic performance, this model proved to be remarkably accurate. The function Cobb and Douglas used to model production was of the form

$$\boxed{1} \qquad P(L, K) = bL^{\alpha}K^{1-\alpha}$$

where P is the total production (the monetary value of all goods produced in a year), L is the amount of labor (the total number of person-hours worked in a year), and K is the amount of capital invested (the monetary worth of all machinery, equipment, and buildings). In the Discovery Project following Section 14.3 we will show how the form of Equation 1 follows from certain economic assumptions.

Cobb and Douglas used economic data published by the government to obtain Table 2. They took the year 1899 as a baseline and P, L, and K for 1899 were each assigned the value 100. The values for other years were expressed as percentages of the 1899 values.

Cobb and Douglas used the method of least squares to fit the data of Table 2 to the function

$$\boxed{2} \qquad P(L, K) = 1.01L^{0.75}K^{0.25}$$

(See Exercise 81 for the details.)

If we use the model given by the function in Equation 2 to compute the production in the years 1910 and 1920, we get the values

$$P(147, 208) = 1.01(147)^{0.75}(208)^{0.25} \approx 161.9$$

$$P(194, 407) = 1.01(194)^{0.75}(407)^{0.25} \approx 235.8$$

which are quite close to the actual values, 159 and 231.

The production function (1) has subsequently been used in many settings, ranging from individual firms to global economics. It has become known as the **Cobb-Douglas production function**. Its domain is $\{(L, K) \mid L \geqslant 0, K \geqslant 0\}$ because L and K represent labor and capital and are therefore never negative. ■

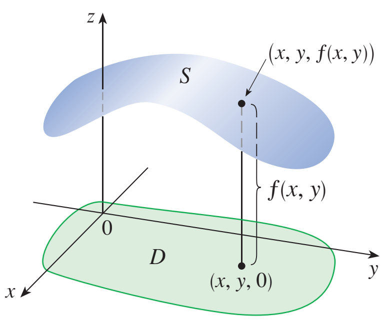


FIGURE 5

■ Graphs

Another way of visualizing the behavior of a function of two variables is to consider its graph.

Definitio If f is a function of two variables with domain D, then the **graph** of f is the set of all points (x, y, z) in $\mathbb{R}^3$ such that $z = f(x, y)$ and (x, y) is in D.

The graph of a function f of two variables is a surface S with equation $z = f(x, y)$. We can visualize the graph S of f as lying directly above or below its domain D in the xy-plane (see Figure 5).

EXAMPLE 5 Sketch the graph of the function $f(x, y) = 6 - 3x - 2y$.

SOLUTION The graph of f has the equation $z = 6 - 3x - 2y$, or $3x + 2y + z = 6$, which represents a plane. To graph the plane we first find the intercepts. Putting $y = z = 0$ in the equation, we get $x = 2$ as the x-intercept. Similarly, the y-intercept is 3 and the z-intercept is 6. This helps us sketch the portion of the graph that lies in the first octant in Figure 6. ■

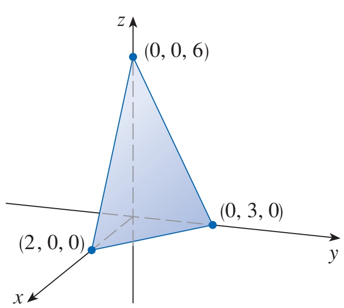


FIGURE 6

The function in Example 5 is a special case of the function

$$f(x, y) = ax + by + c$$

which is called a **linear function**. The graph of such a function has the equation

$$z = ax + by + c \qquad \text{or} \qquad ax + by - z + c = 0$$

so it is a plane (see Section 12.5). In much the same way that linear functions of one variable are important in single-variable calculus, we will see that linear functions of two variables play a central role in multivariable calculus.

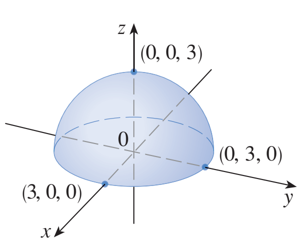


FIGURE 7
Graph of $g(x, y) = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2}$

EXAMPLE 6 Sketch the graph of $g(x, y) = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2}$.

SOLUTION In Example 2 we found that the domain of g is the disk with center $(0, 0)$ and radius 3. The graph of g has equation $z = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2}$. We square both sides of this equation to obtain $z^2 = 9 - x^2 - y^2$, or $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$, which we recognize as an equation of the sphere with center the origin and radius 3. But, since $z \geqslant 0$, the graph of g is just the top half of this sphere (see Figure 7). ■

NOTE An entire sphere can't be represented by a single function of x and y. As we saw in Example 6, the upper hemisphere of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$ is represented by the function $g(x, y) = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2}$. The lower hemisphere is represented by the function $h(x, y) = -\sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2}$.

EXAMPLE 7 Use a computer to draw the graph of the Cobb-Douglas production function $P(L, K) = 1.01L^{0.75}K^{0.25}$.

SOLUTION Figure 8 shows the graph of P for values of the labor L and capital K that lie between 0 and 300. The computer has drawn the surface by plotting vertical traces. We see from these traces that the value of the production P increases as either L or K increases, as expected.

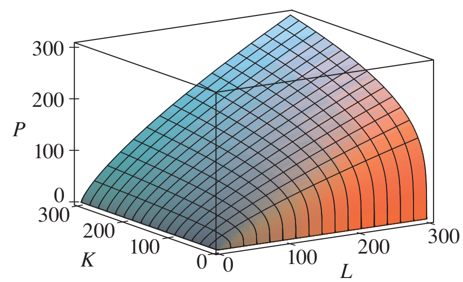


FIGURE 8 ■

EXAMPLE 8 Find the domain and range and sketch the graph of $h(x, y) = 4x^2 + y^2$.

SOLUTION Notice that $h(x, y)$ is defined for all possible ordered pairs of real numbers (x, y), so the domain is $\mathbb{R}^2$, the entire xy-plane. The range of h is the set $[0, \infty)$ of all nonnegative real numbers. [Notice that $x^2 \geqslant 0$ and $y^2 \geqslant 0$, so $h(x, y) \geqslant 0$ for all x and y.] The graph of h has the equation $z = 4x^2 + y^2$, which is the elliptic paraboloid that we sketched in Example 12.6.4. Horizontal traces are ellipses and vertical traces are parabolas (see Figure 9).

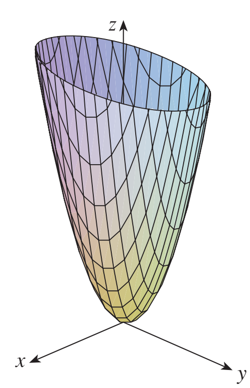
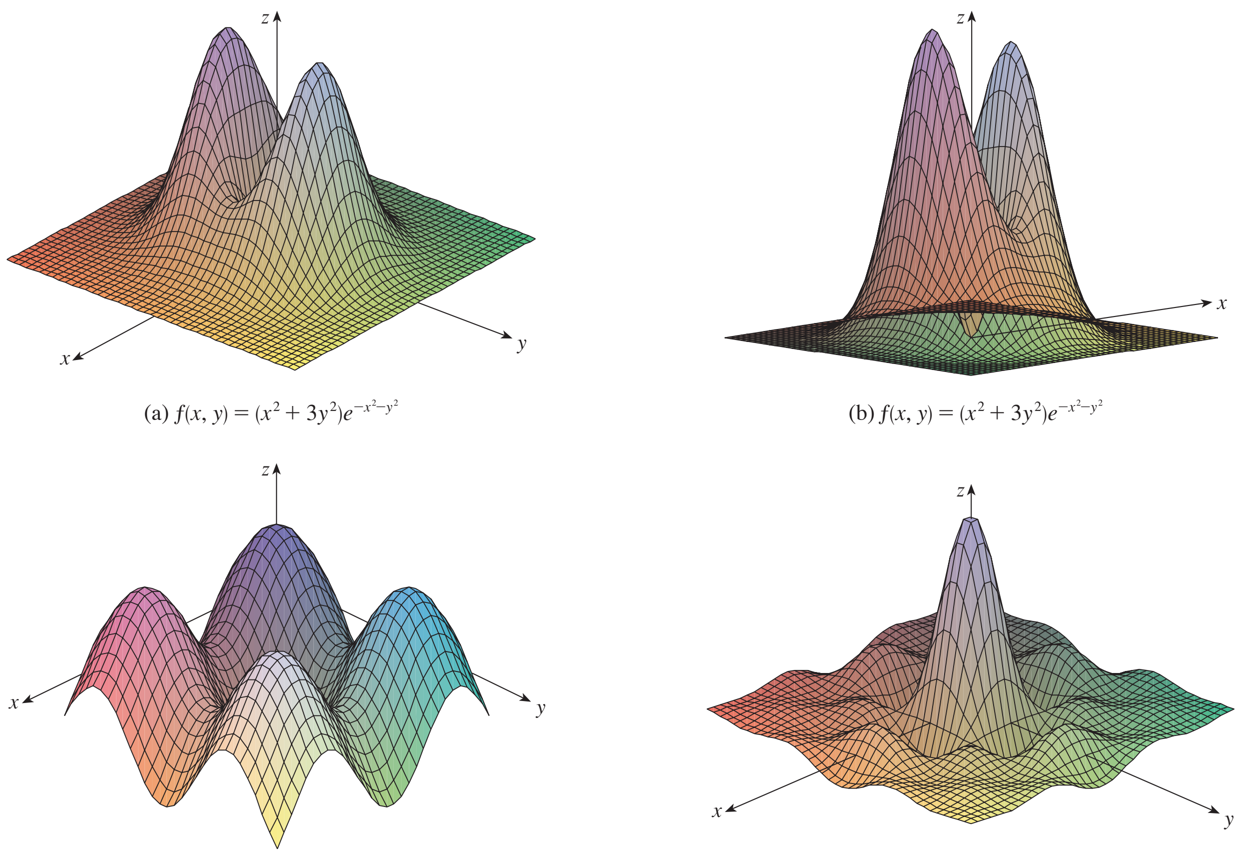


FIGURE 9
Graph of $h(x, y) = 4x^2 + y^2$ ■

Many software applications are available for graphing functions of two variables. In some programs, traces in the vertical planes $x = k$ and $y = k$ are drawn for equally spaced values of k.

Figure 10 shows computer-generated graphs of several functions. Notice that we get an especially good picture of a function when rotation is used to give views from different vantage points. In parts (a) and (b) the graph of f is very flat and close to the xy-plane except near the origin; this is because $e^{-x^2-y^2}$ is very small when x or y is large.



(a) $f(x, y) = (x^2 + 3y^2)e^{-x^2-y^2}$

(b) $f(x, y) = (x^2 + 3y^2)e^{-x^2-y^2}$

FIGURE 10

(c) $f(x, y) = \sin x + \sin y$

(d) $f(x, y) = \dfrac{\sin x \sin y}{xy}$

Level Curves and Contour Maps

So far we have two methods for visualizing functions: arrow diagrams and graphs. A third method, borrowed from mapmakers, is a *contour map* on which points of constant elevation are joined to form *contour curves*, or *level curves*.

Definitio The **level curves** of a function f of two variables are the curves with equations $f(x, y) = k$, where k is a constant (in the range of f).

A level curve $f(x, y) = k$ is the set of all points in the domain of f at which f takes on a given value k. In other words, it is a curve in the xy-plane that shows where the graph of f has height k (above or below the xy-plane). A collection of level curves is called a **contour map**. Contour maps are most descriptive when the level curves

$f(x, y) = k$ are drawn for equally spaced values of k, and we assume that this is the case unless indicated otherwise.

You can see from Figure 11 the relation between level curves and horizontal traces. The level curves $f(x, y) = k$ are just the traces of the graph of f in the horizontal plane $z = k$ projected down to the xy-plane. So if you draw a contour map of a function and visualize the level curves being lifted up to the surface at the indicated height, then you can mentally piece together a picture of the graph. The surface is steeper where the level curves are close together and somewhat flatter where they are farther apart.

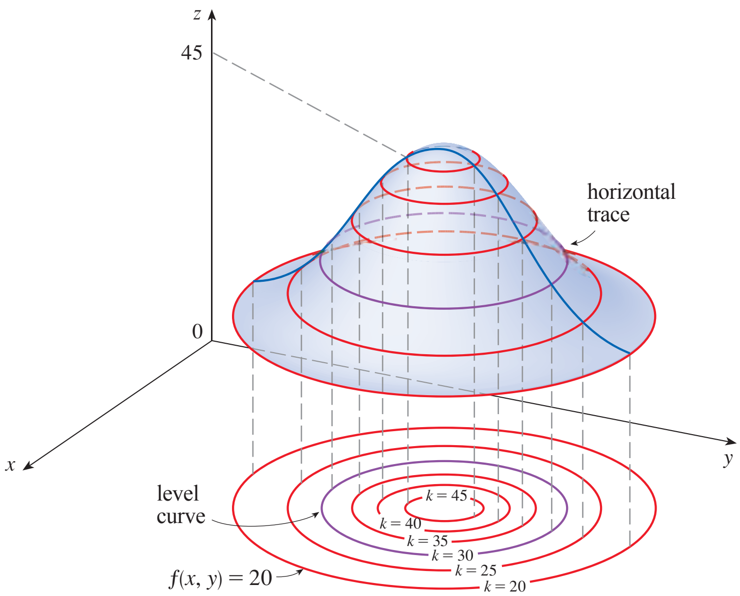


FIGURE 11

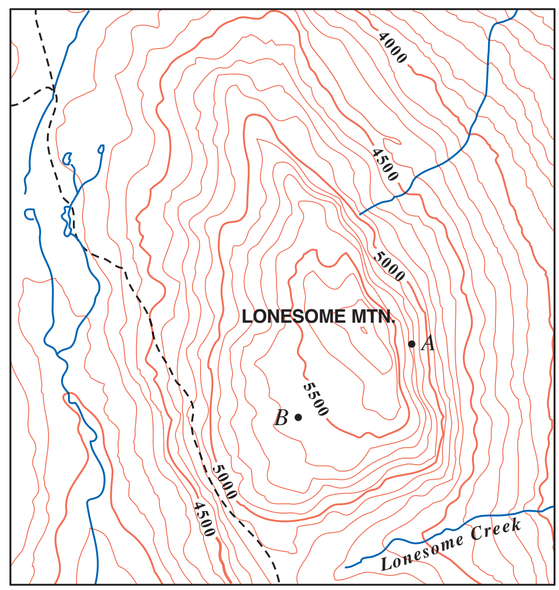


FIGURE 12

One common example of level curves occurs in topographic maps of mountainous regions, such as the map in Figure 12. The level curves are curves of constant elevation above sea level. If you walk along one of these contour lines, you neither ascend nor descend. Another common example is the temperature function introduced in the opening paragraph of this section. Here the level curves are called **isothermals**; they join locations with the same temperature. Figure 13 shows a weather map of the world indicating the average July temperatures. The isothermals are the curves that separate the colored bands.

In weather maps of atmospheric pressure at a given time as a function of longitude and latitude, the level curves are called **isobars**; they join locations with the same pressure (see Exercise 34). Surface winds tend to flow from areas of high pressure across the isobars toward areas of low pressure and are strongest where the isobars are tightly packed.

A contour map of worldwide precipitation is shown in Figure 14. Here the level curves are not labeled but they separate the colored regions and the amount of precipitation in each region is indicated in the color key.

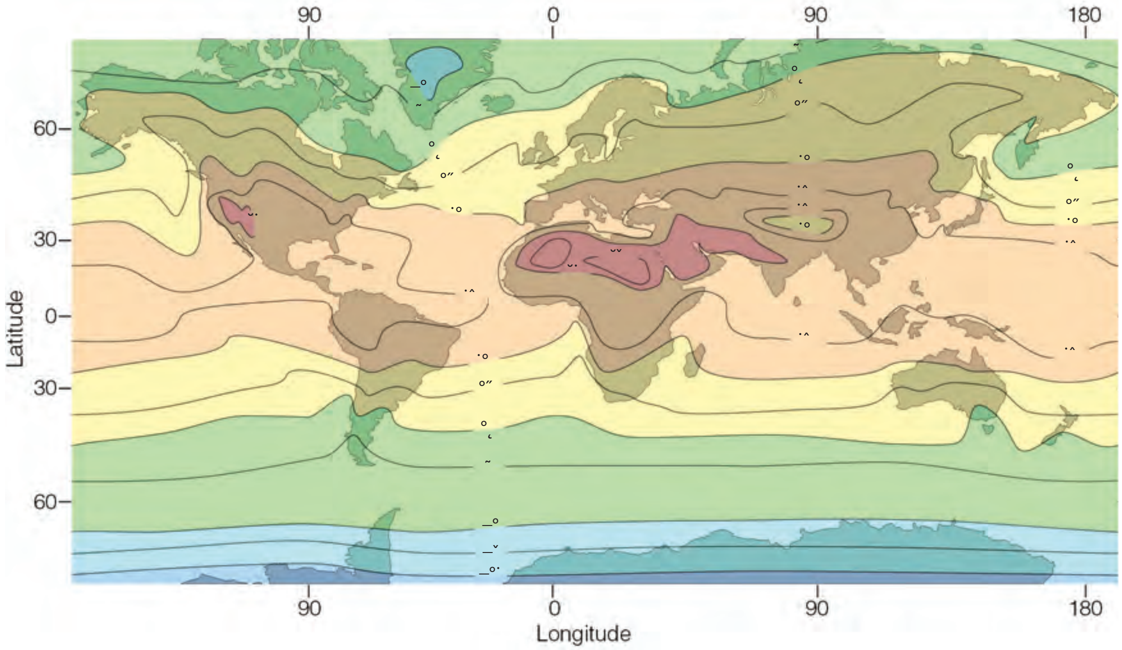


FIGURE 13 Average air temperature near sea level in July (degrees Celsius)

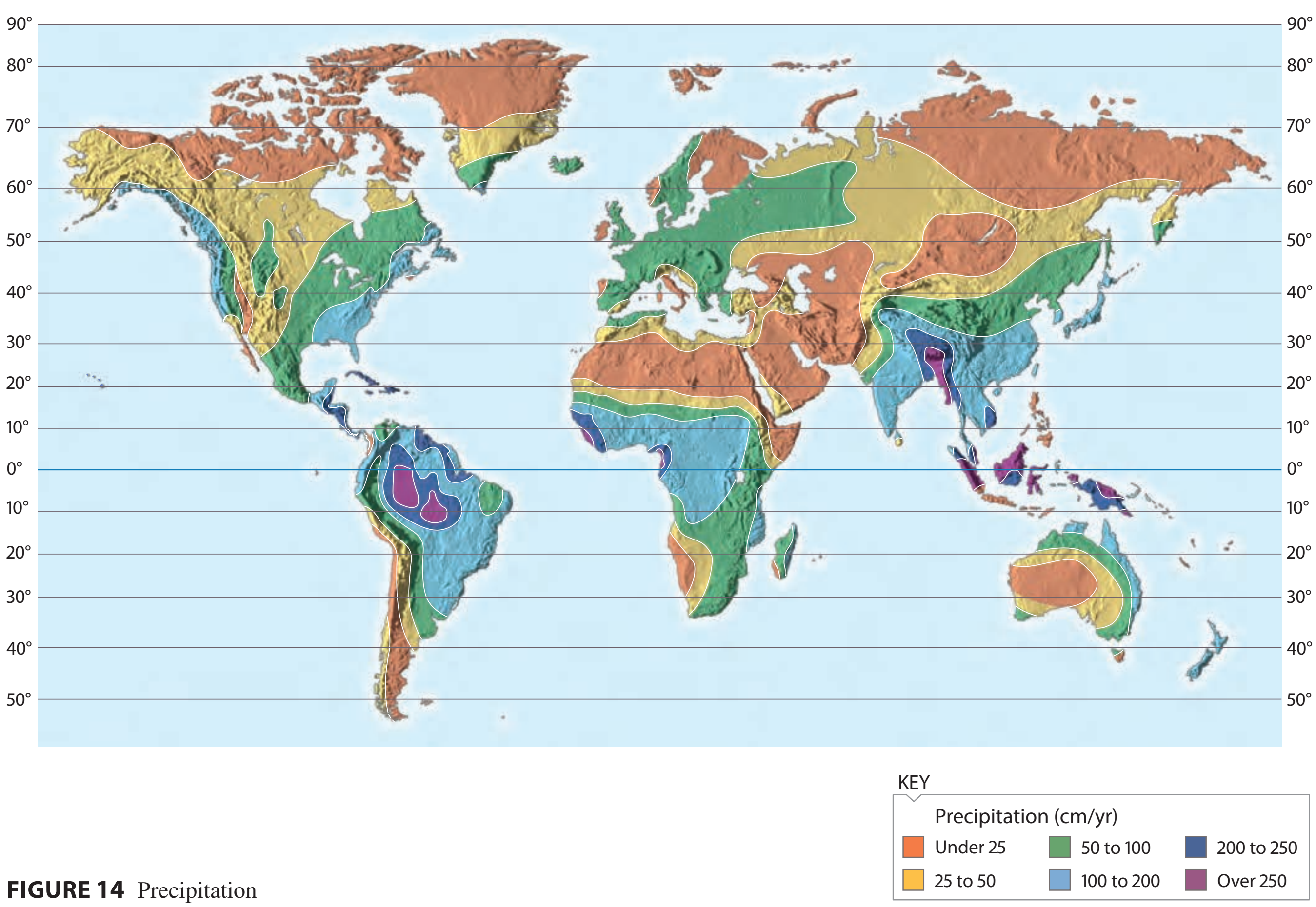


FIGURE 14 Precipitation

EXAMPLE 9 A contour map for a function f is shown in Figure 15. Use it to estimate the values of $f(1, 3)$ and $f(4, 5)$.

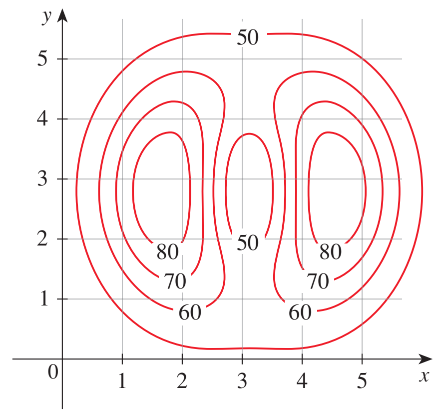


FIGURE 15

SOLUTION The point (1, 3) lies partway between the level curves with z-values 70 and 80. We estimate that

$$f(1, 3) \approx 73$$

Similarly, we estimate that

$$f(4, 5) \approx 56$$

■

EXAMPLE 10 Sketch the level curves of the function $f(x, y) = 6 - 3x - 2y$ for the values $k = -6, 0, 6, 12$.

SOLUTION The level curves are

$$6 - 3x - 2y = k \qquad \text{or} \qquad 3x + 2y + (k - 6) = 0$$

This is a family of lines with slope $-\frac{3}{2}$. The four particular level curves with $k = -6, 0, 6$, and 12 are $3x + 2y - 12 = 0$, $3x + 2y - 6 = 0$, $3x + 2y = 0$, and $3x + 2y + 6 = 0$. They are sketched in Figure 16. For equally spaced values of k the level curves are equally spaced parallel lines because the graph of f is a plane (see Figure 6).

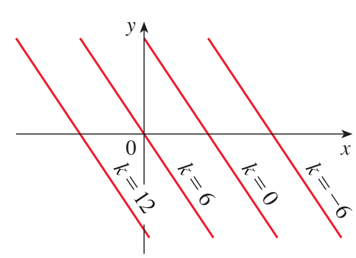


FIGURE 16
Contour map of
$f(x, y) = 6 - 3x - 2y$

■

EXAMPLE 11 Sketch the level curves of the function

$$g(x, y) = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2} \qquad \text{for} \quad k = 0, 1, 2, 3$$

SOLUTION The level curves are

$$\sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2} = k \qquad \text{or} \qquad x^2 + y^2 = 9 - k^2$$

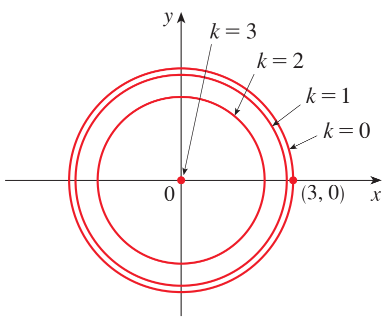


FIGURE 17
Contour map of
$g(x, y) = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2}$

This is a family of concentric circles with center $(0, 0)$ and radius $\sqrt{9 - k^2}$. The cases $k = 0, 1, 2, 3$ are shown in Figure 17. Try to visualize these level curves lifted up to form a surface and compare with the graph of g (a hemisphere) in Figure 7. ■

EXAMPLE 12 Sketch some level curves of the function $h(x, y) = 4x^2 + y^2 + 1$.

SOLUTION The level curves are

$$4x^2 + y^2 + 1 = k \qquad \text{or} \qquad \frac{x^2}{\frac{1}{4}(k - 1)} + \frac{y^2}{k - 1} = 1$$

which, for $k > 1$, describes a family of ellipses with semiaxes $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{k - 1}$ and $\sqrt{k - 1}$. Figure 18(a) shows a contour map of h drawn by a computer. Figure 18(b) shows these level curves lifted up to the graph of h (an elliptic paraboloid) where they become horizontal traces. We see from Figure 18 how the graph of h is put together from the level curves.

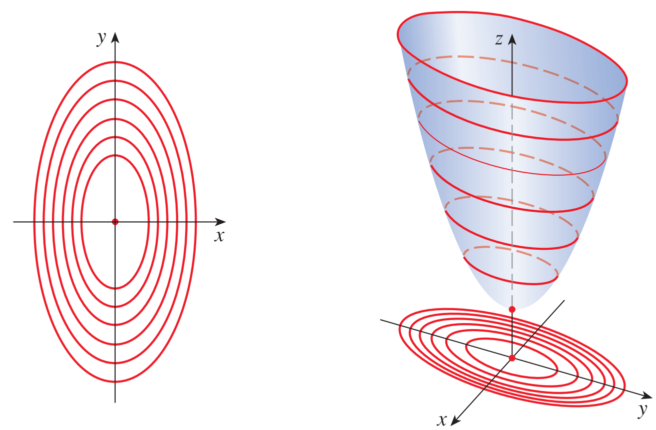


FIGURE 18
The graph of $h(x, y) = 4x^2 + y^2 + 1$ is formed by lifting the level curves.

(a) Contour map (b) Horizontal traces are raised level curves. ■

EXAMPLE 13 Plot level curves for the Cobb-Douglas production function of Example 4.

SOLUTION In Figure 19 we use a computer to draw a contour plot for the Cobb-Douglas production function

$$P(L, K) = 1.01L^{0.75}K^{0.25}$$

Level curves are labeled with the value of the production P. For instance, the level curve labeled 140 shows all values of the labor L and capital investment K that result in a production of $P = 140$. We see that, for a fixed value of P, as L increases K decreases, and vice versa. ■

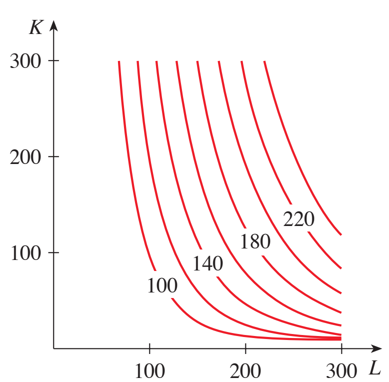
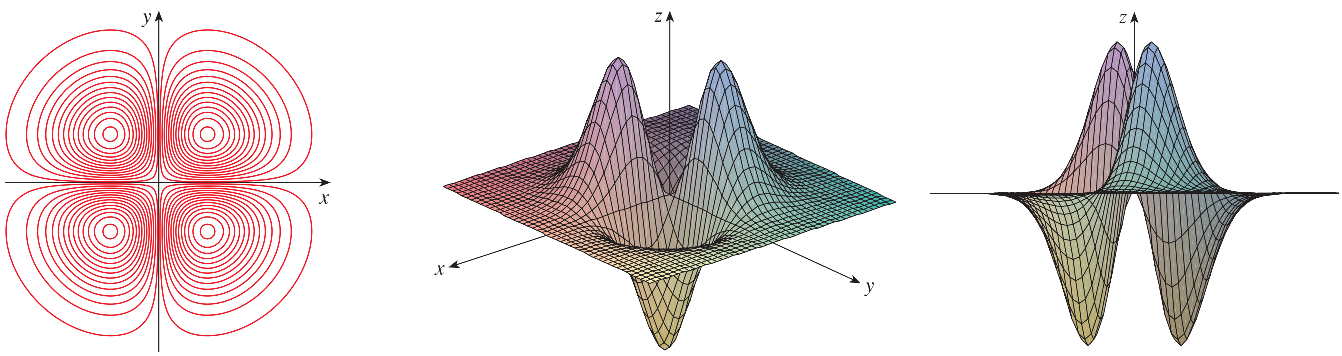


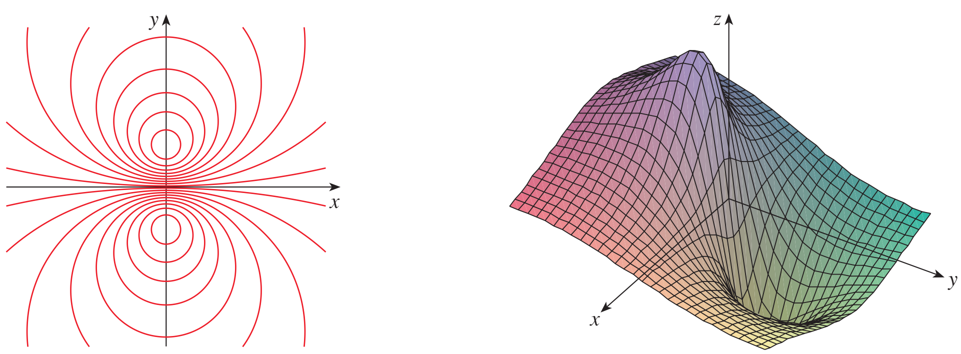
FIGURE 19

For some purposes, a contour map is more useful than a graph. That is certainly true in Example 13. (Compare Figure 19 with Figure 8.) It is also true in estimating function values, as in Example 9.

Figure 20 shows some computer-generated level curves together with the corresponding computer-generated graphs. Notice that the level curves in part (c) crowd together near the origin. That corresponds to the fact that the graph in part (d) is very steep near the origin.



(a) Level curves of $f(x, y) = -xye^{-x^2-y^2}$ (b) Two views of $f(x, y) = -xye^{-x^2-y^2}$



(c) Level curves of $f(x, y) = \dfrac{-3y}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$ (d) $f(x, y) = \dfrac{-3y}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

FIGURE 20

Functions of Three or More Variables

A **function of three variables**, f, is a rule that assigns to each ordered triple (x, y, z) in a domain $D \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ a unique real number denoted by $f(x, y, z)$. For instance, the temperature T at a point on the surface of the earth depends on the longitude x and latitude y of the point and on the time t, so we could write $T = f(x, y, t)$.

EXAMPLE 14 Find the domain of f if

$$f(x, y, z) = \ln(z - y) + xy \sin z$$

SOLUTION The expression for $f(x, y, z)$ is defined as long as $z - y > 0$, so the domain of f is

$$D = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid z > y\}$$

This is a **half-space** consisting of all points that lie above the plane $z = y$. ■

It's very difficult to visualize a function f of three variables by its graph, since that would lie in a four-dimensional space. However, we do gain some insight into f by examining its **level surfaces**, which are the surfaces with equations $f(x, y, z) = k$, where k is a constant. If the point (x, y, z) moves along a level surface, the value of $f(x, y, z)$ remains fixed.

EXAMPLE 15 Find the level surfaces of the function

$$f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$$

SOLUTION The level surfaces are $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = k$, where $k \geqslant 0$. These form a family of concentric spheres with radius $\sqrt{k}$. (See Figure 21.) Thus, as (x, y, z) varies over any sphere with center O, the value of $f(x, y, z)$ remains fixed.

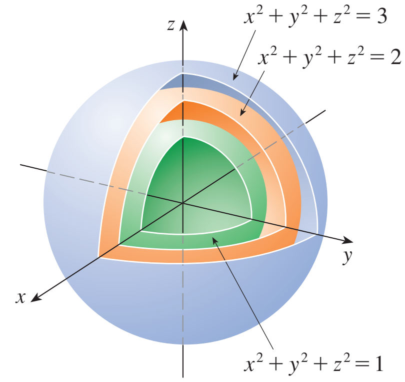


FIGURE 21 ■

EXAMPLE 16 Describe the level surfaces of the function

$$f(x, y, z) = x^2 - y - z^2$$

SOLUTION The level surfaces are $x^2 - y - z^2 = k$, or $y = x^2 - z^2 - k$, a family of hyperbolic paraboloids. Figure 22 shows the level surfaces for $k = 0$ and $k = \pm 5$.

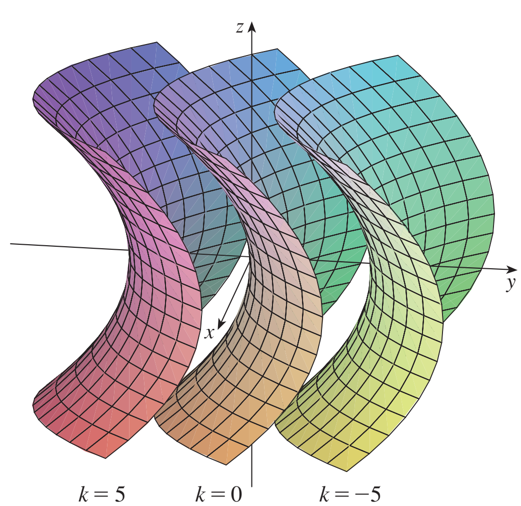


FIGURE 22 ■

Functions of any number of variables can be considered. A **function of *n* variables** is a rule that assigns a number $z = f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$ to an n-tuple $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$

of real numbers. We denote by $\mathbb{R}^n$ the set of all such n-tuples. For example, if a company uses n different ingredients in making a food product, c_i is the cost per unit of the ith ingredient, and x_i units of the ith ingredient are used, then the total cost C of the ingredients is a function of the n variables $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$:

$$\boxed{3} \qquad C = f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = c_1x_1 + c_2x_2 + \cdots + c_nx_n$$

The function f is a real-valued function whose domain is a subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$. Sometimes we use vector notation to write such functions more compactly: If $\mathbf{x} = \langle x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \rangle$, we often write $f(\mathbf{x})$ in place of $f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$. With this notation we can rewrite the function defined in Equation 3 as

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x}$$

where $\mathbf{c} = \langle c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n \rangle$ and $\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x}$ denotes the dot product of the vectors $\mathbf{c}$ and $\mathbf{x}$ in V_n.

In view of the one-to-one correspondence between points $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and their position vectors $\mathbf{x} = \langle x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \rangle$ in V_n, we have three ways of looking at a function f defined on a subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$:

1. As a function of n real variables $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$
2. As a function of a single point variable $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$
3. As a function of a single vector variable $\mathbf{x} = \langle x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \rangle$

We will see that all three points of view are useful.

14.1 Exercises

1. If $f(x, y) = x^2y/(2x - y^2)$, find
(a) $f(1, 3)$ (b) $f(-2, -1)$
(c) $f(x + h, y)$ (d) $f(x, x)$

2. If $g(x, y) = x \sin y + y \sin x$, find
(a) $g(\pi, 0)$ (b) $g(\pi/2, \pi/4)$
(c) $g(0, y)$ (d) $g(x, y + h)$

3. Let $g(x, y) = x^2 \ln(x + y)$.
(a) Evaluate $g(3, 1)$.
(b) Find and sketch the domain of g.
(c) Find the range of g.

4. Let $h(x, y) = e^{\sqrt{y - x^2}}$.
(a) Evaluate $h(-2, 5)$.
(b) Find and sketch the domain of h.
(c) Find the range of h.

5. Let $F(x, y, z) = \sqrt{y} - \sqrt{x - 2z}$.
(a) Evaluate $F(3, 4, 1)$.
(b) Find and describe the domain of F.

6. Let $f(x, y, z) = \ln\left(z - \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\right)$.
(a) Evaluate $f(4, -3, 6)$.
(b) Find and describe the domain of f.

7–16 Find and sketch the domain of the function.

7. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x - 2} + \sqrt{y - 1}$

8. $f(x, y) = \sqrt[4]{x - 3y}$

9. $q(x, y) = \sqrt{x} + \sqrt{4 - 4x^2 - y^2}$

10. $g(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + y^2 - 9)$

11. $g(x, y) = \dfrac{x - y}{x + y}$

12. $g(x, y) = \dfrac{\ln(2 - x)}{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

13. $p(x, y) = \dfrac{\sqrt{xy}}{x + 1}$

14. $f(x, y) = \sin^{-1}(x + y)$

15. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{4 - x^2} + \sqrt{9 - y^2} + \sqrt{1 - z^2}$

16. $f(x, y, z) = \ln(16 - 4x^2 - 4y^2 - z^2)$

17. A model for the surface area of a human body is given by the function

$$S = f(w, h) = 0.0072w^{0.425}h^{0.725}$$

where w is the weight (in kilograms), h is the height (in centimeters), and S is measured in square meters.
(a) Find $f(73, 178)$ and interpret it.
(b) What is your own surface area?

18. A manufacturer has modeled its yearly production function P (the monetary value of its entire production in millions of dollars) as a Cobb-Douglas function

$$P(L, K) = 1.47L^{0.65}K^{0.35}$$

where L is the number of labor hours (in thousands) and K is the invested capital (in millions of dollars). Find $P(120, 20)$ and interpret it.

19. In Example 3 we considered the function $W = f(T, v)$, where W is the wind-chill index, T is the actual temperature, and v is the wind speed. A numerical representation is given in Table 1.
(a) What is the value of $f(-15, 40)$? What is its meaning?
(b) Describe in words the meaning of the question "For what value of v is $f(-20, v) = -30$?" Then answer the question.
(c) Describe in words the meaning of the question "For what value of T is $f(T, 20) = -49$?" Then answer the question.
(d) What is the meaning of the function $W = f(-5, v)$? Describe the behavior of this function.
(e) What is the meaning of the function $W = f(T, 50)$? Describe the behavior of this function.

20. The *temperature-humidity index* I (or humidex, for short) is the perceived air temperature when the actual temperature is T and the relative humidity is h, so we can write $I = f(T, h)$. The following table of values of I is an excerpt from a table compiled by the National Oceanic & Atmospheric Administration.

Table 3 Apparent temperature as a function of temperature and humidity

Relative humidity (%)

Actual temperature (°C): T \ h	20	30	40	50	60	70
20	20	20	20	21	22	23
25	25	25	26	28	30	32
30	30	31	34	36	38	41
35	36	39	42	45	48	51
40	43	47	51	55	59	63

(a) What is the value of $f(95, 70)$? What is its meaning?
(b) For what value of h is $f(90, h) = 100$?
(c) For what value of T is $f(T, 50) = 88$?
(d) What are the meanings of the functions $I = f(80, h)$ and $I = f(100, h)$? Compare the behavior of these two functions of h.

21. The wave heights h in the open sea depend on the speed v of the wind and the length of time t that the wind has been blowing at that speed. Values of the function $h = f(v, t)$ are recorded in feet in Table 4.
(a) What is the value of $f(40, 15)$? What is its meaning?
(b) What is the meaning of the function $h = f(30, t)$? Describe the behavior of this function.
(c) What is the meaning of the function $h = f(v, 30)$? Describe the behavior of this function.

Table 4 Wave height as a function of wind speed and duration

Duration (hours)

Wind speed (km/h): v \ t	5	10	15	20	30	40	50
20	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
30	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6
40	1.5	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.8	2.8
60	2.8	4.0	4.9	5.2	5.5	5.8	5.9
80	4.3	6.4	7.7	8.6	9.5	10.1	10.2
100	5.8	8.9	11.0	12.2	13.8	14.7	15.3
120	7.4	11.3	14.4	16.6	19.0	20.5	21.1

22. A company makes three sizes of cardboard boxes: small, medium, and large. It costs \$2.50 to make a small box, \$4.00 for a medium box, and \$4.50 for a large box. Fixed costs are \$8000.
(a) Express the cost of making x small boxes, y medium boxes, and z large boxes as a function of three variables: $C = f(x, y, z)$.
(b) Find $f(3000, 5000, 4000)$ and interpret it.
(c) What is the domain of f?

23–31 Sketch the graph of the function.

23. $f(x, y) = y$

24. $f(x, y) = x^2$

25. $f(x, y) = 10 - 4x - 5y$

26. $f(x, y) = \cos y$

27. $f(x, y) = \sin x$

28. $f(x, y) = 2 - x^2 - y^2$

29. $f(x, y) = x^2 + 4y^2 + 1$

30. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{4x^2 + y^2}$

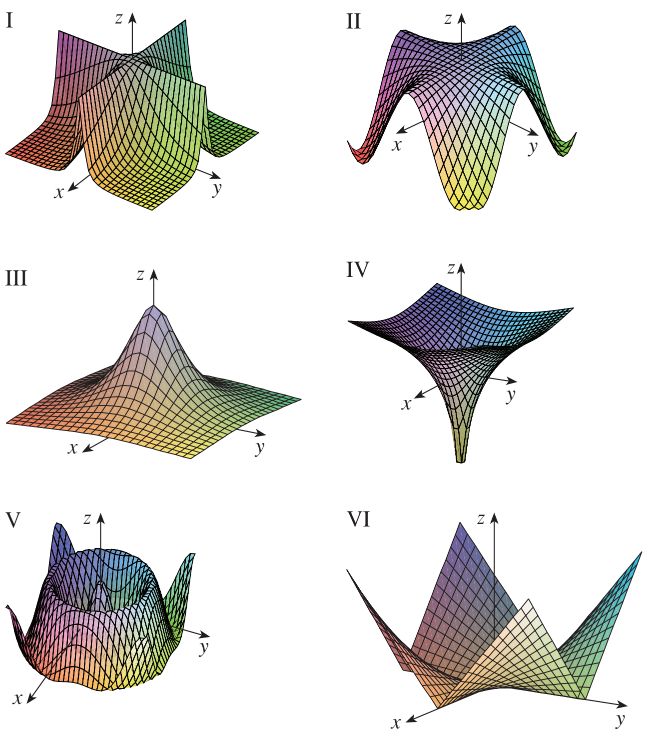
31. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{4 - 4x^2 - y^2}$

32. Match the function with its graph (labeled I–VI). Give reasons for your choices.

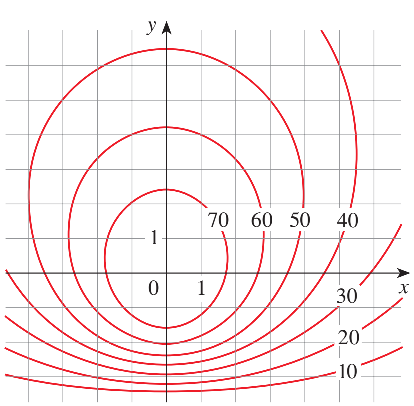
(a) $f(x, y) = \dfrac{1}{1 + x^2 + y^2}$ (b) $f(x, y) = \dfrac{1}{1 + x^2y^2}$

(c) $f(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + y^2)$ (d) $f(x, y) = \cos\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

(e) $f(x, y) = |xy|$ (f) $f(x, y) = \cos(xy)$



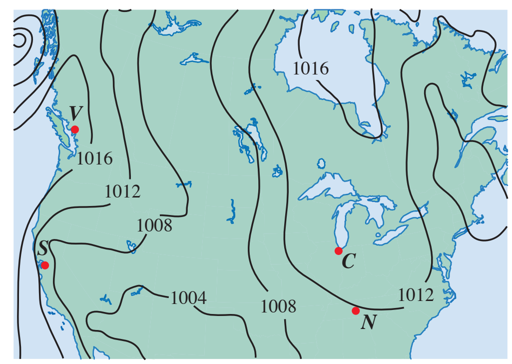
33. A contour map for a function f is shown. Use it to estimate the values of $f(-3, 3)$ and $f(3, -2)$. What can you say about the shape of the graph?



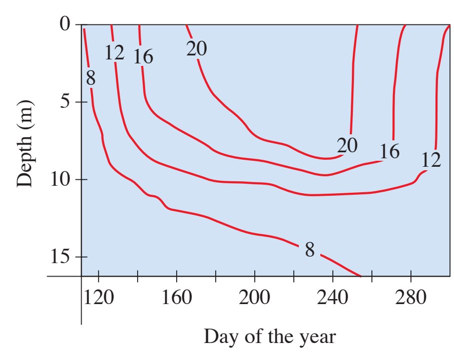
34. Shown is a contour map of atmospheric pressure in North America on a particular day. On the level curves (isobars) the pressure is indicated in millibars (mb).

(a) Estimate the pressure at C (Chicago), N (Nashville), S (San Francisco), and V (Vancouver).

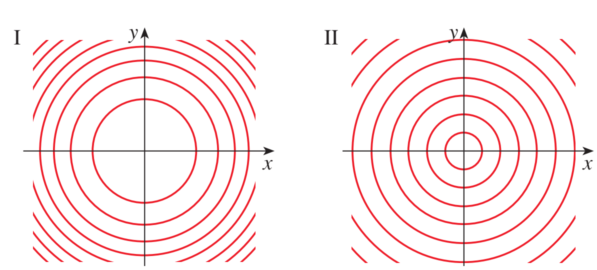
(b) At which of these locations were the winds strongest? (See the discussion preceding Example 9.)



35. Level curves (isothermals) are shown for the typical water temperature (in °C) in Long Lake (Minnesota) as a function of depth and time of year. Estimate the temperature in the lake on June 9 (day 160) at a depth of 10 m and on June 29 (day 180) at a depth of 5 m.

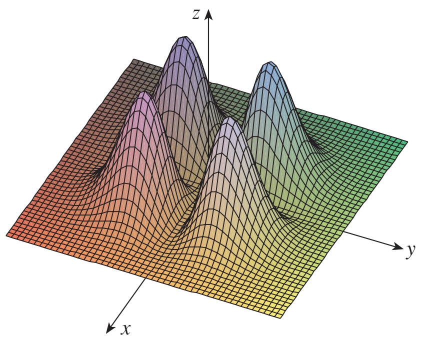


36. Two contour maps are shown. One is for a function f whose graph is a cone. The other is for a function g whose graph is a paraboloid. Which is which, and why?



37. Locate the points A and B on the map of Lonesome Mountain (Figure 12). How would you describe the terrain near A? Near B?

38. Make a rough sketch of a contour map for the function whose graph is shown.



39. The *body mass index* (BMI) of a person is defined by

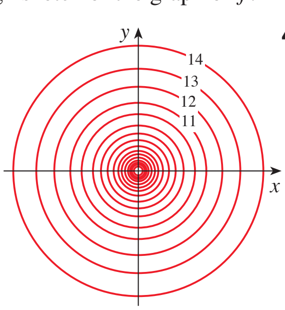
$$B(m, h) = \frac{m}{h^2}$$

where m is the person's mass (in kilograms) and h is the person's height (in meters). Draw the level curves $B(m, h) = 18.5$, $B(m, h) = 25$, $B(m, h) = 30$, and $B(m, h) = 40$. A rough guideline is that a person is underweight if the BMI is less than 18.5; optimal if the BMI lies between 18.5 and 25; overweight if the BMI lies between 25 and 30; and obese if the BMI exceeds 30. Shade the region corresponding to optimal BMI. Does someone who weighs 62 kg and is 152 cm tall fall into the optimal category?

40. The body mass index is defined in Exercise 39. Draw the level curve of this function corresponding to someone who is 200 cm tall and weighs 80 kg. Find the weights and heights of two other people with that same level curve.

41–44 A contour map of a function is shown. Use it to make a rough sketch of the graph of f.

41.



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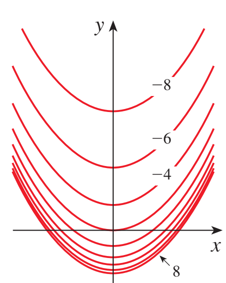

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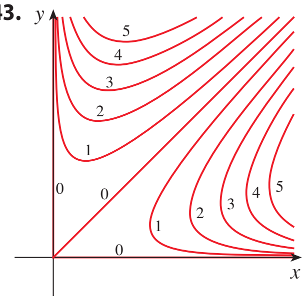

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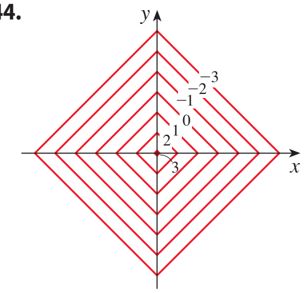


45–52 Draw a contour map of the function showing several level curves.

45. $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$

46. $f(x, y) = xy$

47. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x} + y$

48. $f(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + 4y^2)$

49. $f(x, y) = ye^x$

50. $f(x, y) = y - \arctan x$

51. $f(x, y) = \sqrt[3]{x^2 + y^2}$

52. $f(x, y) = y/(x^2 + y^2)$

53–54 Sketch both a contour map and a graph of the given function and compare them.

53. $f(x, y) = x^2 + 9y^2$

54. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{36 - 9x^2 - 4y^2}$

55. A thin metal plate, located in the xy-plane, has temperature $T(x, y)$ at the point (x, y). Sketch some level curves (isothermals) if the temperature function is given by

$$T(x, y) = \frac{100}{1 + x^2 + 2y^2}$$

56. If $V(x, y)$ is the electric potential at a point (x, y) in the xy-plane, then the level curves of V are called *equipotential curves* because at all points on such a curve the electric potential is the same. Sketch some equipotential curves if $V(x, y) = c/\sqrt{r^2 - x^2 - y^2}$, where c is a positive constant.

57–60 Graph the function using various domains and viewpoints. If your software also produces level curves, then plot some contour lines of the same function and compare with the graph.

57. $f(x, y) = xy^2 - x^3$ (monkey saddle)

58. $f(x, y) = xy^3 - yx^3$ (dog saddle)

59. $f(x, y) = e^{-(x^2+y^2)/3}(\sin(x^2) + \cos(y^2))$

60. $f(x, y) = \cos x \cos y$

61–66 Match the function (a) with its graph (labeled A–F below) and (b) with its contour map (labeled I–VI). Give reasons for your choices.

61. $z = \sin(xy)$

62. $z = e^x \cos y$

63. $z = \sin(x - y)$

64. $z = \sin x - \sin y$

65. $z = (1 - x^2)(1 - y^2)$

66. $z = \dfrac{x - y}{1 + x^2 + y^2}$

67–70 Describe the level surfaces of the function.

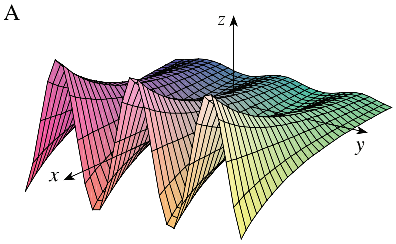
67. $f(x, y, z) = 2y - z + 1$

68. $g(x, y, z) = x + y^2 - z^2$

69. $g(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 - z^2$

70. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2$

A



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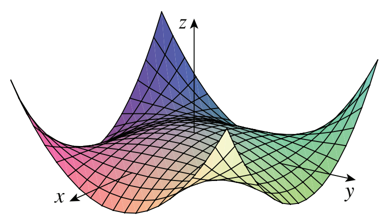

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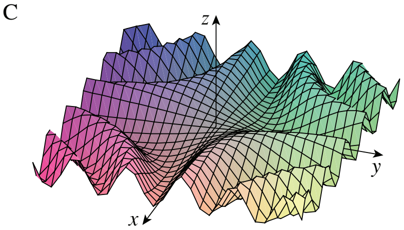

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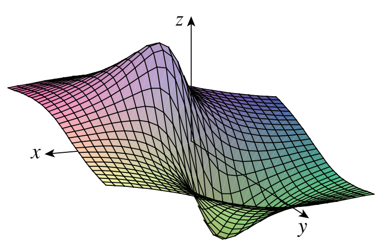

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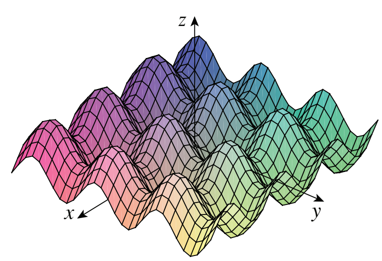

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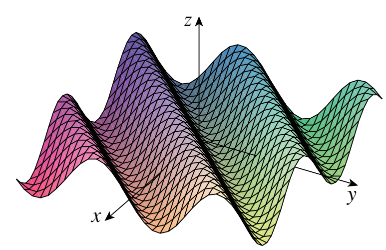

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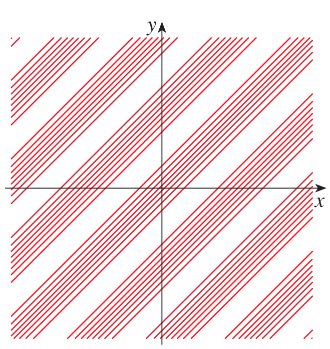

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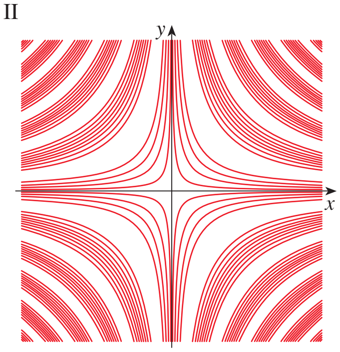

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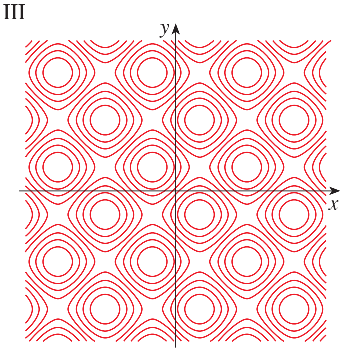

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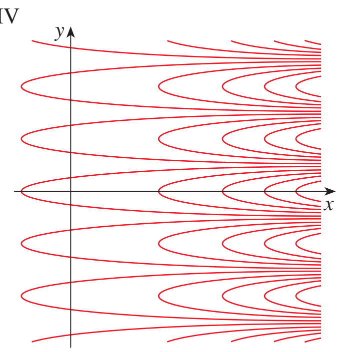
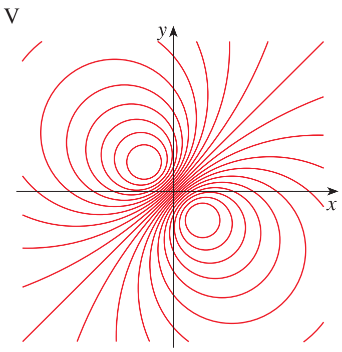


V



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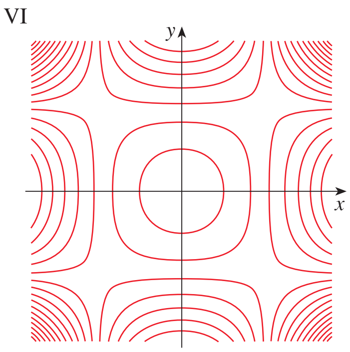


71–72 Describe how the graph of g is obtained from the graph of f.

71. (a) $g(x, y) = f(x, y) + 2$
(b) $g(x, y) = 2f(x, y)$
(c) $g(x, y) = -f(x, y)$
(d) $g(x, y) = 2 - f(x, y)$

72. (a) $g(x, y) = f(x - 2, y)$
(b) $g(x, y) = f(x, y + 2)$
(c) $g(x, y) = f(x + 3, y - 4)$

73–74 Graph the function using various domains and viewpoints that give good views of the "peaks and valleys." Would you say the function has a maximum value? Can you identify any points on the graph that you might consider to be "local maximum points"? What about "local minimum points"?

73. $f(x, y) = 3x - x^4 - 4y^2 - 10xy$

74. $f(x, y) = xye^{-x^2-y^2}$

75–76 Graph the function using various domains and viewpoints. Comment on the limiting behavior of the function. What happens as both x and y become large? What happens as (x, y) approaches the origin?

75. $f(x, y) = \dfrac{x + y}{x^2 + y^2}$ **76.** $f(x, y) = \dfrac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$

77. Investigate the family of functions $f(x, y) = e^{cx^2+y^2}$. How does the shape of the graph depend on c?

78. Investigate the family of surfaces

$$z = (ax^2 + by^2)e^{-x^2-y^2}$$

How does the shape of the graph depend on the numbers a and b?

79. Investigate the family of surfaces $z = x^2 + y^2 + cxy$. In particular, you should determine the transitional values of c for which the surface changes from one type of quadric surface to another.

80. Graph the functions

$$f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$f(x, y) = e^{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}$$

$$f(x, y) = \ln\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$f(x, y) = \sin\left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\right)$$

and $$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$

In general, if g is a function of one variable, how is the graph of

$$f(x, y) = g\left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\right)$$

obtained from the graph of g?

81. (a) Show that, by taking logarithms, the general Cobb-Douglas function $P = bL^{\alpha}K^{1-\alpha}$ can be expressed as

$$\ln\frac{P}{K} = \ln b + \alpha \ln\frac{L}{K}$$

T (b) If we let $x = \ln(L/K)$ and $y = \ln(P/K)$, the equation in part (a) becomes the linear equation $y = \alpha x + \ln b$. Use Table 2 (in Example 4) to make a table of values of $\ln(L/K)$ and $\ln(P/K)$ for the years 1899–1922. Then find the least squares regression line through the points $(\ln(L/K), \ln(P/K))$.
(c) Deduce that the Cobb-Douglas production function is $P = 1.01L^{0.75}K^{0.25}$.

14.2 Limits and Continuity

Limits of Functions of Two Variables

Let's compare the behavior of the functions

$$f(x, y) = \frac{\sin(x^2 + y^2)}{x^2 + y^2} \qquad \text{and} \qquad g(x, y) = \frac{x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2}$$

as x and y both approach 0 [and therefore the point (x, y) approaches the origin].

Tables 1 and 2 show values of $f(x, y)$ and $g(x, y)$, correct to three decimal places, for points (x, y) near the origin. (Notice that neither function is defined at the origin.)

Table 1 Values of $f(x, y)$

$x \backslash y$	−1.0	−0.5	−0.2	0	0.2	0.5	1.0
−1.0	0.455	0.759	0.829	0.841	0.829	0.759	0.455
−0.5	0.759	0.959	0.986	0.990	0.986	0.959	0.759
−0.2	0.829	0.986	0.999	1.000	0.999	0.986	0.829
0	0.841	0.990	1.000		1.000	0.990	0.841
0.2	0.829	0.986	0.999	1.000	0.999	0.986	0.829
0.5	0.759	0.959	0.986	0.990	0.986	0.959	0.759
1.0	0.455	0.759	0.829	0.841	0.829	0.759	0.455

Table 2 Values of $g(x, y)$

$x \backslash y$	−1.0	−0.5	−0.2	0	0.2	0.5	1.0
−1.0	0.000	0.600	0.923	1.000	0.923	0.600	0.000
−0.5	−0.600	0.000	0.724	1.000	0.724	0.000	−0.600
−0.2	−0.923	−0.724	0.000	1.000	0.000	−0.724	−0.923
0	−1.000	−1.000	−1.000		−1.000	−1.000	−1.000
0.2	−0.923	−0.724	0.000	1.000	0.000	−0.724	−0.923
0.5	−0.600	0.000	0.724	1.000	0.724	0.000	−0.600
1.0	0.000	0.600	0.923	1.000	0.923	0.600	0.000

It appears that as (x, y) approaches $(0, 0)$, the values of $f(x, y)$ are approaching 1 whereas the values of $g(x, y)$ aren't approaching any particular number. It turns out that these guesses based on numerical evidence are correct, and we write

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{\sin(x^2+y^2)}{x^2+y^2} = 1 \qquad \text{and} \qquad \lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{x^2-y^2}{x^2+y^2} \quad \text{does not exist}$$

In general, we use the notation

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,b)} f(x, y) = L$$

to indicate that the values of $f(x, y)$ approach the number L as the point (x, y) approaches the point (a, b) (staying within the domain of f). In other words, we can make the values of $f(x, y)$ as close to L as we like by taking the point (x, y) sufficiently close to the point (a, b), but not equal to (a, b). A more precise definition follows.

1 Definitio Let f be a function of two variables whose domain D includes points arbitrarily close to (a, b). Then we say that the **limit of $f(x, y)$ as (x, y) approaches (a, b)** is L and we write

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,b)} f(x, y) = L$$

if for every number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a corresponding number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\text{if} \quad (x, y) \in D \quad \text{and} \quad 0 < \sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2} < \delta \quad \text{then} \quad |f(x, y) - L| < \varepsilon$$

Other notations for the limit in Definition 1 are

$$\lim_{\substack{x\to a \\ y\to b}} f(x, y) = L \qquad \text{and} \qquad f(x, y) \to L \text{ as } (x, y) \to (a, b)$$

Notice that $|f(x, y) - L|$ is the distance between the numbers $f(x, y)$ and L, and $\sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2}$ is the distance between the point (x, y) and the point (a, b). Thus Definition 1 says that the distance between $f(x, y)$ and L can be made arbitrarily small by making the distance from (x, y) to (a, b) sufficiently small, but not 0. (Compare to the definition of a limit for a function of a single variable, Definition 2.4.2.) Figure 1 illustrates Definition 1 by means of an arrow diagram. If any small interval $(L - \varepsilon, L + \varepsilon)$ is given around L, then we can find a disk D_δ with center (a, b) and radius $\delta > 0$ such that f maps all the points in D_δ [except possibly (a, b)] into the interval $(L - \varepsilon, L + \varepsilon)$.

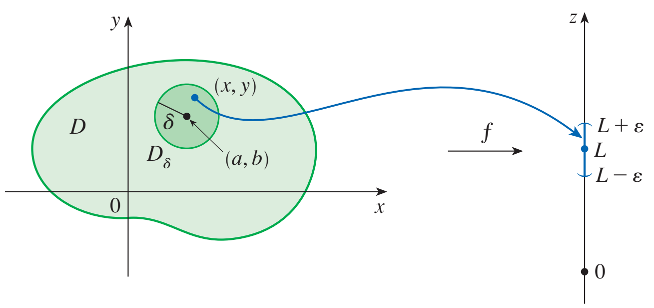


FIGURE 1

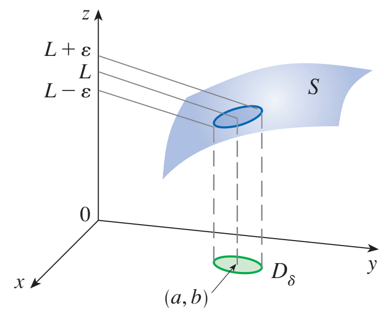


FIGURE 2

Another illustration of Definition 1 is given in Figure 2 where the surface S is the graph of f. If $\varepsilon > 0$ is given, we can find $\delta > 0$ such that if (x, y) is restricted to lie in the disk D_δ and $(x, y) \neq (a, b)$, then the corresponding part of S lies between the horizontal planes $z = L - \varepsilon$ and $z = L + \varepsilon$.

Showing That a Limit Does Not Exist

For functions of a single variable, when we let x approach a, there are only two possible directions of approach, from the left or from the right. We recall from Chapter 2 that if $\lim_{x \to a^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \to a^+} f(x)$, then $\lim_{x \to a} f(x)$ does not exist.

For functions of two variables, the situation is not as simple because we can let (x, y) approach (a, b) from an infinite number of directions in any manner whatsoever (see Figure 3) as long as (x, y) stays within the domain of f.

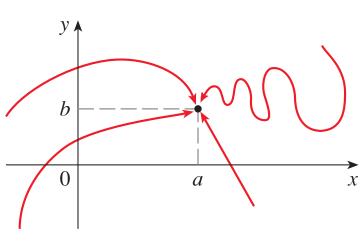


FIGURE 3
Different paths approaching (a, b)

Definition 1 says that the distance between $f(x, y)$ and L can be made arbitrarily small by making the distance from (x, y) to (a, b) sufficiently small (but not 0). The definition refers only to the *distance* between (x, y) and (a, b). It does not refer to the direction of approach. Therefore, if the limit exists, then $f(x, y)$ must approach the same limit *no matter how* (x, y) approaches (a, b). Thus one way to show that $\lim_{(x, y) \to (a, b)} f(x, y)$ does not exist is to find different paths of approach along which the function has different limits.

> If $f(x, y) \to L_1$ as $(x, y) \to (a, b)$ along a path C_1 and $f(x, y) \to L_2$ as $(x, y) \to (a, b)$ along a path C_2, where $L_1 \neq L_2$, then $\lim_{(x, y) \to (a, b)} f(x, y)$ does not exist.

EXAMPLE 1 Show that $\displaystyle\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \frac{x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2}$ does not exist.

SOLUTION Let $f(x, y) = (x^2 - y^2)/(x^2 + y^2)$. First let's approach $(0, 0)$ along the x-axis. On this path $y = 0$ for every point (x, y), so the function becomes $f(x, 0) = x^2/x^2 = 1$ for all $x \neq 0$ and thus

$$f(x, y) \to 1 \qquad \text{as} \qquad (x, y) \to (0, 0) \text{ along the } x\text{-axis}$$

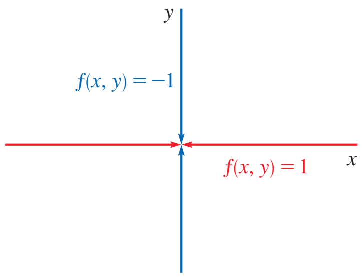


FIGURE 4

We now approach along the y-axis by putting $x = 0$. Then $f(0, y) = \dfrac{-y^2}{y^2} = -1$ for all $y \neq 0$, so

$$f(x, y) \to -1 \qquad \text{as} \qquad (x, y) \to (0, 0) \text{ along the } y\text{-axis}$$

(See Figure 4.) Since f has two different limits as (x, y) approaches $(0, 0)$ along two different lines, the given limit does not exist. (This confirms the conjecture we made on the basis of numerical evidence at the beginning of this section.) ■

EXAMPLE 2 If $f(x, y) = \dfrac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$, does $\displaystyle\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} f(x, y)$ exist?

SOLUTION If $y = 0$, then $f(x, 0) = 0/x^2 = 0$. Therefore

$$f(x, y) \to 0 \qquad \text{as} \qquad (x, y) \to (0, 0) \text{ along the } x\text{-axis}$$

If $x = 0$, then $f(0, y) = 0/y^2 = 0$, so

$$f(x, y) \to 0 \qquad \text{as} \qquad (x, y) \to (0, 0) \text{ along the } y\text{-axis}$$

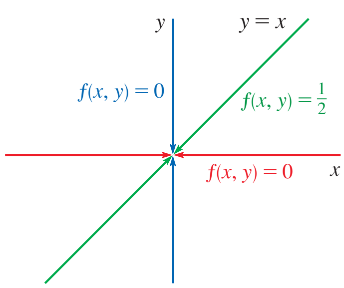


FIGURE 5

Although we have obtained identical limits along the two axes, that does *not* show that the given limit is 0. Let's now approach $(0, 0)$ along another line, say $y = x$. For all $x \neq 0$,

$$f(x, x) = \frac{x^2}{x^2 + x^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Therefore $\qquad f(x, y) \to \frac{1}{2} \qquad \text{as} \qquad (x, y) \to (0, 0) \text{ along } y = x$

(See Figure 5.) Since we have obtained different limits along different paths, the given limit does not exist. ■

Figure 6 sheds some light on Example 2. The ridge that occurs above the line $y = x$ corresponds to the fact that $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}$ for all points (x, y) on that line except the origin.

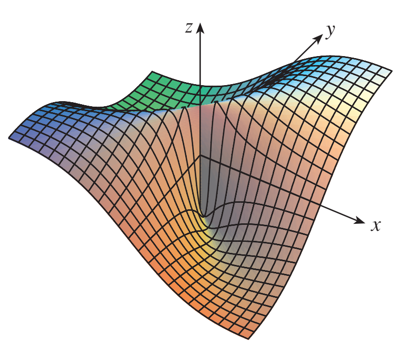


FIGURE 6

$$f(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$$

EXAMPLE 3 If $f(x, y) = \dfrac{xy^2}{x^2 + y^4}$, does $\displaystyle\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} f(x, y)$ exist?

SOLUTION With the solution of Example 2 in mind, let's try to save time by letting $(x, y) \to (0, 0)$ along any line through the origin. If the line is not the y-axis, then $y = mx$, where m is the slope, and

$$f(x, y) = f(x, mx) = \frac{x(mx)^2}{x^2 + (mx)^4} = \frac{m^2x^3}{x^2 + m^4x^4} = \frac{m^2x}{1 + m^4x^2}$$

Figure 7 shows the graph of the function in Example 3. Notice the ridge above the parabola $x = y^2$.

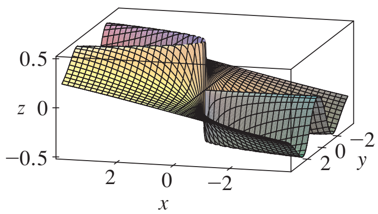


FIGURE 7

So $$f(x, y) \to 0 \qquad \text{as} \qquad (x, y) \to (0, 0) \text{ along } y = mx$$

We get the same result as $(x, y) \to (0, 0)$ along the line $x = 0$. Thus f has the same limiting value along every line through the origin. But that does not show that the given limit is 0, for if we now let $(x, y) \to (0, 0)$ along the parabola $x = y^2$, we have

$$f(x, y) = f(y^2, y) = \frac{y^2 \cdot y^2}{(y^2)^2 + y^4} = \frac{y^4}{2y^4} = \frac{1}{2}$$

so $$f(x, y) \to \tfrac{1}{2} \qquad \text{as} \qquad (x, y) \to (0, 0) \text{ along } x = y^2$$

Since different paths lead to different limiting values, the given limit does not exist. ■

Properties of Limits

Just as for functions of one variable, the calculation of limits for functions of two variables can be greatly simplified by the use of properties of limits. The Limit Laws listed in Section 2.3 can be extended to functions of two variables. Assuming that the indicated limits exist, we can state these laws verbally as follows:

Sum Law 1. The limit of a sum is the sum of the limits.

Difference Law 2. The limit of a difference is the difference of the limits.

Constant Multiple Law 3. The limit of a constant times a function is the constant times the limit of the function.

Product Law 4. The limit of a product is the product of the limits.

Quotient Law 5. The limit of a quotient is the quotient of the limits (provided that the limit of the denominator is not 0).

In Exercise 54, you are asked to prove the following special limits:

2 $$\lim_{(x, y)\to(a, b)} x = a \qquad \lim_{(x, y)\to(a, b)} y = b \qquad \lim_{(x, y)\to(a, b)} c = c$$

A **polynomial function** of two variables (or polynomial, for short) is a sum of terms of the form cx^my^n, where c is a constant and m and n are nonnegative integers. A **rational function** is a ratio of two polynomials. For instance,

$$p(x, y) = x^4 + 5x^3y^2 + 6xy^4 - 7y + 6$$

is a polynomial, whereas

$$q(x, y) = \frac{2xy + 1}{x^2 + y^2}$$

is a rational function.

The special limits in (2) along with the limit laws allow us to evaluate the limit of any polynomial function p by direct substitution:

3 $$\lim_{(x, y)\to(a, b)} p(x, y) = p(a, b)$$

Similarly, for any rational function $q(x, y) = p(x, y)/r(x, y)$ we have

4 $$\lim_{(x, y)\to(a, b)} q(x, y) = \lim_{(x, y)\to(a, b)} \frac{p(x, y)}{r(x, y)} = \frac{p(a, b)}{r(a, b)} = q(a, b)$$

provided that (a, b) is in the domain of q.

EXAMPLE 4 Evaluate $\displaystyle\lim_{(x, y)\to(1, 2)} (x^2y^3 - x^3y^2 + 3x + 2y)$.

SOLUTION Since $f(x, y) = x^2y^3 - x^3y^2 + 3x + 2y$ is a polynomial, we can find the limit by direct substitution:

$$\lim_{(x, y)\to(1, 2)} (x^2y^3 - x^3y^2 + 3x + 2y) = 1^2 \cdot 2^3 - 1^3 \cdot 2^2 + 3 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 2 = 11$$ ■

EXAMPLE 5 Evaluate $\displaystyle\lim_{(x, y)\to(-2, 3)} \frac{x^2y + 1}{x^3y^2 - 2x}$ if it exists.

SOLUTION The function $f(x, y) = (x^2y + 1)/(x^3y^2 - 2x)$ is a rational function and the point $(-2, 3)$ is in its domain (the denominator is not 0 there), so we can evaluate the limit by direct substitution:

$$\lim_{(x, y)\to(-2, 3)} \frac{x^2y + 1}{x^3y^2 - 2x} = \frac{(-2)^2(3) + 1}{(-2)^3(3)^2 - 2(-2)} = -\frac{13}{68}$$ ■

The Squeeze Theorem also holds for functions of two or more variables. In the next example we find a limit in two different ways: by using the definition of limit and by using the Squeeze Theorem.

EXAMPLE 6 Find $\displaystyle\lim_{(x, y)\to(0, 0)} \frac{3x^2y}{x^2 + y^2}$ if it exists.

SOLUTION 1 As in Example 3, we could show that the limit along any line through the origin is 0. This doesn't prove that the given limit is 0, but the limits along the parabolas $y = x^2$ and $x = y^2$ also turn out to be 0, so we begin to suspect that the limit does exist and is equal to 0.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. We want to find $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\text{if} \quad 0 < \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < \delta \quad \text{then} \quad \left| \frac{3x^2y}{x^2 + y^2} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon$$

that is,
$$\text{if} \quad 0 < \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < \delta \quad \text{then} \quad \frac{3x^2|y|}{x^2 + y^2} < \varepsilon$$

But $x^2 \leqslant x^2 + y^2$ since $y^2 \geqslant 0$, so $x^2/(x^2 + y^2) \leqslant 1$ and therefore

5
$$\frac{3x^2|y|}{x^2 + y^2} \leqslant 3|y| = 3\sqrt{y^2} \leqslant 3\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

Thus if we choose $\delta = \varepsilon/3$ and let $0 < \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < \delta$, then by (5) we have

$$\left| \frac{3x^2y}{x^2 + y^2} - 0 \right| \leqslant 3\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} < 3\delta = 3\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{3}\right) = \varepsilon$$

Hence, by Definition 1,

$$\lim_{(x, y)\to(0, 0)} \frac{3x^2y}{x^2 + y^2} = 0$$

SOLUTION 2 As in Solution 1,

$$\left|\frac{3x^2y}{x^2+y^2}\right| = \frac{3x^2|y|}{x^2+y^2} \leqslant 3|y|$$

so

$$-3|y| \leqslant \frac{3x^2y}{x^2+y^2} \leqslant 3|y|$$

Now $|y| \to 0$ as $y \to 0$ so $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} (-3|y|) = 0$ and $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} (3|y|) = 0$ (using Limit Law 3). Thus, by the Squeeze Theorem,

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} \frac{3x^2y}{x^2+y^2} = 0$$

■

■ Continuity

Recall that evaluating limits of *continuous* functions of a single variable is easy. It can be accomplished by direct substitution because the defining property of a continuous function is $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$. Continuous functions of two variables are also defined by the direct substitution property.

6 Definitio A function f of two variables is called **continuous at** (a, b) if

$$\lim_{(x,y)\to(a,b)} f(x, y) = f(a, b)$$

We say that f is **continuous on** D if f is continuous at every point (a, b) in D.

The intuitive meaning of continuity is that if the point (x, y) changes by a small amount, then the value of $f(x, y)$ changes by a small amount. This means that a surface that is the graph of a continuous function has no hole or break.

We have already seen that limits of polynomial functions can be evaluated by direct substitution (Equation 3). It follows by the definition of continuity that *all polynomials are continuous on* $\mathbb{R}^2$. Likewise, Equation 4 shows that *any rational function is continuous on its domain*. In general, using properties of limits, you can see that sums, differences, products, and quotients of continuous functions are continuous on their domains.

EXAMPLE 7 Where is the function $f(x, y) = \dfrac{x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2}$ continuous?

SOLUTION The function f is discontinuous at $(0, 0)$ because it is not defined there. Since f is a rational function, it is continuous on its domain, which is the set $D = \{(x, y) \mid (x, y) \neq (0, 0)\}$. ■

EXAMPLE 8 Let

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} \dfrac{x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

Here g is defined at $(0, 0)$ but g is still discontinuous there because $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} g(x, y)$ does not exist (see Example 1). ■

Figure 8 shows the graph of the continuous function in Example 9.

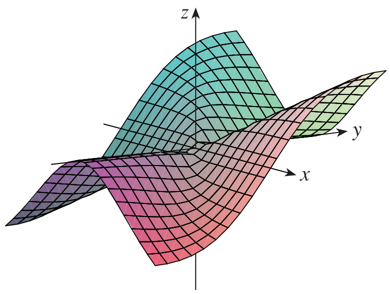


FIGURE 8

EXAMPLE 9 Let

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \dfrac{3x^2y}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

We know f is continuous for $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ since it is equal to a rational function there. Also, from Example 6, we have

$$\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} f(x, y) = \lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \frac{3x^2y}{x^2 + y^2} = 0 = f(0, 0)$$

Therefore f is continuous at $(0, 0)$, and so it is continuous on $\mathbb{R}^2$. ■

Just as for functions of one variable, composition is another way of combining two continuous functions to get a third. In fact, it can be shown that if f is a continuous function of two variables and g is a continuous function of a single variable that is defined on the range of f, then the composite function $h = g \circ f$ defined by $h(x, y) = g(f(x, y))$ is also a continuous function.

EXAMPLE 10 Where is the function $h(x, y) = e^{-(x^2+y^2)}$ continuous?

SOLUTION The function $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ is a polynomial and thus is continuous on $\mathbb{R}^2$. Because the function $g(t) = e^{-t}$ is continuous for all values of t, the composite function

$$h(x, y) = g(f(x, y)) = e^{-(x^2+y^2)}$$

is continuous on $\mathbb{R}^2$. The function h is graphed in Figure 9.

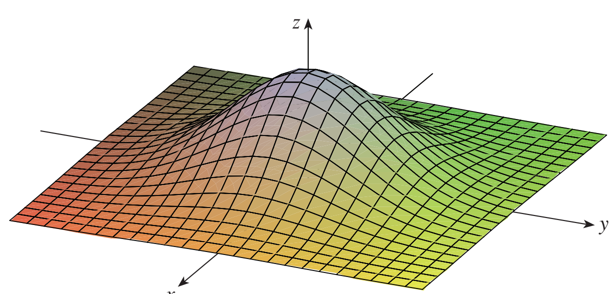


FIGURE 9 The function $h(x, y) = e^{-(x^2+y^2)}$ is continuous everywhere.

■

EXAMPLE 11 Where is the function $h(x, y) = \arctan(y/x)$ continuous?

SOLUTION The function $f(x, y) = y/x$ is a rational function and therefore continuous except on the line $x = 0$. The function $g(t) = \arctan t$ is continuous everywhere. So the composite function

$$g(f(x, y)) = \arctan(y/x) = h(x, y)$$

is continuous except where $x = 0$. The graph in Figure 10 shows the break in the graph of h above the y-axis.

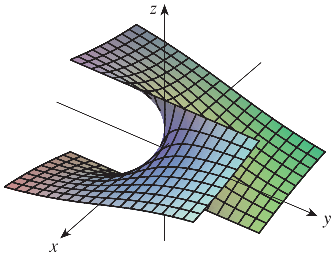


FIGURE 10
The function $h(x, y) = \arctan(y/x)$ is discontinuous where $x = 0$.

Functions of Three or More Variables

Everything that we have done in this section can be extended to functions of three or more variables. The notation

$$\lim_{(x, y, z) \to (a, b, c)} f(x, y, z) = L$$

means that the values of $f(x, y, z)$ approach the number L as the point (x, y, z) approaches the point (a, b, c) (staying within the domain of f). Because the distance between two points (x, y, z) and (a, b, c) in $\mathbb{R}^3$ is given by $\sqrt{(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 + (z - c)^2}$, we can write the precise definition as follows: for every number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a corresponding number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\text{if } (x, y, z) \text{ is in the domain of } f \text{ and } 0 < \sqrt{(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 + (z - c)^2} < \delta$$
$$\text{then } |f(x, y, z) - L| < \varepsilon$$

The function f is **continuous** at (a, b, c) if

$$\lim_{(x, y, z) \to (a, b, c)} f(x, y, z) = f(a, b, c)$$

For instance, the function

$$f(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 1}$$

is a rational function of three variables and so is continuous at every point in $\mathbb{R}^3$ except where $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$. In other words, it is discontinuous on the sphere with center the origin and radius 1.

If we use the vector notation introduced at the end of Section 14.1, then we can write the definitions of a limit for functions of two or three variables in a single compact form as follows.

7 If f is defined on a subset D of $\mathbb{R}^n$, then $\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) = L$ means that for every number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a corresponding number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\text{if } \quad \mathbf{x} \in D \quad \text{and} \quad 0 < |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}| < \delta \quad \text{then} \quad |f(\mathbf{x}) - L| < \varepsilon$$

Notice that if $n = 1$, then $\mathbf{x} = x$ and $\mathbf{a} = a$, and (7) is just the definition of a limit for functions of a single variable (Definition 2.4.2). For the case $n = 2$, we have $\mathbf{x} = \langle x, y \rangle$, $\mathbf{a} = \langle a, b \rangle$, and $|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2}$, so (7) becomes Definition 1. If $n = 3$, then $\mathbf{x} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$, $\mathbf{a} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$, and (7) becomes the definition of a limit of a function of three variables. In each case the definition of continuity can be written as

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{a}} f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{a})$$

14.2 Exercises

1. Suppose that $\lim_{(x, y) \to (3, 1)} f(x, y) = 6$. What can you say about the value of $f(3, 1)$? What if f is continuous?

2. Explain why each function is continuous or discontinuous.
(a) The outdoor temperature as a function of longitude, latitude, and time
(b) Elevation (height above sea level) as a function of longitude, latitude, and time
(c) The cost of a taxi ride as a function of distance traveled and time

3–4 Use a table of numerical values of $f(x, y)$ for (x, y) near the origin to make a conjecture about the value of the limit of $f(x, y)$ as $(x, y) \to (0, 0)$. Then explain why your guess is correct.

3. $f(x, y) = \dfrac{x^2y^3 + x^3y^2 - 5}{2 - xy}$ **4.** $f(x, y) = \dfrac{2xy}{x^2 + 2y^2}$

5–12 Find the limit.

5. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (3, 2)} (x^2y^3 - 4y^2)$

6. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (5, -2)} (x^2y + 3xy^2 + 4)$

7. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (-3, 1)} \dfrac{x^2y - xy^3}{x - y + 2}$ **8.** $\lim_{(x, y) \to (2, -1)} \dfrac{x^2y + xy^2}{x^2 - y^2}$

9. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (\pi, \pi/2)} y \sin(x - y)$ **10.** $\lim_{(x, y) \to (3, 2)} e^{\sqrt{2x - y}}$

11. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (1, 1)} \left(\dfrac{x^2y^3 - x^3y^2}{x^2 - y^2} \right)$ **12.** $\lim_{(x, y) \to (\pi, \pi/2)} \dfrac{\cos y - \sin 2y}{\cos x \cos y}$

13–18 Show that the limit does not exist.

13. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{y^2}{x^2 + y^2}$ **14.** $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{2xy}{x^2 + 3y^2}$

15. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{(x + y)^2}{x^2 + y^2}$ **16.** $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{x^2 + xy^2}{x^4 + y^2}$

17. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{y^2 \sin^2 x}{x^4 + y^4}$ **18.** $\lim_{(x, y) \to (1, 1)} \dfrac{y - x}{1 - y + \ln x}$

19–30 Find the limit, if it exists, or show that the limit does not exist.

19. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (-1, -2)} (x^2y - xy^2 + 3)^3$

20. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (\pi, 1/2)} e^{xy} \sin xy$

21. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (2, 3)} \dfrac{3x - 2y}{4x^2 - y^2}$ **22.** $\lim_{(x, y) \to (1, 2)} \dfrac{2x - y}{4x^2 - y^2}$

23. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{xy^2 \cos y}{x^2 + y^4}$ **24.** $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{x^3 - y^3}{x^2 + xy + y^2}$

25. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{x^2 + y^2}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + 1} - 1}$

26. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{xy^4}{x^2 + y^8}$

27. $\lim_{(x, y, z) \to (6, 1, -2)} \sqrt{x + z} \cos(\pi y)$

28. $\lim_{(x, y, z) \to (0, 0, 0)} \dfrac{xy + yz}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

29. $\lim_{(x, y, z) \to (0, 0, 0)} \dfrac{xy + yz^2 + xz^2}{x^2 + y^2 + z^4}$

30. $\lim_{(x, y, z) \to (0, 0, 0)} \dfrac{x^4 + y^2 + z^3}{x^4 + 2y^2 + z}$

31–34 Use the Squeeze Theorem to find the limit.

31. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} xy \sin \dfrac{1}{x^2 + y^2}$ **32.** $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{xy}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$

33. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{xy^4}{x^4 + y^4}$

34. $\lim_{(x, y, z) \to (0, 0, 0)} \dfrac{x^2y^2z^2}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

35–36 Use a graph of the function to explain why the limit does not exist.

35. $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{2x^2 + 3xy + 4y^2}{3x^2 + 5y^2}$ **36.** $\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \dfrac{xy^3}{x^2 + y^6}$

37–38 Find $h(x, y) = g(f(x, y))$ and the set of points at which h is continuous.

37. $g(t) = t^2 + \sqrt{t}, \quad f(x, y) = 2x + 3y - 6$

38. $g(t) = t + \ln t, \quad f(x, y) = \dfrac{1 - xy}{1 + x^2y^2}$

39–40 Graph the function and observe where it is discontinuous. Then use the formula to explain what you have observed.

39. $f(x, y) = e^{1/(x - y)}$ **40.** $f(x, y) = \dfrac{1}{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

41–50 Determine the set of points at which the function is continuous.

41. $F(x, y) = \dfrac{xy}{1 + e^{x - y}}$ **42.** $F(x, y) = \cos \sqrt{1 + x - y}$

43. $F(x, y) = \dfrac{1 + x^2 + y^2}{1 - x^2 - y^2}$ **44.** $H(x, y) = \dfrac{e^x + e^y}{e^{xy} - 1}$

45. $G(x, y) = \sqrt{x} + \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

46. $G(x, y) = \ln(1 + x - y)$

47. $f(x, y, z) = \arcsin(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$

48. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{y - x^2}\, \ln z$

49. $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \dfrac{x^2 y^3}{2x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 1 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

50. $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \dfrac{xy}{x^2 + xy + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$

51–53 Use polar coordinates to find the limit. [If (r, θ) are polar coordinates of the point (x, y) with $r \geqslant 0$, note that $r \to 0^+$ as $(x, y) \to (0, 0)$.]

51. $\displaystyle\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \frac{x^3 + y^3}{x^2 + y^2}$

52. $\displaystyle\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} (x^2 + y^2) \ln(x^2 + y^2)$

53. $\displaystyle\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \frac{e^{-x^2 - y^2} - 1}{x^2 + y^2}$

54. Prove the three special limits in (2).

55. At the beginning of this section we considered the function

$$f(x, y) = \frac{\sin(x^2 + y^2)}{x^2 + y^2}$$

and guessed on the basis of numerical evidence that $f(x, y) \to 1$ as $(x, y) \to (0, 0)$. Use polar coordinates to confirm the value of the limit. Then graph the function.

56. Graph and discuss the continuity of the function

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \dfrac{\sin xy}{xy} & \text{if } xy \neq 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } xy = 0 \end{cases}$$

57. Let

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y \leqslant 0 \text{ or } y \geqslant x^4 \\ 1 & \text{if } 0 < y < x^4 \end{cases}$$

(a) Show that $f(x, y) \to 0$ as $(x, y) \to (0, 0)$ along any path through $(0, 0)$ of the form $y = mx^a$ with $0 < a < 4$.
(b) Despite part (a), show that f is discontinuous at $(0, 0)$.
(c) Show that f is discontinuous on two entire curves.

58. Show that the function f given by $f(\mathbf{x}) = |\mathbf{x}|$ is continuous on $\mathbb{R}^n$. [*Hint:* Consider $|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}|^2 = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})$.]

59. If $\mathbf{c} \in V_n$, show that the function f given by $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x}$ is continuous on $\mathbb{R}^n$.

14.3 Partial Derivatives

Partial Derivatives of Functions of Two Variables

On a hot day, extreme humidity makes us think the temperature is higher than it really is, whereas in very dry air we perceive the temperature to be lower than the thermometer indicates. The National Weather Service has devised the *heat index* (also called the temperature-humidity index, or humidex, in some countries) to describe the combined effects of temperature and humidity. The heat index I is the perceived air temperature when the actual temperature is T and the relative humidity is H. So I is a function of T and H and we can write $I = f(T, H)$. The following table of values of I is an excerpt from a table compiled by the National Weather Service.

Table 1 Heat index I as a function of temperature and humidity

Relative humidity (%)

Actual temperature (°C)	T \ H	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75	80
	26	28	28	29	31	31	32	33	34	35
	28	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39
	30	34	35	36	37	38	40	41	42	43
	32	37	38	39	41	42	43	45	46	47
	34	41	42	43	45	47	48	49	51	52
	36	43	45	47	48	50	51	53	54	56

If we concentrate on the highlighted column of the table, which corresponds to a relative humidity of $H = 60\%$, we are considering the heat index as a function of the single variable T for a fixed value of H. Let's write $g(T) = f(T, 60)$. Then $g(T)$ describes how the heat index I increases as the actual temperature T increases when the relative humidity is 60%. The derivative of g when $T = 30°\text{C}$ is the rate of change of I with respect to T when $T = 30°\text{C}$:

$$g'(30) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{g(30 + h) - g(30)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(30 + h, 60) - f(30, 60)}{h}$$

We can approximate $g'(30)$ using the values in Table 1 by taking $h = 2$ and -2:

$$g'(30) \approx \frac{g(32) - g(30)}{2} = \frac{f(32, 60) - f(30, 60)}{2} = \frac{42 - 38}{2} = 2$$

$$g'(30) \approx \frac{g(28) - g(30)}{-2} = \frac{f(28, 60) - f(30, 60)}{-2} = \frac{35 - 38}{-2} = 1.5$$

Averaging these values, we can say that the derivative $g'(30)$ is approximately 1.75. This means that, when the actual temperature is 30°C and the relative humidity is 60%, the apparent temperature (heat index) rises by about 1.75°C for every degree that the actual temperature rises.

Now let's look at the highlighted row in Table 1, which corresponds to a fixed temperature of $T = 30°\text{C}$. The numbers in this row are values of the function $G(H) = f(30, H)$, which describes how the heat index increases as the relative humidity H increases when the actual temperature is $T = 30°\text{C}$. The derivative of this function when $H = 60\%$ is the rate of change of I with respect to H when $H = 60\%$:

$$G'(60) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{G(60 + h) - G(60)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(30, 60 + h) - f(30, 60)}{h}$$

By taking $h = 5$ and -5, we approximate $G'(60)$ using the tabular values:

$$G'(60) \approx \frac{G(65) - G(60)}{5} = \frac{f(30, 65) - f(30, 60)}{5} = \frac{42 - 38}{5} = 0.4$$

$$G'(60) \approx \frac{G(55) - G(60)}{-5} = \frac{f(30, 55) - f(30, 60)}{-5} = \frac{37 - 38}{-5} = 0.2$$

By averaging these values we get the estimate $G'(60) \approx 0.3$. This says that, when the temperature is 30°C and the relative humidity is 60%, the heat index rises about 0.3°C for every percent that the relative humidity rises.

In general, if f is a function of two variables x and y, suppose we let only x vary while keeping y fixed, say $y = b$, where b is a constant. Then we are really considering a function of a single variable x, namely, $g(x) = f(x, b)$. If g has a derivative at a, then we call it the **partial derivative of f with respect to x at (a, b)** and denote it by $f_x(a, b)$. Thus

1 $$\boxed{f_x(a, b) = g'(a) \qquad \text{where} \qquad g(x) = f(x, b)}$$

By the definition of a derivative, we have

$$g'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{g(a + h) - g(a)}{h}$$

and so Equation 1 becomes

2
$$\boxed{f_x(a, b) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a + h, b) - f(a, b)}{h}}$$

Similarly, the **partial derivative of f with respect to y at (a, b)**, denoted by $f_y(a, b)$, is obtained by keeping x fixed ($x = a$) and finding the ordinary derivative at b of the function $G(y) = f(a, y)$:

3
$$\boxed{f_y(a, b) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a, b + h) - f(a, b)}{h}}$$

With this notation for partial derivatives, we can write the rates of change of the heat index I with respect to the actual temperature T and relative humidity H when $T = 30°\text{C}$ and $H = 60\%$ as follows:

$$f_T(30, 60) \approx 1.75 \qquad f_H(30, 60) \approx 0.3$$

If we now let the point (a, b) vary in Equations 2 and 3, f_x and f_y become functions of two variables.

4 Definitio If f is a function of two variables, its **partial derivatives** are the functions f_x and f_y defined by

$$f_x(x, y) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x + h, y) - f(x, y)}{h}$$

$$f_y(x, y) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x, y + h) - f(x, y)}{h}$$

There are many alternative notations for partial derivatives. For instance, instead of f_x we can write f_1 or $D_1 f$ (to indicate differentiation with respect to the *first* variable) or $\partial f/\partial x$. But here $\partial f/\partial x$ can't be interpreted as a ratio of differentials.

Notations for Partial Derivatives If $z = f(x, y)$, we write

$$f_x(x, y) = f_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x, y) = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = f_1 = D_1 f = D_x f$$

$$f_y(x, y) = f_y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(x, y) = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = f_2 = D_2 f = D_y f$$

To compute partial derivatives, all we have to do is remember from Equation 1 that the partial derivative with respect to x is just the *ordinary* derivative of the function g of a single variable that we get by keeping y fixed. Thus we have the following rule.

Rule for Finding Partial Derivatives of $z = f(x, y)$

1. To find f_x, regard y as a constant and differentiate $f(x, y)$ with respect to x.
2. To find f_y, regard x as a constant and differentiate $f(x, y)$ with respect to y.

EXAMPLE 1 If $f(x, y) = x^3 + x^2y^3 - 2y^2$, find $f_x(2, 1)$ and $f_y(2, 1)$.

SOLUTION Holding y constant and differentiating with respect to x, we get

$$f_x(x, y) = 3x^2 + 2xy^3$$

and so
$$f_x(2, 1) = 3 \cdot 2^2 + 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 1^3 = 16$$

Holding x constant and differentiating with respect to y, we get

$$f_y(x, y) = 3x^2y^2 - 4y$$

$$f_y(2, 1) = 3 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 1^2 - 4 \cdot 1 = 8$$

EXAMPLE 2 If $f(x, y) = \sin\left(\dfrac{x}{1 + y}\right)$, calculate $\dfrac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\dfrac{\partial f}{\partial y}$.

SOLUTION Using the Chain Rule for functions of one variable, we have

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \cos\left(\frac{x}{1 + y}\right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{x}{1 + y}\right) = \cos\left(\frac{x}{1 + y}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{1 + y}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \cos\left(\frac{x}{1 + y}\right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{x}{1 + y}\right) = -\cos\left(\frac{x}{1 + y}\right) \cdot \frac{x}{(1 + y)^2}$$

Interpretations of Partial Derivatives

To give a geometric interpretation of partial derivatives, we recall that the equation $z = f(x, y)$ represents a surface S (the graph of f). If $f(a, b) = c$, then the point $P(a, b, c)$ lies on S. By fixing $y = b$, we are restricting our attention to the curve C_1 in which the vertical plane $y = b$ intersects S. (In other words, C_1 is the trace of S in the plane $y = b$.) Likewise, the vertical plane $x = a$ intersects S in a curve C_2. Both of the curves C_1 and C_2 pass through the point P. (See Figure 1.)

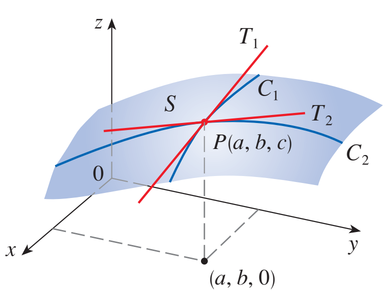


FIGURE 1
The partial derivatives of f at (a, b) are the slopes of the tangents to C_1 and C_2.

Note that the curve C_1 is the graph of the function $g(x) = f(x, b)$, so the slope of its tangent T_1 at P is $g'(a) = f_x(a, b)$. The curve C_2 is the graph of the function $G(y) = f(a, y)$, so the slope of its tangent T_2 at P is $G'(b) = f_y(a, b)$.

Thus the partial derivatives $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$ can be interpreted geometrically as the slopes of the tangent lines at $P(a, b, c)$ to the traces C_1 and C_2 of S in the planes $y = b$ and $x = a$.

EXAMPLE 3 If $f(x, y) = 4 - x^2 - 2y^2$, find $f_x(1, 1)$ and $f_y(1, 1)$ and interpret these numbers as slopes.

SOLUTION We have

$$f_x(x, y) = -2x \qquad f_y(x, y) = -4y$$

$$f_x(1, 1) = -2 \qquad f_y(1, 1) = -4$$

The graph of f is the paraboloid $z = 4 - x^2 - 2y^2$ and the vertical plane $y = 1$ intersects it in the parabola $z = 2 - x^2$, $y = 1$. (As in the preceding discussion, we label it C_1 in Figure 2.) The slope of the tangent line to this parabola at the point $(1, 1, 1)$ is $f_x(1, 1) = -2$. (Notice that the tangent line slopes downward in the positive x-direction.) Similarly, the curve C_2 in which the plane $x = 1$ intersects the paraboloid is the parabola $z = 3 - 2y^2$, $x = 1$, and the slope of the tangent line at $(1, 1, 1)$ is $f_y(1, 1) = -4$. (See Figure 3.)

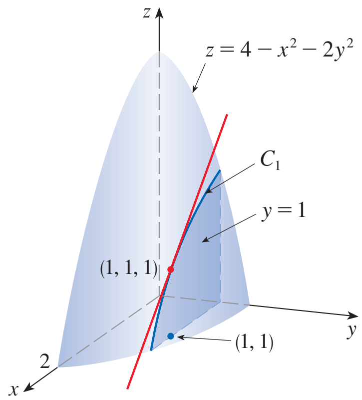


FIGURE 2

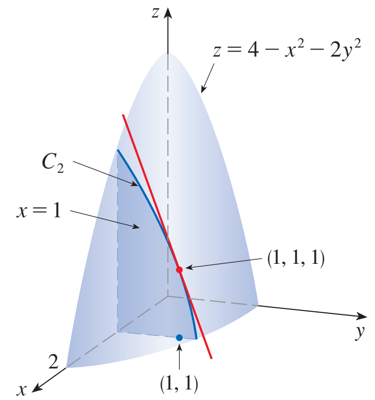


FIGURE 3 ■

As we have seen in the case of the heat index function at the beginning of this section, partial derivatives can also be interpreted as *rates of change*. If $z = f(x, y)$, then $\partial z/\partial x$ represents the rate of change of z with respect to x when y is fixed. Similarly, $\partial z/\partial y$ represents the rate of change of z with respect to y when x is fixed.

EXAMPLE 4 In Exercise 14.1.39 we defined the body mass index (BMI) of a person as

$$B(m, h) = \frac{m}{h^2}$$

Calculate the partial derivatives of B for a young man with $m = 64$ kg and $h = 1.68$ m and interpret them.

SOLUTION Regarding h as a constant, we see that the partial derivative with respect to m is

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial m}(m, h) = \frac{\partial}{\partial m}\left(\frac{m}{h^2}\right) = \frac{1}{h^2}$$

so
$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial m}(64, 1.68) = \frac{1}{(1.68)^2} \approx 0.35\ (\text{kg/m}^2)/\text{kg}$$

This is the rate at which the man's BMI increases with respect to his weight when he weighs 64 kg and his height is 1.68 m. So if his weight increases by a small amount, one kilogram for instance, and his height remains unchanged, then his BMI will increase from $B(64, 1.68) \approx 22.68$ by about 0.35.

Now we regard m as a constant. The partial derivative with respect to h is

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial h}(m, h) = \frac{\partial}{\partial h}\left(\frac{m}{h^2}\right) = m\left(-\frac{2}{h^3}\right) = -\frac{2m}{h^3}$$

so
$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial h}(64, 1.68) = -\frac{2 \cdot 64}{(1.68)^3} \approx -27\ (\text{kg/m}^2)/\text{m}$$

This is the rate at which the man's BMI increases with respect to his height when he weighs 64 kg and his height is 1.68 m. So if the man is still growing and his weight stays unchanged while his height increases by a small amount, say 1 cm, then his BMI will *decrease* by about $27(0.01) = 0.27$. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Find $\partial z/\partial x$ and $\partial z/\partial y$ if z is defined implicitly as a function of x and y by the equation

$$x^3 + y^3 + z^3 + 6xyz + 4 = 0$$

Then evaluate these partial derivatives at the point $(-1, 1, 2)$.

Some software can plot surfaces defined by implicit equations in three variables. Figure 4 shows such a plot of the surface defined by the equation in Example 5.

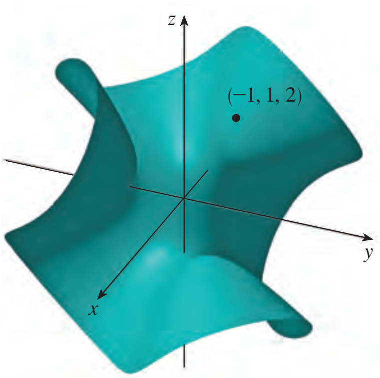


FIGURE 4

SOLUTION To find $\partial z/\partial x$, we differentiate implicitly with respect to x, being careful to treat y as a constant and z as a function (of x):

$$3x^2 + 3z^2\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + 6yz + 6xy\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = 0$$

Solving this equation for $\partial z/\partial x$, we obtain

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -\frac{x^2 + 2yz}{z^2 + 2xy}$$

Similarly, implicit differentiation with respect to y gives

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -\frac{y^2 + 2xz}{z^2 + 2xy}$$

Notice that the point $(-1, 1, 2)$ satisfies the equation $x^3 + y^3 + z^3 + 6xyz + 4 = 0$ so it lies on the surface. At this point

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -\frac{(-1)^2 + 2 \cdot 1 \cdot 2}{2^2 + 2(-1) \cdot 1} = -\frac{5}{2} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -\frac{1^2 + 2(-1) \cdot 2}{2^2 + 2(-1) \cdot 1} = \frac{3}{2}$$ ■

■ Functions of Three or More Variables

Partial derivatives can also be defined for functions of three or more variables. For example, if f is a function of three variables x, y, and z, then its partial derivative with respect to x is defined as

$$f_x(x, y, z) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x + h, y, z) - f(x, y, z)}{h}$$

and it is found by regarding y and z as constants and differentiating $f(x, y, z)$ with respect to x. If $w = f(x, y, z)$, then $f_x = \partial w/\partial x$ can be interpreted as the rate of change of w with respect to x when y and z are held fixed. But we can't interpret it geometrically because the graph of f lies in four-dimensional space.

In general, if u is a function of n variables, $u = f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$, its partial derivative with respect to the ith variable x_i is

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1}, x_i + h, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n) - f(x_1, \ldots, x_i, \ldots, x_n)}{h}$$

and we also write

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = f_{x_i} = f_i = D_i f$$

EXAMPLE 6 Find f_x, f_y, and f_z if $f(x, y, z) = e^{xy}\ln z$.

SOLUTION Holding y and z constant and differentiating with respect to x, we have

$$f_x = ye^{xy}\ln z$$

Similarly,

$$f_y = xe^{xy}\ln z \qquad \text{and} \qquad f_z = \frac{e^{xy}}{z}$$ ■

Higher Derivatives

If f is a function of two variables, then its partial derivatives f_x and f_y are also functions of two variables, so we can consider their partial derivatives $(f_x)_x$, $(f_x)_y$, $(f_y)_x$, and $(f_y)_y$, which are called the **second partial derivatives** of f. If $z = f(x, y)$, we use the following notation:

$$(f_x)_x = f_{xx} = f_{11} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2}$$

$$(f_x)_y = f_{xy} = f_{12} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y\,\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y\,\partial x}$$

$$(f_y)_x = f_{yx} = f_{21} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x\,\partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x\,\partial y}$$

$$(f_y)_y = f_{yy} = f_{22} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2}$$

Thus the notation f_{xy} (or $\partial^2 f/\partial y\,\partial x$) means that we first differentiate with respect to x and then with respect to y, whereas in computing f_{yx} the order is reversed.

EXAMPLE 7 Find the second partial derivatives of

$$f(x, y) = x^3 + x^2y^3 - 2y^2$$

SOLUTION In Example 1 we found that

$$f_x(x, y) = 3x^2 + 2xy^3 \qquad f_y(x, y) = 3x^2y^2 - 4y$$

Therefore

$$f_{xx} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(3x^2 + 2xy^3) = 6x + 2y^3 \qquad f_{xy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(3x^2 + 2xy^3) = 6xy^2$$

$$f_{yx} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(3x^2y^2 - 4y) = 6xy^2 \qquad f_{yy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(3x^2y^2 - 4y) = 6x^2y - 4 \quad ■$$

Notice that $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$ in Example 7. This is not just a coincidence. It turns out that the mixed partial derivatives f_{xy} and f_{yx} are equal for most functions that one meets in practice. The following theorem, which was discovered by the French mathematician Alexis Clairaut (1713–1765), gives conditions under which we can assert that $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$. The proof is given in Appendix F.

Clairaut

Alexis Clairaut was a child prodigy in mathematics: he read l'Hospital's textbook on calculus when he was 10 and presented a paper on geometry to the French Academy of Sciences when he was 13. At the age of 18, Clairaut published *Recherches sur les courbes à double courbure*, which was the first s stematic treatise on three-dimensional analytic geometry and included the calculus of space curves.

Clairaut's Theorem Suppose f is defined on a disk D that contains the point (a, b). If the functions f_{xy} and f_{yx} are both continuous on D, then

$$f_{xy}(a, b) = f_{yx}(a, b)$$

Partial derivatives of order 3 or higher can also be defined. For instance,

$$f_{xyy} = (f_{xy})_y = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y\,\partial x}\right) = \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial y^2\,\partial x}$$

and using Clairaut's Theorem it can be shown that $f_{xyy} = f_{yxy} = f_{yyx}$ if these functions are continuous.

EXAMPLE 8 Calculate f_{xxyz} if $f(x, y, z) = \sin(3x + yz)$.

SOLUTION

$$f_x = 3\cos(3x + yz)$$

$$f_{xx} = -9\sin(3x + yz)$$

$$f_{xxy} = -9z\cos(3x + yz)$$

$$f_{xxyz} = -9\cos(3x + yz) + 9yz\sin(3x + yz)$$

Partial Differential Equations

Partial derivatives occur in *partial differential equations* that express certain physical laws. For instance, the partial differential equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

is called **Laplace's equation** after Pierre Laplace (1749–1827). Solutions of this equation are called **harmonic functions**; they play a role in problems of heat conduction, fluid flow, and electric potential.

EXAMPLE 9 Show that the function $u(x, y) = e^x \sin y$ is a solution of Laplace's equation.

SOLUTION We first compute the needed second-order partial derivatives:

$$u_x = e^x \sin y \qquad u_y = e^x \cos y$$

$$u_{xx} = e^x \sin y \qquad u_{yy} = -e^x \sin y$$

So

$$u_{xx} + u_{yy} = e^x \sin y - e^x \sin y = 0$$

Therefore u satisfies Laplace's equation.

The **wave equation**

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = a^2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

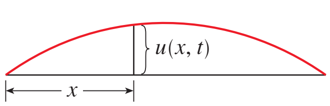


FIGURE 5

describes the motion of a waveform, which could be an ocean wave, a sound wave, a light wave, or a wave traveling along a vibrating string. For instance, if $u(x, t)$ represents the displacement of a vibrating violin string at time t and at a distance x from one end of the string (as in Figure 5), then $u(x, t)$ satisfies the wave equation. Here the constant a depends on the density of the string and on the tension in the string.

EXAMPLE 10 Verify that the function $u(x, t) = \sin(x - at)$ satisfies the wave equation.

SOLUTION

$$u_x = \cos(x - at) \qquad u_t = -a\cos(x - at)$$

$$u_{xx} = -\sin(x - at) \qquad u_{tt} = -a^2\sin(x - at) = a^2 u_{xx}$$

So u satisfies the wave equation.

Partial differential equations involving functions of three variables are also very important in science and engineering. The three-dimensional Laplace equation is

$$\boxed{5} \qquad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

and one application is in geophysics. If $u(x, y, z)$ represents magnetic field strength at position (x, y, z), then it satisfies Equation 5. The strength of the magnetic field indicates the distribution of iron-rich minerals and reflects different rock types and the location of faults.

14.3 Exercises

1. At the beginning of this section we discussed the function $I = f(T, H)$, where I is the heat index, T is the actual temperature, and H is the relative humidity. Use Table 1 to estimate $f_T(34, 75)$ and $f_H(34, 75)$. What are the practical interpretations of these values?

2. The wave heights h in the open sea depend on the speed v of the wind and the length of time t that the wind has been blowing at that speed. Values of the function $h = f(v, t)$ are recorded in feet in the following table.

Duration (hours)

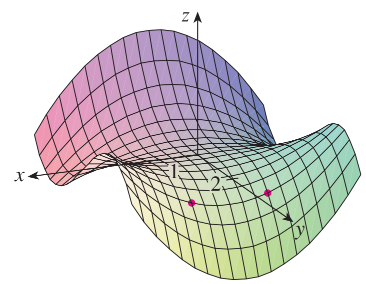
Wind speed (km/h): v \ t	5	10	15	20	30	40	50
20	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
30	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6
40	1.5	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.8	2.8
60	2.8	4.0	4.9	5.2	5.5	5.8	5.9
80	4.3	6.4	7.7	8.6	9.5	10.1	10.2
100	5.8	8.9	11.0	12.2	13.8	14.7	15.3
120	7.4	11.3	14.4	16.6	19.0	20.5	21.1

(a) What are the meanings of the partial derivatives $\partial h/\partial v$ and $\partial h/\partial t$?
(b) Estimate the values of $f_v(40, 15)$ and $f_t(40, 15)$. What are the practical interpretations of these values?
(c) What appears to be the value of the following limit?

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{\partial h}{\partial t}$$

3. The temperature T (in °C) at a location in the Northern Hemisphere depends on the longitude x, latitude y, and time t, so we can write $T = f(x, y, t)$. Let's measure time in hours from the beginning of January.
(a) What are the meanings of the partial derivatives $\partial T/\partial x$, $\partial T/\partial y$, and $\partial T/\partial t$?
(b) Honolulu has longitude 158°W and latitude 21°N. Suppose that at 9:00 AM on January 1 the wind is blowing hot air to the northeast, so the air to the west and south is warm and the air to the north and east is cooler. Would you expect $f_x(158, 21, 9)$, $f_y(158, 21, 9)$, and $f_t(158, 21, 9)$ to be positive or negative? Explain.

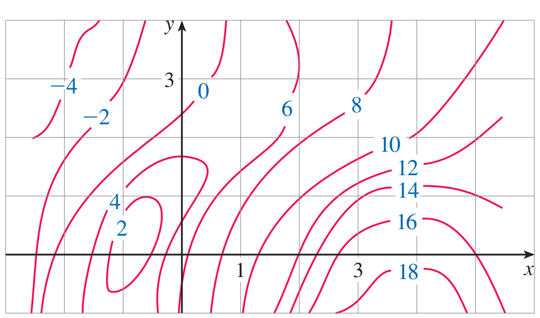
4–5 Determine the signs of the partial derivatives for the function f whose graph is shown.



4. (a) $f_x(1, 2)$ (b) $f_y(1, 2)$

5. (a) $f_x(-1, 2)$ (b) $f_y(-1, 2)$

6. A contour map is given for a function f. Use it to estimate $f_x(2, 1)$ and $f_y(2, 1)$.



7. If $f(x, y) = 16 - 4x^2 - y^2$, find $f_x(1, 2)$ and $f_y(1, 2)$ and interpret these numbers as slopes. Illustrate with either hand-drawn sketches or computer plots.

8. If $f(x, y) = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - 4y^2}$, find $f_x(1, 0)$ and $f_y(1, 0)$ and interpret these numbers as slopes. Illustrate with either hand-drawn sketches or computer plots.

9–36 Find the first partial derivatives of the function.

9. $f(x, y) = x^4 + 5xy^3$

10. $f(x, y) = x^2y - 3y^4$

11. $g(x, y) = x^3 \sin y$

12. $g(x, t) = e^{xt}$

13. $z = \ln(x + t^2)$

14. $w = \dfrac{u}{v^2}$

15. $f(x, y) = ye^{xy}$

16. $g(x, y) = (x^2 + xy)^3$

17. $g(x, y) = y(x + x^2y)^5$

18. $f(x, y) = \dfrac{x}{(x + y)^2}$

19. $f(x, y) = \dfrac{ax + by}{cx + dy}$

20. $w = \dfrac{e^v}{u + v^2}$

21. $g(u, v) = (u^2v - v^3)^5$

22. $u(r, \theta) = \sin(r \cos\theta)$

23. $R(p, q) = \tan^{-1}(pq^2)$

24. $f(x, y) = x^y$

25. $F(x, y) = \displaystyle\int_y^x \cos(e^t)\, dt$

26. $F(\alpha, \beta) = \displaystyle\int_\alpha^\beta \sqrt{t^3 + 1}\, dt$

27. $f(x, y, z) = x^3yz^2 + 2yz$

28. $f(x, y, z) = xy^2e^{-xz}$

29. $w = \ln(x + 2y + 3z)$

30. $w = y \tan(x + 2z)$

31. $p = \sqrt{t^4 + u^2 \cos v}$

32. $u = x^{y/z}$

33. $h(x, y, z, t) = x^2y \cos(z/t)$

34. $\phi(x, y, z, t) = \dfrac{\alpha x + \beta y^2}{\gamma z + \delta t^2}$

35. $u = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}$

36. $u = \sin(x_1 + 2x_2 + \cdots + nx_n)$

37–40 Find the indicated partial derivative.

37. $R(s, t) = te^{s/t}$; $R_t(0, 1)$

38. $f(x, y) = y \sin^{-1}(xy)$; $f_y\left(1, \frac{1}{2}\right)$

39. $f(x, y, z) = \ln \dfrac{1 - \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}{1 + \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$; $f_y(1, 2, 2)$

40. $f(x, y, z) = x^{yz}$; $f_z(e, 1, 0)$

41–44 Use implicit differentiation to find $\partial z/\partial x$ and $\partial z/\partial y$.

41. $x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2 = 1$

42. $x^2 - y^2 + z^2 - 2z = 4$

43. $e^z = xyz$

44. $yz + x \ln y = z^2$

45–46 Find $\partial z/\partial x$ and $\partial z/\partial y$.

45. (a) $z = f(x) + g(y)$ (b) $z = f(x + y)$

46. (a) $z = f(x)g(y)$ (b) $z = f(xy)$
(c) $z = f(x/y)$

47–52 Find all the second partial derivatives.

47. $f(x, y) = x^4y - 2x^3y^2$

48. $f(x, y) = \ln(ax + by)$

49. $z = \dfrac{y}{2x + 3y}$

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

51. $v = \sin(s^2 - t^2)$

52. $z = \arctan \dfrac{x + y}{1 - xy}$

53–56 Verify that the conclusion of Clairaut's Theorem holds, that is, $u_{xy} = u_{yx}$.

53. $u = x^4y^3 - y^4$

54. $u = e^{xy} \sin y$

55. $u = \cos(x^2y)$

56. $u = \ln(x + 2y)$

57–64 Find the indicated partial derivative(s).

57. $f(x, y) = x^4y^2 - x^3y$; f_{xxx}, f_{xyx}

58. $f(x, y) = \sin(2x + 5y)$; f_{yxy}

59. $f(x, y, z) = e^{xyz^2}$; f_{xyz}

60. $g(r, s, t) = e^r \sin(st)$; g_{rst}

61. $W = \sqrt{u + v^2}$; $\dfrac{\partial^3 W}{\partial u^2\, \partial v}$

62. $V = \ln(r + s^2 + t^3)$; $\dfrac{\partial^3 V}{\partial r\, \partial s\, \partial t}$

63. $w = \dfrac{x}{y + 2z}$; $\dfrac{\partial^3 w}{\partial z\, \partial y\, \partial x}$, $\dfrac{\partial^3 w}{\partial x^2\, \partial y}$

64. $u = x^a y^b z^c$; $\dfrac{\partial^6 u}{\partial x\, \partial y^2\, \partial z^3}$

65–66 Use Definition 4 to find $f_x(x, y)$ and $f_y(x, y)$.

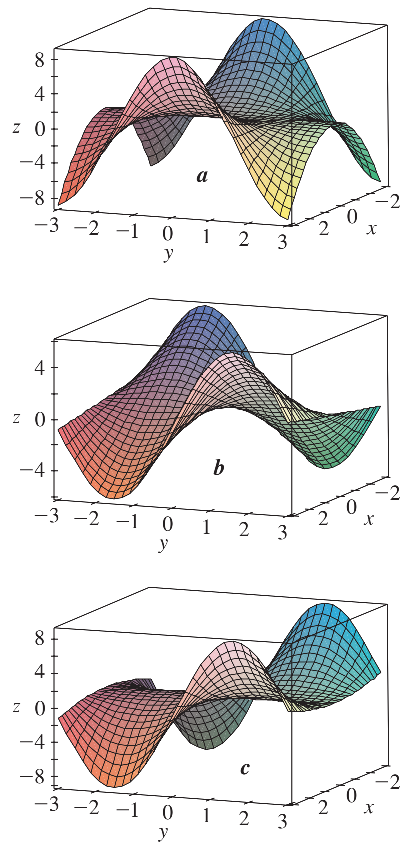
65. $f(x, y) = xy^2 - x^3y$

66. $f(x, y) = \dfrac{x}{x + y^2}$

67. If $f(x, y, z) = xy^2z^3 + \arcsin\left(x\sqrt{z}\right)$, find f_{xzy}. [*Hint:* Which order of differentiation is easiest?]

68. If $g(x, y, z) = \sqrt{1 + xz} + \sqrt{1 - xy}$, find g_{xyz}. [*Hint:* Use a different order of differentiation for each term.]

69. The following surfaces, labeled a, b, and c, are graphs of a function f and its partial derivatives f_x and f_y. Identify each surface and give reasons for your choices.



70–71 Find f_x and f_y and graph f, f_x, and f_y with domains and viewpoints that enable you to see the relationships between them.

70. $f(x, y) = \dfrac{y}{1 + x^2y^2}$ **71.** $f(x, y) = x^2y^3$

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72. Determine the signs of the partial derivatives for the function f whose graph is shown in Exercises 4–5.

(a) $f_{xx}(-1, 2)$ (b) $f_{yy}(-1, 2)$

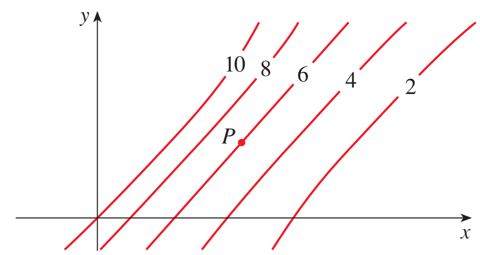
(c) $f_{xy}(1, 2)$ (d) $f_{xy}(-1, 2)$

73. Use the table of values of $f(x, y)$ to estimate the values of $f_x(3, 2)$, $f_x(3, 2.2)$, and $f_{xy}(3, 2)$.

x \ y	1.8	2.0	2.2
2.5	12.5	10.2	9.3
3.0	18.1	17.5	15.9
3.5	20.0	22.4	26.1

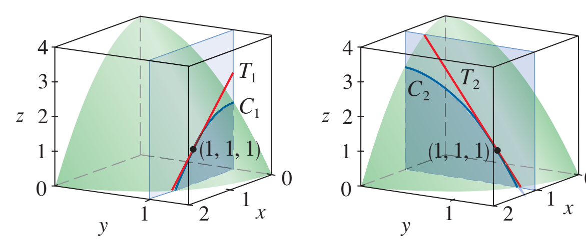
74. Level curves are shown for a function f. Determine whether the following partial derivatives are positive or negative at the point P.

(a) f_x (b) f_y (c) f_{xx} (d) f_{xy} (e) f_{yy}



75. (a) In Example 3 we found that $f_x(1, 1) = -2$ for the function $f(x, y) = 4 - x^2 - 2y^2$. We interpreted this result geometrically as the slope of the tangent line to the curve C_1 at the point $P(1, 1, 1)$, where C_1 is the trace of the graph of f in the plane $y = 1$. (See the figure.) Verify this interpretation by finding a vector equation for C_1, computing the tangent vector to C_1 at P, and then finding the slope of the tangent line to C_1 at P in the plane $y = 1$.

(b) Use a similar method to verify that $f_y(1, 1) = -4$.



76. If $u = e^{a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n}$, where $a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \cdots + a_n^2 = 1$, show that

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_2^2} + \cdots + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_n^2} = u$$

77. Show that the function $u = u(x, t)$ is a solution of the wave equation $u_{tt} = a^2u_{xx}$.

(a) $u = \sin(kx)\sin(akt)$

(b) $u = t/(a^2t^2 - x^2)$

(c) $u = (x - at)^6 + (x + at)^6$

(d) $u = \sin(x - at) + \ln(x + at)$

78. Determine whether each of the following functions is a solution of Laplace's equation $u_{xx} + u_{yy} = 0$.

(a) $u = x^2 + y^2$ (b) $u = x^2 - y^2$

(c) $u = x^3 + 3xy^2$ (d) $u = \ln\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

(e) $u = \sin x \cosh y + \cos x \sinh y$

(f) $u = e^{-x}\cos y - e^{-y}\cos x$

79. Verify that the function $u = 1/\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ is a solution of the three-dimensional Laplace equation $u_{xx} + u_{yy} + u_{zz} = 0$.

80. The Heat Equation Verify that the function $u = e^{-\alpha^2 k^2 t} \sin kx$ is a solution of the *heat conduction equation* $u_t = \alpha^2 u_{xx}$.

81. The Diffusion Equation The *diffusion equation*

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 c}{\partial x^2}$$

where D is a positive constant, describes the diffusion of heat through a solid, or the concentration of a pollutant at time t at a distance x from the source of the pollution, or the invasion of alien species into a new habitat. Verify that the function

$$c(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi D t}} e^{-x^2/(4Dt)}$$

is a solution of the diffusion equation.

82. The temperature at a point (x, y) on a flat metal plate is given by $T(x, y) = 60/(1 + x^2 + y^2)$, where T is measured in °C and x, y in meters. Find the rate of change of temperature with respect to distance at the point $(2, 1)$ in (a) the x-direction and (b) the y-direction.

83. The total resistance R produced by three conductors with resistances R_1, R_2, R_3 connected in a parallel electrical circuit is given by the formula

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}$$

Find $\partial R/\partial R_1$.

84. Ideal Gas Law The gas law for a fixed mass m of an ideal gas at absolute temperature T, pressure P, and volume V is $PV = mRT$, where R is the gas constant.

(a) Show that $\dfrac{\partial P}{\partial V} \dfrac{\partial V}{\partial T} \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial P} = -1$.

(b) Show that $T \dfrac{\partial P}{\partial T} \dfrac{\partial V}{\partial T} = mR$.

85. Van der Waals Equation The *Van der Waals equation* for n moles of a gas is

$$\left(P + \frac{n^2 a}{V^2}\right)(V - nb) = nRT$$

where P is the pressure, V is the volume, and T is the temperature of the gas. The constant R is the universal gas constant and a and b are positive constants that are characteristic of a particular gas. Calculate $\partial T/\partial P$ and $\partial P/\partial V$.

86. The wind-chill index is modeled by the function

$$W = 13.12 + 0.6215T - 11.37v^{0.16} + 0.3965Tv^{0.16}$$

where T is the temperature (°C) and v is the wind speed (in km/h). When $T = -15$°C and $v = 30$ km/h, by how much would you expect the apparent temperature W to drop if the actual temperature decreases by 1°C? What if the wind speed increases by 1 km/h?

87. A model for the surface area of a human body is given by the function

$$S = f(w, h) = 0.0072w^{0.425}h^{0.725}$$

where w is the weight (in kilograms), h is the height (in centimeters), and S is measured in square meters. Calculate and interpret the partial derivatives.

(a) $\dfrac{\partial S}{\partial w}(73, 178)$ (b) $\dfrac{\partial S}{\partial h}(73, 178)$

88. One of Poiseuille's laws states that the resistance of blood flowing through an artery is

$$R = C\frac{L}{r^4}$$

where L and r are the length and radius of the artery and C is a positive constant determined by the viscosity of the blood. Calculate $\partial R/\partial L$ and $\partial R/\partial r$ and interpret them.

89. In the project following Section 4.7 we expressed the power needed by a bird during its flapping mode as

$$P(v, x, m) = Av^3 + \frac{B(mg/x)^2}{v}$$

where A and B are constants specific to a species of bird, v is the velocity of the bird, m is the mass of the bird, and x is the fraction of the flying time spent in flapping mode. Calculate $\partial P/\partial v$, $\partial P/\partial x$, and $\partial P/\partial m$ and interpret them.

90. In a study of frost penetration it was found that the temperature T at time t (measured in days) at a depth x (measured in meters) can be modeled by the function

$$T(x, t) = T_0 + T_1 e^{-\lambda x} \sin(\omega t - \lambda x)$$

where $\omega = 2\pi/365$ and λ is a positive constant.

(a) Find $\partial T/\partial x$. What is its physical significance?
(b) Find $\partial T/\partial t$. What is its physical significance?
(c) Show that T satisfies the heat equation $T_t = kT_{xx}$ for a certain constant k.
(d) Graph $T(x, t)$ for $\lambda = 0.2$, $T_0 = 0$, and $T_1 = 10$.
(e) What is the physical significance of the term $-\lambda x$ in the expression $\sin(\omega t - \lambda x)$?

91. The kinetic energy of a body with mass m and velocity v is $K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$. Show that

$$\frac{\partial K}{\partial m} \frac{\partial^2 K}{\partial v^2} = K$$

92. The average energy E (in kcal) needed for a lizard to walk or run a distance of 1 km has been modeled by the equation

$$E(m, v) = 2.65m^{0.66} + \frac{3.5m^{0.75}}{v}$$

where m is the body mass of the lizard (in grams) and v is its speed (in km/h). Calculate $E_m(400, 8)$ and $E_v(400, 8)$ and interpret your answers.

Source: C. Robbins, *Wildlife Feeding and Nutrition*, 2d ed. (San Diego: Academic Press, 1993).

93. The ellipsoid $4x^2 + 2y^2 + z^2 = 16$ intersects the plane $y = 2$ in an ellipse. Find parametric equations for the tangent line to this ellipse at the point $(1, 2, 2)$.

94. The paraboloid $z = 6 - x - x^2 - 2y^2$ intersects the plane $x = 1$ in a parabola. Find parametric equations for the tangent line to this parabola at the point $(1, 2, -4)$. Use a computer to graph the paraboloid, the parabola, and the tangent line on the same screen.

95. You are told that there is a function f whose partial derivatives are $f_x(x, y) = x + 4y$ and $f_y(x, y) = 3x - y$. Should you believe it?

96. If a, b, c are the sides of a triangle and A, B, C are the opposite angles, find $\partial A/\partial a$, $\partial A/\partial b$, $\partial A/\partial c$ by implicit differentiation of the Law of Cosines.

97. Use Clairaut's Theorem to show that if the third-order partial derivatives of f are continuous, then

$$f_{xyy} = f_{yxy} = f_{yyx}$$

98. (a) How many nth-order partial derivatives does a function of two variables have?

(b) If these partial derivatives are all continuous, how many of them can be distinct?

(c) Answer the question in part (a) for a function of three variables.

99. If

$$f(x, y) = x(x^2 + y^2)^{-3/2} e^{\sin(x^2 y)}$$

find $f_x(1, 0)$. [*Hint:* Instead of finding $f_x(x, y)$ first, note that it's easier to use Equation 1 or Equation 2.]

100. If $f(x, y) = \sqrt[3]{x^3 + y^3}$, find $f_x(0, 0)$.

101. Let

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \dfrac{x^3 y - xy^3}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

(a) Graph f.

(b) Find $f_x(x, y)$ and $f_y(x, y)$ when $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$.

(c) Find $f_x(0, 0)$ and $f_y(0, 0)$ using Equations 2 and 3.

(d) Show that $f_{xy}(0, 0) = -1$ and $f_{yx}(0, 0) = 1$.

(e) Does the result of part (d) contradict Clairaut's Theorem? Use graphs of f_{xy} and f_{yx} to illustrate your answer.

DISCOVERY PROJECT | DERIVING THE COBB-DOUGLAS PRODUCTION FUNCTION

In Example 14.1.4 we described the work of Cobb and Douglas in modeling the total production P of an economic system as a function of the amount of labor L and the capital investment K. If the production function is denoted by $P = P(L, K)$, then $\partial P/\partial L$, the rate at which production changes with respect to the amount of labor, is called the **marginal productivity of labor**. Similarly, $\partial P/\partial K$ is the **marginal productivity of capital**.

Here we use these partial derivatives to show how the particular form of the model used by Cobb and Douglas follows from the following assumptions they made about the economy.

(i) If either labor or capital vanishes, then so will production.

(ii) The marginal productivity of labor is proportional to the amount of production per unit of labor (P/L).

(iii) The marginal productivity of capital is proportional to the amount of production per unit of capital (P/K).

1. Assumption (ii) says that

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial L} = \alpha \frac{P}{L}$$

for some constant α. If K is held constant $(K = K_0)$, then this partial differential equation becomes the ordinary differential equation

$$\frac{dP}{dL} = \alpha \frac{P}{L}$$

Solve this separable differential equation by the methods of Section 9.3 to get $P(L, K_0) = C_1(K_0)\, L^{\alpha}$, where the constant C_1 is written as $C_1(K_0)$ because it could depend on the value of K_0.

(continued)

2. Similarly, show that assumption (iii) implies that if L is held constant ($L = L_0$), then $P(L_0, K) = C_2(L_0)K^\beta$.

3. Comparing the results of Problems 1 and 2, conclude that

$$P(L, K) = bL^\alpha K^\beta$$

where b is a constant that is independent of both L and K. Cobb and Douglas assumed that $\alpha + \beta = 1$, so that

$$P(L, K) = bL^\alpha K^{1-\alpha}$$

In this case, if labor and capital are both increased by a factor m, then by what factor is production increased?

4. Show that $P(L, K) = bL^\alpha K^{1-\alpha}$ satisfies the partial differential equation

$$L\,\frac{\partial P}{\partial L} + K\,\frac{\partial P}{\partial K} = P$$

5. Cobb and Douglas used the function $P(L, K) = 1.01L^{0.75}K^{0.25}$ to model the American economy from 1899 to 1922. Find the marginal productivity of labor and the marginal productivity of capital in the year 1920, when $L = 194$ and $K = 407$, and interpret the results. In that year, which would have benefited production more, an increase in capital investment or an increase in spending on labor?

14.4 Tangent Planes and Linear Approximations

One of the most important ideas in single-variable calculus is that as we zoom in toward a point on the graph of a differentiable function, the graph becomes indistinguishable from its tangent line and we can approximate the function by a linear function. (See Section 3.10.) Here we develop similar ideas in three dimensions. As we zoom in toward a point on a surface that is the graph of a differentiable function of two variables, the surface looks more and more like a plane (its tangent plane) and we can approximate the function by a linear function of two variables. We also extend the idea of a differential to functions of two or more variables.

Tangent Planes

Suppose a surface S has equation $z = f(x, y)$, where f has continuous first partial derivatives, and let $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ be a point on S. As in Section 14.3, let C_1 and C_2 be the curves obtained by intersecting the vertical planes $y = y_0$ and $x = x_0$ with the surface S. Then the point P lies on both C_1 and C_2. Let T_1 and T_2 be the tangent lines to the curves C_1 and C_2 at the point P. Then the **tangent plane** to the surface S at the point P is defined to be the plane that contains both tangent lines T_1 and T_2. (See Figure 1.)

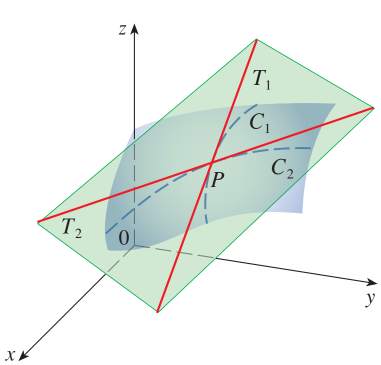


FIGURE 1
The tangent plane contains the tangent lines T_1 and T_2.

We will see in Section 14.6 that if C is any other curve that lies on the surface S and passes through P, then its tangent line at P also lies in the tangent plane. Therefore you can think of the tangent plane to S at P as consisting of all possible tangent lines at P to curves that lie on S and pass through P. The tangent plane at P is the plane that most closely approximates the surface S near the point P.

We know from Equation 12.5.7 that any plane passing through the point $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ has an equation of the form

$$A(x - x_0) + B(y - y_0) + C(z - z_0) = 0$$

By dividing this equation by C and letting $a = -A/C$ and $b = -B/C$, we can write it in the form

$$\boxed{1} \qquad z - z_0 = a(x - x_0) + b(y - y_0)$$

If Equation 1 represents the tangent plane at P, then its intersection with the plane $y = y_0$ must be the tangent line T_1. Setting $y = y_0$ in Equation 1 gives

$$z - z_0 = a(x - x_0) \qquad \text{where } y = y_0$$

and we recognize this as the equation (in point-slope form) of a line with slope a. But from Section 14.3 we know that the slope of the tangent T_1 is $f_x(x_0, y_0)$. Therefore $a = f_x(x_0, y_0)$.

Similarly, putting $x = x_0$ in Equation 1, we get $z - z_0 = b(y - y_0)$, which must represent the tangent line T_2, so $b = f_y(x_0, y_0)$.

Note the similarity between the equation of a tangent plane and the equation of a tangent line:

$$y - y_0 = f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

2 Equation of a Tangent Plane Suppose f has continuous partial derivatives. An equation of the tangent plane to the surface $z = f(x, y)$ at the point $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ is

$$z - z_0 = f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

EXAMPLE 1 Find the tangent plane to the elliptic paraboloid $z = 2x^2 + y^2$ at the point $(1, 1, 3)$.

SOLUTION Let $f(x, y) = 2x^2 + y^2$. Then

$$f_x(x, y) = 4x \qquad f_y(x, y) = 2y$$

$$f_x(1, 1) = 4 \qquad f_y(1, 1) = 2$$

Then (2) gives the equation of the tangent plane at $(1, 1, 3)$ as

$$z - 3 = 4(x - 1) + 2(y - 1)$$

or

$$z = 4x + 2y - 3$$

■

Figure 2(a) shows the elliptic paraboloid and its tangent plane at $(1, 1, 3)$ that we found in Example 1. In parts (b) and (c) we zoom in toward the point $(1, 1, 3)$. Notice that the more we zoom in, the flatter the graph appears and the more it resembles its tangent plane.

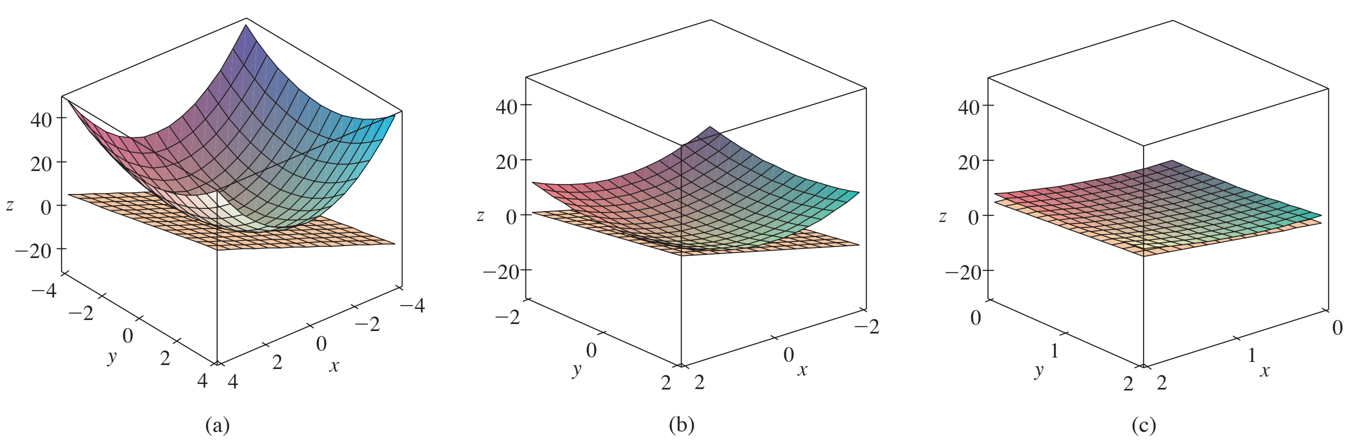


FIGURE 2 The elliptic paraboloid $z = 2x^2 + y^2$ appears to coincide with its tangent plane as we zoom in toward $(1, 1, 3)$.

In Figure 3 we corroborate this impression by zooming in toward the point $(1, 1)$ on a contour map of the function $f(x, y) = 2x^2 + y^2$. Notice that the more we zoom in, the more the level curves look like equally spaced parallel lines, which is characteristic of a plane.

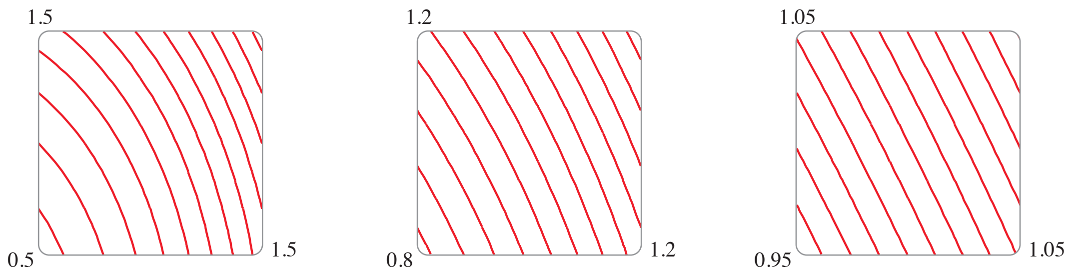


FIGURE 3
Zooming in toward $(1, 1)$ on a contour map of $f(x, y) = 2x^2 + y^2$

Linear Approximations

In Example 1 we found that an equation of the tangent plane to the graph of the function $f(x, y) = 2x^2 + y^2$ at the point $(1, 1, 3)$ is $z = 4x + 2y - 3$. Therefore, in view of the visual evidence in Figures 2 and 3, the linear function of two variables

$$L(x, y) = 4x + 2y - 3$$

is a good approximation to $f(x, y)$ when (x, y) is near $(1, 1)$. The function L is called the *linearization* of f at $(1, 1)$ and the approximation

$$f(x, y) \approx 4x + 2y - 3$$

is called the *linear approximation* or *tangent plane approximation* of f at $(1, 1)$.

For instance, at the point $(1.1, 0.95)$ the linear approximation gives

$$f(1.1, 0.95) \approx 4(1.1) + 2(0.95) - 3 = 3.3$$

which is quite close to the true value of $f(1.1, 0.95) = 2(1.1)^2 + (0.95)^2 = 3.3225$. But if we take a point farther away from $(1, 1)$, such as $(2, 3)$, we no longer get a good approximation. In fact, $L(2, 3) = 11$ whereas $f(2, 3) = 17$.

In general, we know from (2) that an equation of the tangent plane to the graph of a function f of two variables at the point $(a, b, f(a, b))$ is

$$z = f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b)$$

The linear function whose graph is this tangent plane, namely

3 $$\boxed{L(x, y) = f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b)}$$

is called the **linearization** of f at (a, b) and the approximation

4 $$\boxed{f(x, y) \approx f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b)}$$

is called the **linear approximation** or the **tangent plane approximation** of f at (a, b).

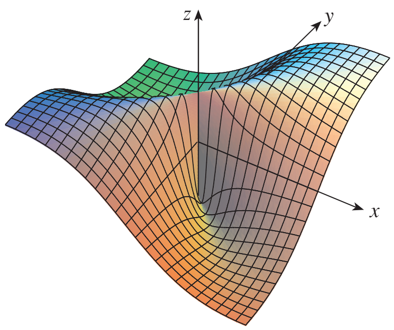


FIGURE 4
$f(x, y) = \dfrac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$ if $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$,
$f(0, 0) = 0$

We have defined tangent planes for surfaces $z = f(x, y)$, where f has continuous first partial derivatives. What happens if f_x and f_y are not continuous? Figure 4 pictures such a function; its equation is

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \dfrac{xy}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

You can verify (see Exercise 54) that its partial derivatives exist at the origin and, in fact, $f_x(0, 0) = 0$ and $f_y(0, 0) = 0$, but f_x and f_y are not continuous. The linear approximation would be $f(x, y) \approx 0$, but $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}$ at all points on the line $y = x$. So a function of two variables can behave badly even though both of its partial derivatives exist. To rule out such behavior, we formulate the idea of a differentiable function of two variables.

Recall that for a function of one variable, $y = f(x)$, if x changes from a to $a + \Delta x$, we defined the increment of y as

$$\Delta y = f(a + \Delta x) - f(a)$$

In Chapter 3 we showed that if f is differentiable at a, then

This is Equation 3.4.7.

5 $$\Delta y = f'(a)\,\Delta x + \varepsilon\,\Delta x \qquad \text{where } \varepsilon \to 0 \text{ as } \Delta x \to 0$$

Now consider a function of two variables, $z = f(x, y)$, and suppose x changes from a to $a + \Delta x$ and y changes from b to $b + \Delta y$. Then the corresponding **increment** of z is

6 $$\Delta z = f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) - f(a, b)$$

Thus the increment Δz represents the change in the value of f when (x, y) changes from (a, b) to $(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y)$. By analogy with (5) we define the differentiability of a function of two variables as follows.

7 Definitio If $z = f(x, y)$, then f is **differentiable** at (a, b) if Δz can be expressed in the form

$$\Delta z = f_x(a, b)\,\Delta x + f_y(a, b)\,\Delta y + \varepsilon_1\,\Delta x + \varepsilon_2\,\Delta y$$

where ε_1 and ε_2 are functions of Δx and Δy such that ε_1 and $\varepsilon_2 \to 0$ as $(\Delta x, \Delta y) \to (0, 0)$.

Definition 7 says that a differentiable function is one for which the linear approximation (4) is a good approximation when (x, y) is near (a, b). In other words, the tangent plane approximates the graph of f well near the point of tangency.

It's sometimes hard to use Definition 7 directly to check the differentiability of a function, but the next theorem provides a convenient sufficient condition for differentiability.

Theorem 8 is proved in Appendix F.

8 Theorem If the partial derivatives f_x and f_y exist near (a, b) and are continuous at (a, b), then f is differentiable at (a, b).

EXAMPLE 2 Show that $f(x, y) = xe^{xy}$ is differentiable at $(1, 0)$ and find its linearization there. Then use it to approximate $f(1.1, -0.1)$.

Figure 5 shows the graphs of the function f and its linearization L in Example 2.

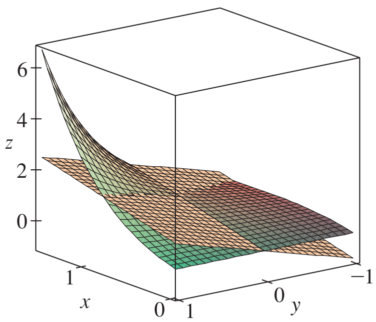


FIGURE 5

SOLUTION The partial derivatives are

$$f_x(x, y) = e^{xy} + xye^{xy} \qquad f_y(x, y) = x^2e^{xy}$$
$$f_x(1, 0) = 1 \qquad f_y(1, 0) = 1$$

Both f_x and f_y are continuous functions, so f is differentiable by Theorem 8. The linearization is

$$\begin{aligned} L(x, y) &= f(1, 0) + f_x(1, 0)(x - 1) + f_y(1, 0)(y - 0) \\ &= 1 + 1(x - 1) + 1 \cdot y = x + y \end{aligned}$$

The corresponding linear approximation is

$$xe^{xy} \approx x + y$$

so $$f(1.1, -0.1) \approx 1.1 - 0.1 = 1$$

Compare this with the actual value of $f(1.1, -0.1) = 1.1e^{-0.11} \approx 0.98542$. ■

EXAMPLE 3 At the beginning of Section 14.3 we discussed the heat index (perceived temperature) I as a function of the actual temperature T and the relative humidity H and gave the following table of values from the National Weather Service.

Relative humidity (%)

Actual temperature (°C)

T \ H	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75	80
26	28	28	29	31	31	32	33	34	35
28	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39
30	34	35	36	37	38	40	41	42	43
32	37	38	39	41	42	43	45	46	47
34	41	42	43	45	47	48	49	51	52
36	43	45	47	48	50	51	53	54	56

Find a linear approximation for the heat index $I = f(T, H)$ when T is near 30°C and H is near 60%. Use it to estimate the heat index when the actual temperature is 31°C and the relative humidity is 62%.

SOLUTION We read from the table that $f(30, 60) = 38$. At the beginning of Section 14.3 we used the tabular values to estimate that $f_T(30, 60) \approx 1.75$ and $f_H(30, 60) \approx 0.3$. So the linear approximation is

$$\begin{aligned} f(T, H) &\approx f(30, 60) + f_T(30, 60)(T - 30) + f_H(30, 60)(H - 60) \\ &\approx 38 + 1.75(T - 30) + 0.3(H - 60) \end{aligned}$$

In particular,

$$f(31, 62) \approx 38 + 1.75(1) + 0.3(2) = 40.35$$

Therefore, when $T = 31$°C and $H = 62$%, the heat index is

$$I \approx 40.4°\text{C}$$ ■

Differentials

For a differentiable function of one variable, $y = f(x)$, we define the differential dx to be an independent variable; that is, dx can be given the value of any real number. The differential of y is then defined as

$$dy = f'(x)\,dx \tag{9}$$

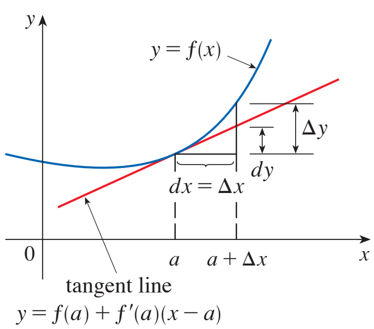


FIGURE 6

(See Section 3.10.) Figure 6 shows the relationship between the increment Δy and the differential dy: Δy represents the change in height of the curve $y = f(x)$ and dy represents the change in height of the tangent line when x changes by an amount $dx = \Delta x$.

For a differentiable function of two variables, $z = f(x, y)$, we define the **differentials** dx and dy to be independent variables; that is, they can be given any values. Then the **differential** dz, also called the **total differential**, is defined by

$$\boxed{dz = f_x(x, y)\,dx + f_y(x, y)\,dy = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\,dx + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\,dy} \tag{10}$$

(Compare with Equation 9.) Sometimes the notation df is used in place of dz.

If we take $dx = \Delta x = x - a$ and $dy = \Delta y = y - b$ in Equation 10, then the differential of z is

$$dz = f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b)$$

So, in the notation of differentials, the linear approximation (4) can be written as

$$f(x, y) \approx f(a, b) + dz$$

Figure 7 is the three-dimensional counterpart of Figure 6 and shows the geometric interpretation of the differential dz and the increment Δz: dz represents the change in height of the tangent plane, whereas Δz represents the change in height of the surface $z = f(x, y)$ when (x, y) changes from (a, b) to $(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y)$.

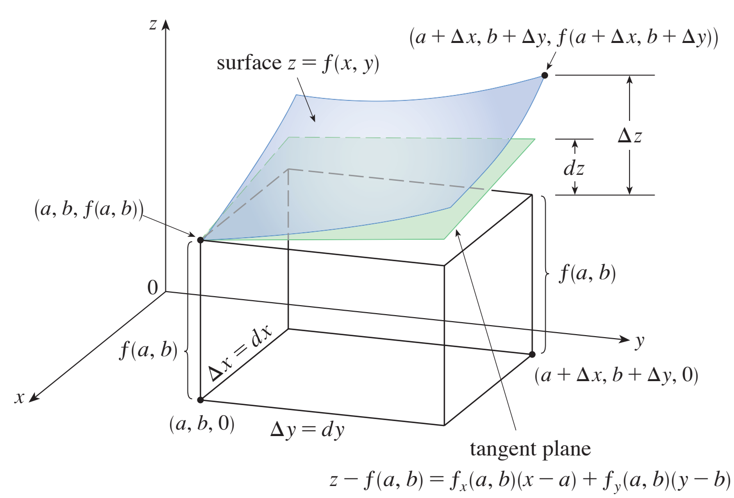


FIGURE 7

EXAMPLE 4

(a) If $z = f(x, y) = x^2 + 3xy - y^2$, find the differential dz.
(b) If x changes from 2 to 2.05 and y changes from 3 to 2.96, compare the values of Δz and dz.

In Example 4, dz is close to Δz because the tangent plane is a good approximation to the surface $z = x^2 + 3xy - y^2$ near $(2, 3, 13)$. (See Figure 8.)

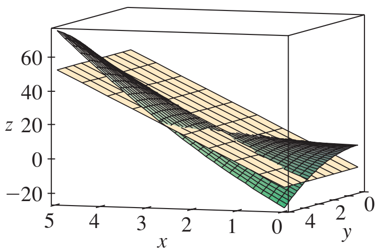


FIGURE 8

SOLUTION
(a) Definition 10 gives

$$dz = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\,dx + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\,dy = (2x + 3y)\,dx + (3x - 2y)\,dy$$

(b) Putting $x = 2$, $dx = \Delta x = 0.05$, $y = 3$, and $dy = \Delta y = -0.04$, we get

$$dz = [2(2) + 3(3)]0.05 + [3(2) - 2(3)](-0.04) = 0.65$$

The increment of z is

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta z &= f(2.05, 2.96) - f(2, 3)\\ &= [(2.05)^2 + 3(2.05)(2.96) - (2.96)^2] - [2^2 + 3(2)(3) - 3^2]\\ &= 0.6449\end{aligned}$$

Notice that $\Delta z \approx dz$ but dz is easier to compute. ■

EXAMPLE 5 The base radius and height of a right circular cone are measured as 10 cm and 25 cm, respectively, with a possible error in measurement of as much as ε cm in each.
(a) Use differentials to estimate the maximum error in the calculated volume of the cone.
(b) What is the estimated maximum error in volume if the radius and height are measured with errors up to 0.1 cm?

SOLUTION
(a) The volume V of a cone with base radius r and height h is $V = \pi r^2 h/3$. So the differential of V is

$$dV = \frac{\partial V}{\partial r}\,dr + \frac{\partial V}{\partial h}\,dh = \frac{2\pi rh}{3}\,dr + \frac{\pi r^2}{3}\,dh$$

Since each error is at most ε cm, we have $|\Delta r| \leqslant \varepsilon$, $|\Delta h| \leqslant \varepsilon$. To estimate the largest error in the volume, we take the largest error in the measurement of r and of h. Therefore we take $dr = \varepsilon$ and $dh = \varepsilon$ along with $r = 10$, $h = 25$. This gives

$$\Delta V \approx dV = \frac{500\pi}{3}\,\varepsilon + \frac{100\pi}{3}\,\varepsilon = 200\pi\varepsilon$$

Thus the maximum error in the calculated volume is about $200\pi\varepsilon$ cm^3.

(b) If the largest error in each measurement is $\varepsilon = 0.1$ cm, then $dV = 200\pi(0.1) \approx 63$, so the estimated maximum error in volume is about 63 cm^3. (Note that since the measured volume of the cone is $V = \pi(10)^2(25)/3 \approx 2618$, this is a relative error of $63/2618 \approx 0.024$ or 2.4%.) ■

Functions of Three or More Variables

Linear approximations, differentiability, and differentials can be defined in a similar manner for functions of more than two variables. A differentiable function is defined by an expression similar to the one in Definition 7. For such functions the **linear approximation** is

$$f(x, y, z) \approx f(a, b, c) + f_x(a, b, c)(x - a) + f_y(a, b, c)(y - b) + f_z(a, b, c)(z - c)$$

and the linearization $L(x, y, z)$ is the right side of this expression.

If $w = f(x, y, z)$, then the **increment** of w is

$$\Delta w = f(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y, z + \Delta z) - f(x, y, z)$$

The **differential** dw is defined in terms of the differentials dx, dy, and dz of the independent variables by

$$dw = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x}\,dx + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y}\,dy + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}\,dz$$

EXAMPLE 6 The dimensions of a rectangular box are measured to be 75 cm, 60 cm, and 40 cm, and each measurement is correct to within ε cm.
(a) Use differentials to estimate the largest possible error when the volume of the box is calculated from these measurements.
(b) What is the estimated maximum error in the calculated volume if the measured dimensions are correct to within 0.2 cm?

SOLUTION
(a) If the dimensions of the box are x, y, and z, then its volume is $V = xyz$ and so

$$dV = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x}\,dx + \frac{\partial V}{\partial y}\,dy + \frac{\partial V}{\partial z}\,dz = yz\,dx + xz\,dy + xy\,dz$$

We are given that $|\Delta x| \leqslant \varepsilon$, $|\Delta y| \leqslant \varepsilon$, and $|\Delta z| \leqslant \varepsilon$. To estimate the largest error in the volume, we therefore use $dx = \varepsilon$, $dy = \varepsilon$, and $dz = \varepsilon$ together with $x = 75$, $y = 60$, and $z = 40$:

$$\Delta V \approx dV = (60)(40)\varepsilon + (75)(40)\varepsilon + (75)(60)\varepsilon = 9900\varepsilon$$

Thus the maximum error in the calculated volume is about 9900 times larger than the error in each measurement taken.

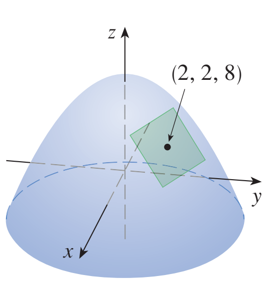
(b) If the largest error in each measurement is $\varepsilon = 0.2$ cm, then $dV = 9900(0.2) = 1980$, so an error of only 0.2 cm in measuring each dimension could lead to an error of approximately 1980 cm^3 in the calculated volume. (This may seem like a large error, but you can verify that it's only about 1% of the volume of the box.) ■

14.4 Exercises

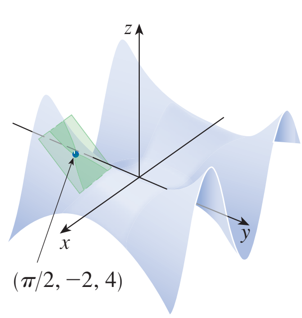
1–2 The graph of a function f is shown. Find an equation of the tangent plane to the surface $z = f(x, y)$ at the specified point.

1. $f(x, y) = 16 - x^2 - y^2$

2. $f(x, y) = y^2 \sin x$



$z = 16 - x^2 - y^2$



$z = y^2 \sin x$

3–10 Find an equation of the tangent plane to the given surface at the specified point.

3. $z = 2x^2 + y^2 - 5y$, $(1, 2, -4)$

4. $z = (x + 2)^2 - 2(y - 1)^2 - 5$, $(2, 3, 3)$

5. $z = e^{x-y}$, $(2, 2, 1)$

6. $z = y^2 e^x$, $(0, 3, 9)$

7. $z = 2\sqrt{y}/x$, $(-1, 1, -2)$

8. $z = x/y^2$, $(-4, 2, -1)$

9. $z = x \sin(x + y)$, $(-1, 1, 0)$

10. $z = \ln(x - 2y)$, $(3, 1, 0)$

11–12 Graph the surface and the tangent plane at the given point. (Choose the domain and viewpoint so that you get a good view of both the surface and the tangent plane.) Then zoom in until the surface and the tangent plane become indistinguishable.

11. $z = x^2 + xy + 3y^2, \quad (1, 1, 5)$

12. $z = \sqrt{9 + x^2y^2}, \quad (2, 2, 5)$

T **13–14** Draw the graph of f and its tangent plane at the given point. (Use a computer to compute the partial derivatives.) Then zoom in until the surface and the tangent plane become indistinguishable.

13. $f(x, y) = \dfrac{1 + \cos^2(x - y)}{1 + \cos^2(x + y)}, \quad \left(\dfrac{\pi}{3}, \dfrac{\pi}{6}, \dfrac{7}{4}\right)$

14. $f(x, y) = e^{-xy/10}\left(\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y} + \sqrt{xy}\right), \quad (1, 1, 3e^{-0.1})$

15–22 Explain why the function is differentiable at the given point. Then find the linearization $L(x, y)$ of the function at that point.

15. $f(x, y) = x^3y^2, \quad (-2, 1)$

16. $f(x, y) = y \tan x, \quad (\pi/4, 2)$

17. $f(x, y) = 1 + x \ln(xy - 5), \quad (2, 3)$

18. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{xy}, \quad (1, 4)$

19. $f(x, y) = x^2e^y, \quad (1, 0)$

20. $f(x, y) = \dfrac{1 + y}{1 + x}, \quad (1, 3)$

21. $f(x, y) = 4 \arctan(xy), \quad (1, 1)$

22. $f(x, y) = y + \sin(x/y), \quad (0, 3)$

23–24 Verify the linear approximation at (0, 0).

23. $e^x \cos(xy) \approx x + 1$

24. $\dfrac{y - 1}{x + 1} \approx x + y - 1$

25. Given that f is a differentiable function with $f(2, 5) = 6$, $f_x(2, 5) = 1$, and $f_y(2, 5) = -1$, use a linear approximation to estimate $f(2.2, 4.9)$.

26. Find the linear approximation of the function $f(x, y) = 1 - xy \cos \pi y$ at $(1, 1)$ and use it to approximate $f(1.02, 0.97)$. Illustrate by graphing f and the tangent plane.

27. Find the linear approximation of the function $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ at $(3, 2, 6)$ and use it to approximate the number $\sqrt{(3.02)^2 + (1.97)^2 + (5.99)^2}$.

28. The wave heights h in the open sea depend on the speed v of the wind and the length of time t that the wind has been blowing at that speed. Values of the function $h = f(v, t)$ are recorded in meters in the following table. Use the table to find a linear approximation to the wave height function when v is near 40 km/h and t is near 20 hours. Then estimate the wave heights when the wind has been blowing for 24 hours at 43 km/h.

Wind speed (km/h)	Duration (hours)						
v \ t	5	10	15	20	30	40	50
40	1.5	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.8	2.8
60	2.8	4.0	4.9	5.2	5.5	5.8	5.9
80	4.3	6.4	7.7	8.6	9.5	10.1	10.2
100	5.8	8.9	11.0	12.2	13.8	14.7	15.3
120	7.4	11.3	14.4	16.6	19.0	20.5	21.1

29. Use the table in Example 3 to find a linear approximation to the heat index function when the actual temperature is near 32°C and the relative humidity is near 65%. Then estimate the heat index when the actual temperature is 33°C and the relative humidity is 63%.

30. The wind-chill index W is the perceived temperature when the actual temperature is T and the wind speed is v, so we can write $W = f(T, v)$. The following table of values is an excerpt from Table 1 in Section 14.1. Use the table to find a linear approximation to the wind-chill index function when T is near -15°C and v is near 50 km/h. Then estimate the wind-chill index when the temperature is -17°C and the wind speed is 55 km/h.

Actual temperature (°C)	Wind speed (km/h)					
T \ v	20	30	40	50	60	70
−10	−18	−20	−21	−22	−23	−23
−15	−24	−26	−27	−29	−30	−30
−20	−30	−33	−34	−35	−36	−37
−25	−37	−39	−41	−42	−43	−44

31–38 Find the differential of the function.

31. $m = p^5q^3$

32. $z = x \ln(y^2 + 1)$

33. $z = e^{-2x} \cos 2\pi t$

34. $u = \sqrt{x^2 + 3y^2}$

35. $H = x^2y^4 + y^3z^5$

36. $w = xze^{-y^2 - z^2}$

37. $R = \alpha\beta^2 \cos \gamma$

38. $T = \dfrac{v}{1 + uvw}$

39. If $z = 5x^2 + y^2$ and (x, y) changes from $(1, 2)$ to $(1.05, 2.1)$, compare the values of Δz and dz.

40. If $z = x^2 - xy + 3y^2$ and (x, y) changes from $(3, -1)$ to $(2.96, -0.95)$, compare the values of Δz and dz.

41. The length and width of a rectangle are measured as 30 cm and 24 cm, respectively, with an error in measurement of at most 0.1 cm in each. Use differentials to estimate the maximum error in the calculated area of the rectangle.

42. Use differentials to estimate the amount of metal in a closed cylindrical can that is 10 cm high and 4 cm in diameter if the metal in the top and bottom is 0.1 cm thick and the metal in the sides is 0.05 cm thick.

43. Use differentials to estimate the amount of tin in a closed tin can with diameter 8 cm and height 12 cm if the tin is 0.04 cm thick.

44. The base and height of a triangle are measured as 70 cm and 40 cm, respectively. Suppose that each measurement has a possible error of at most ε inches.
(a) Use differentials to estimate the maximum error in the calculated area of the triangle.
(b) What is the estimated maximum error in the area of the triangle if the base and height are measured with errors at most 0.64 cm?

45. The radius of a right circular cylinder is measured as 1 m, and the height is measured as 4 m. Suppose that each measurement has a possible error of at most ε feet.
(a) Use differentials to estimate the maximum error in the calculated volume of the cylinder.
(b) If the computed volume must be accurate to within one cubic foot, determine the largest allowable value of ε.

46. The wind-chill index is modeled by the function

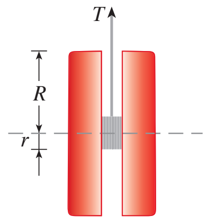
$$W = 13.12 + 0.6215T - 11.37v^{0.16} + 0.3965Tv^{0.16}$$

where T is the actual temperature (in °C) and v is the wind speed (in km/h). The wind speed is measured as 26 km/h, with a possible error of ± 2 km/h, and the actual temperature is measured as -11°C, with a possible error of ± 1°C. Use differentials to estimate the maximum error in the calculated value of W due to the measurement errors in T and v.

47. The tension T in the string of the yo-yo in the figure is

$$T = \frac{mgR}{2r^2 + R^2}$$

where m is the mass of the yo-yo and g is acceleration due to gravity. Use differentials to estimate the change in the tension if R is increased from 3 cm to 3.1 cm and r is increased from 0.7 cm to 0.8 cm. Does the tension increase or decrease?



48. The pressure, volume, and temperature of a mole of an ideal gas are related by the equation $PV = 8.31T$, where P is measured in kilopascals, V in liters, and T in kelvins. Use differentials to find the approximate change in the pressure if the volume increases from 12 L to 12.3 L and the temperature decreases from 310 K to 305 K.

49. If R is the total resistance of three resistors, connected in parallel, with resistances R_1, R_2, R_3, then

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}$$

If the resistances are measured in ohms as $R_1 = 25\ \Omega$, $R_2 = 40\ \Omega$, and $R_3 = 50\ \Omega$, with a possible error of 0.5% in each case, estimate the maximum error in the calculated value of R.

50. A model for the surface area of a human body is given by $S = 0.0072w^{0.425}h^{0.725}$, where w is the weight (in kilograms), h is the height (in centimeters), and S is measured in square meters. If the errors in measurement of w and h are at most 2%, use differentials to estimate the maximum percentage error in the calculated surface area.

51. In Exercise 14.1.39 and Example 14.3.4, the body mass index of a person was defined as $B(m, h) = m/h^2$, where m is the mass in kilograms and h is the height in meters.
(a) What is the linear approximation of $B(m, h)$ for a child with mass 23 kg and height 1.10 m?
(b) If the child's mass increases by 1 kg and height by 3 cm, use the linear approximation to estimate the new BMI. Compare with the actual new BMI.

52. Suppose you need to know an equation of the tangent plane to a surface S at the point $P(2, 1, 3)$. You don't have an equation for S but you know that the curves

$$\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \langle 2 + 3t, 1 - t^2, 3 - 4t + t^2 \rangle$$
$$\mathbf{r}_2(u) = \langle 1 + u^2, 2u^3 - 1, 2u + 1 \rangle$$

both lie on S. Find an equation of the tangent plane at P.

53. Prove that if f is a function of two variables that is differentiable at (a, b), then f is continuous at (a, b).
Hint: Show that

$$\lim_{(\Delta x, \Delta y) \to (0, 0)} f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) = f(a, b)$$

54. (a) The function

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \dfrac{xy}{x^2 + y^2} & \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

was graphed in Figure 4. Show that $f_x(0, 0)$ and $f_y(0, 0)$ both exist but f is not differentiable at $(0, 0)$. [*Hint:* Use the result of Exercise 53.]
(b) Explain why f_x and f_y are not continuous at $(0, 0)$.

APPLIED PROJECT THE SPEEDO LZR RACER

Many technological advances have occurred in sports that have contributed to increased athletic performance. One of the best known is the introduction, in 2008, of the Speedo LZR racer. It was claimed that this full-body swimsuit reduced a swimmer's drag in the water. Figure 1 shows the number of world records broken in men's and women's long-course freestyle swimming events from 1990 to 2011.[1] The dramatic increase in 2008 when the suit was introduced led people to claim that such suits were a form of technological doping. As a result, all full-body suits were banned from competition starting in 2010.

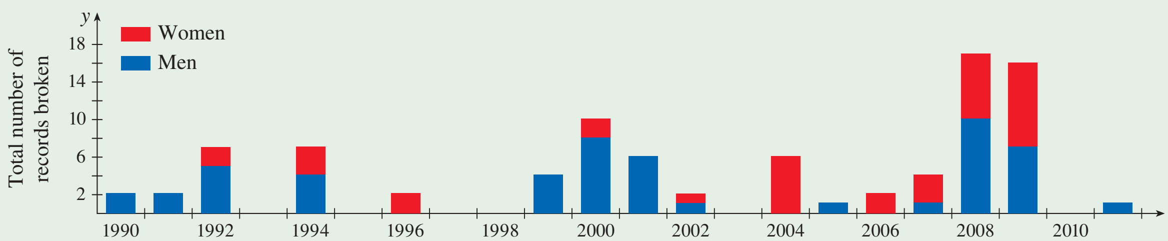


FIGURE 1 Number of world records set in long-course men's and women's freestyle swimming event 1990–2011

It might be surprising that a simple reduction in drag could have such a big effect on performance. We can gain some insight into this using a simple mathematical model.[2]

The speed v of an object being propelled through water is given by

$$v(P, C) = \left(\frac{2P}{kC}\right)^{1/3}$$

where P is the power being used to propel the object, C is the drag coefficient, and k is a positive constant. Athletes can therefore increase their swimming speeds by increasing their power or reducing their drag coefficients. But how effective is each of these?

To compare the effect of increasing power versus reducing drag, we need to somehow compare the two in common units. A frequently used approach is to determine the percentage change in speed that results from a given percentage change in power and in drag.

If we work with percentages as fractions, then when power is changed by a fraction x (with x corresponding to $100x$ percent), P changes from P to $P + xP$. Likewise, if the drag coefficient is changed by a fraction y, this means that it has changed from C to $C + yC$. Finally, the fractional change in speed resulting from both effects is

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \frac{v(P + xP, C + yC) - v(P, C)}{v(P, C)}$$

1. Expression 1 gives the fractional change in speed that results from a change x in power and a change y in drag. Show that this reduces to the function

$$f(x, y) = \left(\frac{1 + x}{1 + y}\right)^{1/3} - 1$$

Given the context, what is the domain of f?

1. L. Foster et al., "Influence of Full Body Swimsuits on Competitive Performance," *Procedia Engineering* 34 (2012): 712–17.
2. Adapted from http://plus.maths.org/content/swimming.

2. Suppose that the possible changes in power x and drag y are small. Find the linear approximation to the function $f(x, y)$. What does this approximation tell you about the effect of a small increase in power versus a small decrease in drag?

3. Calculate $f_{xx}(x, y)$ and $f_{yy}(x, y)$. Based on the signs of these derivatives, does the linear approximation in Problem 2 result in an overestimate or an underestimate for an increase in power? What about for a decrease in drag? Use your answer to explain why, for changes in power or drag that are not very small, a decrease in drag is more effective.

4. Graph the level curves of $f(x, y)$. Explain how the shapes of these curves relate to your answers to Problems 2 and 3.

14.5 The Chain Rule

Recall that the Chain Rule for functions of a single variable gives the rule for differentiating a composite function: if $y = f(x)$ and $x = g(t)$, where f and g are differentiable functions, then y is indirectly a differentiable function of t and

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

In this section we extend the Chain Rule to functions of more than one variable.

The Chain Rule: Case 1

For functions of more than one variable, the Chain Rule has several versions, each of them giving a rule for differentiating a composite function. The first version (Theorem 1) deals with the case where $z = f(x, y)$ and each of the variables x and y is, in turn, a function of a variable t. This means that z is indirectly a function of t, $z = f(g(t), h(t))$, and the Chain Rule gives a formula for differentiating z as a function of t. We assume that f is differentiable (Definition 14.4.7). Recall that this is the case when f_x and f_y are continuous (Theorem 14.4.8).

1 The Chain Rule (Case 1) Suppose that $z = f(x, y)$ is a differentiable function of x and y, where $x = g(t)$ and $y = h(t)$ are both differentiable functions of t. Then z is a differentiable function of t and

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt}$$

PROOF A change of Δt in t produces changes of Δx in x and Δy in y. These, in turn, produce a change of Δz in z, and from Definition 14.4.7 we have

$$\Delta z = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\Delta x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\Delta y + \varepsilon_1\,\Delta x + \varepsilon_2\,\Delta y$$

where $\varepsilon_1 \to 0$ and $\varepsilon_2 \to 0$ as $(\Delta x,\ \Delta y) \to (0, 0)$. [If the functions ε_1 and ε_2 are not defined at $(0, 0)$, we can define them to be 0 there.] Dividing both sides of this equation by Δt, we have

$$\frac{\Delta z}{\Delta t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} + \varepsilon_1\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} + \varepsilon_2\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t}$$

If we now let $\Delta t \to 0$, then $\Delta x = g(t + \Delta t) - g(t) \to 0$ because g is differentiable and therefore continuous. Similarly, $\Delta y \to 0$. This, in turn, means that $\varepsilon_1 \to 0$ and $\varepsilon_2 \to 0$, so

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dz}{dt} &= \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta t} \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} + \left(\lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \varepsilon_1\right) \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} + \left(\lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \varepsilon_2\right) \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt} + 0 \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + 0 \cdot \frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

Since we often write $\partial z/\partial x$ in place of $\partial f/\partial x$, we can rewrite the Chain Rule in the form

$$\boxed{\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt}}$$

Notice the similarity to the definition of the differential:

$$dz = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}dy$$

EXAMPLE 1 If $z = x^2y + 3xy^4$, where $x = \sin 2t$ and $y = \cos t$, find dz/dt when $t = 0$.

SOLUTION The Chain Rule gives

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dz}{dt} &= \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= (2xy + 3y^4)(2\cos 2t) + (x^2 + 12xy^3)(-\sin t)\end{aligned}$$

It's not necessary to substitute the expressions for x and y in terms of t. We simply observe that when $t = 0$, we have $x = \sin 0 = 0$ and $y = \cos 0 = 1$. Therefore

$$\left.\frac{dz}{dt}\right|_{t=0} = (0 + 3)(2\cos 0) + (0 + 0)(-\sin 0) = 6$$

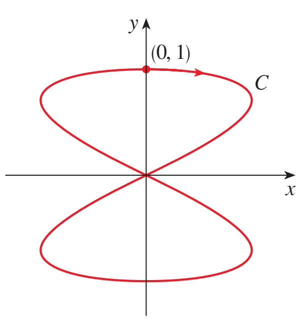


FIGURE 1
The curve $x = \sin 2t$, $y = \cos t$

The derivative in Example 1 can be interpreted as the rate of change of z with respect to t as the point (x, y) moves along the curve C with parametric equations $x = \sin 2t$, $y = \cos t$. (See Figure 1.) In particular, when $t = 0$, the point (x, y) is $(0, 1)$ and $dz/dt = 6$ is the rate of increase as we move along the curve C through $(0, 1)$. If, for instance, $z = T(x, y) = x^2y + 3xy^4$ represents the temperature at the point (x, y), then the composite function $z = T(\sin 2t, \cos t)$ represents the temperature at points on C and the derivative dz/dt represents the rate at which the temperature changes along C.

EXAMPLE 2 The pressure P (in kilopascals), volume V (in liters), and temperature T (in kelvins) of a mole of an ideal gas are related by the equation $PV = 8.31T$. Find the rate at which the pressure is changing when the temperature is 300 K and increasing at a rate of 0.1 K/s and the volume is 100 L and increasing at a rate of 0.2 L/s.

SOLUTION If t represents the time elapsed in seconds, then at the given instant we have $T = 300$, $dT/dt = 0.1$, $V = 100$, $dV/dt = 0.2$. Since

$$P = 8.31\frac{T}{V}$$

the Chain Rule gives

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\frac{dT}{dt} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial V}\frac{dV}{dt} = \frac{8.31}{V}\frac{dT}{dt} - \frac{8.31T}{V^2}\frac{dV}{dt}$$

$$= \frac{8.31}{100}(0.1) - \frac{8.31(300)}{100^2}(0.2) = -0.04155$$

The pressure is decreasing at a rate of about 0.042 kPa/s. ■

The Chain Rule: Case 2

We now consider the situation where $z = f(x, y)$ but each of x and y is a function of two variables s and t: $x = g(s, t)$, $y = h(s, t)$. Then z is indirectly a function of s and t and we wish to find $\partial z/\partial s$ and $\partial z/\partial t$. Recall that in computing $\partial z/\partial t$ we hold s fixed and compute the ordinary derivative of z with respect to t. Therefore we can apply Theorem 1 to obtain

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial t}$$

A similar argument holds for $\partial z/\partial s$ and so we have proved the following version of the Chain Rule.

2 The Chain Rule (Case 2) Suppose that $z = f(x, y)$ is a differentiable function of x and y, where $x = g(s, t)$ and $y = h(s, t)$ are differentiable functions of s and t. Then

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial s} \qquad \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial t}$$

EXAMPLE 3 If $z = e^x \sin y$, where $x = st^2$ and $y = s^2t$, find $\partial z/\partial s$ and $\partial z/\partial t$.

SOLUTION Applying Case 2 of the Chain Rule, we get

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial s} = (e^x \sin y)(t^2) + (e^x \cos y)(2st)$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = (e^x \sin y)(2st) + (e^x \cos y)(s^2)$$

If we wish, we can now express $\partial z/\partial s$ and $\partial z/\partial t$ solely in terms of s and t by substituting $x = st^2$, $y = s^2t$, to get

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial s} = t^2e^{st^2}\sin(s^2t) + 2ste^{st^2}\cos(s^2t)$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = 2ste^{st^2}\sin(s^2t) + s^2e^{st^2}\cos(s^2t)$$ ■

Case 2 of the Chain Rule contains three types of variables: s and t are **independent** variables, x and y are called **intermediate** variables, and z is the **dependent** variable. Notice that Theorem 2 has one term for each intermediate variable and each of these terms resembles the one-dimensional Chain Rule (see Equation 3.4.2).

To remember the Chain Rule, it's helpful to draw the **tree diagram** in Figure 2. We draw branches from the dependent variable z to the intermediate variables x and y to

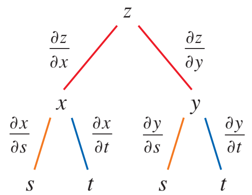


FIGURE 2

indicate that z is a function of x and y. Then we draw branches from x and y to the independent variables s and t. On each branch we write the corresponding partial derivative. To find $\partial z/\partial s$, we find the product of the partial derivatives along each path from z to s and then add these products:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial s}$$

Similarly, we find $\partial z/\partial t$ by using the paths from z to t.

The Chain Rule: General Version

Now we consider the general situation in which a dependent variable u is a function of n intermediate variables $x_1, \ldots, x_n$, each of which is, in turn, a function of m independent variables $t_1, \ldots, t_m$. Notice that there are n terms, one for each intermediate variable. The proof is similar to that of Case 1.

3 The Chain Rule (General Version) Suppose that u is a differentiable function of the n variables $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ and each x_j is a differentiable function of the m variables $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_m$. Then u is a function of $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_m$ and

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t_i} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1}\frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t_i} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2}\frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t_i} + \cdots + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_n}\frac{\partial x_n}{\partial t_i}$$

for each $i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$.

EXAMPLE 4 Write out the Chain Rule for the case where $w = f(x, y, z, t)$ and $x = x(u, v)$, $y = y(u, v)$, $z = z(u, v)$, and $t = t(u, v)$.

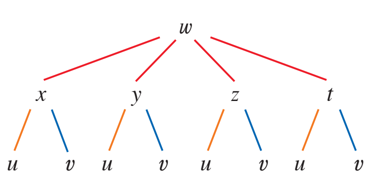


FIGURE 3

SOLUTION We apply Theorem 3 with $n = 4$ and $m = 2$. Figure 3 shows the tree diagram. Although we haven't written the derivatives on the branches, it's understood that if a branch leads from y to u, then the partial derivative for that branch is $\partial y/\partial u$. With the aid of the tree diagram, we can now write the required expressions:

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}\frac{\partial z}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial t}\frac{\partial t}{\partial u}$$

$$\frac{\partial w}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}\frac{\partial z}{\partial v} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial t}\frac{\partial t}{\partial v}$$

EXAMPLE 5 If $u = x^4y + y^2z^3$, where $x = rse^t$, $y = rs^2e^{-t}$, and $z = r^2s\sin t$, find the value of $\partial u/\partial s$ when $r = 2$, $s = 1$, $t = 0$.

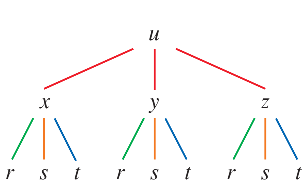


FIGURE 4

SOLUTION With the help of the tree diagram in Figure 4, we have

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}\frac{\partial z}{\partial s}$$

$$= (4x^3y)(re^t) + (x^4 + 2yz^3)(2rse^{-t}) + (3y^2z^2)(r^2\sin t)$$

When $r = 2$, $s = 1$, and $t = 0$, we have $x = 2$, $y = 2$, and $z = 0$, so

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial s} = (64)(2) + (16)(4) + (0)(0) = 192$$

EXAMPLE 6 If $g(s, t) = f(s^2 - t^2, t^2 - s^2)$ and f is differentiable, show that g satisfies the equation

$$t \frac{\partial g}{\partial s} + s \frac{\partial g}{\partial t} = 0$$

SOLUTION Let $x = s^2 - t^2$ and $y = t^2 - s^2$. Then $g(s, t) = f(x, y)$ and the Chain Rule gives

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(2s) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(-2s)$$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(-2t) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(2t)$$

Therefore

$$t \frac{\partial g}{\partial s} + s \frac{\partial g}{\partial t} = \left(2st \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - 2st \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right) + \left(-2st \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + 2st \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right) = 0$$ ■

EXAMPLE 7 If $z = f(x, y)$ has continuous second-order partial derivatives and $x = r^2 + s^2$ and $y = 2rs$, find expressions for (a) $\partial z/\partial r$ and (b) $\partial^2 z/\partial r^2$.

SOLUTION

(a) The Chain Rule gives

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}(2r) + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}(2s)$$

(b) Applying the Product Rule to the expression in part (a), we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial r^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(2r \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + 2s \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right) \\ &= 2\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + 2r \frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right) + 2s \frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right) \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

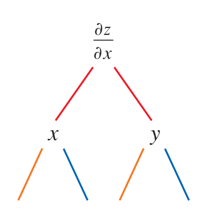


FIGURE 5

But, using the Chain Rule again (see Figure 5), we have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)\frac{\partial y}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2}(2r) + \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y\,\partial x}(2s)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)\frac{\partial y}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x\,\partial y}(2r) + \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2}(2s)$$

Putting these expressions into Equation 4 and using the equality of the mixed second-order derivatives, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial r^2} &= 2\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + 2r\left(2r \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} + 2s \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y\,\partial x}\right) + 2s\left(2r \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x\,\partial y} + 2s \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2}\right) \\ &= 2\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + 4r^2 \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} + 8rs \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x\,\partial y} + 4s^2 \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2} \end{aligned}$$ ■

Implicit Differentiation

The Chain Rule can be used to give a more complete description of the process of implicit differentiation that was introduced in Sections 3.5 and 14.3. We suppose that an equation of the form $F(x, y) = 0$ defines y implicitly as a differentiable function of x, that is, $y = f(x)$, where $F(x, f(x)) = 0$ for all x in the domain of f. If F is differentiable, we can apply Case 1 of the Chain Rule to differentiate both sides of the equation $F(x, y) = 0$ with respect to x. Since both x and y are functions of x, we obtain

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dx} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

But $dx/dx = 1$, so if $\partial F/\partial y \neq 0$ we solve for dy/dx and obtain

5
$$\boxed{\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{\dfrac{\partial F}{\partial x}}{\dfrac{\partial F}{\partial y}} = -\frac{F_x}{F_y}}$$

To derive this equation we assumed that $F(x, y) = 0$ defines y implicitly as a function of x. The **Implicit Function Theorem**, proved in advanced calculus, gives conditions under which this assumption is valid: it states that if F is defined on a disk containing (a, b), where $F(a, b) = 0$, $F_y(a, b) \neq 0$, and F_x and F_y are continuous on the disk, then the equation $F(x, y) = 0$ defines y as a function of x near the point (a, b) and the derivative of this function is given by Equation 5.

EXAMPLE 8 Find y' if $x^3 + y^3 = 6xy$.

SOLUTION The given equation can be written as

$$F(x, y) = x^3 + y^3 - 6xy = 0$$

so Equation 5 gives

The solution to Example 8 should be compared to the one in Example 3.5.2.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{F_x}{F_y} = -\frac{3x^2 - 6y}{3y^2 - 6x} = -\frac{x^2 - 2y}{y^2 - 2x}$$ ■

Now we suppose that z is given implicitly as a function $z = f(x, y)$ by an equation of the form $F(x, y, z) = 0$. This means that $F(x, y, f(x, y)) = 0$ for all (x, y) in the domain of f. If F and f are differentiable, then we can use the Chain Rule to differentiate the equation $F(x, y, z) = 0$ as follows:

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial z}\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = 0$$

But $$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x) = 1 \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(y) = 0$$

so this equation becomes

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial z}\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = 0$$

If $\partial F/\partial z \neq 0$, we solve for $\partial z/\partial x$ and obtain the first formula in Equations 6. The formula for $\partial z/\partial y$ is obtained in a similar manner.

6
$$\boxed{\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -\frac{\dfrac{\partial F}{\partial x}}{\dfrac{\partial F}{\partial z}} = -\frac{F_x}{F_z} \qquad \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -\frac{\dfrac{\partial F}{\partial y}}{\dfrac{\partial F}{\partial z}} = -\frac{F_y}{F_z}}$$

Again, a version of the **Implicit Function Theorem** stipulates conditions under which our assumption is valid: if F is defined within a sphere containing (a, b, c), where $F(a, b, c) = 0$, $F_z(a, b, c) \neq 0$, and F_x, F_y, and F_z are continuous inside the sphere, then the equation $F(x, y, z) = 0$ defines z as a function of x and y near the point (a, b, c) and this function is differentiable, with partial derivatives given by (6).

EXAMPLE 9 Find $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial x}$ and $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial y}$ if $x^3 + y^3 + z^3 + 6xyz + 4 = 0$.

SOLUTION Let $F(x, y, z) = x^3 + y^3 + z^3 + 6xyz + 4$. Then, from Equations 6, we have

The solution to Example 9 should be compared to the one in Example 14.3.5.

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -\frac{F_x}{F_z} = -\frac{3x^2 + 6yz}{3z^2 + 6xy} = -\frac{x^2 + 2yz}{z^2 + 2xy}$$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -\frac{F_y}{F_z} = -\frac{3y^2 + 6xz}{3z^2 + 6xy} = -\frac{y^2 + 2xz}{z^2 + 2xy}$$ ■

14.5 Exercises

1–2 Find dz/dt in two ways: by using the Chain Rule, and by first substituting the expressions for x and y to write z as a function of t. Do your answers agree?

1. $z = x^2y + xy^2$, $x = 3t$, $y = t^2$

2. $z = xye^y$, $x = t^2$, $y = 5t$

3–8 Use the Chain Rule to find dz/dt or dw/dt.

3. $z = xy^3 - x^2y$, $x = t^2 + 1$, $y = t^2 - 1$

4. $z = \dfrac{x - y}{x + 2y}$, $x = e^{\pi t}$, $y = e^{-\pi t}$

5. $z = \sin x \cos y$, $x = \sqrt{t}$, $y = 1/t$

6. $z = \sqrt{1 + xy}$, $x = \tan t$, $y = \arctan t$

7. $w = xe^{y/z}$, $x = t^2$, $y = 1 - t$, $z = 1 + 2t$

8. $w = \ln\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$, $x = \sin t$, $y = \cos t$, $z = \tan t$

9–10 Find $\partial z/\partial s$ and $\partial z/\partial t$ in two ways: by using the Chain Rule, and by first substituting the expressions for x and y to write z as a function of s and t. Do your answers agree?

9. $z = x^2 + y^2$, $x = 2s + 3t$, $y = s + t$

10. $z = x^2 \sin y$, $x = s^2t$, $y = st$

11–16 Use the Chain Rule to find $\partial z/\partial s$ and $\partial z/\partial t$.

11. $z = (x - y)^5$, $x = s^2t$, $y = st^2$

12. $z = \tan^{-1}(x^2 + y^2)$, $x = s \ln t$, $y = te^s$

13. $z = \ln(3x + 2y)$, $x = s \sin t$, $y = t \cos s$

14. $z = \sqrt{x}\, e^{xy}$, $x = 1 + st$, $y = s^2 - t^2$

15. $z = (\sin\theta)/r$, $r = st$, $\theta = s^2 + t^2$

16. $z = \tan(u/v)$, $u = 2s + 3t$, $v = 3s - 2t$

17. Suppose f is a differentiable function of x and y, and $p(t) = (g(t), h(t))$, $g(2) = 4$, $g'(2) = -3$, $h(2) = 5$, $h'(2) = 6$, $f_x(4, 5) = 2$, $f_y(4, 5) = 8$. Find $p'(2)$.

18. Let $R(s, t) = G(u(s, t), v(s, t))$, where G, u, and v are differentiable, $u(1, 2) = 5$, $u_s(1, 2) = 4$, $u_t(1, 2) = -3$, $v(1, 2) = 7$, $v_s(1, 2) = 2$, $v_t(1, 2) = 6$, $G_u(5, 7) = 9$, $G_v(5, 7) = -2$. Find $R_s(1, 2)$ and $R_t(1, 2)$.

19. Suppose f is a differentiable function of x and y, and $g(u, v) = f(e^u + \sin v, e^u + \cos v)$. Use the table of values to calculate $g_u(0, 0)$ and $g_v(0, 0)$.

	f	g	f_x	f_y
$(0, 0)$	3	6	4	8
$(1, 2)$	6	3	2	5

20. Suppose f is a differentiable function of x and y, and $g(r, s) = f(2r - s, s^2 - 4r)$. Use the table of values in Exercise 19 to calculate $g_r(1, 2)$ and $g_s(1, 2)$.

21–24 Use a tree diagram to write out the Chain Rule for the given case. Assume all functions are differentiable.

21. $u = f(x, y)$, where $x = x(r, s, t)$, $y = y(r, s, t)$

22. $w = f(x, y, z)$, where $x = x(u, v)$, $y = y(u, v)$, $z = z(u, v)$

23. $T = F(p, q, r)$, where $p = p(x, y, z)$, $q = q(x, y, z)$, $r = r(x, y, z)$

24. $R = F(t, u)$ where $t = t(w, x, y, z)$, $u = u(w, x, y, z)$

25–30 Use the Chain Rule to find the indicated partial derivatives.

25. $z = x^4 + x^2y$, $x = s + 2t - u$, $y = stu^2$;

$\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial s}, \dfrac{\partial z}{\partial t}, \dfrac{\partial z}{\partial u}$ when $s = 4$, $t = 2$, $u = 1$

26. $T = \dfrac{v}{2u + v}$, $u = pq\sqrt{r}$, $v = p\sqrt{q}\,r$;

$\dfrac{\partial T}{\partial p}, \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial q}, \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial r}$ when $p = 2$, $q = 1$, $r = 4$

27. $w = xy + yz + zx$, $x = r\cos\theta$, $y = r\sin\theta$, $z = r\theta$;

$\dfrac{\partial w}{\partial r}, \dfrac{\partial w}{\partial \theta}$ when $r = 2$, $\theta = \pi/2$

28. $P = \sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + w^2}$, $u = xe^y$, $v = ye^x$, $w = e^{xy}$;

$\dfrac{\partial P}{\partial x}, \dfrac{\partial P}{\partial y}$ when $x = 0$, $y = 2$

29. $N = \dfrac{p + q}{p + r}$, $p = u + vw$, $q = v + uw$, $r = w + uv$;

$\dfrac{\partial N}{\partial u}, \dfrac{\partial N}{\partial v}, \dfrac{\partial N}{\partial w}$ when $u = 2$, $v = 3$, $w = 4$

30. $u = xe^{ty}$, $x = \alpha^2\beta$, $y = \beta^2\gamma$, $t = \gamma^2\alpha$;

$\dfrac{\partial u}{\partial \alpha}, \dfrac{\partial u}{\partial \beta}, \dfrac{\partial u}{\partial \gamma}$ when $\alpha = -1$, $\beta = 2$, $\gamma = 1$

31–34 Use Equation 5 to find dy/dx.

31. $y\cos x = x^2 + y^2$

32. $\cos(xy) = 1 + \sin y$

33. $\tan^{-1}(x^2y) = x + xy^2$

34. $e^y \sin x = x + xy$

35–38 Use Equations 6 to find $\partial z/\partial x$ and $\partial z/\partial y$.

35. $x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2 = 1$

36. $x^2 - y^2 + z^2 - 2z = 4$

37. $e^z = xyz$

38. $yz + x\ln y = z^2$

39. The temperature at a point (x, y) is $T(x, y)$, measured in degrees Celsius. A bug crawls so that its position after t seconds is given by $x = \sqrt{1 + t}$, $y = 2 + \frac{1}{3}t$, where x and y are measured in centimeters. The temperature function satisfies $T_x(2, 3) = 4$ and $T_y(2, 3) = 3$. How fast is the temperature rising on the bug's path after 3 seconds?

40. Wheat production W in a given year depends on the average temperature T and the annual rainfall R. Scientists estimate that the average temperature is rising at a rate of 0.15°C/year and rainfall is decreasing at a rate of 0.1 cm/year. They also estimate that at current production levels, $\partial W/\partial T = -2$ and $\partial W/\partial R = 8$.

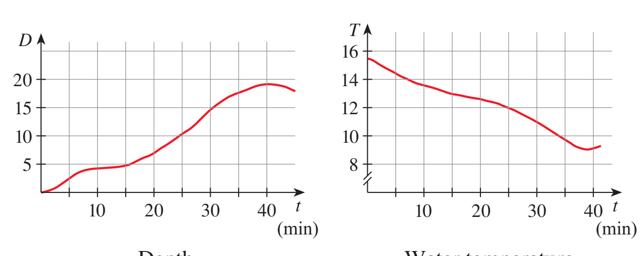
(a) What is the significance of the signs of these partial derivatives?

(b) Estimate the current rate of change of wheat production, dW/dt.

41. The speed of sound traveling through ocean water with salinity 35 parts per thousand has been modeled by the equation

$$C = 1449.2 + 4.6T - 0.055T^2 + 0.00029T^3 + 0.016D$$

where C is the speed of sound (in meters per second), T is the temperature (in degrees Celsius), and D is the depth below the ocean surface (in meters). A scuba diver began a leisurely dive into the ocean water; the diver's depth and the surrounding water temperature over time are recorded in the following graphs. Estimate the rate of change (with respect to time) of the speed of sound through the ocean water experienced by the diver 20 minutes into the dive. What are the units?



42. The radius of a right circular cone is increasing at a rate of 4.6 cm/s while its height is decreasing at a rate of 6.5 cm/s. At what rate is the volume of the cone changing when the radius is 300 cm and the height is 350 cm?

43. The length ℓ, width w, and height h of a box change with time. At a certain instant the dimensions are $\ell = 1$ m and $w = h = 2$ m, and ℓ and w are increasing at a rate of 2 m/s while h is decreasing at a rate of 3 m/s. At that instant find the rates at which the following quantities are changing.
(a) The volume
(b) The surface area
(c) The length of a diagonal

44. The voltage V in a simple electrical circuit is slowly decreasing as the battery wears out. The resistance R is slowly increasing as the resistor heats up. Use Ohm's Law, $V = IR$, to find how the current I is changing at the moment when $R = 400\ \Omega$, $I = 0.08$ A, $dV/dt = -0.01$ V/s, and $dR/dt = 0.03\ \Omega$/s.

45. The pressure of 1 mole of an ideal gas is increasing at a rate of 0.05 kPa/s and the temperature is increasing at a rate of 0.15 K/s. Use the equation $PV = 8.31T$ in Example 2 to find the rate of change of the volume when the pressure is 20 kPa and the temperature is 320 K.

46. A manufacturer has modeled its yearly production function P (the value of its entire production, in millions of dollars) as a Cobb-Douglas function

$$P(L, K) = 1.47L^{0.65}K^{0.35}$$

where L is the number of labor hours (in thousands) and K is the invested capital (in millions of dollars). Suppose that when $L = 30$ and $K = 8$, the labor force is decreasing at a rate of 2000 labor hours per year and capital is increasing at a rate of \$500,000 per year. Find the rate of change of production.

47. One side of a triangle is increasing at a rate of 3 cm/s and a second side is decreasing at a rate of 2 cm/s. If the area of the triangle remains constant, at what rate does the angle between the sides change when the first side is 20 cm long, the second side is 30 cm, and the angle is $\pi/6$?

48. Doppler Effect A sound with frequency f_s is produced by a source traveling along a line with speed v_s. If an observer is traveling with speed v_o along the same line from the opposite direction toward the source, then the frequency of the sound heard by the observer is

$$f_o = \left(\frac{c + v_o}{c - v_s}\right) f_s$$

where c is the speed of sound, about 332 m/s. (This is the *Doppler effect*.) Suppose that, at a particular moment, you are in a train traveling at 34 m/s and accelerating at 1.2 m/s^2. A train is approaching you from the opposite direction on the other track at 40 m/s, accelerating at 1.4 m/s^2, and sounds its whistle, which has a frequency of 460 Hz. At that instant, what is the perceived frequency that you hear and how fast is it changing?

49–50 Assume that all the given functions are differentiable.

49. If $z = f(x, y)$, where $x = r\cos\theta$ and $y = r\sin\theta$, (a) find $\partial z/\partial r$ and $\partial z/\partial\theta$ and (b) show that

$$\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial r}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{r^2}\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial \theta}\right)^2$$

50. If $u = f(x, y)$, where $x = e^s\cos t$ and $y = e^s\sin t$, show that

$$\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)^2 = e^{-2s}\left[\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial s}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}\right)^2\right]$$

51–55 Assume that all the given functions have continuous second-order partial derivatives.

51. Show that any function of the form

$$z = f(x + at) + g(x - at)$$

is a solution of the wave equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial t^2} = a^2\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2}$$

[*Hint:* Let $u = x + at$, $v = x - at$.]

52. If $u = f(x, y)$, where $x = e^s\cos t$ and $y = e^s\sin t$, show that

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = e^{-2s}\left[\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial s^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}\right]$$

53. If $z = f(x, y)$, where $x = r^2 + s^2$ and $y = 2rs$, find $\partial^2 z/\partial r\,\partial s$. (Compare with Example 7.)

54. If $z = f(x, y)$, where $x = r\cos\theta$ and $y = r\sin\theta$, find (a) $\partial z/\partial r$, (b) $\partial z/\partial\theta$, and (c) $\partial^2 z/\partial r\,\partial\theta$.

55. If $z = f(x, y)$, where $x = r\cos\theta$ and $y = r\sin\theta$, show that

$$\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial \theta^2} + \frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial z}{\partial r}$$

56–58 Homogeneous Functions A function f is called *homogeneous of degree n* if it satisfies the equation

$$f(tx, ty) = t^n f(x, y)$$

for all t, where n is a positive integer and f has continuous second-order partial derivatives.

56. Verify that $f(x, y) = x^2y + 2xy^2 + 5y^3$ is homogeneous of degree 3.

57. Show that if f is homogeneous of degree n, then

(a) $x\dfrac{\partial f}{\partial x} + y\dfrac{\partial f}{\partial y} = nf(x, y)$

[*Hint:* Use the Chain Rule to differentiate $f(tx, ty)$ with respect to t.]

(b) $x^2\dfrac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + 2xy\dfrac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x\,\partial y} + y^2\dfrac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = n(n-1)f(x, y)$

58. If f is homogeneous of degree n, show that

$$f_x(tx, ty) = t^{n-1}f_x(x, y)$$

59. Suppose that the equation $F(x, y, z) = 0$ implicitly defines each of the three variables x, y, and z as functions of the other two: $z = f(x, y)$, $y = g(x, z)$, $x = h(y, z)$. If F is differentiable and F_x, F_y, and F_z are all nonzero, show that

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial z} = -1$$

60. Equation 5 is a formula for the derivative dy/dx of a function defined implicitly by an equation $F(x, y) = 0$, provided that F is differentiable and $F_y \neq 0$. Prove that if F has continuous second derivatives, then a formula for the second derivative of y is

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\frac{F_{xx}F_y^2 - 2F_{xy}F_xF_y + F_{yy}F_x^2}{F_y^3}$$

14.6 Directional Derivatives and the Gradient Vector

The weather map in Figure 1 shows a contour map of the temperature function $T(x, y)$ for the states of California and Nevada at 3:00 PM on a day in October. The level curves, or isothermals, join locations with the same temperature. The partial derivative T_x at a location such as Reno is the rate of change of temperature with respect to distance if we travel east from Reno; T_y is the rate of change of temperature if we travel north. But what if we want to know the rate of change of temperature when we travel southeast (toward Las Vegas), or in some other direction? In this section we introduce a type of derivative, called a *directional derivative,* that enables us to find the rate of change of a function of two or more variables in any direction.

FIGURE 1

Directional Derivatives

Recall that if $z = f(x, y)$, then the partial derivatives f_x and f_y are defined as

$$\boxed{1} \quad \begin{aligned} f_x(x_0, y_0) &= \lim_{h\to 0}\frac{f(x_0 + h, y_0) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h} \\ f_y(x_0, y_0) &= \lim_{h\to 0}\frac{f(x_0, y_0 + h) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h} \end{aligned}$$

and represent the rates of change of z in the x- and y-directions, that is, in the directions of the unit vectors $\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{j}$.

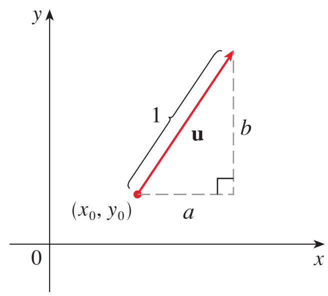


FIGURE 2
A unit vector $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b \rangle$

Suppose that we now wish to find the rate of change of z at (x_0, y_0) in the direction of an arbitrary unit vector $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b \rangle$. (See Figure 2.) To do this we consider the surface S with the equation $z = f(x, y)$ (the graph of f) and we let $z_0 = f(x_0, y_0)$. Then the point $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ lies on S. The vertical plane that passes through P in the direction of $\mathbf{u}$ intersects S in a curve C. (See Figure 3.) The slope of the tangent line T to C at the point P is the rate of change of z in the direction of $\mathbf{u}$.

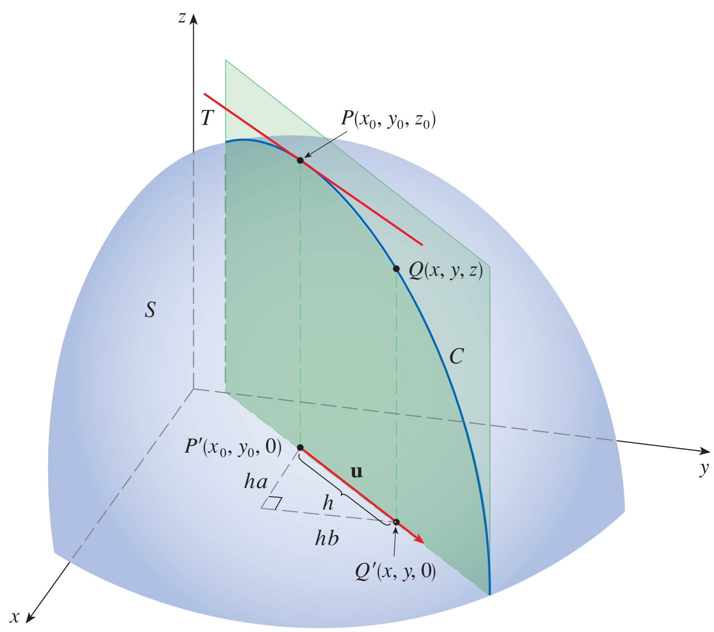


FIGURE 3

If $Q(x, y, z)$ is another point on C and P', Q' are the projections of P, Q onto the xy-plane, then the vector $\overrightarrow{P'Q'}$ is parallel to $\mathbf{u}$ and so

$$\overrightarrow{P'Q'} = h\mathbf{u} = \langle ha, hb \rangle$$

for some scalar h. Therefore $x - x_0 = ha$, $y - y_0 = hb$, so $x = x_0 + ha$, $y = y_0 + hb$, and

$$\frac{\Delta z}{h} = \frac{z - z_0}{h} = \frac{f(x_0 + ha, y_0 + hb) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h}$$

If we take the limit as $h \to 0$, we obtain the rate of change of z (with respect to distance) in the direction of $\mathbf{u}$, which is called the directional derivative of f in the direction of $\mathbf{u}$.

2 Definitio The **directional derivative** of f at (x_0, y_0) in the direction of a unit vector $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b \rangle$ is

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x_0, y_0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + ha, y_0 + hb) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h}$$

if this limit exists.

By comparing Definition 2 with Equations 1, we see that if $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0 \rangle$, then $D_{\mathbf{i}} f = f_x$ and if $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1 \rangle$, then $D_{\mathbf{j}} f = f_y$. In other words, the partial derivatives of f with respect to x and y are just special cases of the directional derivative.

EXAMPLE 1 Use the weather map in Figure 1 to estimate the value of the directional derivative of the temperature function at Reno in the southeasterly direction.

SOLUTION We start by drawing a line through Reno toward the southeast [in the direction of $\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j})/\sqrt{2}$; see Figure 4].

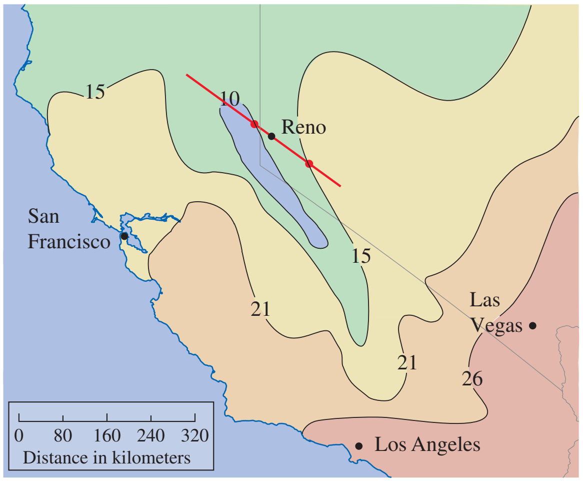


FIGURE 4

We approximate the directional derivative $D_{\mathbf{u}} T$ by the average rate of change of the temperature between the points where this line intersects the isothermals $T = 10$ and $T = 15$. The temperature at the point southeast of Reno is $T = 15°\text{C}$ and the temperature at the point northwest of Reno is $T = 10°\text{C}$. The distance between these points looks to be about 120 kilometers. So the rate of change of the temperature in the southeasterly direction is

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} T \approx \frac{15 - 10}{120} = \frac{1}{24} \approx 0.04°\text{C/km}$$ ■

When we compute the directional derivative of a function defined by a formula, we generally use the following theorem.

3 Theorem If f is a differentiable function of x and y, then f has a directional derivative in the direction of any unit vector $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b \rangle$ and

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y) = f_x(x, y)\, a + f_y(x, y)\, b$$

PROOF If we define a function g of the single variable h by

$$g(h) = f(x_0 + ha, y_0 + hb)$$

then, by the definition of a derivative, we have

$$\boxed{4} \qquad g'(0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{g(h) - g(0)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + ha, y_0 + hb) - f(x_0, y_0)}{h}$$

$$= D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x_0, y_0)$$

On the other hand, we can write $g(h) = f(x, y)$, where $x = x_0 + ha$, $y = y_0 + hb$, so Case 1 of the Chain Rule (Theorem 14.5.1) gives

$$g'(h) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dh} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dh} = f_x(x, y)\,a + f_y(x, y)\,b$$

If we now put $h = 0$, then $x = x_0$, $y = y_0$, and

5 $$g'(0) = f_x(x_0, y_0)\,a + f_y(x_0, y_0)\,b$$

Comparing Equations 4 and 5, we see that

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x_0, y_0) = f_x(x_0, y_0)\,a + f_y(x_0, y_0)\,b$$ ■

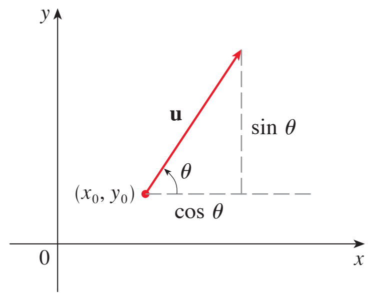


FIGURE 5 A unit vector $\mathbf{u} = \langle \cos\theta, \sin\theta \rangle$

If the unit vector $\mathbf{u}$ makes an angle θ with the positive x-axis (as in Figure 5), then we can write $\mathbf{u} = \langle \cos\theta, \sin\theta \rangle$ and the formula in Theorem 3 becomes

6 $$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y) = f_x(x, y)\cos\theta + f_y(x, y)\sin\theta$$

The directional derivative $D_{\mathbf{u}} f(1, 2)$ in Example 2 represents the rate of change of z in the direction of $\mathbf{u}$. This is the slope of the tangent line to the curve of intersection of the surface $z = x^3 - 3xy + 4y^2$ and the vertical plane through $(1, 2, 0)$ in the direction of $\mathbf{u}$ shown in Figure 6.

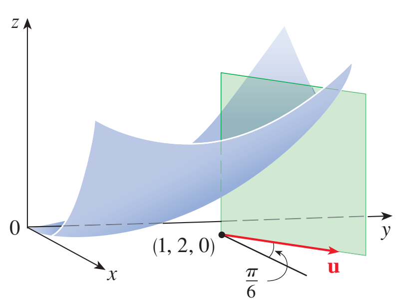


FIGURE 6

EXAMPLE 2 Find the directional derivative $D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y)$ if

$$f(x, y) = x^3 - 3xy + 4y^2$$

and $\mathbf{u}$ is the unit vector in the direction given by angle $\theta = \pi/6$, measured from the positive x-axis. What is $D_{\mathbf{u}} f(1, 2)$?

SOLUTION Formula 6 gives

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y) &= f_x(x, y)\cos\frac{\pi}{6} + f_y(x, y)\sin\frac{\pi}{6} \\ &= (3x^2 - 3y)\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + (-3x + 8y)\frac{1}{2} \\ &= \tfrac{1}{2}\left[3\sqrt{3}x^2 - 3x + \left(8 - 3\sqrt{3}\right)y\right] \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(1, 2) = \tfrac{1}{2}\left[3\sqrt{3}(1)^2 - 3(1) + \left(8 - 3\sqrt{3}\right)(2)\right] = \frac{13 - 3\sqrt{3}}{2}$$ ■

The Gradient Vector

Notice from Theorem 3 that the directional derivative of a differentiable function can be written as the dot product of two vectors:

7 $$\begin{aligned} D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y) &= f_x(x, y)\,a + f_y(x, y)\,b \\ &= \langle f_x(x, y), f_y(x, y) \rangle \cdot \langle a, b \rangle \\ &= \langle f_x(x, y), f_y(x, y) \rangle \cdot \mathbf{u} \end{aligned}$$

The first vector in this dot product occurs not only in computing directional derivatives but in many other contexts as well. So we give it a special name (the *gradient* of f) and a special notation (**grad** f or ∇f, which is read "del f").

8 Definitio If f is a function of two variables x and y, then the **gradient** of f is the vector function ∇f defined by

$$\nabla f(x, y) = \langle f_x(x, y), f_y(x, y) \rangle = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\mathbf{j}$$

EXAMPLE 3 If $f(x, y) = \sin x + e^{xy}$, then

$$\nabla f(x, y) = \langle f_x, f_y \rangle = \langle \cos x + ye^{xy}, xe^{xy} \rangle$$

and $$\nabla f(0, 1) = \langle 2, 0 \rangle$$ ■

With this notation for the gradient vector, we can rewrite Equation 7 for the directional derivative of a differentiable function as

9 $$\boxed{D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y) = \nabla f(x, y) \cdot \mathbf{u}}$$

This expresses the directional derivative in the direction of a unit vector **u** as the scalar projection of the gradient vector onto **u**.

The gradient vector $\nabla f(2, -1)$ in Example 4 is shown in Figure 7 with initial point $(2, -1)$. Also shown is the vector **v** that gives the direction of the directional derivative. Both of these vectors are superimposed on a contour plot of the graph of f.

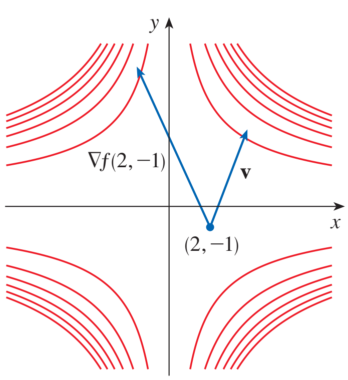


FIGURE 7

EXAMPLE 4 Find the directional derivative of the function $f(x, y) = x^2y^3 - 4y$ at the point $(2, -1)$ in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}$.

SOLUTION We first compute the gradient vector at $(2, -1)$:

$$\nabla f(x, y) = 2xy^3\mathbf{i} + (3x^2y^2 - 4)\mathbf{j}$$

$$\nabla f(2, -1) = -4\mathbf{i} + 8\mathbf{j}$$

Note that **v** is not a unit vector, but since $|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{29}$, the unit vector in the direction of **v** is

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{29}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{5}{\sqrt{29}}\mathbf{j}$$

Therefore, by Equation 9, we have

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(2, -1) = \nabla f(2, -1) \cdot \mathbf{u} = (-4\mathbf{i} + 8\mathbf{j}) \cdot \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{29}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{5}{\sqrt{29}}\mathbf{j}\right)$$

$$= \frac{-4 \cdot 2 + 8 \cdot 5}{\sqrt{29}} = \frac{32}{\sqrt{29}}$$ ■

Functions of Three Variables

For functions of three variables we can define directional derivatives in a similar manner. Again $D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y, z)$ can be interpreted as the rate of change of the function in the direction of a unit vector **u**.

10 Definitio The **directional derivative** of f at (x_0, y_0, z_0) in the direction of a unit vector $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ is

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x_0, y_0, z_0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + ha, y_0 + hb, z_0 + hc) - f(x_0, y_0, z_0)}{h}$$

if this limit exists.

If we use vector notation, then we can write both definitions (2 and 10) of the directional derivative in the compact form

11
$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(\mathbf{x}_0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}_0 + h\mathbf{u}) - f(\mathbf{x}_0)}{h}$$

where $\mathbf{x}_0 = \langle x_0, y_0 \rangle$ if $n = 2$ and $\mathbf{x}_0 = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$ if $n = 3$. This is reasonable because the vector equation of the line through $\mathbf{x}_0$ in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{u}$ is given by $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_0 + t\mathbf{u}$ (Equation 12.5.1) and so $f(\mathbf{x}_0 + h\mathbf{u})$ represents the value of f at a point on this line.

If $f(x, y, z)$ is differentiable and $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$, then the same method that was used to prove Theorem 3 can be used to show that

12
$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y, z) = f_x(x, y, z)\, a + f_y(x, y, z)\, b + f_z(x, y, z)\, c$$

For a function f of three variables, the **gradient vector**, denoted by ∇f or **grad** f, is

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = \langle f_x(x, y, z), f_y(x, y, z), f_z(x, y, z) \rangle$$

or, for short,

13
$$\nabla f = \langle f_x, f_y, f_z \rangle = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\mathbf{k}$$

Then, just as with functions of two variables, Formula 12 for the directional derivative can be rewritten as

14
$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y, z) = \nabla f(x, y, z) \cdot \mathbf{u}$$

EXAMPLE 5 If $f(x, y, z) = x \sin yz$, (a) find the gradient of f and (b) find the directional derivative of f at $(1, 3, 0)$ in the direction of $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$.

SOLUTION

(a) The gradient of f is

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla f(x, y, z) &= \langle f_x(x, y, z), f_y(x, y, z), f_z(x, y, z) \rangle \\ &= \langle \sin yz,\ xz \cos yz,\ xy \cos yz \rangle\end{aligned}$$

(b) At $(1, 3, 0)$ we have $\nabla f(1, 3, 0) = \langle 0, 0, 3 \rangle$. The unit vector in the direction of $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$ is

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}}\mathbf{j} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\mathbf{k}$$

Therefore Equation 14 gives

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\mathbf{u}} f(1, 3, 0) &= \nabla f(1, 3, 0) \cdot \mathbf{u} \\ &= 3\mathbf{k} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}}\mathbf{j} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\mathbf{k} \right) \\ &= 3\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \right) = -\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

■

Maximizing the Directional Derivative

Suppose we have a function f of two or three variables and we consider all possible directional derivatives of f at a given point. These give the rates of change of f in all possible directions. We can then ask the questions: in which of these directions does f change fastest and what is the maximum rate of change? The answers are provided by the following theorem.

15 Theorem Suppose f is a differentiable function of two or three variables. The maximum value of the directional derivative $D_{\mathbf{u}} f(\mathbf{x})$ is $|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})|$ and it occurs when $\mathbf{u}$ has the same direction as the gradient vector $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$.

PROOF From Equation 9 or 14 and using Theorem 12.3.3, we have

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f = \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{u} = |\nabla f||\mathbf{u}| \cos\theta = |\nabla f| \cos\theta$$

where θ is the angle between ∇f and $\mathbf{u}$. The maximum value of $\cos\theta$ is 1 and this occurs when $\theta = 0$. Therefore the maximum value of $D_{\mathbf{u}} f$ is $|\nabla f|$ and it occurs when $\theta = 0$, that is, when $\mathbf{u}$ has the same direction as ∇f. ■

EXAMPLE 6

(a) If $f(x, y) = xe^y$, find the rate of change of f at the point $P(2, 0)$ in the direction from P to $Q\left(\frac{1}{2}, 2\right)$.

(b) In what direction does f have the maximum rate of change? What is this maximum rate of change?

SOLUTION

(a) We first compute the gradient vector:

$$\nabla f(x, y) = \langle f_x, f_y \rangle = \langle e^y, xe^y \rangle$$

$$\nabla f(2, 0) = \langle 1, 2 \rangle$$

The unit vector in the direction of $\overrightarrow{PQ} = \langle -\frac{3}{2}, 2 \rangle$ is $\mathbf{u} = \langle -\frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5} \rangle$, so the rate of change of f in the direction from P to Q is

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f(2, 0) = \nabla f(2, 0) \cdot \mathbf{u} = \langle 1, 2 \rangle \cdot \langle -\tfrac{3}{5}, \tfrac{4}{5} \rangle = 1$$

(b) According to Theorem 15, f increases fastest in the direction of the gradient vector $\nabla f(2, 0) = \langle 1, 2 \rangle$. The maximum rate of change is

$$|\nabla f(2, 0)| = |\langle 1, 2 \rangle| = \sqrt{5}$$ ■

At (2, 0) the function in Example 6 increases fastest in the direction of the gradient vector $\nabla f(2, 0) = \langle 1, 2 \rangle$. Notice from Figure 8 that this vector appears to be perpendicular to the level curve through (2, 0). Figure 9 shows the graph of f and the gradient vector.

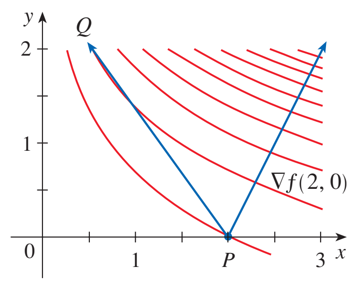


FIGURE 8

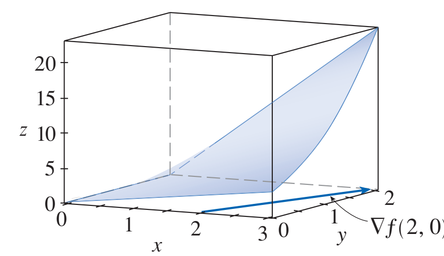


FIGURE 9

EXAMPLE 7 Suppose that the temperature at a point (x, y, z) in space is given by $T(x, y, z) = 80/(1 + x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2)$, where T is measured in degrees Celsius and x, y, z in meters. In which direction does the temperature increase fastest at the point $(1, 1, -2)$? What is the maximum rate of increase?

SOLUTION The gradient of T is

$$\nabla T = \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}\mathbf{k}$$

$$= -\frac{160x}{(1 + x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2)^2}\mathbf{i} - \frac{320y}{(1 + x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2)^2}\mathbf{j} - \frac{480z}{(1 + x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2)^2}\mathbf{k}$$

$$= \frac{160}{(1 + x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2)^2}(-x\,\mathbf{i} - 2y\,\mathbf{j} - 3z\,\mathbf{k})$$

At the point $(1, 1, -2)$ the gradient vector is

$$\nabla T(1, 1, -2) = \tfrac{160}{256}(-\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k}) = \tfrac{5}{8}(-\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k})$$

By Theorem 15 the temperature increases fastest in the direction of the gradient vector $\nabla T(1, 1, -2) = \frac{5}{8}(-\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k})$ or, equivalently, in the direction of $-\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k}$ or the unit vector $(-\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k})/\sqrt{41}$. The maximum rate of increase is the length of the gradient vector:

$$|\nabla T(1, 1, -2)| = \tfrac{5}{8}|-\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k}| = \tfrac{5}{8}\sqrt{41}$$

Therefore the maximum rate of increase of temperature is $\frac{5}{8}\sqrt{41} \approx 4°\text{C/m}$. ■

Tangent Planes to Level Surfaces

Suppose S is a surface with equation $F(x, y, z) = k$, that is, it is a level surface of a function F of three variables, and let $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ be a point on S. Let C be any curve that lies on the surface S and passes through the point P. Recall from Section 13.1 that the curve C is described by a continuous vector function $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$. Let t_0 be the parameter value corresponding to P; that is, $\mathbf{r}(t_0) = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$. Since C lies on S, any point $(x(t), y(t), z(t))$ must satisfy the equation of S, that is,

16 $$F(x(t), y(t), z(t)) = k$$

If x, y, and z are differentiable functions of t and F is also differentiable, then we can use the Chain Rule to differentiate both sides of Equation 16 as follows:

17 $$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial z}\frac{dz}{dt} = 0$$

But, since $\nabla F = \langle F_x, F_y, F_z \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle x'(t), y'(t), z'(t) \rangle$, Equation 17 can be written in terms of a dot product as

$$\nabla F \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) = 0$$

In particular, when $t = t_0$ we have $\mathbf{r}(t_0) = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$, so

18 $$\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0) = 0$$

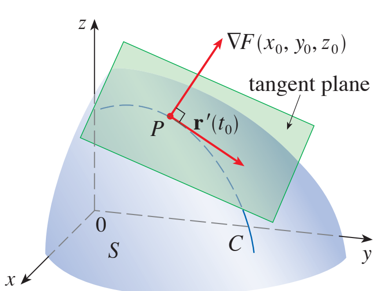


FIGURE 10

Equation 18 says that *the gradient vector at P, $\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0)$, is perpendicular to the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t_0)$ to any curve C on S that passes through P.* (See Figure 10.) If $\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0) \neq \mathbf{0}$, it is therefore natural to define the **tangent plane to the level surface** $F(x, y, z) = k$ **at** $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ as the plane that passes through P and has normal vector $\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0)$. Using the standard equation of a plane (Equation 12.5.7), we can write the equation of this tangent plane as

19 $$\boxed{F_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)(x - x_0) + F_y(x_0, y_0, z_0)(y - y_0) + F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)(z - z_0) = 0}$$

The **normal line** to S at P is the line passing through P and perpendicular to the tangent plane. The direction of the normal line is therefore given by the gradient vector $\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and so, by Equation 12.5.3, its symmetric equations are

20 $$\frac{x - x_0}{F_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)} = \frac{y - y_0}{F_y(x_0, y_0, z_0)} = \frac{z - z_0}{F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)}$$

EXAMPLE 8 Find the equations of the tangent plane and normal line to the ellipsoid

$$\frac{x^2}{4} + y^2 + \frac{z^2}{9} = 3$$

at the point $(-2, 1, -3)$.

SOLUTION The ellipsoid is the level surface (with $k = 3$) of the function

$$F(x, y, z) = \frac{x^2}{4} + y^2 + \frac{z^2}{9}$$

Figure 11 shows the ellipsoid, tangent plane, and normal line in Example 8.

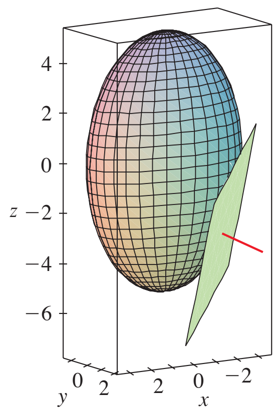


FIGURE 11

Therefore we have

$$F_x(x, y, z) = \frac{x}{2} \qquad F_y(x, y, z) = 2y \qquad F_z(x, y, z) = \frac{2z}{9}$$

$$F_x(-2, 1, -3) = -1 \qquad F_y(-2, 1, -3) = 2 \qquad F_z(-2, 1, -3) = -\tfrac{2}{3}$$

Then Equation 19 gives the equation of the tangent plane at $(-2, 1, -3)$ as

$$-1(x + 2) + 2(y - 1) - \tfrac{2}{3}(z + 3) = 0$$

which simplifies to $3x - 6y + 2z + 18 = 0$.

By Equation 20, symmetric equations of the normal line are

$$\frac{x + 2}{-1} = \frac{y - 1}{2} = \frac{z + 3}{-\frac{2}{3}}$$

■

In the special case in which the equation of a surface S is of the form $z = f(x, y)$ (that is, S is the graph of a function f of two variables), we can rewrite the equation as

$$F(x, y, z) = f(x, y) - z = 0$$

and regard S as a level surface (with $k = 0$) of F. Then

$$F_x(x_0, y_0, z_0) = f_x(x_0, y_0)$$

$$F_y(x_0, y_0, z_0) = f_y(x_0, y_0)$$

$$F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0) = -1$$

so Equation 19 becomes

$$f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) - (z - z_0) = 0$$

which is equivalent to Equation 14.4.2. Thus our new, more general, definition of a tangent plane is consistent with the definition that was given for the special case of Section 14.4.

EXAMPLE 9 Find the tangent plane to the surface $z = 2x^2 + y^2$ at the point $(1, 1, 3)$.

SOLUTION The surface $z = 2x^2 + y^2$ or, equivalently, $2x^2 + y^2 - z = 0$ is a level surface (with $k = 0$) of the function

$$F(x, y, z) = 2x^2 + y^2 - z$$

Then

$$F_x(x, y, z) = 4x \qquad F_y(x, y, z) = 2y \qquad F_z(x, y, z) = -1$$

$$F_x(1, 1, 3) = 4 \qquad F_y(1, 1, 3) = 2 \qquad F_z(1, 1, 3) = -1$$

By Equation 19 the equation of the tangent plane at $(1, 1, 3)$ is

Compare the solution to Example 9 to the one in Example 14.4.1.

$$4(x - 1) + 2(y - 1) - (z - 3) = 0$$

which simplifies to $z = 4x + 2y - 3$. ■

Significance of the Gradient Vector

We first consider a function f of three variables and a point $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ in its domain. We know from Theorem 15 that the gradient vector $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ gives the direction of fastest increase of f. We also know that $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ is orthogonal to the level surface S of f through P. (Refer to Figure 10.) These two properties are quite compatible intuitively because as we move away from P on the level surface S, the value of f does not change at all. So it seems reasonable that if we move in the perpendicular direction, we get the maximum increase.

In like manner we consider a function f of two variables and a point $P(x_0, y_0)$ in its domain. Again the gradient vector $\nabla f(x_0, y_0)$ gives the direction of fastest increase of f. Also, by considerations similar to our discussion of tangent planes, it can be shown that $\nabla f(x_0, y_0)$ is perpendicular to the level curve $f(x, y) = k$ that passes through P. Again this is intuitively plausible because the values of f remain constant as we move along the curve (see Figure 12).

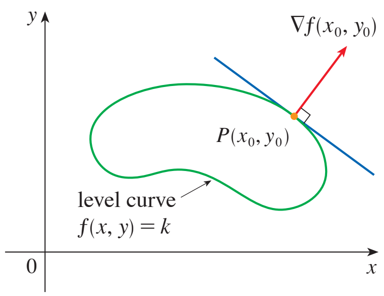


FIGURE 12

We now summarize the ways in which the gradient vector is significant.

Properties of the Gradient Vector Let f be a differentiable function of two or three variables and suppose that $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \neq \mathbf{0}$.

- The directional derivative of f at $\mathbf{x}$ in the direction of a unit vector $\mathbf{u}$ is given by $D_{\mathbf{u}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{u}$.
- $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ points in the direction of maximum rate of increase of f at $\mathbf{x}$, and that maximum rate of change is $|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})|$.
- $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ is perpendicular to the level curve or level surface of f through $\mathbf{x}$.

If we consider a topographical map of a hill and let $f(x, y)$ represent the height above sea level at a point with coordinates (x, y), then a curve of steepest ascent can be drawn as in Figure 13 by making it perpendicular to all of the contour lines. This phenomenon can also be noticed in Figure 14.1.12, where Lonesome Creek follows a curve of steepest descent.

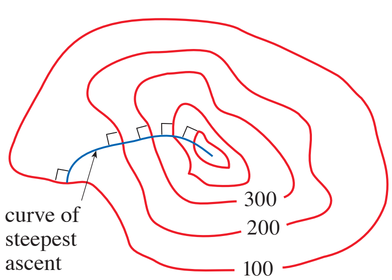


FIGURE 13

Mathematical software can plot sample gradient vectors, where each gradient vector $\nabla f(a, b)$ is plotted starting at the point (a, b). Figure 14 shows such a plot (called a *gradient vector field*) for the function $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$ superimposed on a contour map of f. As expected, the gradient vectors point "uphill" and are perpendicular to the level curves.

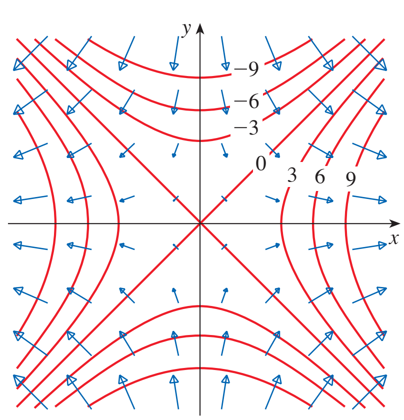
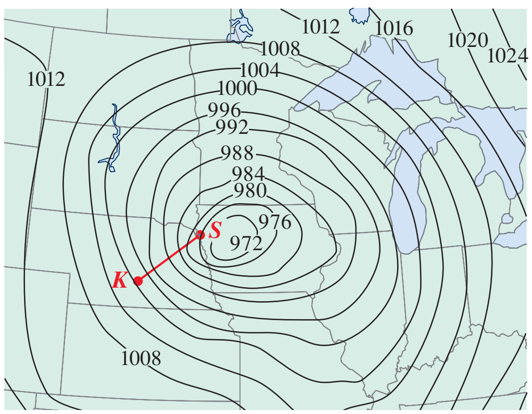


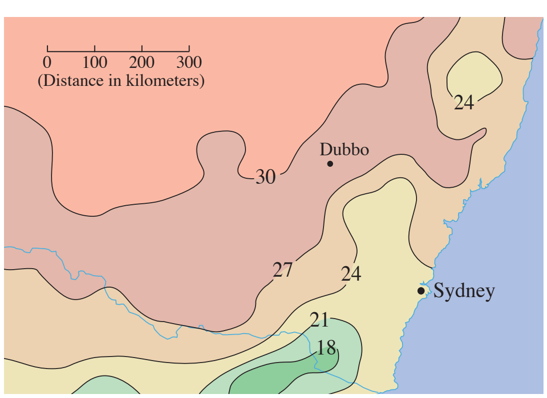
FIGURE 14

14.6 Exercises

1. Level curves for barometric pressure (in millibars) are shown for 6:00 AM on a day in November. A deep low with pressure 972 mb is moving over northeast Iowa. The distance along the red line from K (Kearney, Nebraska) to S (Sioux City, Iowa) is 300 km. Estimate the value of the directional derivative of the pressure function at Kearney in the direction of Sioux City. What are the units of the directional derivative?



2. The contour map shows the average maximum temperature for November 2004 (in °C). Estimate the value of the directional derivative of this temperature function at Dubbo, New South Wales, in the direction of Sydney. What are the units?



3. The wind-chill index W is the perceived temperature when the actual temperature is T and the wind speed is v, so we can write $W = f(T, v)$. The following table of values is an excerpt from Table 1 in Section 14.1. Use the table to estimate the value of $D_{\mathbf{u}} f(-20, 30)$, where $\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})/\sqrt{2}$.

Wind speed (km/h); Actual temperature (°C)

T \ v	20	30	40	50	60	70
−10	−18	−20	−21	−22	−23	−23
−15	−24	−26	−27	−29	−30	−30
−20	−30	−33	−34	−35	−36	−37
−25	−37	−39	−41	−42	−43	−44

4–7 Find the directional derivative of f at the given point in the direction indicated by the angle θ.

4. $f(x, y) = xy^3 - x^2$, $(1, 2)$, $\theta = \pi/3$

5. $f(x, y) = y\cos(xy)$, $(0, 1)$, $\theta = \pi/4$

6. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{2x + 3y}$, $(3, 1)$, $\theta = -\pi/6$

7. $f(x, y) = \arctan(xy)$, $(2, -3)$, $\theta = 3\pi/4$

8–12

(a) Find the gradient of f.
(b) Evaluate the gradient at the point P.
(c) Find the rate of change of f at P in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{u}$.

8. $f(x, y) = x^2e^y$, $P(3, 0)$, $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{5}(3\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j})$

9. $f(x, y) = x/y$, $P(2, 1)$, $\mathbf{u} = \frac{3}{5}\mathbf{i} + \frac{4}{5}\mathbf{j}$

10. $f(x, y) = x^2\ln y$, $P(3, 1)$, $\mathbf{u} = -\frac{5}{13}\mathbf{i} + \frac{12}{13}\mathbf{j}$

11. $f(x, y, z) = x^2yz - xyz^3$, $P(2, -1, 1)$, $\mathbf{u} = \left\langle 0, \frac{4}{5}, -\frac{3}{5}\right\rangle$

12. $f(x, y, z) = y^2e^{xyz}$, $P(0, 1, -1)$, $\mathbf{u} = \left\langle \frac{3}{13}, \frac{4}{13}, \frac{12}{13}\right\rangle$

13–19 Find the directional derivative of the function at the given point in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{v}$.

13. $f(x, y) = e^x\sin y$, $(0, \pi/3)$, $\mathbf{v} = \langle -6, 8\rangle$

14. $f(x, y) = \dfrac{x}{x^2 + y^2}$, $(1, 2)$, $\mathbf{v} = \langle 3, 5\rangle$

15. $g(s, t) = s\sqrt{t}$, $(2, 4)$, $\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$

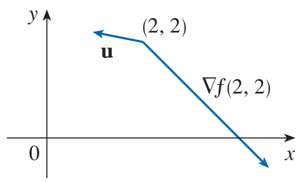
16. $g(u, v) = u^2e^{-v}$, $(3, 0)$, $\mathbf{v} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$

17. $f(x, y, z) = x^2y + y^2z$, $(1, 2, 3)$, $\mathbf{v} = \langle 2, -1, 2\rangle$

18. $f(x, y, z) = xy^2\tan^{-1}z$, $(2, 1, 1)$, $\mathbf{v} = \langle 1, 1, 1\rangle$

19. $h(r, s, t) = \ln(3r + 6s + 9t)$, $(1, 1, 1)$, $\mathbf{v} = 4\mathbf{i} + 12\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k}$

20. Use the figure to estimate $D_{\mathbf{u}} f(2, 2)$.



21–25 Find the directional derivative of the function at the point P in the direction of the point Q.

21. $f(x, y) = x^2y^2 - y^3$, $P(1, 2)$, $Q(-3, 5)$

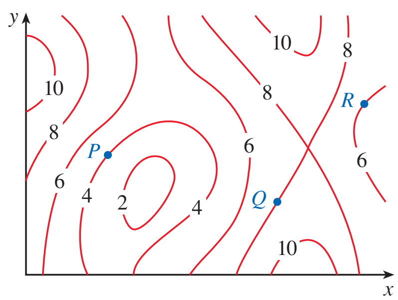
22. $f(x, y) = \dfrac{x}{y^2}$, $P(3, -1)$, $Q(-2, 11)$

23. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{xy}$, $P(2, 8)$, $Q(5, 4)$

24. $f(x, y, z) = xy^2z^3$, $P(2, 1, 1)$, $Q(0, -3, 5)$

25. $f(x, y, z) = xy - xy^2z^2$, $P(2, -1, 1)$, $Q(5, 1, 7)$

26. The contour map of a function f is shown. At points P, Q, and R, draw an arrow to indicate the direction of the gradient vector.



27–32 Find the maximum rate of change of f at the given point and the direction in which it occurs.

27. $f(x, y) = 5xy^2$, $(3, -2)$

28. $f(s, t) = \dfrac{s}{s^2 + t^2}$, $(-1, 1)$

29. $f(x, y) = \sin(xy)$, $(1, 0)$

30. $f(x, y, z) = x\ln(yz)$, $\left(1, 2, \frac{1}{2}\right)$

31. $f(x, y, z) = x/(y + z)$, $(8, 1, 3)$

32. $f(p, q, r) = \arctan(pqr)$, $(1, 2, 1)$

33. Direction of Most Rapid Decrease

(a) Show that a differentiable function f decreases most rapidly at $\mathbf{x}$ in the direction opposite the gradient vector, that is, in the direction of $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$, and that the maximum rate of decrease is $-|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})|$.

(b) Use the result of part (a) to find the direction in which the function $f(x, y) = x^4y - x^2y^3$ decreases fastest at the point $(2, -3)$. What is the rate of decrease?

34. Find the directions in which the directional derivative of $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy^3$ at the point $(2, 1)$ has the value 2.

35. Find all points at which the direction of greatest rate of change of the function $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 2x - 4y$ is $\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$.

36. Near a buoy, the depth of a lake at the point with coordinates (x, y) is $z = 200 + 0.02x^2 - 0.001y^3$, where x, y, and z are measured in meters. A fisherman in a small boat starts at the point $(80, 60)$ and moves toward the buoy, which is located at $(0, 0)$. Is the water under the boat getting deeper or shallower when he departs? Explain.

37. The temperature T in a metal ball is inversely proportional to the distance from the center of the ball, which we take to be the origin. The temperature at the point $(1, 2, 2)$ is $120°$.

(a) Find the rate of change of T at $(1, 2, 2)$ in the direction toward the point $(2, 1, 3)$.

(b) Show that at any point in the ball the direction of greatest increase in temperature is given by a vector that points toward the origin.

38. The temperature at a point (x, y, z) is given by

$$T(x, y, z) = 200e^{-x^2-3y^2-9z^2}$$

where T is measured in °C and x, y, z in meters.

(a) Find the rate of change of temperature at the point $P(2, -1, 2)$ in the direction toward the point $(3, -3, 3)$.

(b) In which direction does the temperature increase fastest at P?

(c) Find the maximum rate of increase at P.

39. Suppose that over a certain region of space the electrical potential V is given by $V(x, y, z) = 5x^2 - 3xy + xyz$.

(a) Find the rate of change of the potential at $P(3, 4, 5)$ in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$.

(b) In which direction does V change most rapidly at P?

(c) What is the maximum rate of change at P?

40. Suppose you are climbing a hill whose shape is given by the equation $z = 1000 - 0.005x^2 - 0.01y^2$, where x, y, and z are measured in meters, and you are standing at a point with coordinates $(60, 40, 966)$. The positive x-axis points east and the positive y-axis points north.

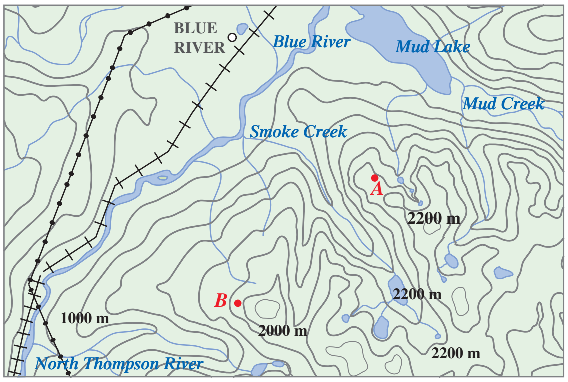
(a) If you walk due south, will you start to ascend or descend? At what rate?

(b) If you walk northwest, will you start to ascend or descend? At what rate?

(c) In which direction is the slope largest? What is the rate of ascent in that direction? At what angle above the horizontal does the path in that direction begin?

41. Let f be a function of two variables that has continuous partial derivatives and consider the points $A(1, 3)$, $B(3, 3)$, $C(1, 7)$, and $D(6, 15)$. The directional derivative of f at A in the direction of the vector $\overrightarrow{AB}$ is 3, and the directional derivative at A in the direction of $\overrightarrow{AC}$ is 26. Find the directional derivative of f at A in the direction of the vector $\overrightarrow{AD}$.

42. Shown is a topographic map of Blue River Pine Provincial Park in British Columbia. Draw curves of steepest descent from point A (descending to Mud Lake) and from point B.



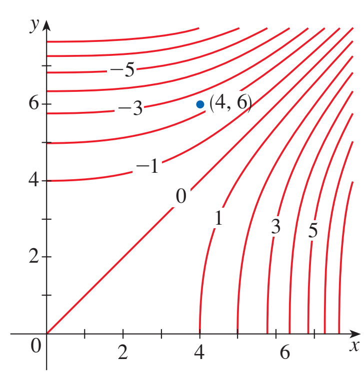
43. Show that the operation of taking the gradient of a function has the given property. Assume that u and v are differentiable functions of x and y and that a, b are constants.

(a) $\nabla(au + bv) = a\,\nabla u + b\,\nabla v$

(b) $\nabla(uv) = u\,\nabla v + v\,\nabla u$

(c) $\nabla\left(\dfrac{u}{v}\right) = \dfrac{v\,\nabla u - u\,\nabla v}{v^2}$ (d) $\nabla u^n = nu^{n-1}\,\nabla u$

44. Sketch the gradient vector $\nabla f(4, 6)$ for the function f whose level curves are shown. Explain how you chose the direction and length of this vector.



45–46 Second Directional Derivatives The *second directional derivative* of $f(x, y)$ is

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}^2 f(x, y) = D_{\mathbf{u}}[D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y)]$$

45. If $f(x, y) = x^3 + 5x^2y + y^3$ and $\mathbf{u} = \left\langle \frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5} \right\rangle$, calculate $D_{\mathbf{u}}^2 f(2, 1)$.

46. (a) If $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b \rangle$ is a unit vector and f has continuous second partial derivatives, show that

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}^2 f = f_{xx}a^2 + 2f_{xy}ab + f_{yy}b^2$$

(b) Find the second directional derivative of $f(x, y) = xe^{2y}$ in the direction of $\mathbf{v} = \langle 4, 6 \rangle$.

47–52 Find equations of (a) the tangent plane and (b) the normal line to the given surface at the specified point.

47. $2(x - 2)^2 + (y - 1)^2 + (z - 3)^2 = 10$, $(3, 3, 5)$

48. $x = y^2 + z^2 + 1$, $(3, 1, -1)$

49. $xy^2z^3 = 8$, $(2, 2, 1)$

50. $xy + yz + zx = 5$, $(1, 2, 1)$

51. $x + y + z = e^{xyz}$, $(0, 0, 1)$

52. $x^4 + y^4 + z^4 = 3x^2y^2z^2$, $(1, 1, 1)$

53–54 Graph the surface, the tangent plane, and the normal line at the given point on the same screen. Choose a viewpoint so that you get a good view of all three objects.

53. $xy + yz + zx = 3$, $(1, 1, 1)$ **54.** $xyz = 6$, $(1, 2, 3)$

55. If $f(x, y) = xy$, find the gradient vector $\nabla f(3, 2)$ and use it to find the tangent line to the level curve $f(x, y) = 6$ at the point $(3, 2)$. Sketch the level curve, the tangent line, and the gradient vector.

56. If $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 4x$, find the gradient vector $\nabla g(1, 2)$ and use it to find the tangent line to the level curve $g(x, y) = 1$ at the point $(1, 2)$. Sketch the level curve, the tangent line, and the gradient vector.

57. Show that the equation of the tangent plane to the ellipsoid $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 + z^2/c^2 = 1$ at the point (x_0, y_0, z_0) can be written as

$$\frac{xx_0}{a^2} + \frac{yy_0}{b^2} + \frac{zz_0}{c^2} = 1$$

58. Find the equation of the tangent plane to the hyperboloid $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 - z^2/c^2 = 1$ at (x_0, y_0, z_0) and express it in a form similar to the one in Exercise 57.

59. Show that the equation of the tangent plane to the elliptic paraboloid $z/c = x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2$ at the point (x_0, y_0, z_0) can be written as

$$\frac{2xx_0}{a^2} + \frac{2yy_0}{b^2} = \frac{z + z_0}{c}$$

60. At what point on the ellipsoid $x^2 + y^2 + 2z^2 = 1$ is the tangent plane parallel to the plane $x + 2y + z = 1$?

61. Are there any points on the hyperboloid $x^2 - y^2 - z^2 = 1$ where the tangent plane is parallel to the plane $z = x + y$?

62. Show that the ellipsoid $3x^2 + 2y^2 + z^2 = 9$ and the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 8x - 6y - 8z + 24 = 0$ are tangent to each other at the point $(1, 1, 2)$. (This means that they have a common tangent plane at the point.)

63. Show that every plane that is tangent to the cone $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$ passes through the origin.

64. Show that every normal line to the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = r^2$ passes through the center of the sphere.

65. Where does the normal line to the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ at the point $(1, 1, 2)$ intersect the paraboloid a second time?

66. At what points does the normal line through the point $(1, 2, 1)$ on the ellipsoid $4x^2 + y^2 + 4z^2 = 12$ intersect the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 102$?

67. Show that the sum of the x-, y-, and z-intercepts of any tangent plane to the surface $\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y} + \sqrt{z} = \sqrt{c}$ is a constant.

68. Show that the pyramids cut off from the first octant by any tangent planes to the surface $xyz = 1$ at points in the first octant must all have the same volume.

69. Find parametric equations for the tangent line to the curve of intersection of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and the ellipsoid $4x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$ at the point $(-1, 1, 2)$.

70. (a) The plane $y + z = 3$ intersects the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 5$ in an ellipse. Find parametric equations for the tangent line to this ellipse at the point $(1, 2, 1)$.
(b) Graph the cylinder, the plane, and the tangent line on the same screen.

71. Where does the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos \pi t, \sin \pi t, t \rangle$ intersect the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$? What is the angle of intersection between the helix and the paraboloid? (This is the angle between the tangent vector to the curve and the tangent plane to the paraboloid.)

72. The helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos(\pi t/2), \sin(\pi t/2), t \rangle$ intersects the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2$ in two points. Find the angle of intersection at each point.

73–74 Orthogonal Surfaces Two surfaces are called *orthogonal* at a point of intersection if their normal lines are perpendicular at that point.

73. Show that surfaces with equations $F(x, y, z) = 0$ and $G(x, y, z) = 0$ are orthogonal at a point P where $\nabla F \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $\nabla G \neq \mathbf{0}$ if and only if

$$F_x G_x + F_y G_y + F_z G_z = 0 \quad \text{at } P$$

74. Use Exercise 73 to show that the surfaces $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ and $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = r^2$ are orthogonal at every point of intersection. Can you see why this is true without using calculus?

75. Suppose that the directional derivatives of $f(x, y)$ are known at a given point in two nonparallel directions given by unit vectors $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$. Is it possible to find ∇f at this point? If so, how would you do it?

76. (a) Show that the function $f(x, y) = \sqrt[3]{xy}$ is continuous and the partial derivatives f_x and f_y exist at the origin, but the directional derivatives in all other directions do not exist.
(b) Graph f near the origin and comment on how the graph confirms part (a).

77. Show that if $z = f(x, y)$ is differentiable at $\mathbf{x}_0 = \langle x_0, y_0 \rangle$, then

$$\lim_{\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{x}_0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}) - [f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)]}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0|} = 0$$

[*Hint:* Use Definition 14.4.7 directly.]

14.7 Maximum and Minimum Values

Local Maximum and Minimum Values

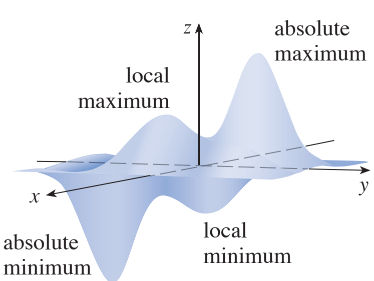


FIGURE 1

As we saw in Chapter 4, one of the main uses of ordinary derivatives is in finding maximum and minimum values (extreme values). In this section we see how to use partial derivatives to locate maxima and minima of functions of two variables. In particular, in Example 6 we will see how to maximize the volume of a box without a lid if we have a fixed amount of cardboard to work with.

Look at the hills and valleys in the graph of f shown in Figure 1. There are two points (a, b) where f has a *local maximum*, that is, where $f(a, b)$ is larger than nearby values of $f(x, y)$. Likewise, f has two *local minima*, where $f(a, b)$ is smaller than nearby values. The largest value of $f(x, y)$ on the domain of f is the *absolute maximum*, and the smallest value is the *absolute minimum*.

1 Definitio A function of two variables has a **local maximum** at (a, b) if $f(x, y) \leqslant f(a, b)$ when (x, y) is near (a, b). [This means that $f(x, y) \leqslant f(a, b)$ for all points (x, y) in some disk with center (a, b).] The number $f(a, b)$ is called a **local maximum value**. If $f(x, y) \geqslant f(a, b)$ when (x, y) is near (a, b), then f has a **local minimum** at (a, b) and $f(a, b)$ is a **local minimum value**.

Fermat's Theorem (Section 4.1) states that, for single-variable functions, if f has a local maximum or minimum at c, and if $f'(c)$ exists, then $f'(c) = 0$. The following theorem states a similar result for functions of two variables.

Notice that the conclusion of Theorem 2 can be stated in the notation of gradient vectors as $\nabla f(a, b) = \mathbf{0}$.

2 Theorem If f has a local maximum or minimum at (a, b) and the first-order partial derivatives of f exist there, then $f_x(a, b) = 0$ and $f_y(a, b) = 0$.

PROOF Let $g(x) = f(x, b)$. If f has a local maximum (or minimum) at (a, b), then g has a local maximum (or minimum) at a, so $g'(a) = 0$ by Fermat's Theorem (see Theorem 4.1.4). But $g'(a) = f_x(a, b)$ (see Equation 14.3.1) and so $f_x(a, b) = 0$. Similarly, by applying Fermat's Theorem to the function $G(y) = f(a, y)$, we obtain $f_y(a, b) = 0$. ■

If we put $f_x(a, b) = 0$ and $f_y(a, b) = 0$ in the equation of a tangent plane (Equation 14.4.2), we get $z = z_0$. Thus the geometric interpretation of Theorem 2 is that if the graph of f has a tangent plane at a local maximum or minimum, then the tangent plane must be horizontal.

A point (a, b) is called a **critical point** (or *stationary point*) of f if $f_x(a, b) = 0$ and $f_y(a, b) = 0$, or if one of these partial derivatives does not exist. Theorem 2 says that if f has a local maximum or minimum at (a, b), then (a, b) is a critical point of f. However, as in single-variable calculus, not all critical points give rise to maxima or minima.

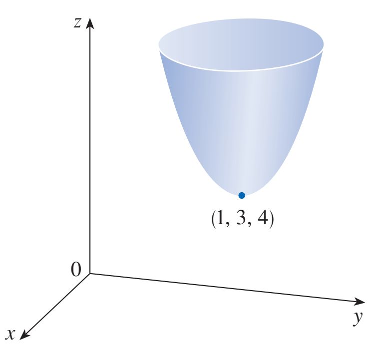


FIGURE 2
$z = x^2 + y^2 - 2x - 6y + 14$

EXAMPLE 1 Let $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 2x - 6y + 14$. Then

$$f_x(x, y) = 2x - 2 \qquad f_y(x, y) = 2y - 6$$

These partial derivatives are equal to 0 when $x = 1$ and $y = 3$, so the only critical point is $(1, 3)$. By completing the square, we find that

$$f(x, y) = 4 + (x - 1)^2 + (y - 3)^2$$

Since $(x - 1)^2 \geqslant 0$ and $(y - 3)^2 \geqslant 0$, we have $f(x, y) \geqslant 4$ for all values of x and y. Therefore $f(1, 3) = 4$ is a local minimum, and in fact it is the absolute minimum of f. This can be confirmed geometrically from the graph of f, which is the elliptic paraboloid with vertex $(1, 3, 4)$ shown in Figure 2. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Find the extreme values of $f(x, y) = y^2 - x^2$.

SOLUTION Since $f_x = -2x$ and $f_y = 2y$, the only critical point is $(0, 0)$. Notice that for points on the x-axis we have $y = 0$, so $f(x, y) = -x^2 < 0$ (if $x \neq 0$). However, for points on the y-axis we have $x = 0$, so $f(x, y) = y^2 > 0$ (if $y \neq 0$). Thus every disk with center $(0, 0)$ contains points where f takes on positive values as well as points where f takes on negative values. Therefore $f(0, 0) = 0$ can't be an extreme value for f, so f has no extreme value. ■

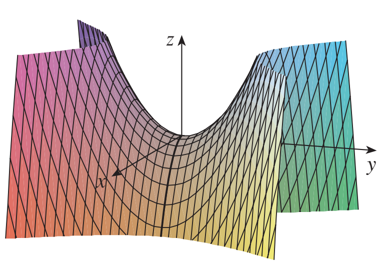


FIGURE 3
$z = y^2 - x^2$

Example 2 illustrates the fact that a function need not have a maximum or minimum value at a critical point. Figure 3 shows one way in which this can happen. The graph of f is the hyperbolic paraboloid $z = y^2 - x^2$, which has a horizontal tangent plane ($z = 0$) at the origin. You can see that $f(0, 0) = 0$ is a maximum in the direction of the x-axis but a minimum in the direction of the y-axis.

Photo by Stan Wagon, Macalester College

A mountain pass also has the shape of a saddle; for people hiking in one direction the saddle point is the lowest point on their route, whereas for those traveling in a different direction the saddle point is the highest point.

Recall that for functions of a single variable, a critical number c where $f'(c) = 0$ may correspond to a local maximum, a local minimum, or neither. An analogous situation occurs for functions of two variables. If (a, b) is a critical point of a function f, where $f_x(a, b) = 0$ and $f_y(a, b) = 0$, then $f(a, b)$ may be a local maximum, a local minimum, or neither. In the last case, we say that (a, b) is a **saddle point** of f. The name is suggested by the shape of the surface in Figure 3 near the origin. In general, the graph of a function at a saddle point need not resemble an actual saddle, but the graph crosses the tangent plane at that point.

We need to be able to determine whether or not a function has an extreme value at a critical point. The following test, which is proved at the end of this section, is analogous to the Second Derivative Test for functions of one variable.

3 Second Derivatives Test Suppose the second partial derivatives of f are continuous on a disk with center (a, b), and suppose that $f_x(a, b) = 0$ and $f_y(a, b) = 0$ [so (a, b) is a critical point of f]. Let

$$D = D(a, b) = f_{xx}(a, b) f_{yy}(a, b) - [f_{xy}(a, b)]^2$$

(a) If $D > 0$ and $f_{xx}(a, b) > 0$, then $f(a, b)$ is a local minimum.
(b) If $D > 0$ and $f_{xx}(a, b) < 0$, then $f(a, b)$ is a local maximum.
(c) If $D < 0$, then (a, b) is a saddle point of f.

NOTE 1 If $D = 0$, the test gives no information: f could have a local maximum or local minimum at (a, b), or (a, b) could be a saddle point of f.

NOTE 2 To remember the formula for D, it's helpful to write it as a determinant:

$$D = \begin{vmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xy} \\ f_{yx} & f_{yy} \end{vmatrix} = f_{xx} f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2$$

EXAMPLE 3 Find the local maximum and minimum values and saddle points of $f(x, y) = x^4 + y^4 - 4xy + 1$.

SOLUTION We first find the partial derivatives:

$$f_x = 4x^3 - 4y \qquad f_y = 4y^3 - 4x$$

Since these partial derivatives exist everywhere, the critical points occur where both partial derivatives are zero:

$$x^3 - y = 0 \qquad \text{and} \qquad y^3 - x = 0$$

To solve these equations we substitute $y = x^3$ from the first equation into the second one. This gives

$$0 = x^9 - x = x(x^8 - 1) = x(x^4 - 1)(x^4 + 1) = x(x^2 - 1)(x^2 + 1)(x^4 + 1)$$

so there are three real solutions: $x = 0, 1, -1$. The three critical points are $(0, 0)$, $(1, 1)$, and $(-1, -1)$.

Next we calculate the second partial derivatives and $D(x, y)$:

$$f_{xx} = 12x^2 \qquad f_{xy} = -4 \qquad f_{yy} = 12y^2$$
$$D(x, y) = f_{xx}f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2 = 144x^2y^2 - 16$$

Since $D(0, 0) = -16 < 0$, it follows from case (c) of the Second Derivatives Test that the origin is a saddle point. Since $D(1, 1) = 128 > 0$ and $f_{xx}(1, 1) = 12 > 0$, we see from case (a) of the test that $f(1, 1) = -1$ is a local minimum. This means that -1 is a local minimum value, and it occurs at the point $(1, 1)$. Similarly, we have $D(-1, -1) = 128 > 0$ and $f_{xx}(-1, -1) = 12 > 0$, so $f(-1, -1) = -1$ is also a local minimum.

The graph of f is shown in Figure 4. ■

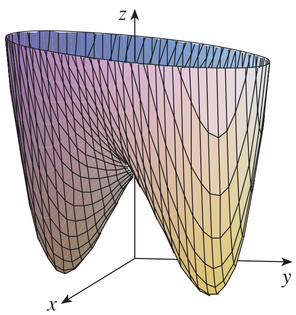


FIGURE 4
$z = x^4 + y^4 - 4xy + 1$

A contour map of the function f in Example 3 is shown in Figure 5. The level curves near $(1, 1)$ and $(-1, -1)$ are oval in shape and indicate that as we move away from $(1, 1)$ or $(-1, -1)$ in any direction the values of f are increasing. The level curves near $(0, 0)$, on the other hand, resemble hyperbolas. They reveal that as we move away from the origin (where the value of f is 1), the values of f decrease in some directions but increase in other directions. Thus the contour map suggests the presence of the minima and saddle point that we found in Example 3.

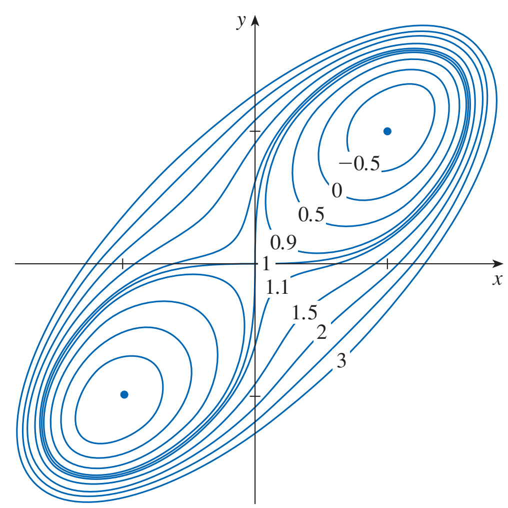


FIGURE 5

EXAMPLE 4 Find and classify the critical points of the function

$$f(x, y) = 10x^2y - 5x^2 - 4y^2 - x^4 - 2y^4$$

Also find the highest point on the graph of f.

SOLUTION The first-order partial derivatives are

$$f_x = 20xy - 10x - 4x^3 \qquad f_y = 10x^2 - 8y - 8y^3$$

So to find the critical points we need to solve the equations

$$\boxed{4} \qquad 2x(10y - 5 - 2x^2) = 0$$

$$\boxed{5} \qquad 5x^2 - 4y - 4y^3 = 0$$

From Equation 4 we see that either

$$x = 0 \qquad \text{or} \qquad 10y - 5 - 2x^2 = 0$$

In the first case ($x = 0$), Equation 5 becomes $-4y(1 + y^2) = 0$, so $y = 0$ and we have the critical point $(0, 0)$.

In the second case ($10y - 5 - 2x^2 = 0$), we get

$$\boxed{6} \qquad x^2 = 5y - 2.5$$

and, putting this in Equation 5, we have $25y - 12.5 - 4y - 4y^3 = 0$ or, equivalently,

$$4y^3 - 21y + 12.5 = 0$$

Using a graphing calculator or computer to solve this equation numerically, we obtain

$$y \approx -2.5452 \qquad y \approx 0.6468 \qquad y \approx 1.8984$$

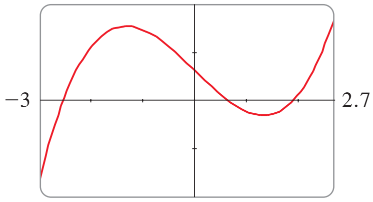


FIGURE 6

(Alternatively, we could graph the function $g(y) = 4y^3 - 21y + 12.5$, as in Figure 6, and find the intercepts.) From Equation 6, the corresponding x-values are given by

$$x = \pm\sqrt{5y - 2.5}$$

If $y \approx -2.5452$, then x has no corresponding real values. If $y \approx 0.6468$, then $x \approx \pm 0.8567$. If $y \approx 1.8984$, then $x \approx \pm 2.6442$. So we have a total of five critical points, which are analyzed in the following chart. All quantities are rounded to two decimal places.

Critical point	Value of f	f_{xx}	D	Conclusion
$(0, 0)$	0.00	−10.00	80.00	local maximum
$(\pm 2.64, 1.90)$	8.50	−55.93	2488.72	local maximum
$(\pm 0.86, 0.65)$	−1.48	−5.87	−187.64	saddle point

Figures 7 and 8 give two views of the graph of f and we see that the surface opens downward. [This can also be seen from the expression for $f(x, y)$: the dominant terms are $-x^4 - 2y^4$ when $|x|$ and $|y|$ are large.] Comparing the values of f at its local maximum points, we see that the absolute maximum value of f is $f(\pm 2.64, 1.90) \approx 8.50$. In other words, the highest points on the graph of f are $(\pm 2.64, 1.90, 8.50)$.

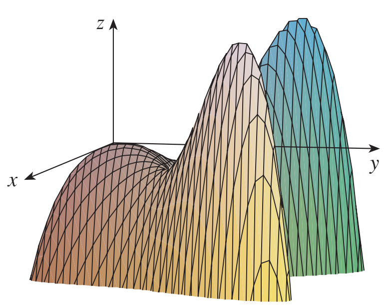


FIGURE 7

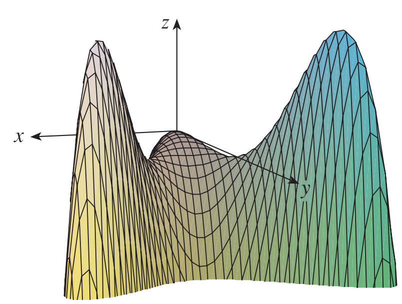


FIGURE 8 ■

The five critical points of the function f in Example 4 are shown in red in the contour map of f in Figure 9.

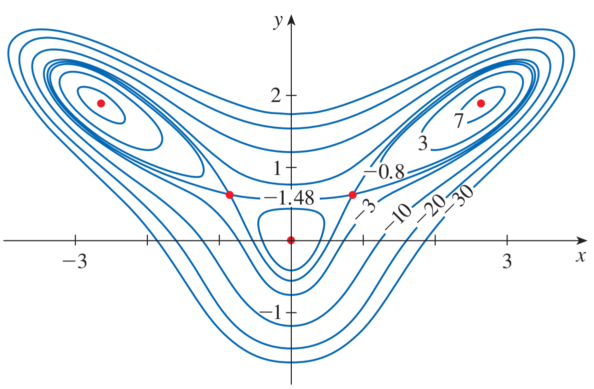


FIGURE 9

EXAMPLE 5 Find the shortest distance from the point $(1, 0, -2)$ to the plane $x + 2y + z = 4$.

SOLUTION The distance from any point (x, y, z) to the point $(1, 0, -2)$ is

$$d = \sqrt{(x-1)^2 + y^2 + (z+2)^2}$$

but if (x, y, z) lies on the plane $x + 2y + z = 4$, then $z = 4 - x - 2y$ and so we have $d = \sqrt{(x-1)^2 + y^2 + (6 - x - 2y)^2}$. We can minimize d by minimizing the simpler expression

$$d^2 = f(x, y) = (x-1)^2 + y^2 + (6 - x - 2y)^2$$

By solving the equations

$$f_x = 2(x-1) - 2(6 - x - 2y) = 4x + 4y - 14 = 0$$
$$f_y = 2y - 4(6 - x - 2y) = 4x + 10y - 24 = 0$$

we find that the only critical point is $\left(\frac{11}{6}, \frac{5}{3}\right)$. Since $f_{xx} = 4$, $f_{xy} = 4$, and $f_{yy} = 10$, we have $D(x, y) = f_{xx}f_{yy} - (f_{xy})^2 = 24 > 0$ and $f_{xx} > 0$, so by the Second Derivatives Test f has a local minimum at $\left(\frac{11}{6}, \frac{5}{3}\right)$. Intuitively, we can see that this local minimum is actually an absolute minimum because there must be a point on the given plane that is closest to $(1, 0, -2)$. If $x = \frac{11}{6}$ and $y = \frac{5}{3}$, then

Example 5 could also be solved using vectors. Compare with the methods of Section 12.5.

$$d = \sqrt{(x-1)^2 + y^2 + (6 - x - 2y)^2} = \sqrt{\left(\tfrac{5}{6}\right)^2 + \left(\tfrac{5}{3}\right)^2 + \left(\tfrac{5}{6}\right)^2} = \tfrac{5}{6}\sqrt{6}$$

The shortest distance from $(1, 0, -2)$ to the plane $x + 2y + z = 4$ is $\frac{5}{6}\sqrt{6}$. ■

EXAMPLE 6 A rectangular box without a lid is to be made from 12 m^2 of cardboard. Find the maximum volume of such a box.

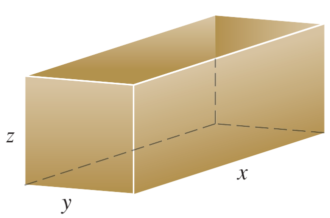


FIGURE 10

SOLUTION Let the length, width, and height of the box (in meters) be x, y, and z, as shown in Figure 10. Then the volume of the box is

$$V = xyz$$

We can express V as a function of just two variables x and y by using the fact that the area of the four sides and the bottom of the box is

$$2xz + 2yz + xy = 12$$

Solving this equation for z, we get $z = (12 - xy)/[2(x + y)]$, so the expression for V becomes

$$V = xy\,\frac{12 - xy}{2(x+y)} = \frac{12xy - x^2y^2}{2(x+y)}$$

We compute the partial derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = \frac{y^2(12 - 2xy - x^2)}{2(x+y)^2} \qquad \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} = \frac{x^2(12 - 2xy - y^2)}{2(x+y)^2}$$

If V is a maximum, then $\partial V/\partial x = \partial V/\partial y = 0$, but $x = 0$ or $y = 0$ gives $V = 0$. It remains to solve the equations

$$12 - 2xy - x^2 = 0 \qquad 12 - 2xy - y^2 = 0$$

These imply that $x^2 = y^2$ and so $x = y$. (Note that x and y must both be nonnegative in this problem.) If we put $x = y$ in either equation we get $12 - 3x^2 = 0$, which gives $x = 2$, $y = 2$, and $z = (12 - 2 \cdot 2)/[2(2 + 2)] = 1$.

We could use the Second Derivatives Test to show that this gives a local maximum of V, or we could simply argue from the physical nature of this problem that there must be an absolute maximum volume, which has to occur at a critical point of V, so it must occur when $x = 2$, $y = 2$, $z = 1$. Then $V = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 4$, so the maximum volume of the box is 4 m^3. ■

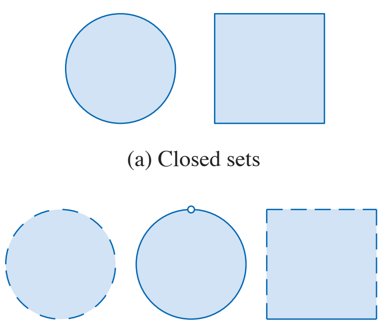
Absolute Maximum and Minimum Values

Just as for single-variable functions, the absolute maximum and minimum values of a function f of two variables are the largest and smallest values that f achieves on its domain.

7 Definitio Let (a, b) be a point in the domain D of a function f of two variables. Then $f(a, b)$ is the

- **absolute maximum** value of f on D if $f(a, b) \geqslant f(x, y)$ for all (x, y) in D.
- **absolute minimum** value of f on D if $f(a, b) \leqslant f(x, y)$ for all (x, y) in D.

For a function f of one variable, the Extreme Value Theorem says that if f is continuous on a closed interval $[a, b]$, then f has an absolute minimum value and an absolute maximum value. According to the Closed Interval Method in Section 4.1, we found these by evaluating f not only at the critical numbers but also at the endpoints a and b.



(a) Closed sets

(b) Sets that are not closed

FIGURE 11

There is a similar situation for functions of two variables. Just as a closed interval contains its endpoints, a **closed set** in $\mathbb{R}^2$ is one that contains all its boundary points. [A boundary point of D is a point (a, b) such that every disk with center (a, b) contains points in D and also points not in D.] For instance, the disk

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1\}$$

which consists of all points on or inside the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, is a closed set because it contains all of its boundary points (which are the points on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$). But if even one point on the boundary curve were omitted, the set would not be closed. (See Figure 11.)

A **bounded set** in $\mathbb{R}^2$ is one that is contained within some disk. In other words, it is finite in extent. Then, in terms of closed and bounded sets, we can state the following counterpart of the Extreme Value Theorem in two dimensions.

8 Extreme Value Theorem for Functions of Two Variables If f is continuous on a closed, bounded set D in $\mathbb{R}^2$, then f attains an absolute maximum value $f(x_1, y_1)$ and an absolute minimum value $f(x_2, y_2)$ at some points (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) in D.

To find the extreme values guaranteed by Theorem 8, we note that, by Theorem 2, if f has an extreme value at (x_1, y_1), then (x_1, y_1) is either a critical point of f or a boundary point of D. Thus we have the following extension of the Closed Interval Method.

9 To find the absolute maximum and minimum values of a continuous function f on a closed, bounded set D:

1. Find the values of f at the critical points of f in D.
2. Find the extreme values of f on the boundary of D.
3. The largest of the values from steps 1 and 2 is the absolute maximum value; the smallest of these values is the absolute minimum value.

EXAMPLE 7 Find the absolute maximum and minimum values of the function $f(x, y) = x^2 - 2xy + 2y$ on the rectangle $D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 3, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2\}$.

SOLUTION Since f is a polynomial, it is continuous on the closed, bounded rectangle D, so Theorem 8 tells us there is both an absolute maximum and an absolute minimum. According to step 1 in (9), we first find the critical points. These occur when

$$f_x = 2x - 2y = 0$$

$$f_y = -2x + 2 = 0$$

so the only critical point is $(1, 1)$. This point is in D and the value of f there is $f(1, 1) = 1$.

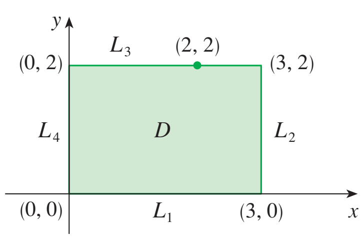


FIGURE 12

In step 2 we look at the values of f on the boundary of D, which consists of the four line segments L_1, L_2, L_3, L_4 shown in Figure 12. On L_1 we have $y = 0$ and

$$f(x, 0) = x^2 \qquad 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 3$$

This is an increasing function of x, so its minimum value is $f(0, 0) = 0$ and its maximum value is $f(3, 0) = 9$. On L_2 we have $x = 3$ and

$$f(3, y) = 9 - 4y \qquad 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2$$

This is a decreasing function of y, so its maximum value is $f(3, 0) = 9$ and its minimum value is $f(3, 2) = 1$. On L_3 we have $y = 2$ and

$$f(x, 2) = x^2 - 4x + 4 \qquad 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 3$$

By the methods of Chapter 4, or simply by observing that $f(x, 2) = (x - 2)^2$, we see that the minimum value of this function is $f(2, 2) = 0$ and the maximum value is $f(0, 2) = 4$. Finally, on L_4 we have $x = 0$ and

$$f(0, y) = 2y \qquad 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2$$

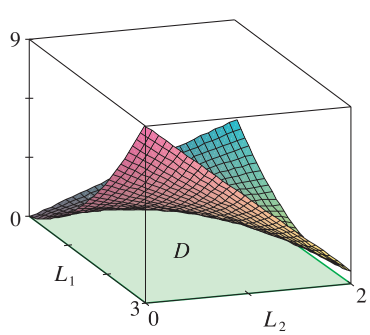


FIGURE 13
$f(x, y) = x^2 - 2xy + 2y$

with maximum value $f(0, 2) = 4$ and minimum value $f(0, 0) = 0$. Thus, on the boundary, the minimum value of f is 0 and the maximum is 9.

In step 3 we compare these values with the value $f(1, 1) = 1$ at the critical point and conclude that the absolute maximum value of f on D is $f(3, 0) = 9$ and the absolute minimum value is $f(0, 0) = f(2, 2) = 0$. Figure 13 shows the graph of f. ■

Proof of the Second Derivatives Test

We close this section by giving a proof of the first part of the Second Derivatives Test. Part (b) has a similar proof.

PROOF OF THEOREM 3, PART (a) We compute the second-order directional derivative of f in the direction of $\mathbf{u} = \langle h, k \rangle$. The first-order derivative is given by Theorem 14.6.3:

$$D_{\mathbf{u}} f = f_x h + f_y k$$

Applying this theorem a second time, we have

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\mathbf{u}}^2 f = D_{\mathbf{u}}(D_{\mathbf{u}} f) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(D_{\mathbf{u}} f)h + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(D_{\mathbf{u}} f)k \\ &= (f_{xx}h + f_{yx}k)h + (f_{xy}h + f_{yy}k)k \\ &= f_{xx}h^2 + 2f_{xy}hk + f_{yy}k^2 \qquad \text{(by Clairaut's Theorem)} \end{aligned}$$

If we complete the square in this expression, we obtain

$$\boxed{10} \qquad D_{\mathbf{u}}^2 f = f_{xx}\left(h + \frac{f_{xy}}{f_{xx}}k\right)^2 + \frac{k^2}{f_{xx}}(f_{xx}f_{yy} - f_{xy}^2)$$

We are given that $f_{xx}(a, b) > 0$ and $D(a, b) > 0$. But f_{xx} and $D = f_{xx}f_{yy} - f_{xy}^2$ are continuous functions, so there is a disk B with center (a, b) and radius $\delta > 0$ such that $f_{xx}(x, y) > 0$ and $D(x, y) > 0$ whenever (x, y) is in B. Therefore, by looking at Equation 10, we see that $D_{\mathbf{u}}^2 f(x, y) > 0$ whenever (x, y) is in B. This means that if C is the curve obtained by intersecting the graph of f with the vertical plane through $P(a, b, f(a, b))$ in the direction of $\mathbf{u}$, then C is concave upward on an interval of length 2δ. This is true in the direction of every vector $\mathbf{u}$, so if we restrict (x, y) to lie in B, the graph of f lies above its horizontal tangent plane at P. Thus $f(x, y) \geqslant f(a, b)$ whenever (x, y) is in B. This shows that $f(a, b)$ is a local minimum. ■

14.7 Exercises

1. Suppose $(1, 1)$ is a critical point of a function f with continuous second derivatives. In each case, what can you say about f?

(a) $f_{xx}(1, 1) = 4, \quad f_{xy}(1, 1) = 1, \quad f_{yy}(1, 1) = 2$

(b) $f_{xx}(1, 1) = 4, \quad f_{xy}(1, 1) = 3, \quad f_{yy}(1, 1) = 2$

2. Suppose $(0, 2)$ is a critical point of a function g with continuous second derivatives. In each case, what can you say about g?

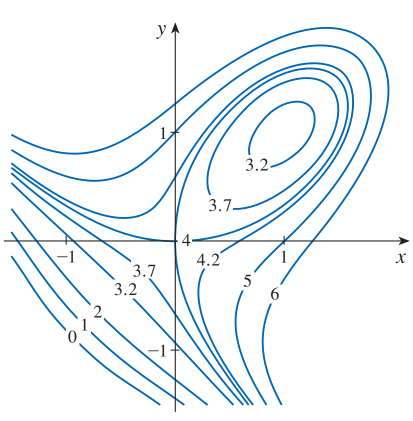
(a) $g_{xx}(0, 2) = -1, \quad g_{xy}(0, 2) = 6, \quad g_{yy}(0, 2) = 1$

(b) $g_{xx}(0, 2) = -1, \quad g_{xy}(0, 2) = 2, \quad g_{yy}(0, 2) = -8$

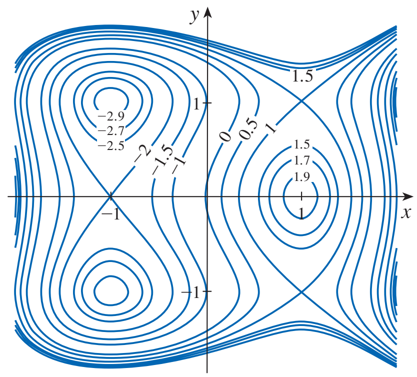
(c) $g_{xx}(0, 2) = 4, \quad g_{xy}(0, 2) = 6, \quad g_{yy}(0, 2) = 9$

3–4 Use the level curves in the figure to predict the location of the critical points of f and whether f has a saddle point or a local maximum or minimum at each critical point. Explain your reasoning. Then use the Second Derivatives Test to confirm your predictions.

3. $f(x, y) = 4 + x^3 + y^3 - 3xy$



4. $f(x, y) = 3x - x^3 - 2y^2 + y^4$



5–22 Find the local maximum and minimum values and saddle point(s) of the function. You are encouraged to use a calculator or computer to graph the function with a domain and viewpoint that reveals all the important aspects of the function.

5. $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + y^2 + y$

6. $f(x, y) = xy - 2x - 2y - x^2 - y^2$

7. $f(x, y) = 2x^2 - 8xy + y^4 - 4y^3$

8. $f(x, y) = x^3 + y^3 + 3xy$

9. $f(x, y) = (x - y)(1 - xy)$

10. $f(x, y) = y(e^x - 1)$

11. $f(x, y) = y\sqrt{x} - y^2 - 2x + 7y$

12. $f(x, y) = 2 - x^4 + 2x^2 - y^2$

13. $f(x, y) = x^3 - 3x + 3xy^2$

14. $f(x, y) = x^3 + y^3 - 3x^2 - 3y^2 - 9x$

15. $f(x, y) = x^4 - 2x^2 + y^3 - 3y$

16. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^4 + 2xy$

17. $f(x, y) = xy - x^2y - xy^2$

18. $f(x, y) = (6x - x^2)(4y - y^2)$

19. $f(x, y) = e^x \cos y$

20. $f(x, y) = (x^2 + y^2)e^{-x}$

21. $f(x, y) = y^2 - 2y \cos x, \quad -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 7$

22. $f(x, y) = \sin x \sin y, \quad -\pi < x < \pi, \quad -\pi < y < \pi$

23. Show that $f(x, y) = x^2 + 4y^2 - 4xy + 2$ has an infinite number of critical points and that $D = 0$ at each one. Then show that f has a local (and absolute) minimum at each critical point.

24. Show that $f(x, y) = x^2ye^{-x^2-y^2}$ has maximum values at $\left(\pm 1, 1/\sqrt{2}\right)$ and minimum values at $\left(\pm 1, -1/\sqrt{2}\right)$. Show also that f has infinitely many other critical points and $D = 0$ at each of them. Which of them give rise to maximum values? Minimum values? Saddle points?

25–28 Use a graph or level curves or both to estimate the local maximum and minimum values and saddle point(s) of the function. Then use calculus to find these values precisely.

25. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + x^{-2}y^{-2}$

26. $f(x, y) = (x - y)e^{-x^2-y^2}$

27. $f(x, y) = \sin x + \sin y + \sin(x + y),$
$0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2\pi, \ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2\pi$

28. $f(x, y) = \sin x + \sin y + \cos(x + y),$
$0 \leqslant x \leqslant \pi/4, \ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant \pi/4$

29–32 Find the critical points of f correct to three decimal places (as in Example 4). Then classify the critical points and find the highest or lowest points on the graph, if any.

29. $f(x, y) = x^4 + y^4 - 4x^2y + 2y$

30. $f(x, y) = y^6 - 2y^4 + x^2 - y^2 + y$

31. $f(x, y) = x^4 + y^3 - 3x^2 + y^2 + x - 2y + 1$

32. $f(x, y) = 20e^{-x^2-y^2} \sin 3x \cos 3y, \quad |x| \leqslant 1, \quad |y| \leqslant 1$

33–40 Find the absolute maximum and minimum values of f on the set D.

33. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 2x$, D is the closed triangular region with vertices (2, 0), (0, 2), and (0, −2)

34. $f(x, y) = x + y - xy$, D is the closed triangular region with vertices (0, 0), (0, 2), and (4, 0)

35. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + x^2y + 4,$
$D = \{(x, y) \mid |x| \leqslant 1, |y| \leqslant 1\}$

36. $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + y^2 - 6y,$
$D = \{(x, y) \mid -3 \leqslant x \leqslant 3, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 5\}$

37. $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2y^2 - 2x - 4y + 1,$
$D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 3\}$

38. $f(x, y) = xy^2, \quad D = \{(x, y) \mid x \geqslant 0, \ y \geqslant 0, \ x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 3\}$

39. $f(x, y) = 2x^3 + y^4, \quad D = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1\}$

40. $f(x, y) = x^3 - 3x - y^3 + 12y$, D is the quadrilateral whose vertices are (−2, 3), (2, 3), (2, 2), and (−2, −2)

41. For functions of one variable it is impossible for a continuous function to have two local maxima and no local minimum. But for functions of two variables such functions exist. Show that the function

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

has only two critical points, but has local maxima at both of them. Then produce a graph with a carefully chosen domain and viewpoint to see how this is possible.

42. If a function of one variable is continuous on an interval and has only one critical number, then a local maximum has to be an absolute maximum. But this is not true for functions of two variables. Show that the function

$$f(x, y) = 3xe^y - x^3 - e^{3y}$$

has exactly one critical point and that f has a local maximum there that is not an absolute maximum. Produce a graph with a carefully chosen domain and viewpoint to see how this is possible.

43. Find the shortest distance from the point $(2, 0, -3)$ to the plane $x + y + z = 1$.

44. Find the point on the plane $x - 2y + 3z = 6$ that is closest to the point $(0, 1, 1)$.

45. Find the points on the cone $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ that are closest to the point $(4, 2, 0)$.

46. Find the points on the surface $y^2 = 9 + xz$ that are closest to the origin.

47. Find three positive numbers whose sum is 100 and whose product is a maximum.

48. Find three positive numbers whose sum is 12 and the sum of whose squares is as small as possible.

49. Find the maximum volume of a rectangular box that is inscribed in a sphere of radius r.

50. Find the dimensions of the box with volume 1000 cm^3 that has minimal surface area.

51. Find the volume of the largest rectangular box in the first octant with three faces in the coordinate planes and one vertex in the plane $x + 2y + 3z = 6$.

52. Find the dimensions of the rectangular box with largest volume if the total surface area is given as 64 cm^2.

53. Find the dimensions of a rectangular box of maximum volume such that the sum of the lengths of its 12 edges is a constant c.

54. The base of an aquarium with given volume V is made of slate and the sides are made of glass. If slate costs five times as much (per unit area) as glass, find the dimensions of the aquarium that minimize the cost of the materials.

55. A cardboard box without a lid is to have a volume of 32,000 cm^3. Find the dimensions that minimize the amount of cardboard used.

56. A rectangular building is being designed to minimize heat loss. The east and west walls lose heat at a rate of 10 units/m^2 per day, the north and south walls at a rate of 8 units/m^2 per day, the floor at a rate of 1 unit/m^2 per day, and the roof at a rate of 5 units/m^2 per day. Each wall must be at least 30 m long, the height must be at least 4 m, and the volume must be exactly 4000 m^3.

(a) Find and sketch the domain of the heat loss as a function of the lengths of the sides.

(b) Find the dimensions that minimize heat loss. (Check both the critical points and the points on the boundary of the domain.)

(c) Could you design a building with even less heat loss if the restrictions on the lengths of the walls were removed?

57. If the length of the diagonal of a rectangular box must be L, what is the largest possible volume?

58. A model for the yield Y of an agricultural crop as a function of the nitrogen level N and phosphorus level P in the soil (measured in appropriate units) is

$$Y(N, P) = kNPe^{-N-P}$$

where k is a positive constant. What levels of nitrogen and phosphorus result in the best yield?

59. The Shannon index (sometimes called the Shannon-Wiener index or Shannon-Weaver index) is a measure of diversity in an ecosystem. For the case of three species, it is defined as

$$H = -p_1 \ln p_1 - p_2 \ln p_2 - p_3 \ln p_3$$

where p_i is the proportion of species i in the ecosystem.

(a) Express H as a function of two variables using the fact that $p_1 + p_2 + p_3 = 1$.

(b) What is the domain of H?

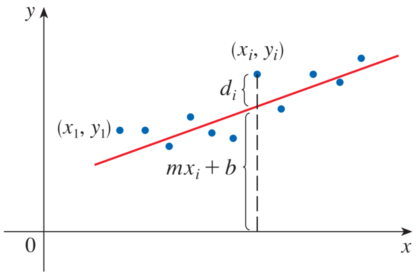
(c) Find the maximum value of H. For what values of p_1, p_2, p_3 does it occur?

60. Three alleles (alternative versions of a gene) A, B, and O determine the four blood types A (AA or AO), B (BB or BO), O (OO), and AB. The Hardy-Weinberg Law states that the proportion of individuals in a population who carry two different alleles is

$$P = 2pq + 2pr + 2rq$$

where p, q, and r are the proportions of A, B, and O in the population. Use the fact that $p + q + r = 1$ to show that P is at most $\frac{2}{3}$.

61. Method of Least Squares Suppose that a scientist has reason to believe that two quantities x and y are related linearly, that is, $y = mx + b$, at least approximately, for some values of m and b. The scientist performs an experiment and collects data in the form of points $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$, and then plots these points. The points don't lie exactly on a straight line, so the scientist wants to find constants m and b so that the line $y = mx + b$ "fits" the points as well as possible (see the figure).



Let $d_i = y_i - (mx_i + b)$ be the vertical deviation of the point (x_i, y_i) from the line. The *method of least squares* determines m and b so as to minimize $\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i^2$, the sum of the squares of these deviations. Show that, according to this method, the line of best fit is obtained when

$$m \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + bn = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$$

and

$$m \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 + b \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i$$

Thus the line is found by solving these two equations in the two unknowns m and b. (See Section 1.2 for a further discussion and applications of the method of least squares.)

62. Find an equation of the plane that passes through the point (1, 2, 3) and cuts off the smallest volume in the first octant.

DISCOVERY PROJECT | QUADRATIC APPROXIMATIONS AND CRITICAL POINTS

The Taylor polynomial approximation to functions of one variable that we discussed in Chapter 11 can be extended to functions of two or more variables. Here we investigate quadratic approximations to functions of two variables and use them to give insight into the Second Derivatives Test for classifying critical points.

In Section 14.4 we discussed the linearization of a function f of two variables at a point (a, b):

$$L(x, y) = f(a, b) + f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b)$$

Recall that the graph of L is the tangent plane to the surface $z = f(x, y)$ at $(a, b, f(a, b))$ and the corresponding linear approximation is $f(x, y) \approx L(x, y)$. The linearization L is also called the **first-degree Taylor polynomial** of f at (a, b).

1. If f has continuous second-order partial derivatives at (a, b), then the **second-degree Taylor polynomial** of f at (a, b) is

$$\begin{aligned} Q(x, y) = f(a, b) &+ f_x(a, b)(x - a) + f_y(a, b)(y - b) \\ &+ \tfrac{1}{2} f_{xx}(a, b)(x - a)^2 + f_{xy}(a, b)(x - a)(y - b) + \tfrac{1}{2} f_{yy}(a, b)(y - b)^2 \end{aligned}$$

and the approximation $f(x, y) \approx Q(x, y)$ is called the **quadratic approximation** to f at (a, b). Verify that Q has the same first- and second-order partial derivatives as f at (a, b).

2. (a) Find the first- and second-degree Taylor polynomials L and Q of $f(x, y) = e^{-x^2-y^2}$ at (0, 0).
(b) Graph f, L, and Q. Comment on how well L and Q approximate f.

3. (a) Find the first- and second-degree Taylor polynomials L and Q for $f(x, y) = xe^y$ at (1, 0).
(b) Compare the values of L, Q, and f at (0.9, 0.1).
(c) Graph f, L, and Q. Comment on how well L and Q approximate f.

4. In this problem we analyze the behavior of the polynomial $f(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$ (without using the Second Derivatives Test) by identifying the graph as a paraboloid.
(a) By completing the square, show that if $a \neq 0$, then

$$f(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 = a\left[\left(x + \frac{b}{2a}y\right)^2 + \left(\frac{4ac - b^2}{4a^2}\right)y^2\right]$$

(b) Let $D = 4ac - b^2$. Show that if $D > 0$ and $a > 0$, then f has a local minimum at (0, 0).
(c) Show that if $D > 0$ and $a < 0$, then f has a local maximum at (0, 0).
(d) Show that if $D < 0$, then (0, 0) is a saddle point.

(*continued*)

5. (a) Suppose f is any function with continuous second-order partial derivatives such that $f(0, 0) = 0$ and $(0, 0)$ is a critical point of f. Write an expression for the second-degree Taylor polynomial, Q, of f at $(0, 0)$.
(b) What can you conclude about Q from Problem 4?
(c) In view of the quadratic approximation $f(x, y) \approx Q(x, y)$, what does part (b) suggest about f?

14.8 Lagrange Multipliers

In Example 14.7.6 we maximized a volume function $V = xyz$ subject to the constraint $2xz + 2yz + xy = 12$, which expressed the side condition that the surface area was $12\ \text{m}^2$. In this section we present Lagrange's method for maximizing or minimizing a general function $f(x, y, z)$ subject to a constraint (or side condition) of the form $g(x, y, z) = k$.

Lagrange Multipliers: One Constraint

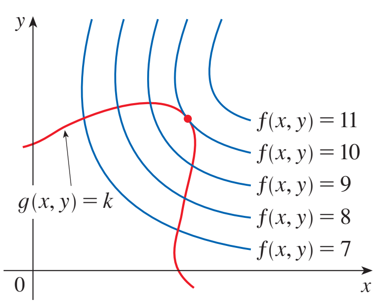


FIGURE 1

First we explain the geometric basis of Lagrange's method for functions of two variables. We start by trying to find the extreme values of $f(x, y)$ subject to a constraint of the form $g(x, y) = k$. In other words, we seek the extreme values of $f(x, y)$ when the point (x, y) is restricted to lie on the level curve $g(x, y) = k$. Figure 1 shows this curve together with several level curves of f. These have the equations $f(x, y) = c$, where $c = 7, 8, 9, 10, 11$. To maximize $f(x, y)$ subject to $g(x, y) = k$ is to find the largest value of c such that the level curve $f(x, y) = c$ intersects $g(x, y) = k$. It appears from Figure 1 that this happens when these curves just touch each other, that is, when they have a common tangent line. (Otherwise, the value of c could be increased further.) This means that the normal lines at the point (x_0, y_0) where they touch are identical. So the gradient vectors are parallel; that is, $\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \lambda \nabla g(x_0, y_0)$ for some scalar λ.

This kind of argument also applies to the problem of finding the extreme values of $f(x, y, z)$ subject to the constraint $g(x, y, z) = k$. Thus the point (x, y, z) is restricted to lie on the level surface S with equation $g(x, y, z) = k$. Instead of the level curves in Figure 1, we consider the level surfaces $f(x, y, z) = c$ and argue that if the maximum value of f is $f(x_0, y_0, z_0) = c$, then the level surface $f(x, y, z) = c$ is tangent to the level surface $g(x, y, z) = k$ and so the corresponding gradient vectors are parallel.

This intuitive argument can be made precise as follows. Suppose that a function f has an extreme value at a point $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ on the surface S and let C be a curve with vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t)\rangle$ that lies on S and passes through P. If t_0 is the parameter value corresponding to the point P, then $\mathbf{r}(t_0) = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0\rangle$. The composite function $h(t) = f(x(t), y(t), z(t))$ represents the values that f takes on the curve C. Since f has an extreme value at (x_0, y_0, z_0), it follows that h has an extreme value at t_0, so $h'(t_0) = 0$. But if f is differentiable, we can use the Chain Rule to write

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= h'(t_0) \\ &= f_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)x'(t_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0, z_0)y'(t_0) + f_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)z'(t_0) \\ &= \nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t_0) \end{aligned}$$

This shows that the gradient vector $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ is orthogonal to the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t_0)$ to every such curve C. But we already know from Section 14.6 that the gradient vector of g, $\nabla g(x_0, y_0, z_0)$, is also orthogonal to $\mathbf{r}'(t_0)$ for every such curve (see Equation 14.6.18). This means that the gradient vectors $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and $\nabla g(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ must be parallel. Therefore, if $\nabla g(x_0, y_0, z_0) \neq \mathbf{0}$, there is a number λ such that

1
$$\boxed{\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) = \lambda \nabla g(x_0, y_0, z_0)}$$

Lagrange multipliers are named after the French-Italian mathematician Joseph-Louis Lagrange (1736–1813). See Section 4.2 for a biographical sketch of Lagrange.

The number λ in Equation 1 is called a **Lagrange multiplier**. The procedure based on Equation 1 is as follows.

In deriving Lagrange's method we assumed that $\nabla g \neq \mathbf{0}$. In each of our examples you can check that $\nabla g \neq \mathbf{0}$ at all points where $g(x, y, z) = k$. See Exercise 35 for what can go wrong if $\nabla g = \mathbf{0}$. Exercise 34 shows what can happen if ∇g is undefined.

Method of Lagrange Multipliers To find the maximum and minimum values of $f(x, y, z)$ subject to the constraint $g(x, y, z) = k$ [assuming that these extreme values exist and $\nabla g \neq \mathbf{0}$ on the surface $g(x, y, z) = k$]:

1. Find all values of x, y, z, and λ such that

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = \lambda \nabla g(x, y, z)$$

and
$$g(x, y, z) = k$$

2. Evaluate f at all the points (x, y, z) that result from step 1. The largest of these values is the maximum value of f; the smallest is the minimum value of f.

If we write the vector equation $\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g$ in terms of components, then the equations in step 1 become

$$f_x = \lambda g_x \qquad f_y = \lambda g_y \qquad f_z = \lambda g_z \qquad g(x, y, z) = k$$

This is a system of four equations in the four unknowns x, y, z, and λ, and we must find *all* possible solutions (although the explicit values of λ are not needed for the conclusion of the method). If $x = x_0$, $y = y_0$, $z = z_0$ is a solution to this system of equations and the corresponding value of λ is not 0, then $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and $\nabla g(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ are parallel (as we argued geometrically at the beginning of the section). If the value of λ is 0, then $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) = \mathbf{0}$ and so (x_0, y_0, z_0) is a critical point of f. It follows that $f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ is a possible local extreme value of f on its domain, and hence also a possible extreme value of f subject to the given constraint (see Exercise 61).

For functions of two variables the method of Lagrange multipliers is similar to the method just described. To find the extreme values of $f(x, y)$ subject to the constraint $g(x, y) = k$, we look for values of x, y, and λ such that

$$\nabla f(x, y) = \lambda \nabla g(x, y) \qquad \text{and} \qquad g(x, y) = k$$

This amounts to solving three equations in three unknowns:

$$f_x = \lambda g_x \qquad f_y = \lambda g_y \qquad g(x, y) = k$$

EXAMPLE 1 Find the extreme values of the function $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2y^2$ on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

SOLUTION We are asked for the extreme values of f subject to the constraint $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Using Lagrange multipliers, we solve the equations $\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g$

and $g(x, y) = 1$, which can be written as

$$f_x = \lambda g_x \qquad f_y = \lambda g_y \qquad g(x, y) = 1$$

or as

$$\boxed{2} \qquad 2x = 2x\lambda$$

$$\boxed{3} \qquad 4y = 2y\lambda$$

$$\boxed{4} \qquad x^2 + y^2 = 1$$

From (2) we have $2x(1 - \lambda) = 0$, so $x = 0$ or $\lambda = 1$. If $x = 0$, then (4) gives $y = \pm 1$. If $\lambda = 1$, then $y = 0$ from (3), so then (4) gives $x = \pm 1$. Therefore f has possible extreme values at the points $(0, 1)$, $(0, -1)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(-1, 0)$. Evaluating f at these four points, we find that

$$f(0, 1) = 2 \qquad f(0, -1) = 2 \qquad f(1, 0) = 1 \qquad f(-1, 0) = 1$$

Therefore the maximum value of f on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is $f(0, \pm 1) = 2$ and the minimum value is $f(\pm 1, 0) = 1$. In geometric terms, these correspond to the highest and lowest points on the curve C in Figure 2, where C consists of those points on the paraboloid $z = x^2 + 2y^2$ that are directly above the constraint circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

Figure 3 shows a contour map of f. The extreme values of $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2y^2$ correspond to the level curves of f that just touch the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

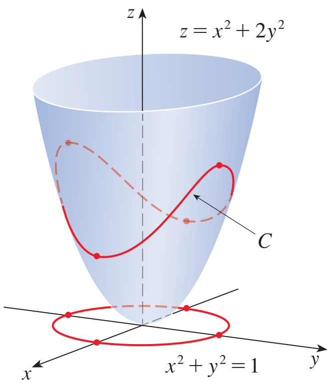


FIGURE 2

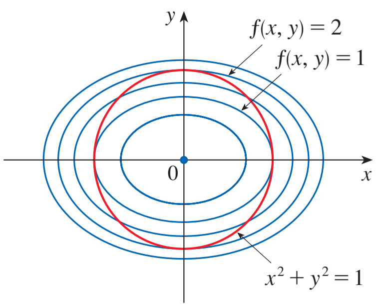


FIGURE 3

Our next illustration of Lagrange's method is to reconsider the problem given in Example 14.7.6.

Many of the optimization problems that we encountered in Section 4.7 can be viewed as optimizing a function of two variables subject to a constraint. In Exercises 17–22 you are asked to revisit several problems from Section 4.7 and solve them using the method of Lagrange multipliers.

EXAMPLE 2 A rectangular box without a lid is to be made from 12 m² of cardboard. Find the maximum volume of such a box.

SOLUTION As in Example 14.7.6, we let x, y, and z be the length, width, and height, respectively, of the box in meters. Then we wish to maximize

$$V = xyz$$

subject to the constraint

$$g(x, y, z) = 2xz + 2yz + xy = 12$$

Using the method of Lagrange multipliers, we look for values of x, y, z, and λ such that $\nabla V = \lambda \nabla g$ and $g(x, y, z) = 12$. This gives the equations

$$V_x = \lambda g_x$$

$$V_y = \lambda g_y$$

$$V_z = \lambda g_z$$

$$2xz + 2yz + xy = 12$$

which become

$$\boxed{5} \qquad yz = \lambda(2z + y)$$

$$\boxed{6} \qquad xz = \lambda(2z + x)$$

$$\boxed{7} \qquad xy = \lambda(2x + 2y)$$

$$\boxed{8} \qquad 2xz + 2yz + xy = 12$$

There are no general rules for solving systems of equations. Sometimes some ingenuity is required. In the present example you might notice that if we multiply (5) by x, (6) by y, and (7) by z, then the left sides of these equations will be identical. Doing this, we have

Another method for solving the system of equations (5–8) is to solve each of Equations 5, 6, and 7 for λ and then to equate the resulting expressions.

$$\boxed{9} \qquad xyz = \lambda(2xz + xy)$$

$$\boxed{10} \qquad xyz = \lambda(2yz + xy)$$

$$\boxed{11} \qquad xyz = \lambda(2xz + 2yz)$$

In general λ can be 0, but here we observe that $\lambda \neq 0$ because $\lambda = 0$ would imply $yz = xz = xy = 0$ from (5), (6), and (7) and this would contradict (8). Therefore, from (9) and (10), we have

$$2xz + xy = 2yz + xy$$

which gives $xz = yz$. But $z \neq 0$ (since $z = 0$ would give $V = 0$), so $x = y$. From (10) and (11) we have

$$2yz + xy = 2xz + 2yz$$

which gives $2xz = xy$ and so (since $x \neq 0$) $y = 2z$. If we now put $x = y = 2z$ in (8), we get

$$4z^2 + 4z^2 + 4z^2 = 12$$

Since x, y, and z are all positive, we therefore have $z = 1$ and so $x = 2$ and $y = 2$. Thus we have only one point where f may have an extreme value; how do we know if this point corresponds to a maximum or minimum? As in Example 14.7.6, we argue that there must be a maximum volume, which must occur at the point we found. ■

EXAMPLE 3 Find the points on the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ that are closest to and farthest from the point $(3, 1, -1)$.

SOLUTION The distance from a point (x, y, z) to the point $(3, 1, -1)$ is

$$d = \sqrt{(x - 3)^2 + (y - 1)^2 + (z + 1)^2}$$

but the algebra is simpler if we instead maximize and minimize the square of the distance:

$$d^2 = f(x, y, z) = (x - 3)^2 + (y - 1)^2 + (z + 1)^2$$

The constraint is that the point (x, y, z) lies on the sphere, that is,

$$g(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$$

According to the method of Lagrange multipliers, we solve $\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g$, $g = 4$. This gives

$$2(x - 3) = 2x\lambda \tag{12}$$

$$2(y - 1) = 2y\lambda \tag{13}$$

$$2(z + 1) = 2z\lambda \tag{14}$$

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4 \tag{15}$$

The simplest way to solve these equations is to solve for x, y, and z in terms of λ from (12), (13), and (14), and then substitute these values into (15). From (12) we have

$$x - 3 = x\lambda \quad \Longrightarrow \quad x(1 - \lambda) = 3 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad x = \frac{3}{1 - \lambda}$$

[Note that $1 - \lambda \neq 0$ because $\lambda = 1$ is impossible from (12).] Similarly, (13) and (14) give

$$y = \frac{1}{1 - \lambda} \qquad z = -\frac{1}{1 - \lambda}$$

Figure 4 shows the sphere and the nearest point P in Example 3. Can you see how to find the coordinates of P without using calculus?

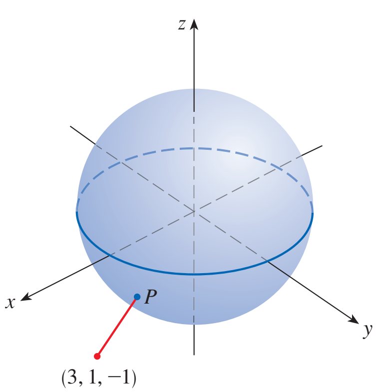


FIGURE 4

Therefore, from (15), we have

$$\frac{3^2}{(1 - \lambda)^2} + \frac{1^2}{(1 - \lambda)^2} + \frac{(-1)^2}{(1 - \lambda)^2} = 4$$

which gives $(1 - \lambda)^2 = \frac{11}{4}$, $1 - \lambda = \pm\sqrt{11}/2$, so

$$\lambda = 1 \pm \frac{\sqrt{11}}{2}$$

These values of λ then give the corresponding points (x, y, z):

$$\left(\frac{6}{\sqrt{11}}, \frac{2}{\sqrt{11}}, -\frac{2}{\sqrt{11}}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \left(-\frac{6}{\sqrt{11}}, -\frac{2}{\sqrt{11}}, \frac{2}{\sqrt{11}}\right)$$

It's easy to see that f has a smaller value at the first of these points, so the closest point is $\left(6/\sqrt{11}, 2/\sqrt{11}, -2/\sqrt{11}\right)$ and the farthest is $\left(-6/\sqrt{11}, -2/\sqrt{11}, 2/\sqrt{11}\right)$. ■

EXAMPLE 4 Find the extreme values of $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2y^2$ on the disk $D = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1\}$.

SOLUTION According to the procedure in (14.7.9), we compare the values of f at the critical points in D with the extreme values of f on the boundary of D. Since $f_x = 2x$ and $f_y = 4y$, the only critical point is $(0, 0)$. We compare the value of f at that point with the extreme values on the boundary that we found in Example 1 using Lagrange multipliers:

$$f(0, 0) = 0 \qquad f(\pm 1, 0) = 1 \qquad f(0, \pm 1) = 2$$

Therefore the maximum value of f on D is $f(0, \pm 1) = 2$ and the minimum value is $f(0, 0) = 0$. Figure 5 shows the portion of the graph of f above the disk D. You can see that the highest point on the surface occurs at $(0, \pm 1)$ and the lowest point is at the origin. Figure 6 shows a contour map of f superimposed on the disk D.

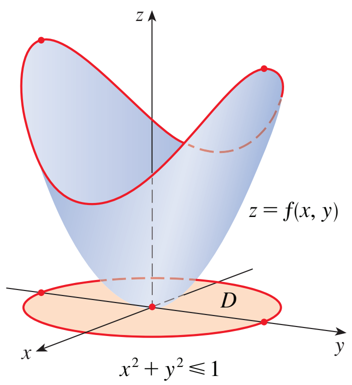


FIGURE 5

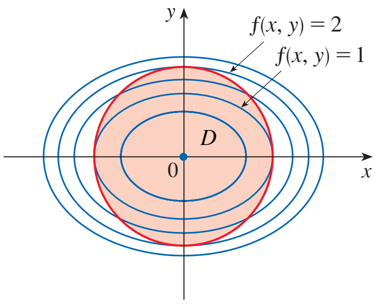


FIGURE 6

Lagrange Multipliers: Two Constraints

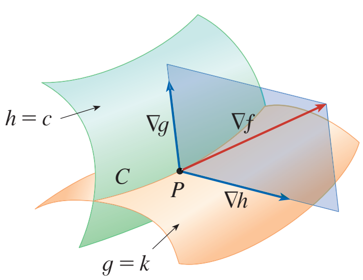


FIGURE 7

Suppose now that we want to find the maximum and minimum values of a function $f(x, y, z)$ subject to two constraints (side conditions) of the form $g(x, y, z) = k$ and $h(x, y, z) = c$. Geometrically, this means that we are looking for the extreme values of f when (x, y, z) is restricted to lie on the curve of intersection C of the level surfaces $g(x, y, z) = k$ and $h(x, y, z) = c$. (See Figure 7.) Suppose f has such an extreme value at a point $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$. We know from the beginning of this section that ∇f is orthogonal to C at P. But we also know that ∇g is orthogonal to $g(x, y, z) = k$ and ∇h is orthogonal to $h(x, y, z) = c$, so ∇g and ∇h are both orthogonal to C. This means that the gradient vector $\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ is in the plane determined by $\nabla g(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ and $\nabla h(x_0, y_0, z_0)$. (We assume that these gradient vectors are not zero and not parallel.) So there are numbers λ and μ (both called Lagrange multipliers) such that

16
$$\boxed{\nabla f(x_0, y_0, z_0) = \lambda\, \nabla g(x_0, y_0, z_0) + \mu\, \nabla h(x_0, y_0, z_0)}$$

In this case Lagrange's method is to look for extreme values by solving five equations in the five unknowns x, y, z, λ, and μ. These equations are obtained by writing Equation 16 in terms of its components and using the constraint equations:

$$f_x = \lambda g_x + \mu h_x$$

$$f_y = \lambda g_y + \mu h_y$$

$$f_z = \lambda g_z + \mu h_z$$

$$g(x, y, z) = k$$

$$h(x, y, z) = c$$

The cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ intersects the plane $x - y + z = 1$ in an ellipse (Figure 8). Example 5 asks for the maximum value of f when (x, y, z) is restricted to lie on the ellipse.

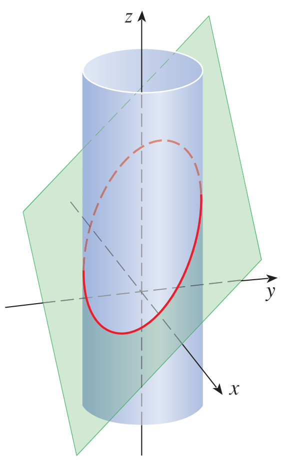


FIGURE 8

EXAMPLE 5 Find the maximum value of the function $f(x, y, z) = x + 2y + 3z$ on the curve of intersection of the plane $x - y + z = 1$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

SOLUTION We maximize the function $f(x, y, z) = x + 2y + 3z$ subject to the constraints $g(x, y, z) = x - y + z = 1$ and $h(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 = 1$. The Lagrange condition is $\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g + \mu \nabla h$, so we solve the equations

$$1 = \lambda + 2x\mu \tag{17}$$

$$2 = -\lambda + 2y\mu \tag{18}$$

$$3 = \lambda \tag{19}$$

$$x - y + z = 1 \tag{20}$$

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1 \tag{21}$$

Putting $\lambda = 3$ [from (19)] in (17), we get $2x\mu = -2$, so $x = -1/\mu$. Similarly, (18) gives $y = 5/(2\mu)$. Substitution in (21) then gives

$$\frac{1}{\mu^2} + \frac{25}{4\mu^2} = 1$$

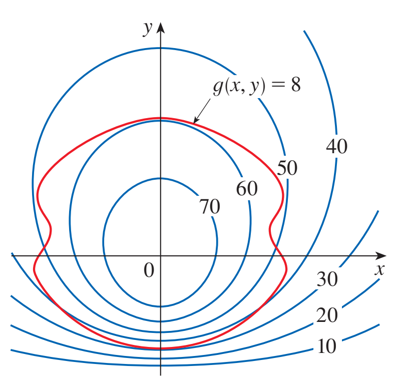
and so $\mu^2 = \frac{29}{4}$, $\mu = \pm\sqrt{29}/2$. Then $x = \mp 2/\sqrt{29}$, $y = \pm 5/\sqrt{29}$, and, from (20), $z = 1 - x + y = 1 \pm 7/\sqrt{29}$. The corresponding values of f are

$$\mp\frac{2}{\sqrt{29}} + 2\left(\pm\frac{5}{\sqrt{29}}\right) + 3\left(1 \pm \frac{7}{\sqrt{29}}\right) = 3 \pm \sqrt{29}$$

Therefore the maximum value of f on the given curve is $3 + \sqrt{29}$. ■

14.8 Exercises

1. Pictured are a contour map of f and a curve with equation $g(x, y) = 8$. Estimate the maximum and minimum values of f subject to the constraint that $g(x, y) = 8$. Explain your reasoning.



2. (a) Use a graphing calculator or computer to graph the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. On the same screen, graph several curves of the form $x^2 + y = c$ until you find two that just touch the circle. What is the significance of the values of c for these two curves?

(b) Use Lagrange multipliers to find the extreme values of $f(x, y) = x^2 + y$ subject to the constraint $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Compare your answers with those in part (a).

3–16 Each of these extreme value problems has a solution with both a maximum value and a minimum value. Use Lagrange multipliers to find the extreme values of the function subject to the given constraint.

3. $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$, $\quad x^2 + y^2 = 1$

4. $f(x, y) = x^2y$, $\quad x^2 + y^4 = 5$

5. $f(x, y) = xy$, $\quad 4x^2 + y^2 = 8$

6. $f(x, y) = xe^y$, $\quad x^2 + y^2 = 2$

7. $f(x, y) = 2x^2 + 6y^2$, $\quad x^4 + 3y^4 = 1$

8. $f(x, y) = xye^{-x^2-y^2}$, $\quad 2x - y = 0$

9. $f(x, y, z) = 2x + 2y + z$, $\quad x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$

10. $f(x, y, z) = e^{xyz}$, $\quad 2x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 24$

11. $f(x, y, z) = xy^2z, \quad x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$

12. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2, \quad x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + xy = 12$

13. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2, \quad x^4 + y^4 + z^4 = 1$

14. $f(x, y, z) = x^4 + y^4 + z^4, \quad x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$

15. $f(x, y, z, t) = x + y + z + t, \quad x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + t^2 = 1$

16. $f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n,$
$x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2 = 1$

17–22 Use Lagrange multipliers to give an alternate solution to the indicated exercise in Section 4.7.

17. Exercise 3

18. Exercise 8

19. Exercise 7

20. Exercise 18

21. Exercise 25

22. Exercise 24

23–24 The method of Lagrange multipliers assumes that the extreme values exist, but that is not always the case. Show that the problem of finding the minimum value of f subject to the given constraint can be solved using Lagrange multipliers, but f does not have a maximum value with that constraint.

23. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2, \quad xy = 1$

24. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2, \quad x + 2y + 3z = 10$

25–26 Use Lagrange multipliers to find the maximum value of f subject to the given constraint. Then show that f has no minimum value with that constraint.

25. $f(x, y) = e^{xy}, \quad x^3 + y^3 = 16$

26. $f(x, y, z) = 4x + 2y + z, \quad x^2 + y + z^2 = 1$

27–29 Find the extreme values of f on the region described by the inequality.

27. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 4x - 4y, \quad x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 9$

28. $f(x, y) = 2x^2 + 3y^2 - 4x - 5, \quad x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 16$

29. $f(x, y) = e^{-xy}, \quad x^2 + 4y^2 \leqslant 1$

30–33 Find the extreme values of f subject to both constraints.

30. $f(x, y, z) = z; \quad x^2 + y^2 = z^2, \quad x + y + z = 24$

31. $f(x, y, z) = x + y + z; \quad x^2 + z^2 = 2, \quad x + y = 1$

32. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2; \quad x - y = 1, \quad y^2 - z^2 = 1$

33. $f(x, y, z) = yz + xy; \quad xy = 1, \quad y^2 + z^2 = 1$

34. Consider the problem of maximizing the function $f(x, y) = 2x + 3y$ subject to the constraint $\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y} = 5$.
(a) Try using Lagrange multipliers to solve the problem.
(b) Does $f(25, 0)$ give a larger value than the one in part (a)?
(c) Solve the problem by graphing the constraint equation and several level curves of f.
(d) Explain why the method of Lagrange multipliers fails to solve the problem.
(e) What is the significance of $f(9, 4)$?

35. Consider the problem of minimizing the function $f(x, y) = x$ on the curve $y^2 + x^4 - x^3 = 0$ (a piriform).
(a) Try using Lagrange multipliers to solve the problem.
(b) Show that the minimum value is $f(0, 0) = 0$ but the Lagrange condition $\nabla f(0, 0) = \lambda \nabla g(0, 0)$ is not satisfied for any value of λ.
(c) Explain why Lagrange multipliers fail to find the minimum value in this case.

36. (a) Use software that plots implicitly defined curves to estimate the minimum and maximum values of $f(x, y) = x^3 + y^3 + 3xy$ subject to the constraint $(x - 3)^2 + (y - 3)^2 = 9$ by graphical methods.
(b) Solve the problem in part (a) with the aid of Lagrange multipliers. You will need to solve the equations numerically. Compare your answers with those in part (a).

37. The total production P of a certain product depends on the amount L of labor used and the amount K of capital investment. In Section 14.1 and the project following Section 14.3 we discussed how the Cobb-Douglas model $P = bL^{\alpha}K^{1-\alpha}$ follows from certain economic assumptions, where b and α are positive constants and $\alpha < 1$. If the cost of a unit of labor is m and the cost of a unit of capital is n, and the company can spend only p dollars as its total budget, then maximizing the production P is subject to the constraint $mL + nK = p$. Show that the maximum production occurs when

$$L = \frac{\alpha p}{m} \qquad \text{and} \qquad K = \frac{(1 - \alpha)p}{n}$$

38. Referring to Exercise 37, we now suppose that the production is fixed at $bL^{\alpha}K^{1-\alpha} = Q$, where Q is a constant. What values of L and K minimize the cost function $C(L, K) = mL + nK$?

39. Use Lagrange multipliers to prove that the rectangle with maximum area that has a given perimeter p is a square.

40. Use Lagrange multipliers to prove that the triangle with maximum area that has a given perimeter p is equilateral.
Hint: Use Heron's formula for the area:

$$A = \sqrt{s(s - x)(s - y)(s - z)}$$

where $s = p/2$ and x, y, z are the lengths of the sides.

41–53 Use Lagrange multipliers to give an alternate solution to the indicated exercise in Section 14.7.

41. Exercise 43
42. Exercise 44
43. Exercise 45
44. Exercise 46
45. Exercise 47
46. Exercise 48
47. Exercise 49
48. Exercise 50
49. Exercise 51
50. Exercise 52
51. Exercise 53
52. Exercise 54
53. Exercise 57

54. A package in the shape of a rectangular box can be mailed by the US Postal Service if the sum of its length and girth (the perimeter of a cross-section perpendicular to the length; see Exercise 4.7.23) is at most 108 inches. Use Lagrange multipliers to find the dimensions of the package with largest volume that can be mailed.

55. A grain silo is to be built by attaching a hemispherical roof and a flat floor onto a circular cylinder. Use Lagrange multipliers to show that for a total surface area S, the volume of the silo is maximized when the radius and height of the cylinder are equal.

56. Find the maximum and minimum volumes of a rectangular box whose surface area is 1500 cm^2 and whose total edge length is 200 cm.

57. The plane $x + y + 2z = 2$ intersects the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ in an ellipse. Find the points on this ellipse that are nearest to and farthest from the origin.

58. The plane $4x - 3y + 8z = 5$ intersects the cone $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ in an ellipse.
(a) Graph the cone and the plane, and observe the elliptical intersection.
(b) Use Lagrange multipliers to find the highest and lowest points on the ellipse.

T **59–60** Find the maximum and minimum values of f subject to the given constraints. Use a computer algebra system to solve the system of equations that arises in using Lagrange multipliers. (If your CAS finds only one solution, you may need to use additional commands.)

59. $f(x, y, z) = ye^{x-z}$; $\quad 9x^2 + 4y^2 + 36z^2 = 36,\ xy + yz = 1$

60. $f(x, y, z) = x + y + z$; $\quad x^2 - y^2 = z,\ x^2 + z^2 = 4$

61. Use Lagrange multipliers to find the extreme values of $f(x, y) = 3x^2 + y^2$ subject to the constraint $x^2 + y^2 = 4y$. Show that the minimum value corresponds to $\lambda = 0$.

62. (a) Maximize $\Sigma_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$ subject to the constraints $\Sigma_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = 1$ and $\Sigma_{i=1}^n y_i^2 = 1$.
(b) Put

$$x_i = \frac{a_i}{\sqrt{\Sigma a_j^2}} \quad \text{and} \quad y_i = \frac{b_i}{\sqrt{\Sigma b_j^2}}$$

to show that

$$\sum a_i b_i \leqslant \sqrt{\Sigma a_j^2}\,\sqrt{\Sigma b_j^2}$$

for any numbers $a_1, \ldots, a_n, b_1, \ldots, b_n$. This inequality is known as the *Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality*.

63. (a) Find the maximum value of

$$f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = \sqrt[n]{x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n}$$

given that $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ are positive numbers and $x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n = c$, where c is a constant.
(b) Deduce from part (a) that if $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ are positive numbers, then

$$\sqrt[n]{x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n} \leqslant \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n}{n}$$

This inequality says that the geometric mean of n numbers is no larger than the arithmetic mean of the numbers. Under what circumstances are these two means equal?

APPLIED PROJECT | ROCKET SCIENCE

NASA

Many rockets — such as the *Saturn V* that first put men on the moon — are designed to use three stages in their ascent into space. A large first stage initially propels the rocket until its fuel is consumed, at which point the stage is jettisoned to reduce the mass of the rocket. The smaller second and third stages function similarly in order to place the rocket's payload into orbit about the earth. (With this design, at least two stages are required in order to reach the necessary velocities, and using three stages has proven to be a good compromise between cost and performance.) Our goal here is to determine the individual masses of the three stages, which are to be designed to minimize the total mass of the rocket while enabling it to reach a desired velocity.


NASA/Lori Losey

For a single-stage rocket consuming fuel at a constant rate, the change in velocity resulting from the acceleration of the rocket vehicle has been modeled by

$$\Delta V = -c \ln\left(1 - \frac{(1 - S)M_r}{P + M_r}\right)$$

where M_r is the mass of the rocket engine including initial fuel, P is the mass of the payload, S is a *structural factor* determined by the design of the rocket (specifically, it is the ratio of the mass of the rocket vehicle without fuel to the total mass of the rocket with fuel), and c is the (constant) speed of exhaust relative to the rocket.

Now consider a rocket with three stages and a payload of mass A. Assume that outside forces are negligible and that c and S remain constant for each stage. If M_i is the mass of the ith stage, we can initially consider the rocket engine to have mass M_1 and its payload to have mass $M_2 + M_3 + A$; the second and third stages can be handled similarly.

1. Show that the velocity attained by the rocket after all three stages have been jettisoned is given by

$$v_f = c\left[\ln\left(\frac{M_1 + M_2 + M_3 + A}{SM_1 + M_2 + M_3 + A}\right) + \ln\left(\frac{M_2 + M_3 + A}{SM_2 + M_3 + A}\right) + \ln\left(\frac{M_3 + A}{SM_3 + A}\right)\right]$$

2. We wish to minimize the total mass $M = M_1 + M_2 + M_3$ of the rocket engine subject to the constraint that the desired velocity v_f from Problem 1 is attained. The method of Lagrange multipliers is appropriate here, but difficult to implement using the current expressions. To simplify, we define variables N_i so that the constraint equation may be expressed as $v_f = c(\ln N_1 + \ln N_2 + \ln N_3)$. Since M is now difficult to express in terms of the N_i's, we wish to use a simpler function that will be minimized at the same place as M. Show that

$$\frac{M_1 + M_2 + M_3 + A}{M_2 + M_3 + A} = \frac{(1 - S)N_1}{1 - SN_1}$$

$$\frac{M_2 + M_3 + A}{M_3 + A} = \frac{(1 - S)N_2}{1 - SN_2}$$

$$\frac{M_3 + A}{A} = \frac{(1 - S)N_3}{1 - SN_3}$$

and conclude that

$$\frac{M + A}{A} = \frac{(1 - S)^3 N_1 N_2 N_3}{(1 - SN_1)(1 - SN_2)(1 - SN_3)}$$

3. Verify that $\ln((M + A)/A)$ is minimized at the same location as M; use Lagrange multipliers and the results of Problem 2 to find expressions for the values of N_i where the minimum occurs subject to the constraint $v_f = c(\ln N_1 + \ln N_2 + \ln N_3)$. [*Hint:* Use properties of logarithms to help simplify the expressions.]

4. Find an expression for the minimum value of M as a function of v_f.

5. If we want to put a three-stage rocket into orbit 160 km above the earth's surface, a final velocity of approximately 28,000 km/h is required. Suppose that each stage is built with a structural factor $S = 0.2$ and an exhaust speed of $c = 9600$ km/h.
(a) Find the minimum total mass M of the rocket engines as a function of A.
(b) Find the mass of each individual stage as a function of A. (They are not equally sized.)

6. The same rocket would require a final velocity of approximately 39,700 km/h in order to escape earth's gravity. Find the mass of each individual stage that would minimize the total mass of the rocket engines and allow the rocket to propel a 200-kg probe into deep space.

APPLIED PROJECT | HYDRO-TURBINE OPTIMIZATION

Romaset / Shutterstock.com

At a hydroelectric generating station, water is piped from a dam to the power station. The rate at which the water flows through the pipe varies, depending on external conditions.

The power station has three different hydroelectric turbines, each with a known (and unique) power function that gives the amount of electric power generated as a function of the water flow arriving at the turbine. The incoming water can be apportioned in different volumes to each turbine, so the goal of this project is to determine how to distribute water among the turbines to give the maximum total energy production for any rate of flow.

Using experimental evidence and *Bernoulli's equation*, the following quadratic models were determined for the power output of each turbine, along with the allowable flows of operation:

$$KW_1 = (-18.89 + 0.1277Q_1 - 4.08 \cdot 10^{-5}Q_1^2)(170 - 1.6 \cdot 10^{-6}Q_T^2)$$

$$KW_2 = (-24.51 + 0.1358Q_2 - 4.69 \cdot 10^{-5}Q_2^2)(170 - 1.6 \cdot 10^{-6}Q_T^2)$$

$$KW_3 = (-27.02 + 0.1380Q_3 - 3.84 \cdot 10^{-5}Q_3^2)(170 - 1.6 \cdot 10^{-6}Q_T^2)$$

$$250 \leqslant Q_1 \leqslant 1110, \quad 250 \leqslant Q_2 \leqslant 1110, \quad 250 \leqslant Q_3 \leqslant 1225$$

where

Q_i = flow through turbine i in cubic meters per second

KW_i = power generated by turbine i in kilowatts

Q_T = total flow through the station in cubic meters per second

1. If all three turbines are being used, we wish to determine the flow Q_i to each turbine that will give the maximum total energy production. Our limitations are that the flows must sum to the total incoming flow and the given domain restrictions must be observed. Consequently, use Lagrange multipliers to find the values for the individual flows (as functions of Q_T) that maximize the total energy production

$$KW_1 + KW_2 + KW_3$$

subject to the constraints

$$Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3 = Q_T$$

and the domain restrictions on each Q_i.

2. For which values of Q_T is your result valid?

3. For an incoming flow of 70 m^3/s, determine the distribution to the turbines and verify (by trying some nearby distributions) that your result is indeed a maximum.

4. Until now we have assumed that all three turbines are operating; is it possible in some situations that more power could be produced by using only one turbine? Make a graph of the three power functions and use it to help decide if an incoming flow of 30 m^3/s should be distributed to all three turbines or routed to just one. (If you determine that only one turbine should be used, which one would it be?) What if the flow is only 17 m^3/s?

5. Perhaps for some flow levels it would be advantageous to use two turbines. If the incoming flow is 40 m^3/s, which two turbines would you recommend using? Use Lagrange multi-pliers to determine how the flow should be distributed between the two turbines to maximize the energy produced. For this flow, is using two turbines more efficient than using all three?

6. If the incoming flow is 96 m^3/s, what distribution would you recommend to the station management?

14 REVIEW

CONCEPT CHECK

Answers to the Concept Check are available at StewartCalculus.com.

1. (a) What is a function of two variables?
(b) Describe three methods for visualizing a function of two variables.

2. What is a function of three variables? How can you visualize such a function?

3. What does

$$\lim_{(x, y) \to (a, b)} f(x, y) = L$$

mean? How can you show that such a limit does not exist?

4. (a) What does it mean to say that f is continuous at (a, b)?
(b) If f is continuous on $\mathbb{R}^2$, what can you say about its graph?

5. (a) Write expressions for the partial derivatives $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$ as limits.
(b) How do you interpret $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$ geometrically? How do you interpret them as rates of change?
(c) If $f(x, y)$ is given by a formula, how do you calculate f_x and f_y?

6. What does Clairaut's Theorem say?

7. How do you find a tangent plane to each of the following types of surfaces?
(a) A graph of a function of two variables, $z = f(x, y)$
(b) A level surface of a function of three variables, $F(x, y, z) = k$

8. Define the linearization of f at (a, b). What is the corresponding linear approximation? What is the geometric interpretation of the linear approximation?

9. (a) What does it mean to say that f is differentiable at (a, b)?
(b) How do you usually verify that f is differentiable?

10. If $z = f(x, y)$, what are the differentials dx, dy, and dz?

11. State the Chain Rule for the case where $z = f(x, y)$ and x and y are functions of one variable. What if x and y are functions of two variables?

12. If z is defined implicitly as a function of x and y by an equation of the form $F(x, y, z) = 0$, how do you find $\partial z/\partial x$ and $\partial z/\partial y$?

13. (a) Write an expression as a limit for the directional derivative of f at (x_0, y_0) in the direction of a unit vector $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b \rangle$. How do you interpret it as a rate? How do you interpret it geometrically?
(b) If f is differentiable, write an expression for $D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x_0, y_0)$ in terms of f_x and f_y.

14. (a) Define the gradient vector ∇f for a function f of two or three variables.
(b) Express $D_{\mathbf{u}} f$ in terms of ∇f.
(c) Explain the geometric significance of the gradient.

15. What do the following statements mean?
(a) f has a local maximum at (a, b).
(b) f has an absolute maximum at (a, b).
(c) f has a local minimum at (a, b).
(d) f has an absolute minimum at (a, b).
(e) f has a saddle point at (a, b).

16. (a) If f has a local maximum at (a, b), what can you say about its partial derivatives at (a, b)?
(b) What is a critical point of f?

17. State the Second Derivatives Test.

18. (a) What is a closed set in $\mathbb{R}^2$? What is a bounded set?
(b) State the Extreme Value Theorem for functions of two variables.
(c) How do you find the values that the Extreme Value Theorem guarantees?

19. Explain how the method of Lagrange multipliers works in finding the extreme values of $f(x, y, z)$ subject to the constraint $g(x, y, z) = k$. What if there is a second constraint $h(x, y, z) = c$?

TRUE-FALSE QUIZ

Determine whether the statement is true or false. If it is true, explain why. If it is false, explain why or give an example that disproves the statement.

1. $f_y(a, b) = \lim_{y \to b} \dfrac{f(a, y) - f(a, b)}{y - b}$

2. There exists a function f with continuous second-order partial derivatives such that $f_x(x, y) = x + y^2$ and $f_y(x, y) = x - y^2$.

3. $f_{xy} = \dfrac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x\, \partial y}$

4. $D_{\mathbf{k}} f(x, y, z) = f_z(x, y, z)$

5. If $f(x, y) \to L$ as $(x, y) \to (a, b)$ along every straight line through (a, b), then $\lim_{(x, y) \to (a, b)} f(x, y) = L$.

6. If $f_x(a, b)$ and $f_y(a, b)$ both exist, then f is differentiable at (a, b).

7. If f has a local minimum at (a, b) and f is differentiable at (a, b), then $\nabla f(a, b) = \mathbf{0}$.

8. If f is a function, then

$$\lim_{(x, y) \to (2, 5)} f(x, y) = f(2, 5)$$

9. If $f(x, y) = \ln y$, then $\nabla f(x, y) = 1/y$.

10. If $(2, 1)$ is a critical point of f and

$$f_{xx}(2, 1)\, f_{yy}(2, 1) < [f_{xy}(2, 1)]^2$$

then f has a saddle point at $(2, 1)$.

11. If $f(x, y) = \sin x + \sin y$, then $-\sqrt{2} \leqslant D_{\mathbf{u}} f(x, y) \leqslant \sqrt{2}$.

12. If $f(x, y)$ has two local maxima, then f must have a local minimum.

EXERCISES

1–2 Find and sketch the domain of the function.

1. $f(x, y) = \ln(x + y + 1)$

2. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2} + \sqrt{1 - x^2}$

3–4 Sketch the graph of the function.

3. $f(x, y) = 1 - y^2$

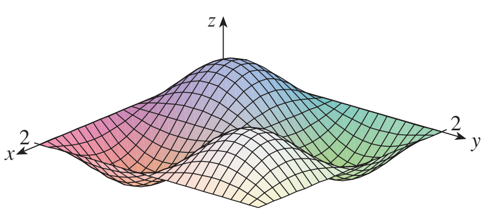
4. $f(x, y) = x^2 + (y - 2)^2$

5–6 Sketch several level curves of the function.

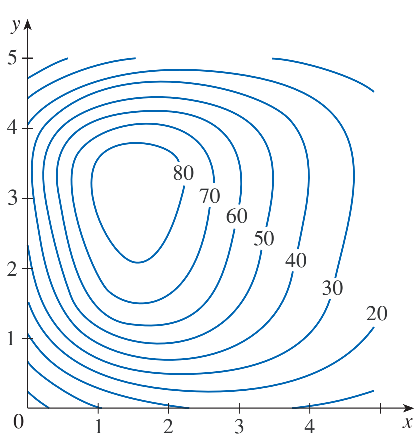
5. $f(x, y) = \sqrt{4x^2 + y^2}$

6. $f(x, y) = e^x + y$

7. Make a rough sketch of a contour map for the function whose graph is shown.



8. The contour map of a function f is shown.
(a) Estimate the value of $f(3, 2)$.
(b) Is $f_x(3, 2)$ positive or negative? Explain.
(c) Which is greater, $f_y(2, 1)$ or $f_y(2, 2)$? Explain.



9–10 Evaluate the limit or show that it does not exist.

9. $\displaystyle\lim_{(x, y) \to (1, 1)} \frac{2xy}{x^2 + 2y^2}$

10. $\displaystyle\lim_{(x, y) \to (0, 0)} \frac{2xy}{x^2 + 2y^2}$

11. A metal plate is situated in the xy-plane and occupies the rectangle $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 10$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 8$, where x and y are measured in meters. The temperature at the point (x, y) in the plate is $T(x, y)$, where T is measured in degrees Celsius. Temperatures at equally spaced points were measured and recorded in the table.
(a) Estimate the values of the partial derivatives $T_x(6, 4)$ and $T_y(6, 4)$. What are the units?
(b) Estimate the value of $D_{\mathbf{u}} T(6, 4)$, where $\mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})/\sqrt{2}$. Interpret your result.
(c) Estimate the value of $T_{xy}(6, 4)$.

x \ y	0	2	4	6	8
0	30	38	45	51	55
2	52	56	60	62	61
4	78	74	72	68	66
6	98	87	80	75	71
8	96	90	86	80	75
10	92	92	91	87	78

12. Find a linear approximation to the temperature function $T(x, y)$ in Exercise 11 near the point $(6, 4)$. Then use it to estimate the temperature at the point $(5, 3.8)$.

13–17 Find the first partial derivatives.

13. $f(x, y) = (5y^3 + 2x^2y)^8$

14. $g(u, v) = \dfrac{u + 2v}{u^2 + v^2}$

15. $F(\alpha, \beta) = \alpha^2 \ln(\alpha^2 + \beta^2)$

16. $G(x, y, z) = e^{xz} \sin(y/z)$

17. $S(u, v, w) = u \arctan(v\sqrt{w})$

18. The speed of sound traveling through ocean water is a function of temperature, salinity, and pressure. It has been modeled by the function

$$C = 1449.2 + 4.6T - 0.055T^2 + 0.00029T^3 + (1.34 - 0.01T)(S - 35) + 0.016D$$

where C is the speed of sound (in meters per second), T is the temperature (in degrees Celsius), S is the salinity (the concentration of salts in parts per thousand, which means the number of grams of dissolved solids per 1000 g of water), and D is the depth below the ocean surface (in meters). Compute $\partial C/\partial T$, $\partial C/\partial S$, and $\partial C/\partial D$ when $T = 10°\text{C}$, $S = 35$ parts per thousand, and $D = 100$ m. Explain the physical significance of these partial derivatives.

19–22 Find all second partial derivatives of f.

19. $f(x, y) = 4x^3 - xy^2$

20. $z = xe^{-2y}$

21. $f(x, y, z) = x^k y^l z^m$

22. $v = r\cos(s + 2t)$

---

23. If $z = xy + xe^{y/x}$, show that $x\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial x} + y\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial y} = xy + z$.

24. If $z = \sin(x + \sin t)$, show that

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x\,\partial t} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial t}\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2}$$

25–29 Find equations of (a) the tangent plane and (b) the normal line to the given surface at the specified point.

25. $z = 3x^2 - y^2 + 2x, \quad (1, -2, 1)$

26. $z = e^x \cos y, \quad (0, 0, 1)$

27. $x^2 + 2y^2 - 3z^2 = 3, \quad (2, -1, 1)$

28. $xy + yz + zx = 3, \quad (1, 1, 1)$

29. $\sin(xyz) = x + 2y + 3z, \quad (2, -1, 0)$

---

30. Use a computer to graph the surface $z = x^2 + y^4$ and its tangent plane and normal line at $(1, 1, 2)$ on the same screen. Choose the domain and viewpoint so that you get a good view of all three objects.

31. Find the points on the hyperboloid

$$x^2 + 4y^2 - z^2 = 4$$

where the tangent plane is parallel to the plane

$$2x + 2y + z = 5$$

32. Find du if $u = \ln(1 + se^{2t})$.

33. Find the linear approximation of the function $f(x, y, z) = x^3\sqrt{y^2 + z^2}$ at the point $(2, 3, 4)$ and use it to estimate the number $(1.98)^3\sqrt{(3.01)^2 + (3.97)^2}$.

34. The two legs of a right triangle are measured as 5 m and 12 m with a possible error in measurement of at most 0.2 cm in each. Use differentials to estimate the maximum error in the calculated value of (a) the area of the triangle and (b) the length of the hypotenuse.

35. If $u = x^2y^3 + z^4$, where $x = p + 3p^2$, $y = pe^p$, and $z = p\sin p$, use the Chain Rule to find du/dp.

36. If $v = x^2\sin y + ye^{xy}$, where $x = s + 2t$ and $y = st$, use the Chain Rule to find $\partial v/\partial s$ and $\partial v/\partial t$ when $s = 0$ and $t = 1$.

37. Suppose $z = f(x, y)$, where $x = g(s, t)$, $y = h(s, t)$, $g(1, 2) = 3$, $g_s(1, 2) = -1$, $g_t(1, 2) = 4$, $h(1, 2) = 6$, $h_s(1, 2) = -5$, $h_t(1, 2) = 10$, $f_x(3, 6) = 7$, and $f_y(3, 6) = 8$. Find $\partial z/\partial s$ and $\partial z/\partial t$ when $s = 1$ and $t = 2$.

38. Use a tree diagram to write out the Chain Rule for the case where $w = f(t, u, v)$, $t = t(p, q, r, s)$, $u = u(p, q, r, s)$, and $v = v(p, q, r, s)$ are all differentiable functions.

39. If $z = y + f(x^2 - y^2)$, where f is differentiable, show that

$$y\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + x\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = x$$

40. The length x of a side of a triangle is increasing at a rate of 3 in/s, the length y of another side is decreasing at a rate of 2 in/s, and the contained angle θ is increasing at a rate of 0.05 radian/s. How fast is the area of the triangle changing when $x = 40$ inches, $y = 50$ inches, and $\theta = \pi/6$?

41. If $z = f(u, v)$, where $u = xy$, $v = y/x$, and f has continuous second partial derivatives, show that

$$x^2\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} - y^2\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2} = -4uv\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial u\,\partial v} + 2v\frac{\partial z}{\partial v}$$

42. If $\cos(xyz) = 1 + x^2y^2 + z^2$, find $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial x}$ and $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial y}$.

43. Find the gradient of the function $f(x, y, z) = x^2e^{yz^2}$.

44. (a) When is the directional derivative of f a maximum?
(b) When is it a minimum?
(c) When is it 0?
(d) When is it half of its maximum value?

45–46 Find the directional derivative of f at the given point in the indicated direction.

45. $f(x, y) = x^2e^{-y}, \quad (-2, 0)$, in the direction toward the point $(2, -3)$

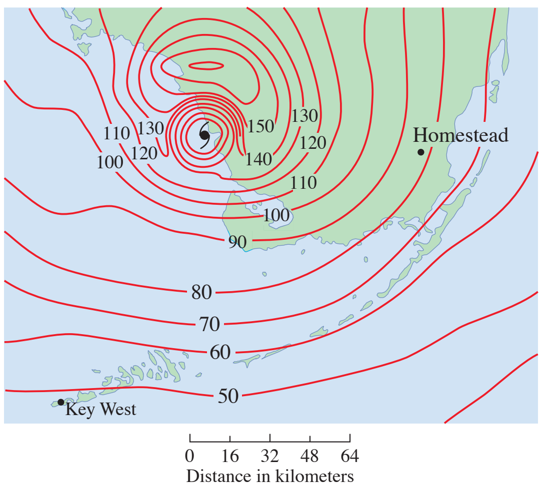
46. $f(x, y, z) = x^2y + x\sqrt{1 + z}, \quad (1, 2, 3)$, in the direction of $\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$

---

47. Find the maximum rate of change of $f(x, y) = x^2y + \sqrt{y}$ at the point $(2, 1)$. In which direction does it occur?

48. Find the direction in which $f(x, y, z) = ze^{xy}$ increases most rapidly at the point $(0, 1, 2)$. What is the maximum rate of increase?

49. The contour map shows wind speed in km/h during Hurricane Andrew on August 24, 1992. Use it to estimate the value of the directional derivative of the wind speed at Homestead, Florida, in the direction of the eye of the hurricane.



50. Find parametric equations of the tangent line at the point $(-2, 2, 4)$ to the curve of intersection of the surface $z = 2x^2 - y^2$ and the plane $z = 4$.

51–54 Find the local maximum and minimum values and saddle points of the function. You are encouraged to graph the function with a domain and viewpoint that reveals all the important aspects of the function.

51. $f(x, y) = x^2 - xy + y^2 + 9x - 6y + 10$

52. $f(x, y) = x^3 - 6xy + 8y^3$

53. $f(x, y) = 3xy - x^2y - xy^2$

54. $f(x, y) = (x^2 + y)e^{y/2}$

55–56 Find the absolute maximum and minimum values of f on the set D.

55. $f(x, y) = 4xy^2 - x^2y^2 - xy^3$; D is the closed triangular region in the xy-plane with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(0, 6)$, and $(6, 0)$

56. $f(x, y) = e^{-x^2-y^2}(x^2 + 2y^2)$; D is the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 4$

57. Use a graph or level curves or both to estimate the local maximum and minimum values and saddle points of $f(x, y) = x^3 - 3x + y^4 - 2y^2$. Then use calculus to find these values precisely.

58. Use a graphing calculator or computer (or Newton's method) to find the critical points of

$$f(x, y) = 12 + 10y - 2x^2 - 8xy - y^4$$

correct to three decimal places. Then classify the critical points and find the highest point on the graph.

59–62 Use Lagrange multipliers to find the maximum and minimum values of f subject to the given constraint(s).

59. $f(x, y) = x^2y, \quad x^2 + y^2 = 1$

60. $f(x, y) = \dfrac{1}{x} + \dfrac{1}{y}, \quad \dfrac{1}{x^2} + \dfrac{1}{y^2} = 1$

61. $f(x, y, z) = xyz, \quad x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 3$

62. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2$;
$x + y + z = 1, \quad x - y + 2z = 2$

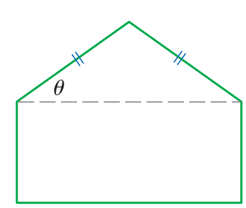
63. Find the points on the surface $xy^2z^3 = 2$ that are closest to the origin.

64. In this problem we identify a point (a, b) on the line $16x + 15y = 100$ such that the sum of the distances from $(-3, 0)$ to (a, b) and from (a, b) to $(3, 0)$ is a minimum.

(a) Write a function f that gives the sum of the distances from $(-3, 0)$ to a point (x, y) and from (x, y) to $(3, 0)$. Let $g(x, y) = 16x + 15y$. Following the method of Lagrange multipliers, we wish to find the minimum value of f subject to the constraint $g(x, y) = 100$. Graph the constraint curve along with several level curves of f, and then use the graph to estimate the minimum value of f. What point (a, b) on the line minimizes f?

(b) Verify that the gradient vectors $\nabla f(a, b)$ and $\nabla g(a, b)$ are parallel.

65. A pentagon is formed by placing an isosceles triangle on a rectangle, as shown in the figure. If the pentagon has fixed perimeter P, find the lengths of the sides of the pentagon that maximize the area of the pentagon.



Problems Plus

1. A rectangle with length L and width W is cut into four smaller rectangles by two lines parallel to the sides. Find the maximum and minimum values of the sum of the squares of the areas of the smaller rectangles.

2. Marine biologists have determined that when a shark detects the presence of blood in the water, it will swim in the direction in which the concentration of the blood increases most rapidly. Based on certain tests, the concentration of blood (in parts per million) at a point $P(x, y)$ on the surface of seawater is approximated by

$$C(x, y) = e^{-(x^2+2y^2)/10^4}$$

where x and y are measured in meters in a rectangular coordinate system with the blood source at the origin.

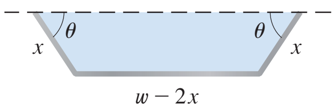
(a) Identify the level curves of the concentration function and sketch several members of this family together with a path that a shark will follow to the source.

(b) Suppose a shark is at the point (x_0, y_0) when it first detects the presence of blood in the water. Find an equation of the shark's path by setting up and solving a differential equation.

3. A long piece of galvanized sheet metal with width w is to be bent into a symmetric form with three straight sides to make a rain gutter. A cross-section is shown in the figure.

(a) Determine the dimensions that allow the maximum possible flow; that is, find the dimensions that give the maximum possible cross-sectional area.

(b) Would it be better to bend the metal into a gutter with a semicircular cross-section?



4. For what values of the number r is the function

$$f(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} \dfrac{(x + y + z)^r}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} & \text{if } (x, y, z) \neq (0, 0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0) \end{cases}$$

continuous on $\mathbb{R}^3$?

5. Suppose f is a differentiable function of one variable. Show that all tangent planes to the surface $z = xf(y/x)$ intersect in a common point.

6. (a) Newton's method for approximating a solution of an equation $f(x) = 0$ (see Section 4.8) can be adapted to approximating a solution of a system of equations $f(x, y) = 0$ and $g(x, y) = 0$. The surfaces $z = f(x, y)$ and $z = g(x, y)$ intersect in a curve that intersects the xy-plane at the point (r, s), which is the solution of the system. If an initial approximation (x_1, y_1) is close to this point, then the tangent planes to the surfaces at (x_1, y_1) intersect in a straight line that intersects the xy-plane in a point (x_2, y_2), which should be closer to (r, s). (Compare with Figure 4.8.2.) Show that

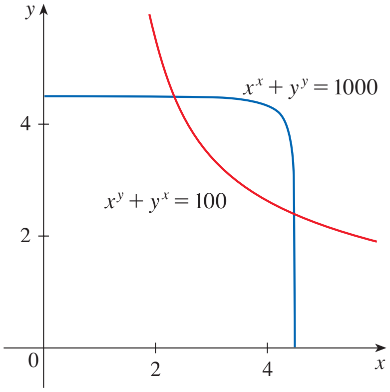
$$x_2 = x_1 - \frac{fg_y - f_y g}{f_x g_y - f_y g_x} \qquad \text{and} \qquad y_2 = y_1 - \frac{f_x g - fg_x}{f_x g_y - f_y g_x}$$

where f, g, and their partial derivatives are evaluated at (x_1, y_1). If we continue this procedure, we obtain successive approximations (x_n, y_n).

(b) It was Thomas Simpson (1710–1761) who formulated Newton's method as we know it today and who extended it to functions of two variables as in part (a). (See the biography of Simpson in Section 7.7.) The example that he gave to illustrate the method was to solve the system of equations

$$x^x + y^y = 1000 \qquad x^y + y^x = 100$$

In other words, he found the points of intersection of the curves in the figure. Use the method of part (a) to find the coordinates of the points of intersection correct to six decimal places.



7. If the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$ is to enclose the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 2y$, what values of a and b minimize the area of the ellipse?

8. Show that the maximum value of the function

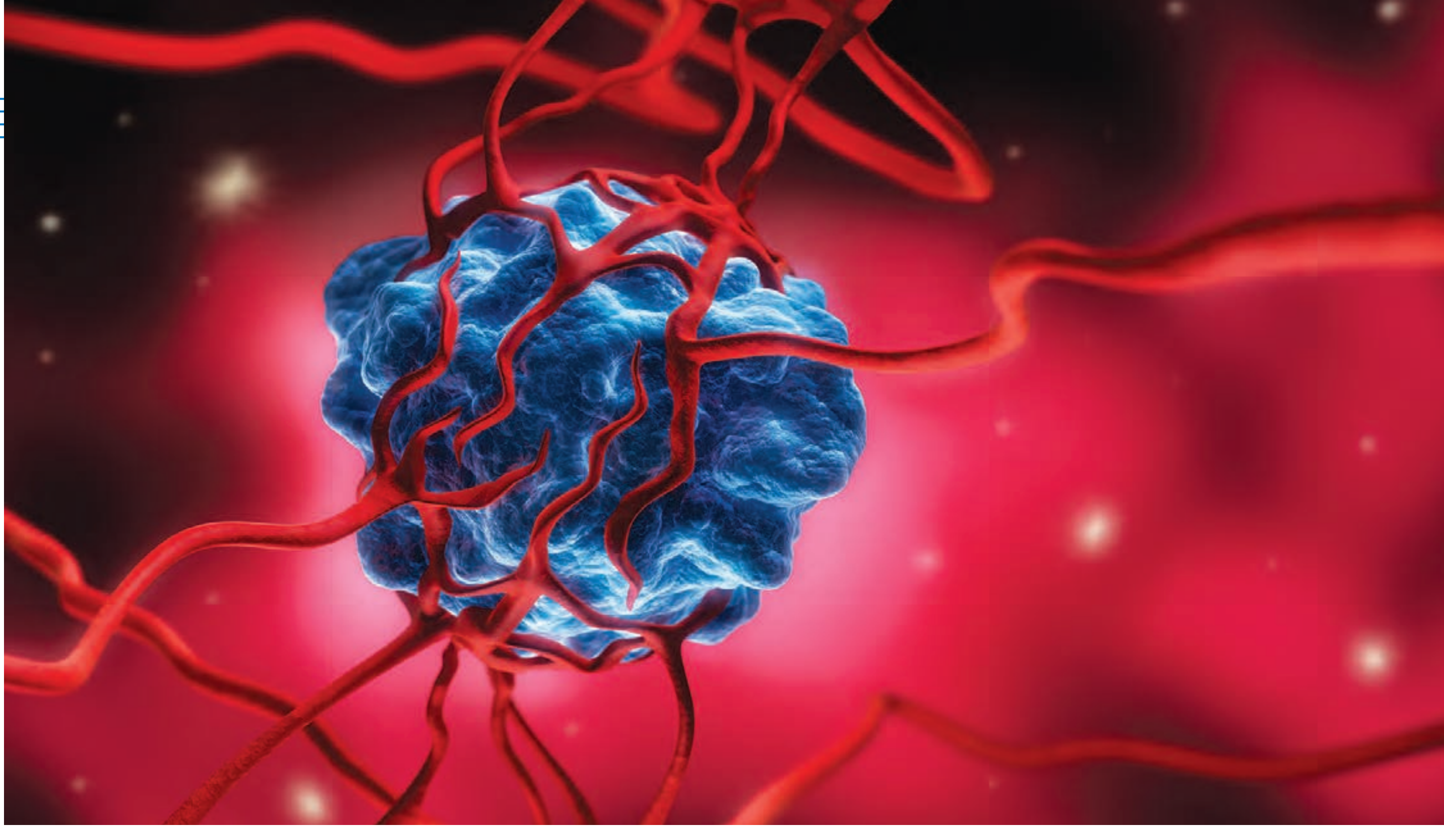
$$f(x, y) = \frac{(ax + by + c)^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$$

is $a^2 + b^2 + c^2$.

Hint: One method for attacking this problem is to use the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

$$|\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}| \leqslant |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|$$

(See Exercise 12.3.61.)



Tumors, such as the one illustrated here, have been modeled as "bumpy spheres." In Exercise 15.8.49 you are asked to compute the volume enclosed by such a surface.

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15 Multiple Integrals

IN THIS CHAPTER WE EXTEND the idea of a definite integral to double and triple integrals of functions of two or three variables. These ideas are then used to compute volumes, masses, and centroids of more general regions than we were able to consider in Chapters 6 and 8. We also use double integrals to calculate probabilities when two random variables are involved.

We will see that polar coordinates are useful in computing double integrals over some types of regions. In a similar way, we will introduce two new coordinate systems in three-dimensional space—cylindrical coordinates and spherical coordinates—that greatly simplify the computation of triple integrals over certain commonly occurring solid regions.

15.1 Double Integrals over Rectangles

In much the same way that our attempt to solve the area problem led to the definition of a definite integral, we now seek to find the volume of a solid and in the process we arrive at the definition of a double integral.

Review of the Definite Integral

First let's recall the basic facts concerning definite integrals of functions of a single variable. If $f(x)$ is defined for $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$, we start by dividing the interval $[a, b]$ into n subintervals $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ of equal width $\Delta x = (b - a)/n$ and we choose sample points x_i^* in these subintervals. Then we form the Riemann sum

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*)\,\Delta x$$

and take the limit of such sums as $n \to \infty$ to obtain the definite integral of f from a to b:

$$\boxed{2} \qquad \int_a^b f(x)\,dx = \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*)\,\Delta x$$

In the special case where $f(x) \geqslant 0$, the Riemann sum can be interpreted as the sum of the areas of the approximating rectangles in Figure 1, and $\int_a^b f(x)\,dx$ represents the area under the curve $y = f(x)$ from a to b.

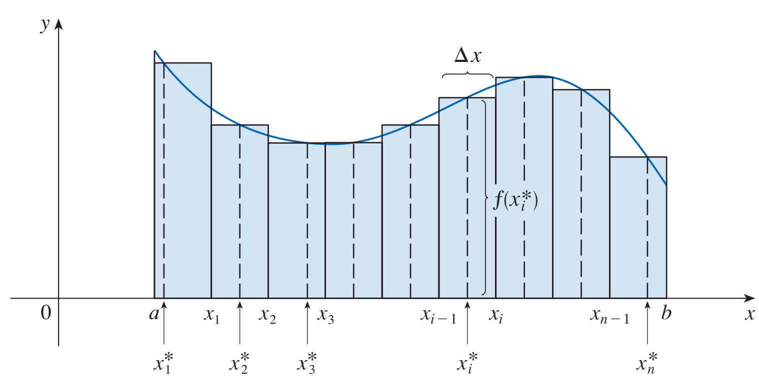


FIGURE 1

Volumes and Double Integrals

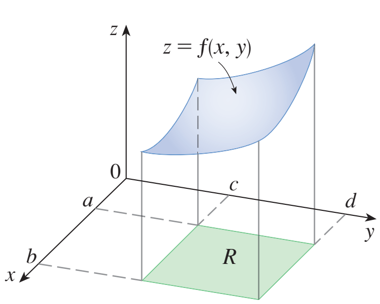


FIGURE 2

In a similar manner we consider a function f of two variables defined on a closed rectangle

$$R = [a, b] \times [c, d] = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a \leqslant x \leqslant b,\ c \leqslant y \leqslant d\}$$

and we first suppose that $f(x, y) \geqslant 0$. The graph of f is a surface with equation $z = f(x, y)$. Let S be the solid that lies above R and under the graph of f, that is,

$$S = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid 0 \leqslant z \leqslant f(x, y),\ (x, y) \in R\}$$

(See Figure 2.) Our goal is to find the volume of S.

The first step is to divide the rectangle R into subrectangles. We accomplish this by dividing the interval $[a, b]$ into m subintervals $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ of equal width $\Delta x = (b - a)/m$ and dividing $[c, d]$ into n subintervals $[y_{j-1}, y_j]$ of equal width $\Delta y = (d - c)/n$. By drawing lines parallel to the coordinate axes through the endpoints of these subintervals, as in Figure 3, we form the subrectangles

$$R_{ij} = [x_{i-1}, x_i] \times [y_{j-1}, y_j] = \{(x, y) \mid x_{i-1} \leqslant x \leqslant x_i,\ y_{j-1} \leqslant y \leqslant y_j\}$$

each with area $\Delta A = \Delta x\, \Delta y$.

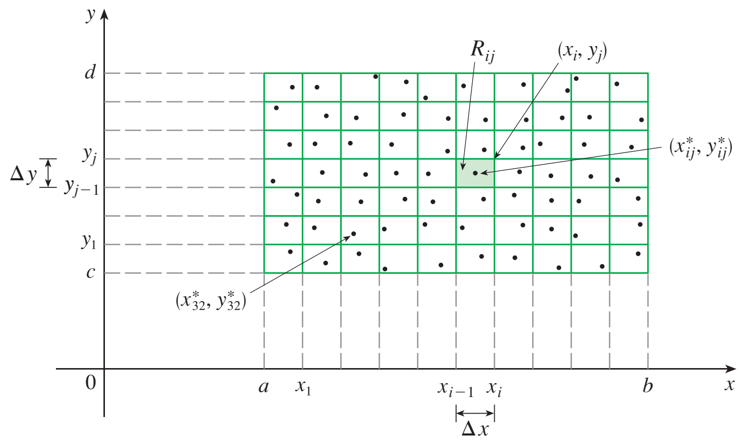


FIGURE 3
Dividing R into subrectangles

If we choose a **sample point** (x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*) in each R_{ij}, then we can approximate the part of S that lies above each R_{ij} by a thin rectangular box (or "column") with base R_{ij} and height $f(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)$ as shown in Figure 4. (Compare with Figure 1.) The volume of this box is the height of the box times the area of the base rectangle:

$$f(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A$$

If we follow this procedure for all the rectangles and add the volumes of the corresponding boxes, we get an approximation to the total volume of S:

3
$$V \approx \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A$$

(See Figure 5.) This double sum means that for each subrectangle we evaluate f at the chosen point and multiply by the area of the subrectangle, and then we add the results.

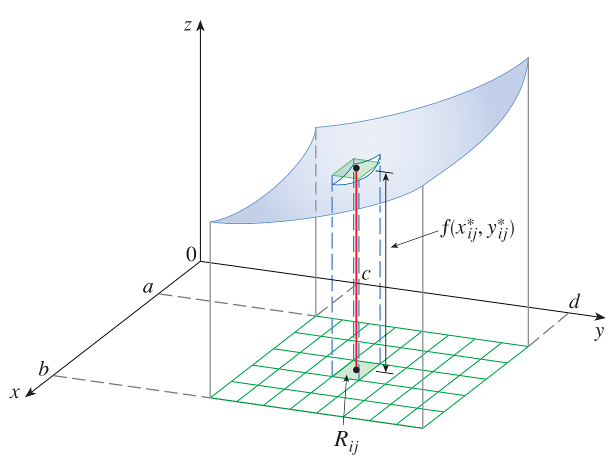


FIGURE 4

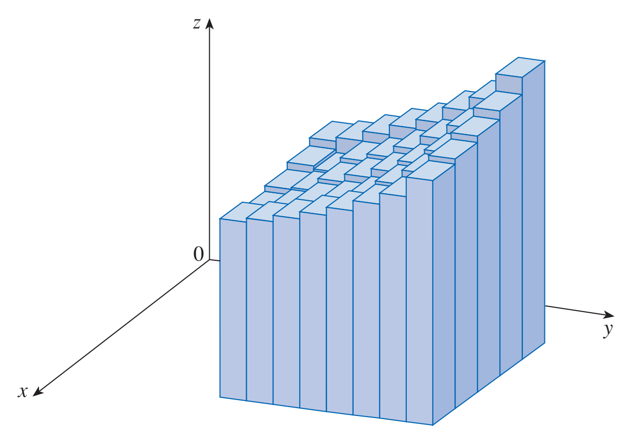


FIGURE 5

The meaning of the double limit in Equation 4 is that we can make the double sum as close as we like to the number V [for any choice of (x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*) in R_{ij}] by taking m and n sufficiently large.

Our intuition tells us that the approximation given in (3) becomes better as m and n become larger and so we would expect that

$$\boxed{4} \qquad V = \lim_{m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A$$

We use the expression in Equation 4 to define the **volume** of the solid S that lies under the graph of f and above the rectangle R. (It can be shown that this definition is consistent with our formula for volume in Section 6.2.)

Limits of the type that appear in Equation 4 occur frequently, not just in finding volumes but in a variety of other situations as well—as we will see in Section 15.4—even when f is not a positive function. So we make the following definition.

Notice the similarity between Definition 5 and the definition of a single integral in Equation 2.

5 Definitio The **double integral** of f over the rectangle R is

$$\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA = \lim_{m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A$$

if this limit exists.

Although we have defined the double integral by dividing R into equal-sized subrectangles, we could have used subrectangles R_{ij} of unequal size. But then we would have to ensure that all of their dimensions approach 0 in the limiting process.

The precise meaning of the limit in Definition 5 is that for every number $\varepsilon > 0$ there is an integer N such that

$$\left| \iint_R f(x, y)\, dA - \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A \right| < \varepsilon$$

for all integers m and n greater than N and for any choice of sample points (x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*) in R_{ij}.

A function f is called **integrable** if the limit in Definition 5 exists. It is shown in courses on advanced calculus that all continuous functions are integrable. In fact, the double integral of f exists provided that f is "not too discontinuous." In particular, if f is bounded on R [that is, there is a constant M such that $|f(x, y)| \leqslant M$ for all (x, y) in R], and f is continuous there, except possibly on a finite number of smooth curves, then f is integrable over R.

The sample point (x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*) can be chosen to be any point in the subrectangle R_{ij}, but if we choose it to be the upper right-hand corner of R_{ij} [namely (x_i, y_j), see Figure 3], then the expression for the double integral looks simpler:

$$\boxed{6} \qquad \iint_R f(x, y)\, dA = \lim_{m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(x_i, y_j)\, \Delta A$$

By comparing Definitions 4 and 5, we see that a volume can be written as a double integral:

If $f(x, y) \geqslant 0$, then the volume V of the solid that lies above the rectangle R and below the surface $z = f(x, y)$ is

$$V = \iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$$

The sum in Definition 5,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A$$

is called a **double Riemann sum** and is used as an approximation to the value of the double integral. [Notice how similar it is to the Riemann sum in (1) for a function of a single variable.] If f happens to be a *positive* function, then the double Riemann sum represents the sum of volumes of columns, as in Figure 5, and is an approximation to the volume under the graph of f.

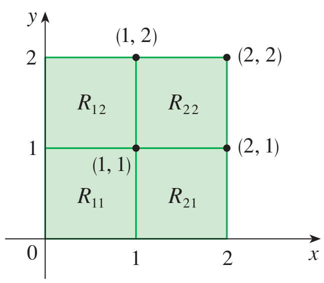


FIGURE 6

EXAMPLE 1 Estimate the volume of the solid that lies above the square $R = [0, 2] \times [0, 2]$ and below the elliptic paraboloid $z = 16 - x^2 - 2y^2$. Divide R into four equal squares and choose the sample point to be the upper right corner of each square R_{ij}. Sketch the solid and the approximating rectangular boxes.

SOLUTION The squares are shown in Figure 6. The paraboloid is the graph of $f(x, y) = 16 - x^2 - 2y^2$ and the area of each square is $\Delta A = 1$. Approximating the volume by the Riemann sum with $m = n = 2$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} V &\approx \sum_{i=1}^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{2} f(x_i, y_j)\, \Delta A \\ &= f(1, 1)\, \Delta A + f(1, 2)\, \Delta A + f(2, 1)\, \Delta A + f(2, 2)\, \Delta A \\ &= 13(1) + 7(1) + 10(1) + 4(1) = 34 \end{aligned}$$

This is the volume of the approximating rectangular boxes shown in Figure 7. ■

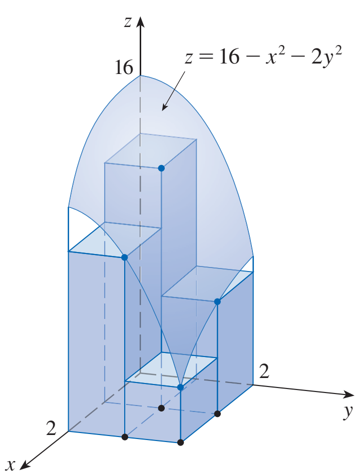
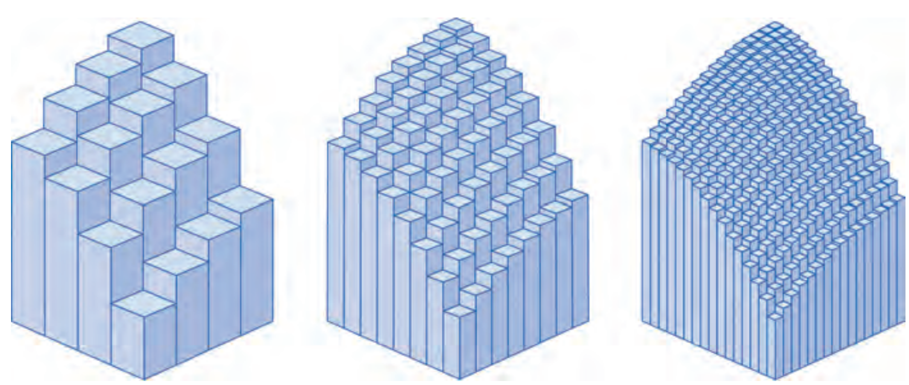


FIGURE 7

We get better approximations to the volume in Example 1 if we increase the number of squares. Figure 8 shows how the columns start to look more like the actual solid and the corresponding approximations become more accurate when we use 16, 64, and 256 squares. In Example 7 we will be able to show that the exact volume is 48.



(a) $m = n = 4$, $V \approx 41.5$ (b) $m = n = 8$, $V \approx 44.875$ (c) $m = n = 16$, $V \approx 46.46875$

FIGURE 8
The Riemann sum approximations to the volume under $z = 16 - x^2 - 2y^2$ become more accurate as m and n increase.

EXAMPLE 2 If $R = \{(x, y) \mid -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1, -2 \leqslant y \leqslant 2\}$, evaluate the integral

$$\iint_R \sqrt{1 - x^2}\, dA$$

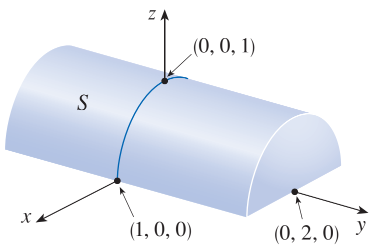


FIGURE 9

SOLUTION It would be very difficult to evaluate this integral directly from Definition 5 but, because $\sqrt{1 - x^2} \geqslant 0$, we can compute the integral by interpreting it as a volume. If $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$, then $x^2 + z^2 = 1$ and $z \geqslant 0$, so the given double integral represents the volume of the solid S that lies below the circular cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 1$ and above the rectangle R. (See Figure 9.) The volume of S is the area of a semicircle with radius 1 times the length of the cylinder. Thus

$$\iint_R \sqrt{1 - x^2}\, dA = \tfrac{1}{2}\pi(1)^2 \times 4 = 2\pi$$

The Midpoint Rule

The methods that we used for approximating single integrals (the Midpoint Rule, the Trapezoidal Rule, Simpson's Rule) all have counterparts for double integrals. Here we consider only the Midpoint Rule for double integrals. This means that we use a double Riemann sum to approximate the double integral, where the sample point (x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*) in R_{ij} is chosen to be the center $(\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_j)$ of R_{ij}. In other words, $\bar{x}_i$ is the midpoint of $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ and $\bar{y}_j$ is the midpoint of $[y_{j-1}, y_j]$.

Midpoint Rule for Double Integrals

$$\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA \approx \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_j)\, \Delta A$$

where $\bar{x}_i$ is the midpoint of $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ and $\bar{y}_j$ is the midpoint of $[y_{j-1}, y_j]$.

EXAMPLE 3 Use the Midpoint Rule with $m = n = 2$ to estimate the value of the integral $\iint_R (x - 3y^2)\, dA$, where $R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2,\ 1 \leqslant y \leqslant 2\}$.

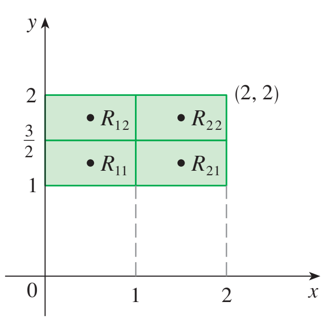


FIGURE 10

SOLUTION In using the Midpoint Rule with $m = n = 2$, we evaluate $f(x, y) = x - 3y^2$ at the centers of the four subrectangles shown in Figure 10. So $\bar{x}_1 = \frac{1}{2}$, $\bar{x}_2 = \frac{3}{2}$, $\bar{y}_1 = \frac{5}{4}$, and $\bar{y}_2 = \frac{7}{4}$. The area of each subrectangle is $\Delta A = \frac{1}{2}$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
\iint_R (x - 3y^2)\, dA &\approx \sum_{i=1}^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{2} f(\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_j)\, \Delta A \\
&= f(\bar{x}_1, \bar{y}_1)\, \Delta A + f(\bar{x}_1, \bar{y}_2)\, \Delta A + f(\bar{x}_2, \bar{y}_1)\, \Delta A + f(\bar{x}_2, \bar{y}_2)\, \Delta A \\
&= f(\tfrac{1}{2}, \tfrac{5}{4})\, \Delta A + f(\tfrac{1}{2}, \tfrac{7}{4})\, \Delta A + f(\tfrac{3}{2}, \tfrac{5}{4})\, \Delta A + f(\tfrac{3}{2}, \tfrac{7}{4})\, \Delta A \\
&= (-\tfrac{67}{16})\tfrac{1}{2} + (-\tfrac{139}{16})\tfrac{1}{2} + (-\tfrac{51}{16})\tfrac{1}{2} + (-\tfrac{123}{16})\tfrac{1}{2} \\
&= -\tfrac{95}{8} = -11.875
\end{aligned}$$

Thus we have
$$\iint_R (x - 3y^2)\, dA \approx -11.875$$

NOTE In Example 5 we will see that the exact value of the double integral given in Example 3 is -12. (Remember that the interpretation of a double integral as a volume is valid only when the integrand f is a *positive* function. The integrand in Example 3 is not a positive function, so its integral is not a volume. In Examples 5 and 6 we will discuss how to interpret integrals of functions that are not always positive in terms of volumes.)

If we keep dividing each subrectangle in Figure 10 into four smaller ones with similar

Number of subrectangles	Midpoint Rule approximation
1	-11.5000
4	-11.8750
16	-11.9687
64	-11.9922
256	-11.9980
1024	-11.9995

shape, we get the Midpoint Rule approximations displayed in the table in the margin. Notice how these approximations approach the exact value of the double integral, -12.

Iterated Integrals

Recall that it is usually difficult to evaluate single integrals directly from the definition of an integral, but the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus provides a much easier method. The evaluation of double integrals from first principles is even more difficult, but here we see how to express a double integral as an iterated integral, which can then be evaluated by calculating two single integrals.

Suppose that f is a function of two variables that is integrable on the rectangle $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$. We use the notation $\int_c^d f(x, y)\,dy$ to mean that x is held fixed and $f(x, y)$ is integrated with respect to y from $y = c$ to $y = d$. This procedure is called *partial integration with respect to y*. (Notice its similarity to partial differentiation.) Now $\int_c^d f(x, y)\,dy$ is a number that depends on the value of x, so it defines a function of x:

$$A(x) = \int_c^d f(x, y)\,dy$$

If we now integrate the function A with respect to x from $x = a$ to $x = b$, we get

$$\boxed{7} \qquad \int_a^b A(x)\,dx = \int_a^b \left[\int_c^d f(x, y)\,dy \right] dx$$

The integral on the right side of Equation 7 is called an **iterated integral**. Usually the brackets are omitted. Thus

$$\boxed{8} \qquad \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y)\,dy\,dx = \int_a^b \left[\int_c^d f(x, y)\,dy \right] dx$$

means that we first integrate with respect to y (holding x fixed) from $y = c$ to $y = d$, and then we integrate the resulting function of x with respect to x from $x = a$ to $x = b$.

Similarly, the iterated integral

$$\boxed{9} \qquad \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y)\,dx\,dy = \int_c^d \left[\int_a^b f(x, y)\,dx \right] dy$$

means that we first integrate with respect to x (holding y fixed) from $x = a$ to $x = b$ and then we integrate the resulting function of y with respect to y from $y = c$ to $y = d$. Notice that in both Equations 8 and 9 we work *from the inside out.*

EXAMPLE 4 Evaluate the iterated integrals.

(a) $\displaystyle\int_0^3 \int_1^2 x^2 y\,dy\,dx$ (b) $\displaystyle\int_1^2 \int_0^3 x^2 y\,dx\,dy$

SOLUTION

(a) Regarding x as a constant, we obtain

$$\int_1^2 x^2 y\,dy = \left[x^2 \frac{y^2}{2} \right]_{y=1}^{y=2} = x^2\left(\frac{2^2}{2}\right) - x^2\left(\frac{1^2}{2}\right) = \tfrac{3}{2}x^2$$

Thus the function A in the preceding discussion is given by $A(x) = \frac{3}{2}x^2$ in this example. We now integrate this function of x from 0 to 3:

$$\int_0^3 \int_1^2 x^2 y\,dy\,dx = \int_0^3 \left[\int_1^2 x^2 y\,dy \right] dx = \int_0^3 \tfrac{3}{2}x^2\,dx = \frac{x^3}{2}\bigg]_0^3 = \frac{27}{2}$$

(b) Here we first integrate with respect to x, regarding y as a constant:

$$\int_1^2 \int_0^3 x^2 y \, dx \, dy = \int_1^2 \left[\int_0^3 x^2 y \, dx \right] dy = \int_1^2 \left[\frac{x^3}{3} y \right]_{x=0}^{x=3} dy$$

$$= \int_1^2 9y \, dy = 9 \frac{y^2}{2} \bigg]_1^2 = \frac{27}{2}$$

Notice that in Example 4 we obtained the same answer whether we integrated with respect to y or x first. In general, it turns out (see Theorem 10) that the two iterated integrals in Equations 8 and 9 are always equal; that is, the order of integration does not matter. (This is similar to Clairaut's Theorem on the equality of the mixed partial derivatives.)

The following theorem gives a practical method for evaluating a double integral by expressing it as an iterated integral (in either order).

Theorem 10 is named after the Italian mathematician Guido Fubini (1879–1943), who proved a very general version of this theorem in 1907. But the version for continuous functions was known to the French mathematician Augustin-Louis Cauchy almost a century earlier.

10 Fubini's Theorem If f is continuous on the rectangle

$$R = \{(x, y) \mid a \leqslant x \leqslant b, c \leqslant y \leqslant d\}$$

then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) \, dy \, dx = \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) \, dx \, dy$$

More generally, this is true if we assume that f is bounded on R, f is discontinuous only on a finite number of smooth curves, and the iterated integrals exist.

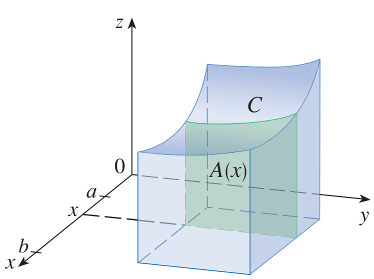


FIGURE 11

The proof of Fubini's Theorem is too difficult to include in this book, but we can at least give an intuitive indication of why it is true for the case where $f(x, y) \geqslant 0$. Recall that if f is positive, then we can interpret the double integral $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$ as the volume V of the solid S that lies above R and under the surface $z = f(x, y)$. But we have another formula that we used for volume in Section 6.2, namely,

$$V = \int_a^b A(x) \, dx$$

where $A(x)$ is the area of a cross-section of S in the plane through x perpendicular to the x-axis. From Figure 11 you can see that $A(x)$ is the area under the curve C whose equation is $z = f(x, y)$, where x is held constant and $c \leqslant y \leqslant d$. Therefore

$$A(x) = \int_c^d f(x, y) \, dy$$

and we have

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = V = \int_a^b A(x) \, dx = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) \, dy \, dx$$

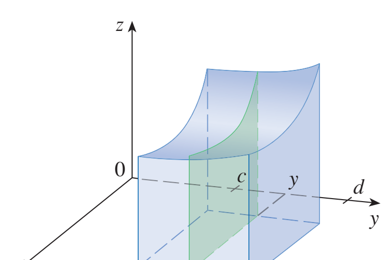


FIGURE 12

A similar argument, using cross-sections perpendicular to the y-axis as in Figure 12, shows that

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) \, dx \, dy$$

EXAMPLE 5 Evaluate the double integral $\iint_R (x - 3y^2)\,dA$, where $R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2,\ 1 \leqslant y \leqslant 2\}$. (Compare with Example 3.)

SOLUTION 1 Fubini's Theorem gives

$$\iint_R (x - 3y^2)\,dA = \int_0^2 \int_1^2 (x - 3y^2)\,dy\,dx = \int_0^2 \Big[xy - y^3\Big]_{y=1}^{y=2} dx$$

$$= \int_0^2 (x - 7)\,dx = \frac{x^2}{2} - 7x\Big]_0^2 = -12$$

SOLUTION 2 Again applying Fubini's Theorem, but this time integrating with respect to x first, we have

$$\iint_R (x - 3y^2)\,dA = \int_1^2 \int_0^2 (x - 3y^2)\,dx\,dy = \int_1^2 \left[\frac{x^2}{2} - 3xy^2\right]_{x=0}^{x=2} dy$$

$$= \int_1^2 (2 - 6y^2)\,dy = 2y - 2y^3\Big]_1^2 = -12$$ ■

Notice the negative answer in Example 5; nothing is wrong with that. The function f is not a positive function, so its integral doesn't represent a volume. From Figure 13 we see that f is always negative on R, so the value of the integral is the *negative* of the volume that lies *above* the graph of f and *below* R.

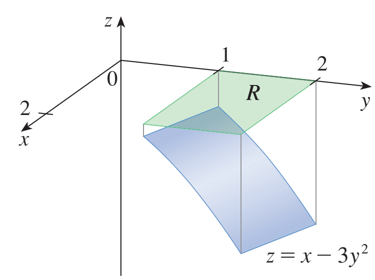


FIGURE 13

EXAMPLE 6 Evaluate $\iint_R y \sin(xy)\,dA$, where $R = [1, 2] \times [0, \pi]$.

SOLUTION If we first integrate with respect to x, we get

$$\iint_R y \sin(xy)\,dA = \int_0^\pi \int_1^2 y \sin(xy)\,dx\,dy$$

$$= \int_0^\pi y\left[-\frac{1}{y}\cos(xy)\right]_{x=1}^{x=2} dy$$

$$= \int_0^\pi (-\cos 2y + \cos y)\,dy$$

$$= -\tfrac{1}{2}\sin 2y + \sin y\Big]_0^\pi = 0$$ ■

For a function f that takes on both positive and negative values, $\iint_R f(x, y)\,dA$ is a difference of volumes: $V_1 - V_2$, where V_1 is the volume above R and below the graph of f, and V_2 is the volume below R and above the graph. The fact that the integral in Example 6 is 0 means that these two volumes V_1 and V_2 are equal. (See Figure 14.)

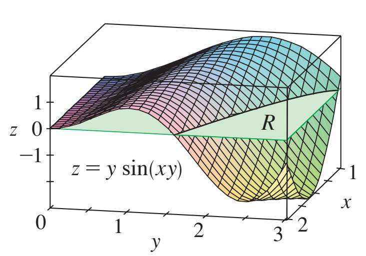


FIGURE 14

NOTE In Example 6, if we reverse the order of integration and first integrate with respect to y, we get

$$\iint_R y \sin(xy)\,dA = \int_1^2 \int_0^\pi y \sin(xy)\,dy\,dx$$

but this order of integration is much more difficult than the method given in the example because it involves integration by parts twice. Therefore, when we evaluate double integrals it is wise to choose the order of integration that gives simpler integrals.

EXAMPLE 7 Find the volume of the solid S that is bounded by the elliptic paraboloid $x^2 + 2y^2 + z = 16$, the planes $x = 2$ and $y = 2$, and the three coordinate planes.

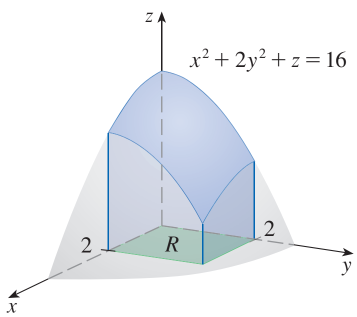


FIGURE 15

SOLUTION We first observe that S is the solid that lies under the surface $z = 16 - x^2 - 2y^2$ and above the square $R = [0, 2] \times [0, 2]$. (See Figure 15.) This solid was considered in Example 1, but we are now in a position to evaluate the double integral using Fubini's Theorem. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \iint_R (16 - x^2 - 2y^2)\, dA = \int_0^2 \int_0^2 (16 - x^2 - 2y^2)\, dx\, dy \\ &= \int_0^2 \Big[16x - \tfrac{1}{3}x^3 - 2y^2x\Big]_{x=0}^{x=2} dy \\ &= \int_0^2 \left(\tfrac{88}{3} - 4y^2\right) dy = \Big[\tfrac{88}{3}y - \tfrac{4}{3}y^3\Big]_0^2 = 48 \end{aligned}$$

■

In the special case where $f(x, y)$ can be factored as the product of a function of x only and a function of y only, the double integral of f can be written in a particularly simple form. To be specific, suppose that $f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$ and $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$. Then Fubini's Theorem gives

$$\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA = \int_c^d \int_a^b g(x)h(y)\, dx\, dy = \int_c^d \left[\int_a^b g(x)h(y)\, dx\right] dy$$

In the inner integral, y is a constant, so $h(y)$ is a constant and we can write

$$\int_c^d \left[\int_a^b g(x)h(y)\, dx\right] dy = \int_c^d \left[h(y)\left(\int_a^b g(x)\, dx\right)\right] dy = \int_a^b g(x)\, dx \int_c^d h(y)\, dy$$

since $\int_a^b g(x)\, dx$ is a constant. Therefore, in this case the double integral of f can be written as the product of two single integrals:

$$\boxed{11} \quad \iint_R g(x)\, h(y)\, dA = \int_a^b g(x)\, dx \int_c^d h(y)\, dy \quad \text{where } R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$$

EXAMPLE 8 If $R = [0, \pi/2] \times [0, \pi/2]$, then, by Equation 11,

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R \sin x \cos y\, dA &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin x\, dx \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos y\, dy \\ &= \Big[-\cos x\Big]_0^{\pi/2} \Big[\sin y\Big]_0^{\pi/2} = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

■

The function $f(x, y) = \sin x \cos y$ in Example 8 is positive on R, so the integral represents the volume of the solid that lies above R and below the graph of f shown in Figure 16.

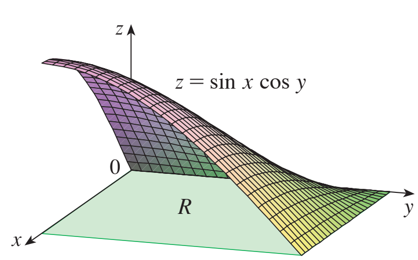


FIGURE 16

Average Value

Recall from Section 6.5 that the average value of a function f of one variable defined on an interval $[a, b]$ is

$$f_{\text{avg}} = \frac{1}{b - a} \int_a^b f(x)\, dx$$

In a similar fashion we define the **average value** of a function f of two variables defined on a rectangle R to be

$$f_{\text{avg}} = \frac{1}{A(R)} \iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$$

where $A(R)$ is the area of R.

If $f(x, y) \geqslant 0$, the equation

$$A(R) \times f_{\text{avg}} = \iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$$

says that the box with base R and height f_{avg} has the same volume as the solid that lies under the graph of f. [If $z = f(x, y)$ describes a mountainous region and you chop off the tops of the mountains at height f_{avg}, then you can use them to fill in the valleys so that the region becomes completely flat. See Figure 17.]

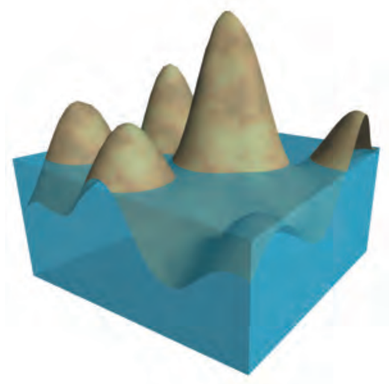


FIGURE 17

EXAMPLE 9 The contour map in Figure 18 shows the snowfall, in centimeters, that fell on the state of Colorado on December 20 and 21, 2006. (The state is in the shape of a rectangle that measures 624 km west to east and 444 km south to north.) Use the contour map to estimate the average snowfall for the entire state of Colorado on those days.

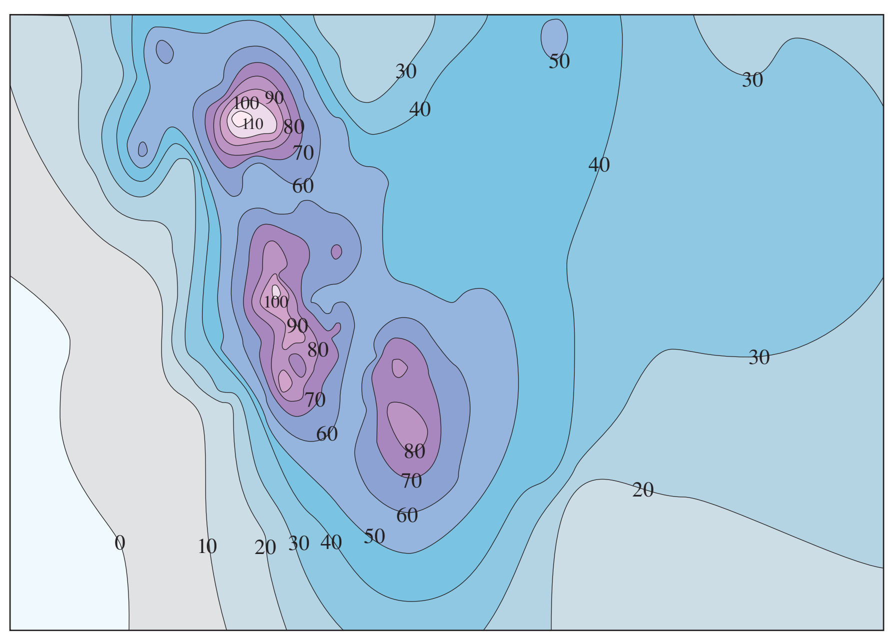


FIGURE 18

SOLUTION Let's place the origin at the southwest corner of the state. Then $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 624$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 444$, and $f(x, y)$ is the snowfall, in centimeters, at a location x kilometers to the east and y kilometers to the north of the origin. If R is the rectangle that represents Colorado, then the average snowfall for the state on December 20–21 was

$$f_{\text{avg}} = \frac{1}{A(R)} \iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$$

where $A(R) = 624 \cdot 444$. To estimate the value of this double integral, let's use the Midpoint Rule with $m = n = 4$. In other words, we divide R into 16 subrectangles of equal size, as in Figure 19. The area of each subrectangle is

$$\Delta A = \frac{1}{16}(624)(444) = 17{,}316 \text{ km}^2$$

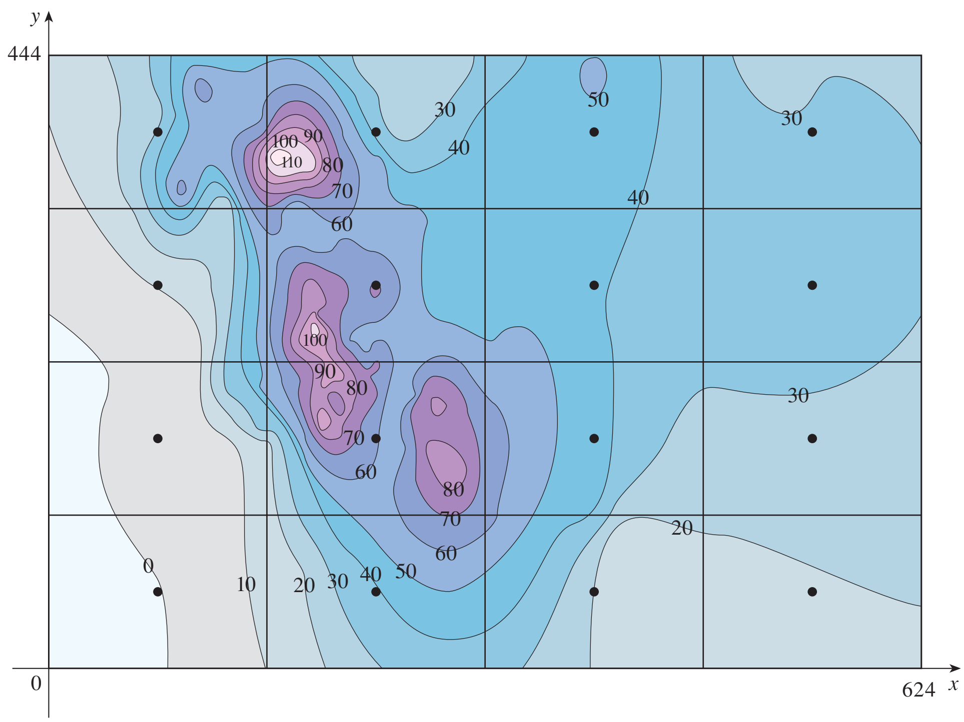


FIGURE 19

Using the contour map to estimate the value of f at the center of each subrectangle, we get

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA &\approx \sum_{i=1}^{4} \sum_{j=1}^{4} f(\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_j)\, \Delta A \\ &\approx \Delta A[0 + 38 + 20 + 18 + 5 + 64 + 47 + 28 \\ &\qquad + 11 + 70 + 43 + 34 + 30 + 38 + 44 + 33] \\ &= (17{,}316)(523)\end{aligned}$$

Therefore $$f_{\text{avg}} \approx \frac{(17{,}316)(523)}{(624)(444)} \approx 32.7$$

On December 20–21, 2006, Colorado received an average of approximately 32.7 centimeters of snow. ■

15.1 Exercises

1. (a) Estimate the volume of the solid that lies below the surface $z = xy$ and above the rectangle

$$R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 6, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 4\}$$

Use a Riemann sum with $m = 3$, $n = 2$, and take the sample point to be the upper right corner of each square.

(b) Use the Midpoint Rule to estimate the volume of the solid in part (a).

2. If $R = [0, 4] \times [-1, 2]$, use a Riemann sum with $m = 2$, $n = 3$ to estimate the value of $\iint_R (1 - xy^2)\, dA$. Take the sample points to be (a) the lower right corners and (b) the upper left corners of the rectangles.

3. (a) Use a Riemann sum with $m = n = 2$ to estimate the value of $\iint_R xe^{-xy}\, dA$, where $R = [0, 2] \times [0, 1]$. Take the sample points to be upper right corners.

(b) Use the Midpoint Rule to estimate the integral in part (a).

4. (a) Estimate the volume of the solid that lies below the surface $z = 1 + x^2 + 3y$ and above the rectangle $R = [1, 2] \times [0, 3]$. Use a Riemann sum with $m = n = 2$ and choose the sample points to be lower left corners.

(b) Use the Midpoint Rule to estimate the volume in part (a).

5. Let V be the volume of the solid that lies under the graph of $f(x, y) = \sqrt{52 - x^2 - y^2}$ and above the rectangle given by $2 \leqslant x \leqslant 4$, $2 \leqslant y \leqslant 6$. Use the lines $x = 3$ and $y = 4$ to divide R into subrectangles. Let L and U be the Riemann sums computed using lower left corners and upper right corners, respectively. Without calculating the numbers V, L, and U, arrange them in increasing order and explain your reasoning.

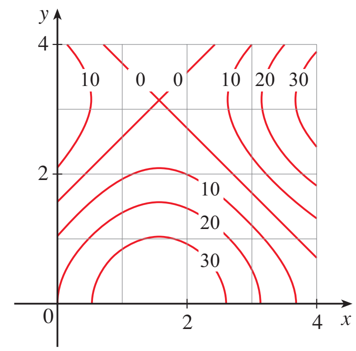
6. A 8-meter by 12-meter swimming pool is filled with water. The depth is measured at 2-m intervals, starting at one corner of the pool, and the values are recorded in the table. Estimate the volume of water in the pool.

	0	2	4	6	8	10	12
0	1	1.5	2	2.4	2.8	3	3
2	1	1.5	2	2.8	3	3.6	3
4	1	1.8	2.7	3	3.6	4	3.2
6	1	1.5	2	2.3	2.7	3	2.5
8	1	1	1	1	1.5	2	2

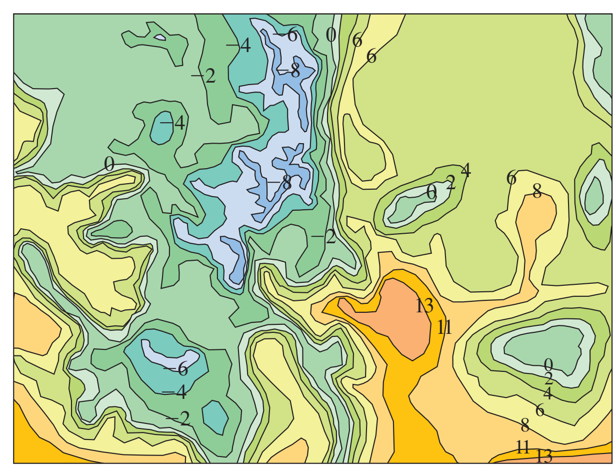
7. A contour map is shown for a function f on the square $R = [0, 4] \times [0, 4]$.

(a) Use the Midpoint Rule with $m = n = 2$ to estimate the value of $\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$.

(b) Estimate the average value of f.



8. The contour map shows the temperature, in degrees Celsius, at 4:00 PM on a day in February in Colorado. (The state measures 624 km west to east and 444 km south to north.) Use the Midpoint Rule with $m = n = 4$ to estimate the average temperature in Colorado at that time.



9–11 Evaluate the double integral by first identifying it as the volume of a solid.

9. $\iint_R \sqrt{2}\, dA$, $R = \{(x, y) \mid 2 \leqslant x \leqslant 6, -1 \leqslant y \leqslant 5\}$

10. $\iint_R (2x + 1)\, dA$, $R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 4\}$

11. $\iint_R (4 - 2y)\, dA$, $R = [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$

12. The integral $\iint_R \sqrt{9 - y^2}\, dA$, where $R = [0, 4] \times [0, 2]$, represents the volume of a solid. Sketch the solid.

13–14 Find $\int_0^2 f(x, y)\, dx$ and $\int_0^3 f(x, y)\, dy$

13. $f(x, y) = x + 3x^2y^2$

14. $f(x, y) = y\sqrt{x + 2}$

15–26 Calculate the iterated integral.

15. $\int_1^4 \int_0^2 (6x^2y - 2x)\, dy\, dx$ **16.** $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y)^2\, dx\, dy$

17. $\int_0^1 \int_1^2 (x + e^{-y})\, dx\, dy$

18. $\int_{-3}^1 \int_1^2 (x^2 + y^{-2})\, dy\, dx$

19. $\int_{-3}^3 \int_0^{\pi/2} (y + y^2 \cos x)\, dx\, dy$

20. $\int_1^3 \int_1^5 \dfrac{\ln y}{xy}\, dy\, dx$

21. $\int_1^4 \int_1^2 \left(\dfrac{x}{y} + \dfrac{y}{x}\right) dy\, dx$ **22.** $\int_0^1 \int_0^2 ye^{x-y}\, dx\, dy$

23. $\int_0^3 \int_0^{\pi/2} t^2 \sin^3\phi\, d\phi\, dt$ **24.** $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 xy\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\, dy\, dx$

25. $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 v(u + v^2)^4\, du\, dv$

26. $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \sqrt{s + t}\, ds\, dt$

27–34 Calculate the double integral.

27. $\iint_R x \sec^2 y\, dA, \quad R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant \pi/4\}$

28. $\iint_R (y + xy^{-2})\, dA, \quad R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2, 1 \leqslant y \leqslant 2\}$

29. $\iint_R \dfrac{xy^2}{x^2 + 1}\, dA, \quad R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1, -3 \leqslant y \leqslant 3\}$

30. $\iint_R \dfrac{\tan\theta}{\sqrt{1 - t^2}}\, dA, \quad R = \left\{(\theta, t) \mid 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/3, 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \tfrac{1}{2}\right\}$

31. $\iint_R x \sin(x + y)\, dA, \quad R = [0, \pi/6] \times [0, \pi/3]$

32. $\iint_R \dfrac{x}{1 + xy}\, dA, \quad R = [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$

33. $\iint_R ye^{-xy}\, dA, \quad R = [0, 2] \times [0, 3]$

34. $\iint_R \dfrac{1}{1 + x + y}\, dA, \quad R = [1, 3] \times [1, 2]$

35–37 Sketch the solid whose volume is given by the iterated integral.

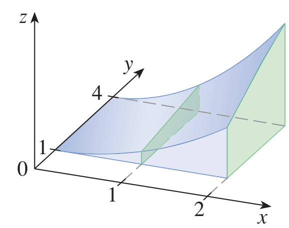
35. $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (4 - x - 2y)\, dx\, dy$

36. $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (2 - x^2 - y^2)\, dy\, dx$

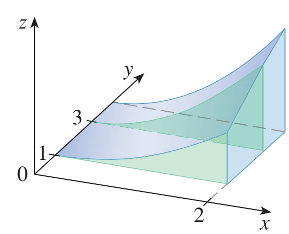
37. $\int_{-2}^2 \int_{-1}^3 (4 - x^2)\, dy\, dx$

38. Consider the solid region S that lies under the surface $z = x^2\sqrt{y}$ and above the rectangle $R = [0, 2] \times [1, 4]$.

(a) Find a formula for the area of a cross-section of S in the plane perpendicular to the x-axis at x for $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2$. Then use the formula to compute the areas of the cross-sections illustrated.



(b) Find a formula for the area of a cross-section of S in the plane perpendicular to the y-axis at y for $1 \leqslant y \leqslant 4$. Then use the formula to compute the areas of the cross-sections illustrated.



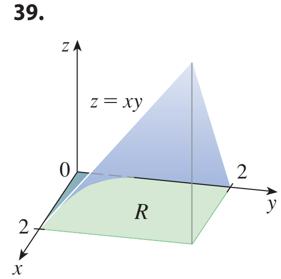
(c) Find the volume of S.

39–42 The figure shows a surface and a rectangle R in the xy-plane.

(a) Set up an iterated integral for the volume of the solid that lies under the surface and above R.

(b) Evaluate the iterated integral to find the volume of the solid.

39.



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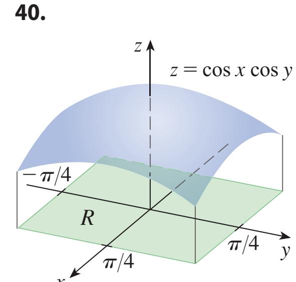

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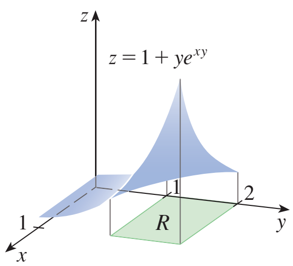

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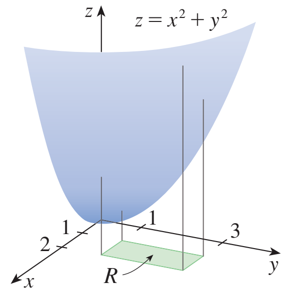

43. Find the volume of the solid that lies under the plane $4x + 6y - 2z + 15 = 0$ and above the rectangle $R = \{(x, y) \mid -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 2, -1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1\}$.

44. Find the volume of the solid that lies under the hyperbolic paraboloid $z = 3y^2 - x^2 + 2$ and above the rectangle $R = [-1, 1] \times [1, 2]$.

45. Find the volume of the solid lying under the elliptic paraboloid $x^2/4 + y^2/9 + z = 1$ and above the rectangle $R = [-1, 1] \times [-2, 2]$.

46. Find the volume of the solid enclosed by the surface $z = x^2 + xy^2$ and the planes $z = 0$, $x = 0$, $x = 5$, and $y = \pm 2$.

47. Find the volume of the solid enclosed by the surface $z = 1 + x^2 ye^y$ and the planes $z = 0$, $x = \pm 1$, $y = 0$, and $y = 1$.

48. Find the volume of the solid in the first octant bounded by the cylinder $z = 16 - x^2$ and the plane $y = 5$.

49. Find the volume of the solid enclosed by the paraboloid $z = 2 + x^2 + (y - 2)^2$ and the planes $z = 1$, $x = 1$, $x = -1$, $y = 0$, and $y = 4$.

50. Graph the solid that lies between the surface $z = 2xy/(x^2 + 1)$ and the plane $z = x + 2y$ and is bounded by the planes $x = 0$, $x = 2$, $y = 0$, and $y = 4$. Then find its volume.

T **51.** Use a computer algebra system to find the exact value of the integral $\iint_R x^5 y^3 e^{xy}\, dA$, where $R = [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$. Then use the CAS to draw the solid whose volume is given by the integral.

T **52.** Graph the solid that lies between the surfaces $z = e^{-x^2} \cos(x^2 + y^2)$ and $z = 2 - x^2 - y^2$ for $|x| \leqslant 1$, $|y| \leqslant 1$. Use a computer algebra system to approximate the volume of this solid correct to four decimal places.

53–54 Find the average value of f over the given rectangle.

53. $f(x, y) = x^2 y$,
R has vertices $(-1, 0)$, $(-1, 5)$, $(1, 5)$, $(1, 0)$

54. $f(x, y) = e^y \sqrt{x + e^y}$, $\quad R = [0, 4] \times [0, 1]$

55–56 Use symmetry to evaluate the double integral.

55. $\displaystyle\iint_R \frac{xy}{1 + x^4}\, dA, \quad R = \{(x, y) \mid -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1\}$

56. $\displaystyle\iint_R (1 + x^2 \sin y + y^2 \sin x)\, dA, \quad R = [-\pi, \pi] \times [-\pi, \pi]$

T **57.** Use a computer algebra system to compute the iterated integrals

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{x - y}{(x + y)^3}\, dy\, dx \qquad \text{and} \qquad \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{x - y}{(x + y)^3}\, dx\, dy$$

Do the answers contradict Fubini's Theorem? Explain what is happening.

58. (a) In what way are the theorems of Fubini and Clairaut similar?
(b) If $f(x, y)$ is continuous on $[a, b] \times [c, d]$ and

$$g(x, y) = \int_a^x \int_c^y f(s, t)\, dt\, ds$$

for $a < x < b$, $c < y < d$, show that

$$g_{xy} = g_{yx} = f(x, y)$$

15.2 Double Integrals over General Regions

For single integrals, the region over which we integrate is always an interval. But for double integrals, we want to be able to integrate a function not just over rectangles but also over regions of more general shape.

General Regions

Consider a general region D like the one illustrated in Figure 1. We suppose that D is a bounded region, which means that D can be enclosed in a rectangular region R as in Figure 2. In order to integrate a function f over D we define a new function F with domain R by

1
$$F(x, y) = \begin{cases} f(x, y) & \text{if } (x, y) \text{ is in } D \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y) \text{ is in } R \text{ but not in } D \end{cases}$$

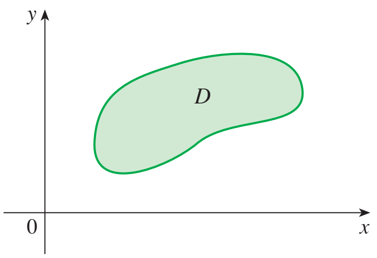

FIGURE 1

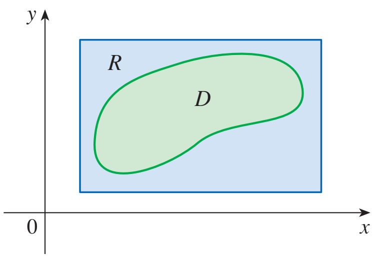

FIGURE 2

If F is integrable over R, then we define the **double integral of f over D** by

2
$$\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA = \iint_R F(x, y)\, dA \qquad \text{where } F \text{ is given by Equation 1}$$

Definition 2 makes sense because R is a rectangle and so $\iint_R F(x, y)\, dA$ has been previously defined in Section 15.1. The procedure that we have used is reasonable because the values of $F(x, y)$ are 0 when (x, y) lies outside D and so they contribute nothing to the integral. This means that it doesn't matter what rectangle R we use as long as it contains D.

In the case where $f(x, y) \geqslant 0$, we can still interpret $\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA$ as the volume of the solid that lies above D and under the surface $z = f(x, y)$ (the graph of f). You can see that this is reasonable by comparing the graphs of f and F in Figures 3 and 4 and remembering that $\iint_R F(x, y)\, dA$ is the volume under the graph of F.

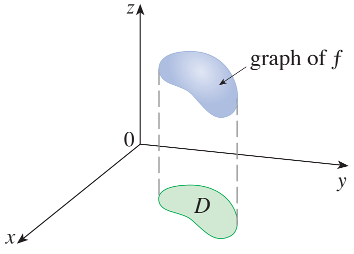

FIGURE 3

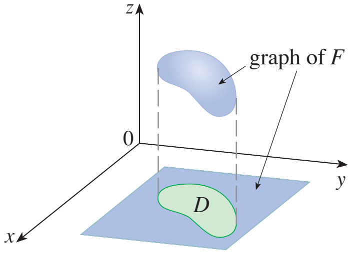

FIGURE 4

Figure 4 also shows that F is likely to have discontinuities at the boundary points of D. Nonetheless, if f is continuous on D and the boundary curve of D is "well behaved" (in a sense outside the scope of this book), then it can be shown that $\iint_R F(x, y)\, dA$ exists and therefore $\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA$ exists. In particular, this is the case for the following two types of regions.

A plane region D is said to be of **type I** if it lies between the graphs of two continuous functions of x, that is,

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid a \leqslant x \leqslant b,\ g_1(x) \leqslant y \leqslant g_2(x)\}$$

where g_1 and g_2 are continuous on $[a, b]$. Some examples of type I regions are shown in Figure 5.

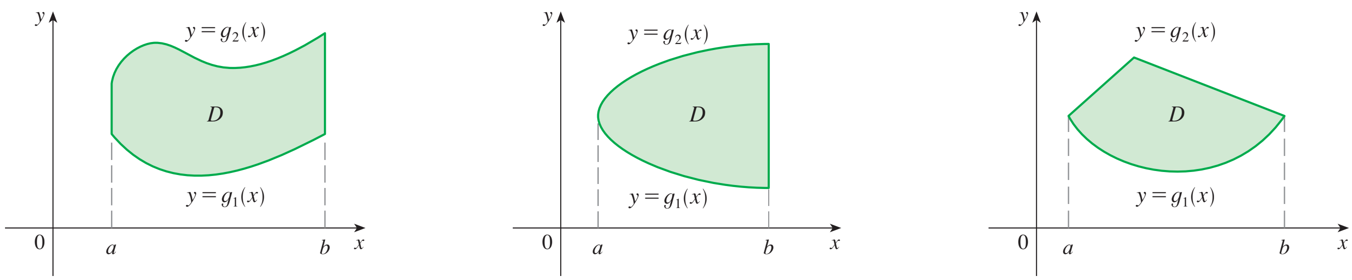

FIGURE 5
Some type I regions

NOTE For a type I region, the functions g_1 and g_2 must be continuous but they do not need to be defined by a single formula. For instance, in the third region of Figure 5, g_2 is a continuous piecewise defined function.

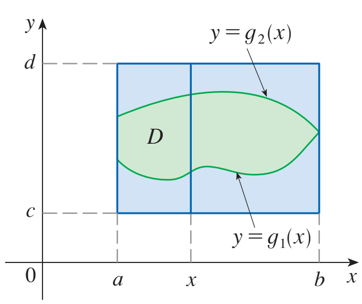

FIGURE 6

In order to evaluate $\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA$ when D is a region of type I, we choose a rectangle $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$ that contains D, as in Figure 6, and we let F be the function given by Equation 1; that is, F agrees with f on D and F is 0 outside D. Then, by Fubini's Theorem,

$$\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA = \iint_R F(x, y)\, dA = \int_a^b \int_c^d F(x, y)\, dy\, dx$$

Observe that $F(x, y) = 0$ if $y < g_1(x)$ or $y > g_2(x)$ because (x, y) then lies outside D. Therefore

$$\int_c^d F(x, y)\, dy = \int_{g_1(x)}^{g_2(x)} F(x, y)\, dy = \int_{g_1(x)}^{g_2(x)} f(x, y)\, dy$$

because $F(x, y) = f(x, y)$ when $g_1(x) \leqslant y \leqslant g_2(x)$. Thus we have the following formula that enables us to evaluate the double integral as an iterated integral.

3 If f is continuous on a type I region D described by

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid a \leqslant x \leqslant b,\ g_1(x) \leqslant y \leqslant g_2(x)\}$$

then
$$\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA = \int_a^b \int_{g_1(x)}^{g_2(x)} f(x, y)\, dy\, dx$$

The integral on the right side of (3) is an iterated integral that is similar to the ones we considered in Section 15.1, except that in the inner integral we regard x as being constant not only in $f(x, y)$ but also in the limits of integration, $g_1(x)$ and $g_2(x)$.

We also consider plane regions of **type II**, which can be expressed as

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid c \leqslant y \leqslant d,\ h_1(y) \leqslant x \leqslant h_2(y)\}$$

where h_1 and h_2 are continuous. Three such regions are illustrated in Figure 7.

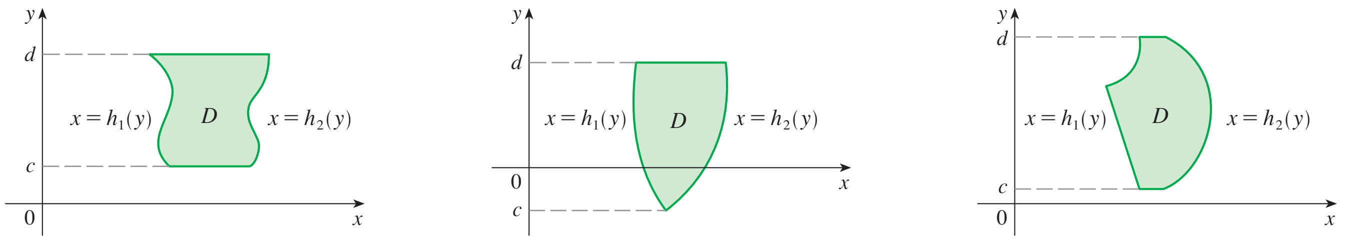

FIGURE 7
Some type II regions

Using the same methods that were used in establishing (3), we can show that the following result holds.

4 If f is continuous on a type II region D described by

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid c \leqslant y \leqslant d,\ h_1(y) \leqslant x \leqslant h_2(y)\}$$

then $$\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA = \int_c^d \int_{h_1(y)}^{h_2(y)} f(x, y)\, dx\, dy$$

EXAMPLE 1 Evaluate $\iint_D (x + 2y)\, dA$, where D is the region bounded by the parabolas $y = 2x^2$ and $y = 1 + x^2$.

SOLUTION The parabolas intersect when $2x^2 = 1 + x^2$, that is, $x^2 = 1$, so $x = \pm 1$. We note that the region D, sketched in Figure 8, is a type I region but not a type II region and we can write

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,\ 2x^2 \leqslant y \leqslant 1 + x^2\}$$

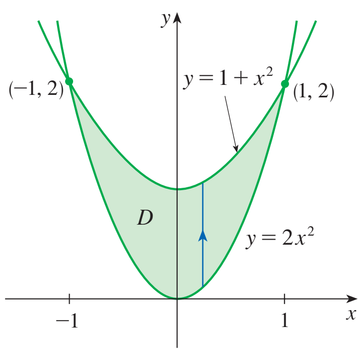

FIGURE 8

Since the lower boundary is $y = 2x^2$ and the upper boundary is $y = 1 + x^2$, Equation 3 gives

$$\begin{aligned}
\iint_D (x + 2y)\, dA &= \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{2x^2}^{1+x^2} (x + 2y)\, dy\, dx \\
&= \int_{-1}^{1} \Big[xy + y^2\Big]_{y=2x^2}^{y=1+x^2} dx \\
&= \int_{-1}^{1} [x(1 + x^2) + (1 + x^2)^2 - x(2x^2) - (2x^2)^2]\, dx \\
&= \int_{-1}^{1} (-3x^4 - x^3 + 2x^2 + x + 1)\, dx \\
&= -3\frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^4}{4} + 2\frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^2}{2} + x \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{32}{15}
\end{aligned}$$

NOTE When we set up a double integral as in Example 1, it is essential to draw a diagram. Often it is helpful to draw a vertical arrow as in Figure 8. Then the limits of integration for the *inner* integral can be read from the diagram as follows: The arrow starts at the lower boundary $y = g_1(x)$, which gives the lower limit in the integral, and the arrow ends at the upper boundary $y = g_2(x)$, which gives the upper limit of integration. For a type II region the arrow is drawn horizontally from the left boundary to the right boundary.

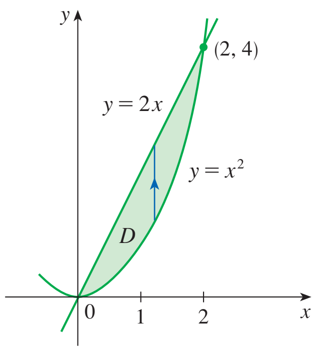

FIGURE 9
D as a type I region

EXAMPLE 2 Find the volume of the solid that lies under the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and above the region D in the xy-plane bounded by the line $y = 2x$ and the parabola $y = x^2$.

SOLUTION 1 From Figure 9 we see that D is a type I region and

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2,\ x^2 \leqslant y \leqslant 2x\}$$

Therefore the volume under $z = x^2 + y^2$ and above D is

$$\begin{aligned}
V &= \iint_D (x^2 + y^2)\, dA = \int_0^2 \int_{x^2}^{2x} (x^2 + y^2)\, dy\, dx \\
&= \int_0^2 \left[x^2 y + \frac{y^3}{3} \right]_{y=x^2}^{y=2x} dx \\
&= \int_0^2 \left[x^2(2x) + \frac{(2x)^3}{3} - x^2x^2 - \frac{(x^2)^3}{3} \right] dx \\
&= \int_0^2 \left(-\frac{x^6}{3} - x^4 + \frac{14x^3}{3} \right) dx \\
&= -\frac{x^7}{21} - \frac{x^5}{5} + \frac{7x^4}{6} \bigg]_0^2 = \frac{216}{35}
\end{aligned}$$

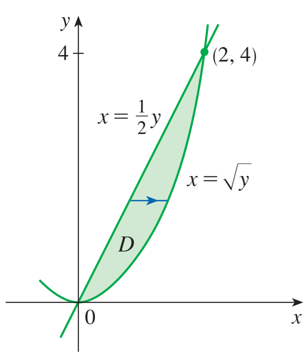

FIGURE 10
D as a type II region

SOLUTION 2 From Figure 10 we see that D can also be written as a type II region:

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 4,\ \tfrac{1}{2}y \leqslant x \leqslant \sqrt{y}\}$$

Therefore another expression for V is

$$\begin{aligned}
V &= \iint_D (x^2 + y^2)\, dA = \int_0^4 \int_{\frac{1}{2}y}^{\sqrt{y}} (x^2 + y^2)\, dx\, dy \\
&= \int_0^4 \left[\frac{x^3}{3} + y^2 x \right]_{x=\frac{1}{2}y}^{x=\sqrt{y}} dy = \int_0^4 \left(\frac{y^{3/2}}{3} + y^{5/2} - \frac{y^3}{24} - \frac{y^3}{2} \right) dy \\
&= \tfrac{2}{15}y^{5/2} + \tfrac{2}{7}y^{7/2} - \tfrac{13}{96}y^4 \Big]_0^4 = \tfrac{216}{35}
\end{aligned}$$

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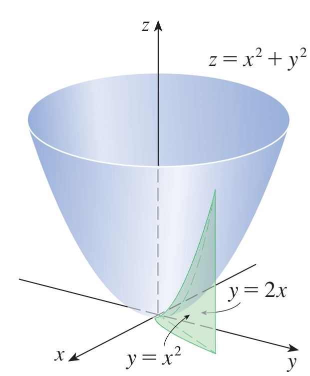


FIGURE 11

Figure 11 shows the solid whose volume is calculated in Example 2. It lies above the xy-plane, below the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$, and between the plane $y = 2x$ and the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$.

EXAMPLE 3 Evaluate $\iint_D xy\,dA$, where D is the region bounded by the line $y = x - 1$ and the parabola $y^2 = 2x + 6$.

SOLUTION The region D is shown in Figure 12. Again D is both type I and type II, but the description of D as a type I region is more complicated because the lower boundary consists of two parts. Therefore we prefer to express D as a type II region:

$$D = \left\{(x, y) \mid -2 \leqslant y \leqslant 4, \tfrac{1}{2}y^2 - 3 \leqslant x \leqslant y + 1\right\}$$

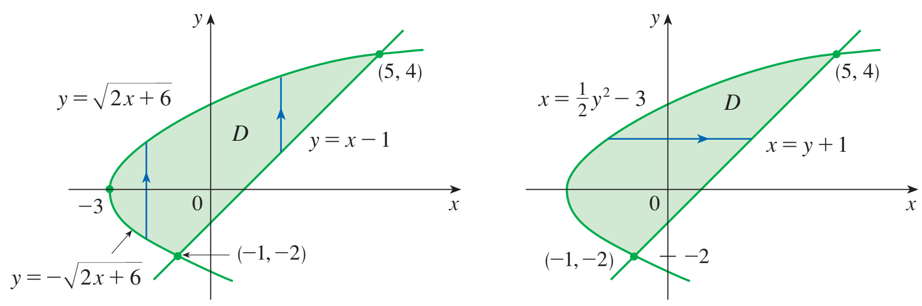


FIGURE 12 (a) D as a type I region (b) D as a type II region

Then (4) gives

$$\iint_D xy\,dA = \int_{-2}^{4}\int_{\frac{1}{2}y^2-3}^{y+1} xy\,dx\,dy = \int_{-2}^{4}\left[\frac{x^2}{2}y\right]_{x=\frac{1}{2}y^2-3}^{x=y+1} dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\int_{-2}^{4} y\left[(y+1)^2 - \left(\tfrac{1}{2}y^2 - 3\right)^2\right] dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\int_{-2}^{4}\left(-\frac{y^5}{4} + 4y^3 + 2y^2 - 8y\right) dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\left[-\frac{y^6}{24} + y^4 + 2\frac{y^3}{3} - 4y^2\right]_{-2}^{4} = 36$$

In Example 3, if we had expressed D as a type I region using Figure 12(a), then the lower boundary curve would be

$$g_1(x) = \begin{cases} -\sqrt{2x+6} & \text{if } -3 \leqslant x \leqslant -1 \\ x - 1 & \text{if } -1 < x \leqslant 5 \end{cases}$$

and we would have obtained

$$\iint_D xy\,dA = \int_{-3}^{-1}\int_{-\sqrt{2x+6}}^{\sqrt{2x+6}} xy\,dy\,dx + \int_{-1}^{5}\int_{x-1}^{\sqrt{2x+6}} xy\,dy\,dx$$

which would have involved more work than the other method.

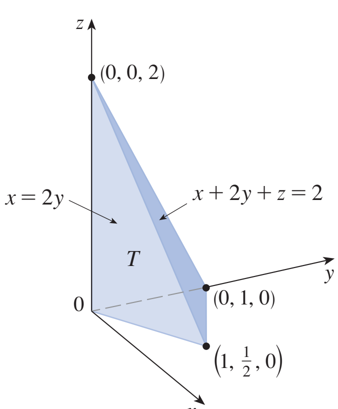


FIGURE 13

EXAMPLE 4 Find the volume of the tetrahedron bounded by the planes $x + 2y + z = 2$, $x = 2y$, $x = 0$, and $z = 0$.

SOLUTION In a question such as this, it's wise to draw two diagrams: one of the three-dimensional solid and another of the plane region D over which it lies. Figure 13 shows the tetrahedron T bounded by the coordinate planes $x = 0$, $z = 0$, the vertical plane $x = 2y$, and the plane $x + 2y + z = 2$. Since the plane $x + 2y + z = 2$ intersects the xy-plane (whose equation is $z = 0$) in the line $x + 2y = 2$, we see that T lies

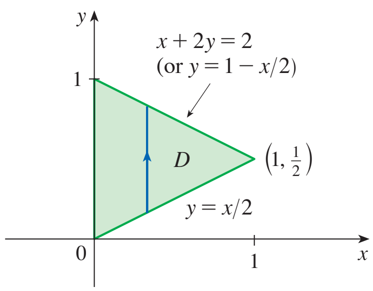


FIGURE 14

above the triangular region D in the xy-plane bounded by the lines $x = 2y$, $x + 2y = 2$, and $x = 0$. (See Figure 14.)

The plane $x + 2y + z = 2$ can be written as $z = 2 - x - 2y$, so the required volume lies under the graph of the function $z = 2 - x - 2y$ and above

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,\, x/2 \leqslant y \leqslant 1 - x/2\}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \iint_D (2 - x - 2y)\, dA \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_{x/2}^{1-x/2} (2 - x - 2y)\, dy\, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \Big[2y - xy - y^2\Big]_{y=x/2}^{y=1-x/2} dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \left[2 - x - x\left(1 - \frac{x}{2}\right) - \left(1 - \frac{x}{2}\right)^2 - x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^2}{4}\right] dx \\ &= \int_0^1 (x^2 - 2x + 1)\, dx = \frac{x^3}{3} - x^2 + x \bigg]_0^1 = \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned}$$

■

■ Changing the Order of Integration

Fubini's Theorem tells us that we can express a double integral as an iterated integral in two different orders. Sometimes one order is much more difficult to evaluate than the other—or even impossible. The next example shows how we can change the order of integration when presented with an iterated integral that is difficult to evaluate.

EXAMPLE 5 Evaluate the iterated integral $\int_0^1 \int_x^1 \sin(y^2)\, dy\, dx$.

SOLUTION If we try to evaluate the integral as it stands, we are faced with the task of first evaluating $\int \sin(y^2)\, dy$. But it's impossible to do so in finite terms since $\int \sin(y^2)\, dy$ is not an elementary function. (See the end of Section 7.5.) So we must change the order of integration. This is accomplished by first expressing the given iterated integral as a double integral. Using (3) backward, we have

$$\int_0^1 \int_x^1 \sin(y^2)\, dy\, dx = \iint_D \sin(y^2)\, dA$$

where $$D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,\; x \leqslant y \leqslant 1\}$$

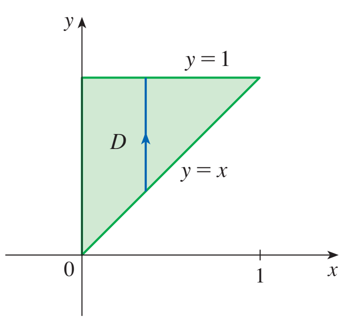


FIGURE 15
D as a type I region

We sketch this region D in Figure 15. Then from Figure 16 we see that an alternative description of D is

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1,\; 0 \leqslant x \leqslant y\}$$

This enables us to use (4) to express the double integral as an iterated integral in the reverse order:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_x^1 \sin(y^2)\, dy\, dx &= \iint_D \sin(y^2)\, dA \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^y \sin(y^2)\, dx\, dy = \int_0^1 \Big[x \sin(y^2)\Big]_{x=0}^{x=y} dy \\ &= \int_0^1 y \sin(y^2)\, dy = -\tfrac{1}{2} \cos(y^2)\Big]_0^1 = \tfrac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 1) \end{aligned}$$

■

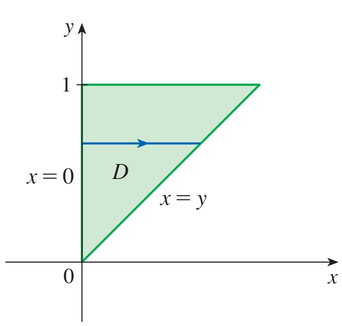


FIGURE 16
D as a type II region

Properties of Double Integrals

We assume that all of the following integrals exist. For rectangular regions D the first three properties can be proved in the same manner as in Section 5.2. And then for general regions the properties follow from Definition 2.

5 $$\iint_D [f(x, y) + g(x, y)]\, dA = \iint_D f(x, y)\, dA + \iint_D g(x, y)\, dA$$

6 $$\iint_D cf(x, y)\, dA = c \iint_D f(x, y)\, dA \qquad \text{where } c \text{ is a constant}$$

If $f(x, y) \geqslant g(x, y)$ for all (x, y) in D, then

7 $$\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA \geqslant \iint_D g(x, y)\, dA$$

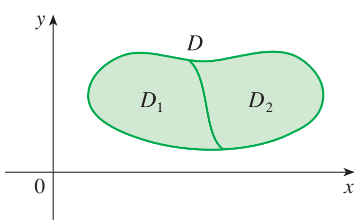


FIGURE 17

The next property of double integrals is similar to the property of single integrals given by the equation $\int_a^b f(x)\, dx = \int_a^c f(x)\, dx + \int_c^b f(x)\, dx$ (Property 5 in Section 5.2).

If $D = D_1 \cup D_2$, where D_1 and D_2 don't overlap except perhaps on their boundaries (see Figure 17), then

8 $$\boxed{\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA = \iint_{D_1} f(x, y)\, dA + \iint_{D_2} f(x, y)\, dA}$$

Property 8 can be used to evaluate double integrals over regions D that are neither type I nor type II but can be expressed as a union of regions of type I or type II. Figure 18 illustrates this procedure. (See Exercises 67 and 68.)

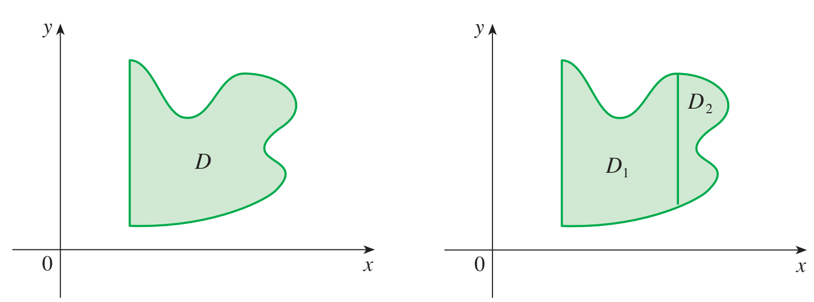


FIGURE 18

(a) D is neither type I nor type II.

(b) $D = D_1 \cup D_2$, D_1 is type I, D_2 is type II.

The next property of integrals says that if we integrate the constant function $f(x, y) = 1$ over a region D, we get the area of D:

9 $$\boxed{\iint_D 1\, dA = A(D)}$$

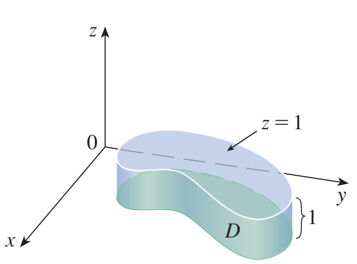


FIGURE 19
Cylinder with base D and height 1

Figure 19 illustrates why Equation 9 is true: A solid cylinder whose base is D and whose height is 1 has volume $A(D) \cdot 1 = A(D)$, but we know that we can also write its volume as $\iint_D 1\, dA$.

Finally, we can combine Properties 6, 7, and 9 to prove the following property. (See Exercise 73.)

10 If $m \leqslant f(x, y) \leqslant M$ for all (x, y) in D, then

$$m \cdot A(D) \leqslant \iint_D f(x, y)\, dA \leqslant M \cdot A(D)$$

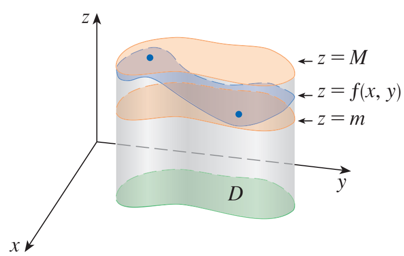


FIGURE 20

Figure 20 illustrates Property 10 for the case $m > 0$. The volume of the solid below the graph of $z = f(x, y)$ and above D is between the volumes of the cylinders with base D and heights m and M. (Compare to Figure 5.2.17, which illustrates the analogous property for single integrals.)

EXAMPLE 6 Use Property 10 to estimate the integral $\iint_D e^{\sin x \cos y}\, dA$, where D is the disk with center the origin and radius 2.

SOLUTION Since $-1 \leqslant \sin x \leqslant 1$ and $-1 \leqslant \cos y \leqslant 1$, we have $-1 \leqslant \sin x \cos y \leqslant 1$ and, because the natural exponential function is increasing, we have

$$e^{-1} \leqslant e^{\sin x \cos y} \leqslant e^1 = e$$

Thus, using $m = e^{-1} = 1/e$, $M = e$, and $A(D) = \pi(2)^2$ in Property 10, we obtain

$$\frac{4\pi}{e} \leqslant \iint_D e^{\sin x \cos y}\, dA \leqslant 4\pi e \qquad \blacksquare$$

15.2 Exercises

1–6 Evaluate the iterated integral.

1. $\int_1^5 \int_0^x (8x - 2y)\, dy\, dx$

2. $\int_0^2 \int_0^{y^2} x^2 y\, dx\, dy$

3. $\int_0^1 \int_0^y x e^{y^3}\, dx\, dy$

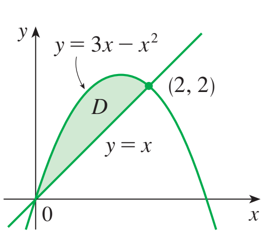
4. $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^x x \sin y\, dy\, dx$

5. $\int_0^1 \int_0^{s^2} \cos(s^3)\, dt\, ds$

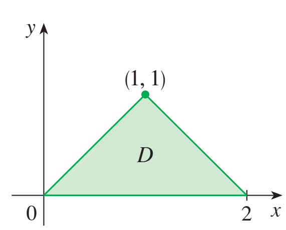
6. $\int_0^1 \int_0^{e^v} \sqrt{1 + e^v}\, dw\, dv$

7–10
(a) Express the double integral $\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA$ as an iterated integral for the given function f and region D.
(b) Evaluate the iterated integral.

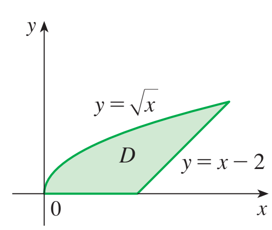
7. $f(x, y) = 2y$



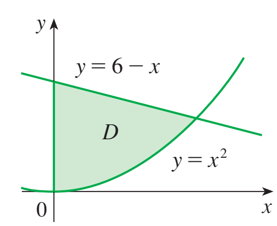
8. $f(x, y) = x + y$



9. $f(x, y) = xy$



10. $f(x, y) = x$



11–14 Evaluate the double integral.

11. $\iint_D \frac{y}{x^2 + 1}\, dA, \quad D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 4, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant \sqrt{x}\}$

12. $\iint_D (2x + y)\, dA, \quad D = \{(x, y) \mid 1 \leqslant y \leqslant 2, y - 1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1\}$

13. $\iint_D e^{-y^2}\, dA, \quad D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 3, 0 \leqslant x \leqslant y\}$

14. $\iint_D y\sqrt{x^2 - y^2}\, dA, \quad D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant x\}$

15. Draw an example of a region that is
(a) type I but not type II
(b) type II but not type I

16. Draw an example of a region that is
(a) both type I and type II
(b) neither type I nor type II

17–18 Express D as a region of type I and also as a region of type II. Then evaluate the double integral in two ways.

17. $\iint_D x\,dA$, D is enclosed by the lines $y = x$, $y = 0$, $x = 1$

18. $\iint_D xy\,dA$, D is enclosed by the curves $y = x^2$, $y = 3x$

19–22 Set up iterated integrals for both orders of integration. Then evaluate the double integral using the easier order and explain why it's easier.

19. $\iint_D y\,dA$, D is bounded by $y = x - 2$, $x = y^2$

20. $\iint_D y^2 e^{xy}\,dA$, D is bounded by $y = x$, $y = 4$, $x = 0$

21. $\iint_D \sin^2 x\,dA$,
D is bounded by $y = \cos x$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant \pi/2$, $y = 0$, $x = 0$

22. $\iint_D 6x^2\,dA$, D is bounded by $y = x^3$, $y = 2x + 4$, $x = 0$

23–28 Evaluate the double integral.

23. $\iint_D x\cos y\,dA$, D is bounded by $y = 0$, $y = x^2$, $x = 1$

24. $\iint_D (x^2 + 2y)\,dA$, D is bounded by $y = x$, $y = x^3$, $x \geqslant 0$

25. $\iint_D y^2\,dA$,
D is the triangular region with vertices (0, 1), (1, 2), (4, 1)

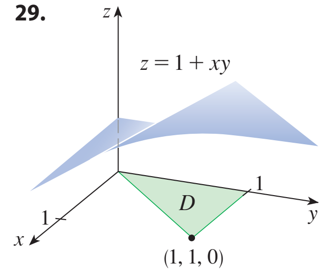
26. $\iint_D xy\,dA$, D is enclosed by the quarter-circle
$y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$, $x \geqslant 0$, and the axes

27. $\iint_D (2x - y)\,dA$,
D is bounded by the circle with center the origin and radius 2

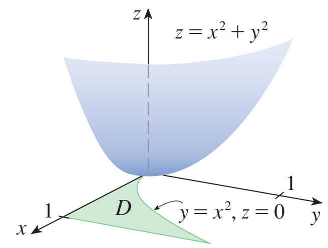
28. $\iint_D y\,dA$, D is the triangular region with vertices (0, 0), (1, 1), and (4, 0)

29–30 The figure shows a surface and a region D in the xy-plane.
(a) Set up an iterated double integral for the volume of the solid that lies under the surface and above D.
(b) Evaluate the iterated integral to find the volume of the solid.

29.



30.



31–40 Find the volume of the given solid.

31. Under the plane $3x + 2y - z = 0$ and above the region enclosed by the parabolas $y = x^2$ and $x = y^2$

32. Under the surface $z = 1 + x^2y^2$ and above the region enclosed by $x = y^2$ and $x = 4$

33. Under the surface $z = xy$ and above the triangle with vertices (1, 1), (4, 1), and (1, 2)

34. Enclosed by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2 + 1$ and the planes $x = 0$, $y = 0$, $z = 0$, and $x + y = 2$

35. The tetrahedron enclosed by the coordinate planes and the plane $2x + y + z = 4$

36. Bounded by the planes $z = x$, $y = x$, $x + y = 2$, and $z = 0$

37. Enclosed by the cylinders $z = x^2$, $y = x^2$ and the planes $z = 0$, $y = 4$

38. Bounded by the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 4$ and the planes $x = 2y$, $x = 0$, $z = 0$ in the first octant

39. Bounded by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the planes $y = z$, $x = 0$, $z = 0$ in the first octant

40. Bounded by the cylinders $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ and $y^2 + z^2 = r^2$

41. Use a graph to estimate the x-coordinates of the points of intersection of the curves $y = x^4$ and $y = 3x - x^2$. If D is the region bounded by these curves, estimate $\iint_D x\,dA$.

42. Find the approximate volume of the solid in the first octant that is bounded by the planes $y = x$, $z = 0$, and $z = x$ and the cylinder $y = \cos x$. (Use a graph to estimate the points of intersection.)

43–46 Find the volume of the solid by subtracting two volumes.

43. The solid enclosed by the parabolic cylinders $y = 1 - x^2$, $y = x^2 - 1$ and the planes $x + y + z = 2$, $2x + 2y - z + 10 = 0$

44. The solid enclosed by the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$ and the planes $z = 3y$, $z = 2 + y$

45. The solid under the plane $z = 3$, above the plane $z = y$, and between the parabolic cylinders $y = x^2$ and $y = 1 - x^2$

46. The solid in the first octant under the plane $z = x + y$, above the surface $z = xy$, and enclosed by the surfaces $x = 0$, $y = 0$, and $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

47–50 Sketch the solid whose volume is given by the iterated integral.

47. $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (1 - x - y)\, dy\, dx$ **48.** $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x^2} (1 - x)\, dy\, dx$

49. $\int_0^3 \int_0^y \sqrt{9 - x^2}\, dx\, dy$ **50.** $\int_{-2}^2 \int_{-1}^{3-x^2} e^{-y}\, dy\, dx$

T **51–54** Use a computer algebra system to find the exact volume of the solid.

51. Under the surface $z = x^3y^4 + xy^2$ and above the region bounded by the curves $y = x^3 - x$ and $y = x^2 + x$ for $x \geqslant 0$

52. Between the paraboloids $z = 2x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 8 - x^2 - 2y^2$ and inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

53. Enclosed by $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$ and $z = 0$

54. Enclosed by $z = x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 2y$

55–60 Sketch the region of integration and change the order of integration.

55. $\int_0^1 \int_0^y f(x, y)\, dx\, dy$ **56.** $\int_0^2 \int_{x^2}^4 f(x, y)\, dy\, dx$

57. $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_{\sin x}^1 f(x, y)\, dy\, dx$ **58.** $\int_{-2}^2 \int_0^{\sqrt{4-y^2}} f(x, y)\, dx\, dy$

59. $\int_1^2 \int_0^{\ln x} f(x, y)\, dy\, dx$ **60.** $\int_0^1 \int_{\arctan x}^{\pi/4} f(x, y)\, dy\, dx$

61–66 Evaluate the integral by reversing the order of integration.

61. $\int_0^1 \int_{3y}^3 e^{x^2}\, dx\, dy$ **62.** $\int_0^1 \int_{x^2}^1 \sqrt{y}\, \sin y\, dy\, dx$

63. $\int_0^1 \int_{\sqrt{x}}^1 \sqrt{y^3 + 1}\, dy\, dx$

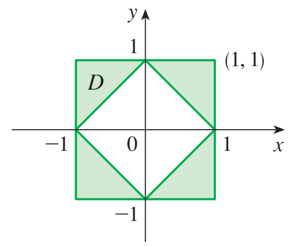
64. $\int_0^2 \int_{y/2}^1 y \cos(x^3 - 1)\, dx\, dy$

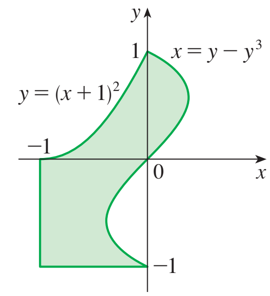
65. $\int_0^1 \int_{\arcsin y}^{\pi/2} \cos x \sqrt{1 + \cos^2 x}\, dx\, dy$

66. $\int_0^8 \int_{\sqrt[3]{y}}^2 e^{x^4}\, dx\, dy$

67–68 Express D as a union of regions of type I or type II and evaluate the integral.

67. $\iint_D x^2\, dA$ **68.** $\iint_D y\, dA$





69–70 Use Property 10 to estimate the value of the integral.

69. $\iint_S \sqrt{4 - x^2y^2}\, dA$,
$S = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1, x \geqslant 0\}$

70. $\iint_T \sin^4(x + y)\, dA$, T is the triangle enclosed by the lines $y = 0$, $y = 2x$, and $x = 1$

71–72 Find the average value of f over the region D.

71. $f(x, y) = xy$,
D is the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(1, 3)$

72. $f(x, y) = x \sin y$,
D is enclosed by the curves $y = 0$, $y = x^2$, and $x = 1$

73. Prove Property 10.

74. In evaluating a double integral over a region D, a sum of iterated integrals was obtained as follows:

$$\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^{2y} f(x, y)\, dx\, dy + \int_1^3 \int_0^{3-y} f(x, y)\, dx\, dy$$

Sketch the region D and express the double integral as an iterated integral with reversed order of integration.

75–79 Use geometry or symmetry, or both, to evaluate the double integral.

75. $\iint_D (x + 2)\, dA$,
$D = \left\{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant y \leqslant \sqrt{9 - x^2}\right\}$

76. $\iint_D \sqrt{R^2 - x^2 - y^2}\, dA$,
D is the disk with center the origin and radius R

77. $\displaystyle\iint_D (2x + 3y)\, dA$,
D is the rectangle $0 \leqslant x \leqslant a$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant b$

78. $\displaystyle\iint_D (2 + x^2y^3 - y^2 \sin x)\, dA$,
$D = \{(x, y) \mid |x| + |y| \leqslant 1\}$

79. $\displaystyle\iint_D \left(ax^3 + by^3 + \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}\right) dA$,
$D = [-a, a] \times [-b, b]$

80–81 Mean Value Theorem for Double Integrals The *Mean Value Theorem for double integrals* says that if f is a continuous function on a plane region D that is of type I or type II, then there exists a point (x_0, y_0) in D such that

$$\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA = f(x_0, y_0)\, A(D)$$

80. Use the Extreme Value Theorem (14.7.8) and Property 15.2.10 of integrals to prove the Mean Value Theorem for double integrals. (Use the proof of the single-variable version in Section 6.5 as a guide.)

81. Suppose that f is continuous on a disk that contains the point (a, b). Let D_r be the closed disk with center (a, b) and radius r. Use the Mean Value Theorem for double integrals to show that

$$\lim_{r \to 0} \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \iint_{D_r} f(x, y)\, dA = f(a, b)$$

T **82.** Graph the solid bounded by the plane $x + y + z = 1$ and the paraboloid $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$ and find its exact volume. (Use a computer algebra system to find the equations of the boundary curves of the region of integration and to evaluate the double integral.)

15.3 Double Integrals in Polar Coordinates

Suppose that we want to evaluate a double integral $\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$, where the region R is a circular disk centered at the origin. In this case the description of R in terms of rectangular coordinates is rather complicated, but R is readily described using polar coordinates. In general, if R is a region that is more easily described using polar coordinates, it is often advantageous to evaluate the double integral by first converting it to polar coordinates.

Review of Polar Coordinates

Polar coordinates were introduced in Section 10.3. Recall from Figure 1 that the polar coordinates (r, θ) of a point are related to the rectangular coordinates (x, y) of that point by the equations

$$\boxed{r^2 = x^2 + y^2 \qquad x = r\cos\theta \qquad y = r\sin\theta}$$

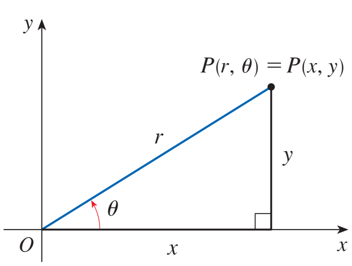


FIGURE 1

Equations of circles centered at the origin are particularly simple in polar coordinates. The unit circle has equation $r = 1$; the region enclosed by this circle is shown in Figure 2(a). Figure 2(b) illustrates another region that is conveniently described in polar coordinates.

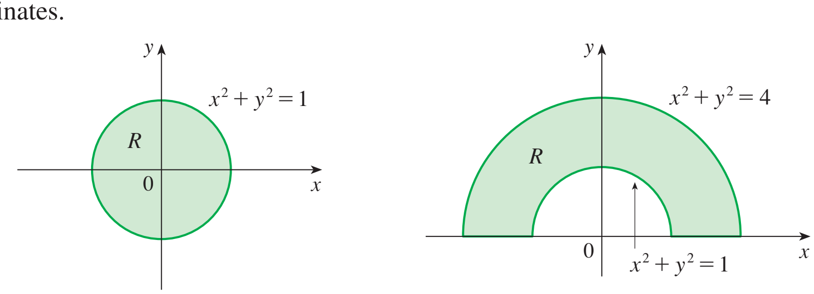


FIGURE 2

(a) $R = \{(r, \theta) \mid 0 \leqslant r \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi\}$ (b) $R = \{(r, \theta) \mid 1 \leqslant r \leqslant 2, 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi\}$

You may wish to review Table 10.3.1 for other common curves suitably described in polar coordinates.

Double Integrals in Polar Coordinates

The regions in Figure 2 are special cases of a **polar rectangle**

$$R = \{(r, \theta) \mid a \leqslant r \leqslant b, \alpha \leqslant \theta \leqslant \beta\}$$

which is shown in Figure 3. In order to compute the double integral $\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$, where R is a polar rectangle, we divide the interval $[a, b]$ into m subintervals $[r_{i-1}, r_i]$ of equal width $\Delta r = (b - a)/m$ and we divide the interval $[\alpha, \beta]$ into n subintervals $[\theta_{j-1}, \theta_j]$ of equal width $\Delta\theta = (\beta - \alpha)/n$. Then the circles $r = r_i$ and the rays $\theta = \theta_j$ divide the polar rectangle R into the small polar rectangles R_{ij} shown in Figure 4.

Compare Figure 4 with Figure 15.1.3.

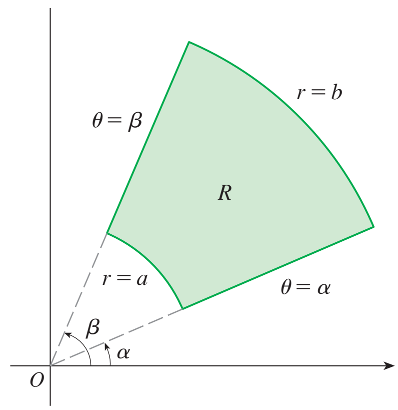


FIGURE 3 Polar rectangle

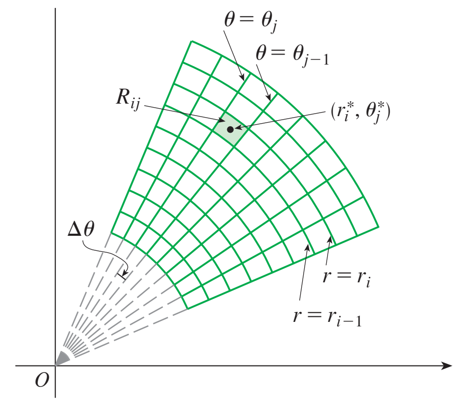


FIGURE 4 Dividing R into polar subrectangles

The "center" of the polar subrectangle

$$R_{ij} = \{(r, \theta) \mid r_{i-1} \leqslant r \leqslant r_i, \theta_{j-1} \leqslant \theta \leqslant \theta_j\}$$

has polar coordinates

$$r_i^* = \tfrac{1}{2}(r_{i-1} + r_i) \qquad \theta_j^* = \tfrac{1}{2}(\theta_{j-1} + \theta_j)$$

We compute the area of R_{ij} using the fact that the area of a sector of a circle with radius r and central angle θ is $\frac{1}{2}r^2\theta$. Subtracting the areas of two such sectors, each of which has central angle $\Delta\theta = \theta_j - \theta_{j-1}$, we find that the area of R_{ij} is

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta A_i &= \tfrac{1}{2}r_i^2\,\Delta\theta - \tfrac{1}{2}r_{i-1}^2\,\Delta\theta = \tfrac{1}{2}(r_i^2 - r_{i-1}^2)\,\Delta\theta \\ &= \tfrac{1}{2}(r_i + r_{i-1})(r_i - r_{i-1})\,\Delta\theta = r_i^*\,\Delta r\,\Delta\theta\end{aligned}$$

Although we have defined the double integral $\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$ in terms of ordinary rectangles, it can be shown that, for continuous functions f, we always obtain the same answer using polar rectangles. The rectangular coordinates of the center of R_{ij} are $(r_i^* \cos\theta_j^*, r_i^* \sin\theta_j^*)$, so a typical Riemann sum is

$$\boxed{1} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m}\sum_{j=1}^{n} f(r_i^*\cos\theta_j^*, r_i^*\sin\theta_j^*)\,\Delta A_i = \sum_{i=1}^{m}\sum_{j=1}^{n} f(r_i^*\cos\theta_j^*, r_i^*\sin\theta_j^*)\, r_i^*\,\Delta r\,\Delta\theta$$

If we write $g(r, \theta) = rf(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)$, then the Riemann sum in Equation 1 can be written as

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m}\sum_{j=1}^{n} g(r_i^*, \theta_j^*)\,\Delta r\,\Delta\theta$$

which is a Riemann sum for the double integral

$$\int_\alpha^\beta \int_a^b g(r, \theta)\, dr\, d\theta$$

Therefore we have

$$\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA = \lim_{m,n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(r_i^* \cos\theta_j^*, r_i^* \sin\theta_j^*)\, \Delta A_i$$

$$= \lim_{m,n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} g(r_i^*, \theta_j^*)\, \Delta r\, \Delta\theta = \int_\alpha^\beta \int_a^b g(r, \theta)\, dr\, d\theta$$

$$= \int_\alpha^\beta \int_a^b f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)\, r\, dr\, d\theta$$

2 Change to Polar Coodinates in a Double Integral If f is continuous on a polar rectangle R given by $0 \leqslant a \leqslant r \leqslant b$, $\alpha \leqslant \theta \leqslant \beta$, where $0 \leqslant \beta - \alpha \leqslant 2\pi$, then

$$\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA = \int_\alpha^\beta \int_a^b f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)\, r\, dr\, d\theta$$

The formula in (2) says that we convert from rectangular to polar coordinates in a double integral by writing $x = r\cos\theta$ and $y = r\sin\theta$, using the appropriate limits of integration for r and θ, and replacing dA by $r\, dr\, d\theta$. Be careful not to forget the additional factor r on the right side of Formula 2. A classical method for remembering this is shown in Figure 5, where the "infinitesimal" polar rectangle can be thought of as an ordinary rectangle with dimensions $r\, d\theta$ and dr and therefore has "area" $dA = r\, dr\, d\theta$.

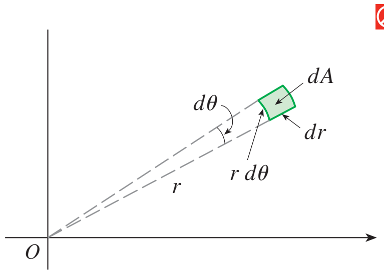


FIGURE 5

EXAMPLE 1 Evaluate $\iint_R (3x + 4y^2)\, dA$, where R is the region in the upper half-plane bounded by the circles $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 4$.

SOLUTION The region R can be described as

$$R = \{(x, y) \mid y \geqslant 0,\ 1 \leqslant x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 4\}$$

It is the half-ring shown in Figure 2(b), and in polar coordinates it is given by $1 \leqslant r \leqslant 2$, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi$. Therefore, by Formula 2,

$$\iint_R (3x + 4y^2)\, dA = \int_0^\pi \int_1^2 [3(r\cos\theta) + 4(r\sin\theta)^2]\, r\, dr\, d\theta$$

$$= \int_0^\pi \int_1^2 (3r^2\cos\theta + 4r^3\sin^2\theta)\, dr\, d\theta$$

$$= \int_0^\pi \Big[r^3\cos\theta + r^4\sin^2\theta\Big]_{r=1}^{r=2} d\theta = \int_0^\pi (7\cos\theta + 15\sin^2\theta)\, d\theta$$

$$= \int_0^\pi \Big[7\cos\theta + \tfrac{15}{2}(1 - \cos 2\theta)\Big]\, d\theta$$

$$= 7\sin\theta + \frac{15\theta}{2} - \frac{15}{4}\sin 2\theta\Big]_0^\pi = \frac{15\pi}{2}$$

Here we use the trigonometric identity

$$\sin^2\theta = \tfrac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2\theta)$$

See Section 7.2 for advice on integrating trigonometric functions.

EXAMPLE 2 Evaluate the double integral

$$\int_{-1}^{1} \int_{0}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} (x^2 + y^2)\, dy\, dx$$

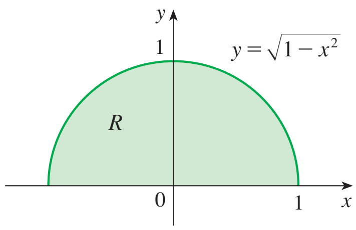


FIGURE 6

SOLUTION This iterated integral is a double integral over the region R shown in Figure 6 and described by

$$R = \left\{(x, y) \mid -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant \sqrt{1 - x^2}\right\}$$

The region is a half-disk, so it is more simply described in polar coordinates:

$$R = \left\{(r, \theta) \mid 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi, 0 \leqslant r \leqslant 1\right\}$$

Therefore we have

$$\int_{-1}^{1} \int_{0}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} (x^2 + y^2)\, dy\, dx = \int_{0}^{\pi} \int_{0}^{1} (r^2)\, r\, dr\, d\theta$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\pi} \left[\frac{r^4}{4}\right]_{r=0}^{r=1} d\theta = \frac{1}{4} \int_{0}^{\pi} d\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$$ ■

EXAMPLE 3 Find the volume of the solid bounded by the plane $z = 0$ and the paraboloid $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$.

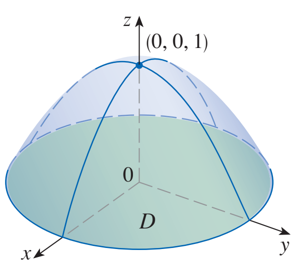


FIGURE 7

SOLUTION If we put $z = 0$ in the equation of the paraboloid, we get $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. This means that the plane intersects the paraboloid in the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, so the solid lies under the paraboloid and above the circular disk D given by $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$ [see Figures 7 and 2(a)]. In polar coordinates D is given by $0 \leqslant r \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$. Since $1 - x^2 - y^2 = 1 - r^2$, the volume is

$$V = \iint_D (1 - x^2 - y^2)\, dA = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \int_{0}^{1} (1 - r^2)\, r\, dr\, d\theta$$

$$= \int_{0}^{2\pi} d\theta \int_{0}^{1} (r - r^3)\, dr = 2\pi \left[\frac{r^2}{2} - \frac{r^4}{4}\right]_{0}^{1} = \frac{\pi}{2}$$ ■

In Example 3, if we had used rectangular coordinates instead of polar coordinates, we would have obtained

$$V = \iint_D (1 - x^2 - y^2)\, dA = \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{-\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} (1 - x^2 - y^2)\, dy\, dx$$

which is not easy to evaluate because it involves finding $\int (1 - x^2)^{3/2}\, dx$.

What we have done so far can be extended to the more complicated type of region shown in Figure 8. It's similar to the type II rectangular regions we considered in Section 15.2. In fact, by combining Formula 2 in this section with Formula 15.2.4, we obtain the following formula.

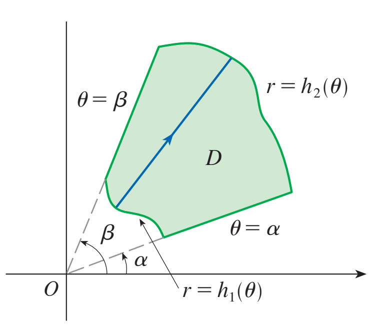


FIGURE 8
$D = \{(r, \theta) \mid \alpha \leqslant \theta \leqslant \beta, h_1(\theta) \leqslant r \leqslant h_2(\theta)\}$

$\boxed{3}$ If f is continuous on a polar region of the form

$$D = \left\{(r, \theta) \mid \alpha \leqslant \theta \leqslant \beta,\ h_1(\theta) \leqslant r \leqslant h_2(\theta)\right\}$$

then $$\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \int_{h_1(\theta)}^{h_2(\theta)} f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)\, r\, dr\, d\theta$$

In particular, taking $f(x, y) = 1$, $h_1(\theta) = 0$, and $h_2(\theta) = h(\theta)$ in this formula, we see that the area of the region D bounded by $\theta = \alpha$, $\theta = \beta$, and $r = h(\theta)$ is

$$A(D) = \iint_D 1\, dA = \int_\alpha^\beta \int_0^{h(\theta)} r\, dr\, d\theta$$

$$= \int_\alpha^\beta \left[\frac{r^2}{2}\right]_0^{h(\theta)} d\theta = \int_\alpha^\beta \tfrac{1}{2}[h(\theta)]^2\, d\theta$$

and this agrees with Formula 10.4.3.

EXAMPLE 4 Use a double integral to find the area enclosed by one loop of the four-leaved rose $r = \cos 2\theta$.

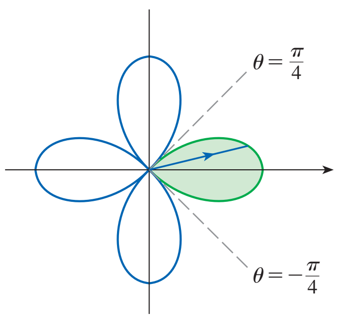


FIGURE 9

SOLUTION From the sketch of the curve in Figure 9, we see that a loop is given by the region

$$D = \{(r, \theta) \mid -\pi/4 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/4,\ 0 \leqslant r \leqslant \cos 2\theta\}$$

So the area is

$$A(D) = \iint_D dA = \int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} \int_0^{\cos 2\theta} r\, dr\, d\theta$$

$$= \int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} \left[\tfrac{1}{2}r^2\right]_0^{\cos 2\theta} d\theta = \tfrac{1}{2}\int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} \cos^2 2\theta\, d\theta$$

$$= \tfrac{1}{4}\int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} (1 + \cos 4\theta)\, d\theta = \tfrac{1}{4}\Big[\theta + \tfrac{1}{4}\sin 4\theta\Big]_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} = \frac{\pi}{8} \qquad \blacksquare$$

EXAMPLE 5 Find the volume of the solid that lies under the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$, above the xy-plane, and inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$.

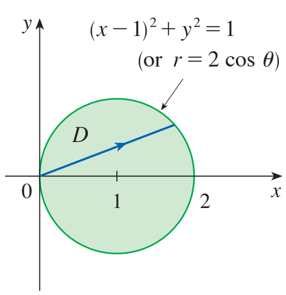


FIGURE 10

SOLUTION The solid lies above the disk D whose boundary circle has equation $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$ or, after completing the square,

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

(See Figures 10 and 11.)

In polar coordinates we have $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ and $x = r\cos\theta$, so the boundary circle $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$ becomes $r^2 = 2r\cos\theta$, or $r = 2\cos\theta$. Thus the disk D is given by

$$D = \{(r, \theta) \mid -\pi/2 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/2,\ 0 \leqslant r \leqslant 2\cos\theta\}$$

and, by Formula 3, we have

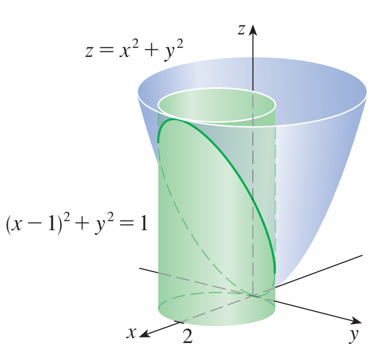


FIGURE 11

$$V = \iint_D (x^2 + y^2)\, dA = \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2\cos\theta} r^2\, r\, dr\, d\theta = \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \left[\frac{r^4}{4}\right]_0^{2\cos\theta} d\theta$$

$$= 4\int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \cos^4\theta\, d\theta = 8\int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^4\theta\, d\theta = 8\int_0^{\pi/2} \left(\frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2}\right)^2 d\theta$$

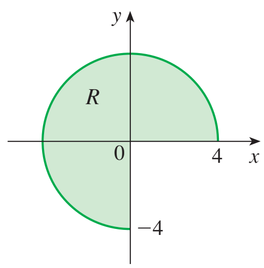
$$= 2\int_0^{\pi/2} \Big[1 + 2\cos 2\theta + \tfrac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 4\theta)\Big]\, d\theta$$

$$= 2\Big[\tfrac{3}{2}\theta + \sin 2\theta + \tfrac{1}{8}\sin 4\theta\Big]_0^{\pi/2} = 2\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \frac{3\pi}{2} \qquad \blacksquare$$

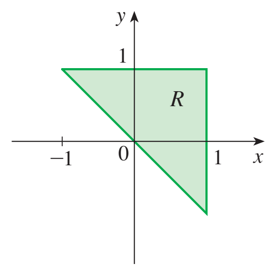
15.3 Exercises

1–6 A region R is shown. Decide whether to use polar coordinates or rectangular coordinates and write $\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$ as an iterated integral, where f is an arbitrary continuous function on R.

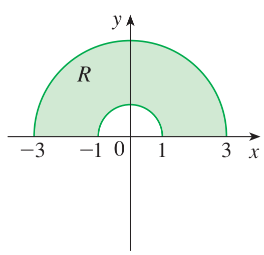
1.



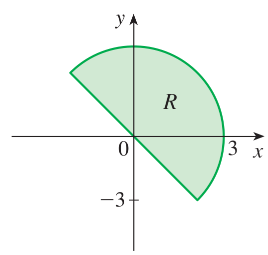
2.



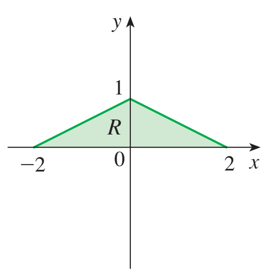
3.



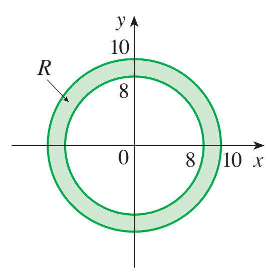
4.



5.



6.



7–8 Sketch the region whose area is given by the integral and evaluate the integral.

7. $\displaystyle\int_{\pi/4}^{3\pi/4}\int_1^2 r\, dr\, d\theta$

8. $\displaystyle\int_{\pi/2}^{\pi}\int_0^{2\sin\theta} r\, dr\, d\theta$

9–16 Evaluate the given integral by changing to polar coordinates.

9. $\iint_D x^2 y\, dA$, where D is the top half of the disk with center the origin and radius 5

10. $\iint_R (2x - y)\, dA$, where R is the region in the first quadrant enclosed by the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the lines $x = 0$ and $y = x$

11. $\iint_R \sin(x^2 + y^2)\, dA$, where R is the region in the first quadrant between the circles with center the origin and radii 1 and 3

12. $\displaystyle\iint_R \frac{y^2}{x^2 + y^2}\, dA$, where R is the region that lies between the circles $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ and $x^2 + y^2 = b^2$ with $0 < a < b$

13. $\iint_D e^{-x^2-y^2}\, dA$, where D is the region bounded by the semicircle $x = \sqrt{4 - y^2}$ and the y-axis

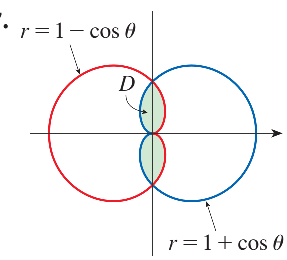
14. $\iint_D \cos\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\, dA$, where D is the disk with center the origin and radius 2

15. $\iint_R \arctan(y/x)\, dA$,
where $R = \{(x, y) \mid 1 \leqslant x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 4,\ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant x\}$

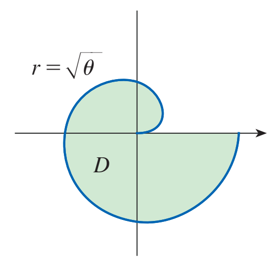
16. $\iint_D x\, dA$, where D is the region in the first quadrant that lies between the circles $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$

17–22 Use a double integral to find the area of the region D.

17.



18.



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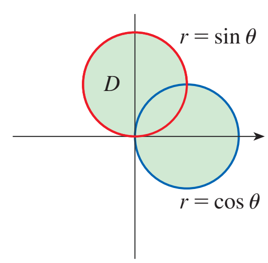

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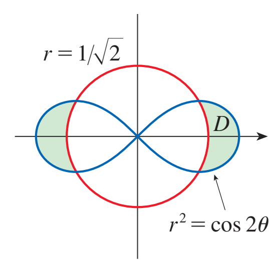
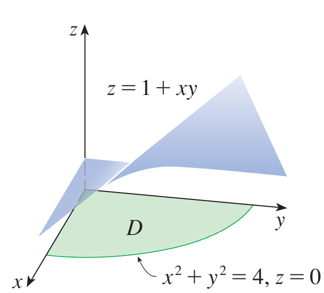


21. D is the loop of the rose $r = \sin 3\theta$ in the first quadrant.

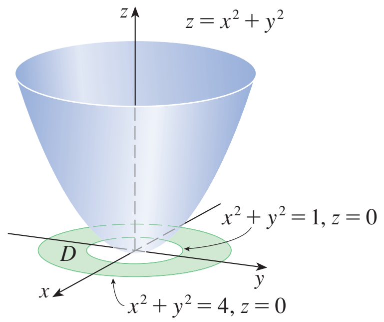
22. D is the region inside the circle $(x - 1)^2 + y^2 = 1$ and outside the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

23–24
(a) Set up an iterated integral in polar coordinates for the volume of the solid under the surface and above the region D.
(b) Evaluate the iterated integral to find the volume of the solid.

23.

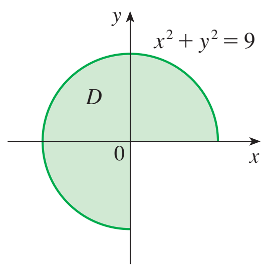


24.

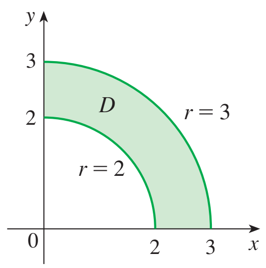


25–28
(a) Set up an iterated integral in polar coordinates for the volume of the solid under the graph of the given function and above the region D.
(b) Evaluate the iterated integral to find the volume of the solid.

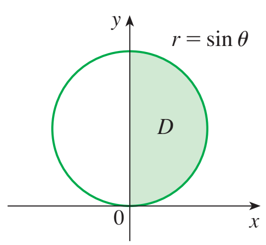
25. $f(x, y) = y$



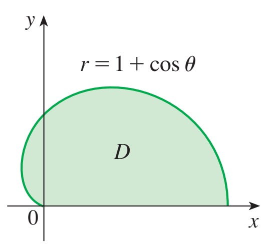
26. $f(x, y) = xy^2$



27. $f(x, y) = x$



28. $f(x, y) = 1$



29–37 Use polar coordinates to find the volume of the given solid.

29. Under the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and above the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 25$

30. Below the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and above the ring $1 \leqslant x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 4$

31. Below the plane $2x + y + z = 4$ and above the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$

32. Inside the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 16$ and outside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

33. A sphere of radius a

34. Bounded by the paraboloid $z = 1 + 2x^2 + 2y^2$ and the plane $z = 7$ in the first octant

35. Above the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and below the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$

36. Bounded by the paraboloids $z = 6 - x^2 - y^2$ and $z = 2x^2 + 2y^2$

37. Inside both the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the ellipsoid $4x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 = 64$

38. (a) A cylindrical drill with radius r_1 is used to bore a hole through the center of a sphere of radius r_2. Find the volume of the ring-shaped solid that remains.
(b) Express the volume in part (a) in terms of the height h of the ring. Notice that the volume depends only on h, not on r_1 or r_2.

39–42 Evaluate the iterated integral by converting to polar coordinates.

39. $\int_0^2 \int_0^{\sqrt{4-x^2}} e^{-x^2-y^2}\, dy\, dx$

40. $\int_0^a \int_{-\sqrt{a^2-y^2}}^{\sqrt{a^2-y^2}} (2x + y)\, dx\, dy$

41. $\int_0^{1/2} \int_{\sqrt{3}\,y}^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} xy^2\, dx\, dy$

42. $\int_0^2 \int_0^{\sqrt{2x-x^2}} \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\, dy\, dx$

T **43–44** Express the double integral in terms of a single integral with respect to r. Then use a calculator (or computer) to evaluate the integral correct to four decimal places.

43. $\iint_D e^{(x^2+y^2)^2}\, dA$, where D is the disk with center the origin and radius 1

44. $\iint_D xy\sqrt{1 + x^2 + y^2}\, dA$, where D is the portion of the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$ that lies in the first quadrant

45. A swimming pool is circular with a 10-meter diameter. The depth is constant along east-west lines and increases linearly from 1 m at the south end to 2 m at the north end. Find the volume of water in the pool.

46. An agricultural sprinkler distributes water in a circular pattern of radius 50 m. It supplies water to a depth of e^{-r} meters per hour at a distance of r meters from the sprinkler.
(a) If $0 < R \leqslant 50$, what is the total amount of water supplied per hour to the region inside the circle of radius R centered at the sprinkler?
(b) Determine an expression for the average amount of water per hour per square meter supplied to the region inside the circle of radius R.

47. Find the average value of the function $f(x, y) = 1/\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ on the annular region $a^2 \leqslant x^2 + y^2 \leqslant b^2$, where $0 < a < b$.

48. Let D be the disk with center the origin and radius a. What is the average distance from points in D to the origin?

49. Use polar coordinates to combine the sum

$$\int_{1/\sqrt{2}}^{1}\int_{\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{x} xy\,dy\,dx + \int_{1}^{\sqrt{2}}\int_{0}^{x} xy\,dy\,dx + \int_{\sqrt{2}}^{2}\int_{0}^{\sqrt{4-x^2}} xy\,dy\,dx$$

into one double integral. Then evaluate the double integral.

50. (a) We define the improper integral (over the entire plane $\mathbb{R}^2$)

$$I = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} e^{-(x^2+y^2)}\,dA$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x^2+y^2)}\,dy\,dx$$
$$= \lim_{a\to\infty}\iint_{D_a} e^{-(x^2+y^2)}\,dA$$

where D_a is the disk with radius a and center the origin. Show that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x^2+y^2)}\,dA = \pi$$

(b) An equivalent definition of the improper integral in part (a) is

$$\iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} e^{-(x^2+y^2)}\,dA = \lim_{a\to\infty}\iint_{S_a} e^{-(x^2+y^2)}\,dA$$

where S_a is the square with vertices $(\pm a, \pm a)$. Use this to show that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2}\,dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2}\,dy = \pi$$

(c) Deduce that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2}\,dx = \sqrt{\pi}$$

(d) By making the change of variable $t = \sqrt{2}\,x$, show that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2}\,dx = \sqrt{2\pi}$$

(This is a fundamental result for probability and statistics.)

51. Use the result of Exercise 50(c) to evaluate the following integrals.

(a) $\displaystyle\int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-x^2}\,dx$ (b) $\displaystyle\int_0^{\infty} \sqrt{x}\,e^{-x}\,dx$

15.4 Applications of Double Integrals

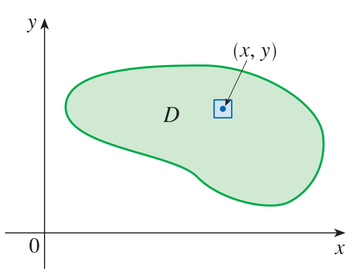


FIGURE 1

We have already seen one application of double integrals: computing volumes. Another geometric application is finding areas of surfaces and this will be done in the next section. In this section we explore physical applications such as computing mass, electric charge, center of mass, and moment of inertia. We will see that these physical ideas are also important when applied to probability density functions of two random variables.

Density and Mass

In Section 8.3 we were able to use single integrals to compute moments and the center of mass of a thin plate or lamina with constant density. But now, equipped with the double integral, we can consider a lamina with variable density. Suppose the lamina occupies a region D of the xy-plane and its **density** (in units of mass per unit area) at a point (x, y) in D is given by $\rho(x, y)$, where ρ is a continuous function on D. This means that

$$\rho(x, y) = \lim \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta A}$$

where Δm and ΔA are the mass and area of a small rectangle that contains (x, y) and the limit is taken as the dimensions of the rectangle approach 0. (See Figure 1.)

To find the total mass m of the lamina we divide a rectangle R containing D into subrectangles R_{ij} of the same size (as in Figure 2) and consider $\rho(x, y)$ to be 0 outside D. If we choose a point (x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*) in R_{ij}, then the mass of the part of the lamina that occupies R_{ij} is approximately $\rho(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\,\Delta A$, where ΔA is the area of R_{ij}. If we add all such masses, we get an approximation to the total mass:

$$m \approx \sum_{i=1}^{k}\sum_{j=1}^{l} \rho(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\,\Delta A$$

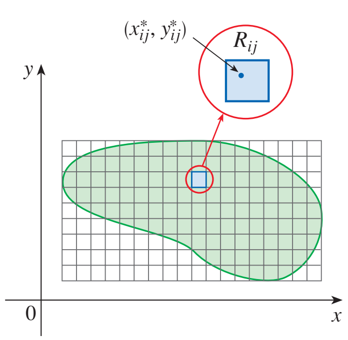


FIGURE 2 The mass of each subrectangle R_{ij} is approximated by $\rho(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\,\Delta A$.

If we now increase the number of subrectangles, we obtain the total mass m of the lamina as the limiting value of the approximations:

1
$$m = \lim_{k, l \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{l} \rho(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A = \iint_D \rho(x, y)\, dA$$

Physicists also consider other types of density that can be treated in the same manner. For example, if an electric charge is distributed over a region D and the charge density (in units of charge per unit area) is given by $\sigma(x, y)$ at a point (x, y) in D, then the total **electric charge** Q is given by

2
$$Q = \iint_D \sigma(x, y)\, dA$$

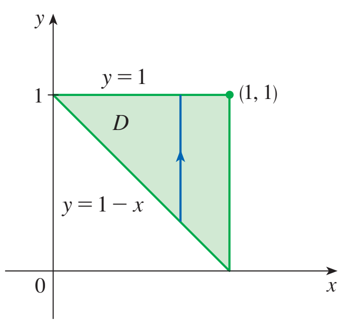


FIGURE 3

EXAMPLE 1 Charge is distributed over the triangular region D in Figure 3 so that the charge density at (x, y) is $\sigma(x, y) = xy$, measured in coulombs per square meter ($\mathrm{C/m^2}$). Find the total charge.

SOLUTION From Equation 2 and Figure 3 we have

$$Q = \iint_D \sigma(x, y)\, dA = \int_0^1 \int_{1-x}^1 xy\, dy\, dx = \int_0^1 \left[x\frac{y^2}{2} \right]_{y=1-x}^{y=1} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{x}{2}[1^2 - (1 - x)^2]\, dx$$

$$= \tfrac{1}{2} \int_0^1 (2x^2 - x^3)\, dx = \frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{2x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} \right]_0^1 = \frac{5}{24}$$

Thus the total charge is $\frac{5}{24}$ C. ■

Moments and Centers of Mass

In Section 8.3 we found the center of mass of a lamina with constant density; here we consider a lamina with variable density. Suppose the lamina occupies a region D and has density function $\rho(x, y)$. Recall from Chapter 8 that we defined the moment of a particle about an axis as the product of its mass and its directed distance from the axis. We divide D into small rectangles as in Figure 2. Then the mass of R_{ij} is approximately $\rho(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A$, so we can approximate the moment of R_{ij} with respect to the x-axis by

$$[\rho(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A]\, y_{ij}^*$$

If we now add these quantities and take the limit as the number of subrectangles becomes large, we obtain the **moment** of the entire lamina **about the *x*-axis**:

3
$$M_x = \lim_{m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{ij}^*\, \rho(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A = \iint_D y\, \rho(x, y)\, dA$$

Similarly, the **moment about the *y*-axis** is

4
$$M_y = \lim_{m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{ij}^*\, \rho(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A = \iint_D x\, \rho(x, y)\, dA$$

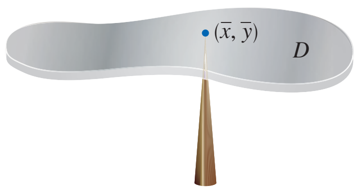


FIGURE 4

As before, we define the center of mass $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ so that $m\bar{x} = M_y$ and $m\bar{y} = M_x$. The physical significance is that the lamina behaves as if its entire mass is concentrated at its center of mass. Thus the lamina balances horizontally when supported at its center of mass (see Figure 4).

5 The coordinates $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ of the center of mass of a lamina occupying the region D and having density function $\rho(x, y)$ are

$$\bar{x} = \frac{M_y}{m} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_D x\rho(x, y)\, dA \qquad \bar{y} = \frac{M_x}{m} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_D y\rho(x, y)\, dA$$

where the mass m is given by

$$m = \iint_D \rho(x, y)\, dA$$

EXAMPLE 2 Find the mass and center of mass of a triangular lamina with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(0, 2)$ if the density function is $\rho(x, y) = 1 + 3x + y$.

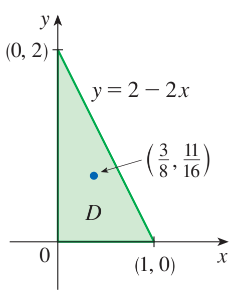


FIGURE 5

SOLUTION The triangle is shown in Figure 5. (Note that the equation of the upper boundary is $y = 2 - 2x$.) The mass of the lamina is

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \iint_D \rho(x, y)\, dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^{2-2x} (1 + 3x + y)\, dy\, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \left[y + 3xy + \frac{y^2}{2} \right]_{y=0}^{y=2-2x} dx \\ &= 4 \int_0^1 (1 - x^2)\, dx = 4\left[x - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{8}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Then the formulas in (5) give

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x} &= \frac{1}{m} \iint_D x\rho(x, y)\, dA = \tfrac{3}{8} \int_0^1 \int_0^{2-2x} (x + 3x^2 + xy)\, dy\, dx \\ &= \frac{3}{8} \int_0^1 \left[xy + 3x^2y + x\frac{y^2}{2} \right]_{y=0}^{y=2-2x} dx \\ &= \frac{3}{2} \int_0^1 (x - x^3)\, dx = \frac{3}{2}\left[\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^4}{4} \right]_0^1 = \frac{3}{8} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{y} &= \frac{1}{m} \iint_D y\rho(x, y)\, dA = \tfrac{3}{8} \int_0^1 \int_0^{2-2x} (y + 3xy + y^2)\, dy\, dx \\ &= \frac{3}{8} \int_0^1 \left[\frac{y^2}{2} + 3x\frac{y^2}{2} + \frac{y^3}{3} \right]_{y=0}^{y=2-2x} dx = \tfrac{1}{4} \int_0^1 (7 - 9x - 3x^2 + 5x^3)\, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{4}\left[7x - 9\frac{x^2}{2} - x^3 + 5\frac{x^4}{4} \right]_0^1 = \frac{11}{16} \end{aligned}$$

The center of mass is at the point $\left(\frac{3}{8}, \frac{11}{16}\right)$. ■

EXAMPLE 3 The density at any point on a semicircular lamina is proportional to the distance from the center of the circle. Find the center of mass of the lamina.

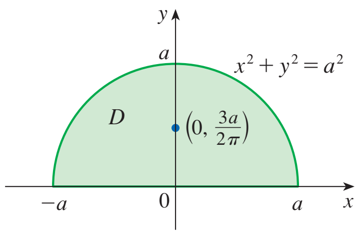


FIGURE 6

SOLUTION Let's place the lamina as the upper half of the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$. (See Figure 6.) Then the distance from a point (x, y) to the center of the circle (the origin) is $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. Therefore the density function is

$$\rho(x, y) = K\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

where K is some constant. Both the density function and the shape of the lamina suggest that we convert to polar coordinates. Then $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = r$ and the region D is given by $0 \leqslant r \leqslant a$, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi$. Thus the mass of the lamina is

$$m = \iint_D \rho(x, y)\, dA = \iint_D K\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\, dA$$

$$= \int_0^\pi \int_0^a (Kr)\, r\, dr\, d\theta = K \int_0^\pi d\theta \int_0^a r^2\, dr = K\pi \left.\frac{r^3}{3}\right]_0^a = \frac{K\pi a^3}{3}$$

Both the lamina and the density function are symmetric with respect to the y-axis, so the center of mass must lie on the y-axis, that is, $\bar{x} = 0$. The y-coordinate is given by

Compare the location of the center of mass in Example 3 with Example 8.3.4, where we found that the center of mass of a lamina with the same shape but uniform density is located at the point $(0, 4a/(3\pi))$.

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{m} \iint_D y\rho(x, y)\, dA = \frac{3}{K\pi a^3} \int_0^\pi \int_0^a r\sin\theta\, (Kr)\, r\, dr\, d\theta$$

$$= \frac{3}{\pi a^3} \int_0^\pi \sin\theta\, d\theta \int_0^a r^3\, dr = \frac{3}{\pi a^3} \Big[-\cos\theta\Big]_0^\pi \left[\frac{r^4}{4}\right]_0^a$$

$$= \frac{3}{\pi a^3} \frac{2a^4}{4} = \frac{3a}{2\pi}$$

Therefore the center of mass is located at the point $(0, 3a/(2\pi))$. ■

Moment of Inertia

The **moment of inertia** (also called the **second moment**) of a particle of mass m about an axis is defined to be mr^2, where r is the distance from the particle to the axis. We extend this concept to a lamina with density function $\rho(x, y)$ and occupying a region D by proceeding as we did for ordinary moments. We divide D into small rectangles, approximate the moment of inertia of each subrectangle about the x-axis, and take the limit of the sum as the number of subrectangles becomes large. The result is the **moment of inertia** of the lamina **about the *x*-axis**:

6 $$I_x = \lim_{m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (y_{ij}^*)^2 \rho(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A = \iint_D y^2 \rho(x, y)\, dA$$

Similarly, the **moment of inertia about the *y*-axis** is

7 $$I_y = \lim_{m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{ij}^*)^2 \rho(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*)\, \Delta A = \iint_D x^2 \rho(x, y)\, dA$$

We also consider the **moment of inertia about the origin**, also called the **polar moment of inertia**:

$$\boxed{8} \quad I_0 = \lim_{m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left[(x_{ij}^*)^2 + (y_{ij}^*)^2\right] \rho(x_{ij}^*, y_{ij}^*) \, \Delta A = \iint_D (x^2 + y^2) \, \rho(x, y) \, dA$$

Note that $I_0 = I_x + I_y$.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the moments of inertia I_x, I_y, and I_0 of a homogeneous disk D with density $\rho(x, y) = \rho$, center the origin, and radius a.

SOLUTION The boundary of D is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ and in polar coordinates D is described by $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$, $0 \leqslant r \leqslant a$. By Formula 6,

$$\begin{aligned} I_x &= \iint_D y^2 \rho \, dA = \rho \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a (r \sin \theta)^2 \, r \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \rho \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2\theta \, d\theta \int_0^a r^3 \, dr = \rho \int_0^{2\pi} \tfrac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2\theta) \, d\theta \int_0^a r^3 \, dr \\ &= \frac{\rho}{2} \Big[\theta - \tfrac{1}{2} \sin 2\theta\Big]_0^{2\pi} \left[\frac{r^4}{4}\right]_0^a = \frac{\pi \rho a^4}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, Formula 7 gives

$$\begin{aligned} I_y &= \iint_D x^2 \rho \, dA = \rho \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a (r \cos \theta)^2 \, r \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \rho \int_0^{2\pi} \tfrac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2\theta) \, d\theta \int_0^a r^3 \, dr = \frac{\pi \rho a^4}{4} \end{aligned}$$

(From the symmetry of the problem, it is expected that $I_x = I_y$.) We could use Formula 8 to compute I_0 directly, or use

$$I_0 = I_x + I_y = \frac{\pi \rho a^4}{4} + \frac{\pi \rho a^4}{4} = \frac{\pi \rho a^4}{2}$$ ■

In Example 4 notice that the mass of the disk is

$$m = \text{density} \times \text{area} = \rho(\pi a^2)$$

so the moment of inertia of the disk about the origin (like a wheel about its axle) can be written as

$$I_0 = \frac{\pi \rho a^4}{2} = \tfrac{1}{2}(\rho \pi a^2) a^2 = \tfrac{1}{2} m a^2$$

Thus if we increase the mass or the radius of the disk, we thereby increase the moment of inertia. In general, the moment of inertia plays much the same role in rotational motion that mass plays in linear motion. The moment of inertia of a wheel is what makes it difficult to start or stop the rotation of the wheel, just as the mass of a car is what makes it difficult to start or stop the motion of the car.

The **radius of gyration of a lamina about an axis** is the number R such that

$$\boxed{9} \qquad mR^2 = I$$

where m is the mass of the lamina and I is the moment of inertia about the given axis. Equation 9 says that if the mass of the lamina were concentrated at a distance R from the axis, then the moment of inertia of this "point mass" would be the same as the moment of inertia of the lamina.

In particular, the radius of gyration $\bar{\bar{y}}$ with respect to the x-axis and the radius of gyration $\bar{\bar{x}}$ with respect to the y-axis are given by the equations

$$\boxed{10} \qquad m\bar{\bar{y}}^2 = I_x \qquad m\bar{\bar{x}}^2 = I_y$$

Thus $(\bar{\bar{x}}, \bar{\bar{y}})$ is the point at which the mass of the lamina can be concentrated without changing the moments of inertia with respect to the coordinate axes. (Note the analogy with the center of mass.)

EXAMPLE 5 Find the radius of gyration about the x-axis of the disk in Example 4.

SOLUTION As noted, the mass of the disk is $m = \rho\pi a^2$, so from Equations 10 we have

$$\bar{\bar{y}}^2 = \frac{I_x}{m} = \frac{\frac{1}{4}\pi\rho a^4}{\rho\pi a^2} = \frac{a^2}{4}$$

Therefore the radius of gyration about the x-axis is $\bar{\bar{y}} = \frac{1}{2}a$, which is half the radius of the disk. ■

Probability

In Section 8.5 we considered the *probability density function* f of a continuous random variable X. This means that $f(x) \geqslant 0$ for all x, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)\,dx = 1$, and the probability that X lies between a and b is found by integrating f from a to b:

$$P(a \leqslant X \leqslant b) = \int_a^b f(x)\,dx$$

Now we consider a pair of continuous random variables X and Y, such as the lifetimes of two components of a machine or the height and weight of an adult female chosen at random. The **joint density function** of X and Y is a function f of two variables such that the probability that (X, Y) lies in a region D is

$$P((X, Y) \in D) = \iint_D f(x, y)\,dA$$

In particular, if the region is a rectangle, then the probability that X lies between a and b and Y lies between c and d is

$$P(a \leqslant X \leqslant b,\ c \leqslant Y \leqslant d) = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y)\,dy\,dx$$

(See Figure 7.)

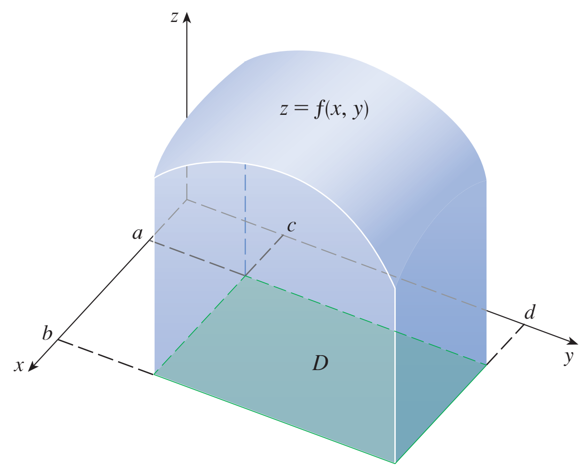


FIGURE 7
The probability that X lies between a and b and Y lies between c and d is the volume that lies above the rectangle $D = [a, b] \times [c, d]$ and below the graph of the joint density function.

Because probabilities aren't negative and are measured on a scale from 0 to 1, the joint density function has the following properties:

$$f(x, y) \geqslant 0 \qquad \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(x, y)\, dA = 1$$

As in Exercise 15.3.50, the double integral over $\mathbb{R}^2$ is an improper integral defined as the limit of double integrals over expanding circles or squares, and we can write

$$\iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(x, y)\, dA = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y)\, dx\, dy = 1$$

EXAMPLE 6 If the joint density function for X and Y is given by

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} C(x + 2y) & \text{if } 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 10,\ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 10 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

find the value of the constant C. Then find $P(X \leqslant 7, Y \geqslant 2)$.

SOLUTION We find the value of C by ensuring that the double integral of f over $\mathbb{R}^2$ is equal to 1. Because $f(x, y) = 0$ outside the rectangle $[0, 10] \times [0, 10]$, we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y)\, dy\, dx = \int_0^{10} \int_0^{10} C(x + 2y)\, dy\, dx = C \int_0^{10} \Big[xy + y^2\Big]_{y=0}^{y=10} dx$$

$$= C \int_0^{10} (10x + 100)\, dx = 1500C$$

Therefore $1500C = 1$ and so $C = \frac{1}{1500}$.

Now we can compute the probability that X is at most 7 and Y is at least 2:

$$P(X \leqslant 7, Y \geqslant 2) = \int_{-\infty}^{7} \int_2^{\infty} f(x, y)\, dy\, dx = \int_0^7 \int_2^{10} \tfrac{1}{1500}(x + 2y)\, dy\, dx$$

$$= \tfrac{1}{1500} \int_0^7 \Big[xy + y^2\Big]_{y=2}^{y=10} dx = \tfrac{1}{1500} \int_0^7 (8x + 96)\, dx$$

$$= \tfrac{868}{1500} \approx 0.5787$$

■

Suppose X is a random variable with probability density function $f_1(x)$ and Y is a random variable with density function $f_2(y)$. Then X and Y are called **independent random variables** if their joint density function is the product of their individual density functions:

$$f(x, y) = f_1(x)f_2(y)$$

In Section 8.5 we modeled waiting times by using exponential density functions

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t < 0 \\ \mu^{-1}e^{-t/\mu} & \text{if } t \geqslant 0 \end{cases}$$

where μ is the mean waiting time. In the next example we consider a situation with two independent waiting times.

EXAMPLE 7 The manager of a movie theater determines that the average time moviegoers wait in line to buy a ticket for a film is 10 minutes and the average time they wait to buy popcorn is 5 minutes. Assuming that the waiting times are independent, find the probability that a moviegoer waits a total of less than 20 minutes before taking his or her seat.

SOLUTION Assuming that both the waiting time X for the ticket purchase and the waiting time Y in the refreshment line are modeled by exponential probability density functions, we can write the individual density functions as

$$f_1(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ \frac{1}{10}e^{-x/10} & \text{if } x \geqslant 0 \end{cases} \qquad f_2(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y < 0 \\ \frac{1}{5}e^{-y/5} & \text{if } y \geqslant 0 \end{cases}$$

Since X and Y are independent, the joint density function is the product:

$$f(x, y) = f_1(x)f_2(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{50}e^{-x/10}e^{-y/5} & \text{if } x \geqslant 0,\, y \geqslant 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We are asked for the probability that $X + Y < 20$:

$$P(X + Y < 20) = P((X, Y) \in D)$$

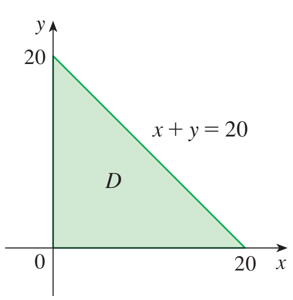


FIGURE 8

where D is the triangular region shown in Figure 8. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} P(X + Y < 20) &= \iint_D f(x, y)\, dA = \int_0^{20}\int_0^{20-x} \frac{1}{50}e^{-x/10}e^{-y/5}\, dy\, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{50}\int_0^{20} \Big[e^{-x/10}(-5)e^{-y/5}\Big]_{y=0}^{y=20-x} dx = \frac{1}{10}\int_0^{20} e^{-x/10}(1 - e^{(x-20)/5})\, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{10}\int_0^{20} (e^{-x/10} - e^{-4}e^{x/10})\, dx = 1 + e^{-4} - 2e^{-2} \approx 0.7476 \end{aligned}$$

This means that about 75% of the moviegoers wait less than 20 minutes before taking their seats. ■

■ Expected Values

Recall from Section 8.5 that if X is a random variable with probability density function f, then its *mean* is

$$\mu = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x)\, dx$$

Now if X and Y are random variables with joint density function f, we define the ***X*-mean** and ***Y*-mean**, also called the **expected values** of X and Y, to be

$$\boxed{11} \qquad \mu_1 = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} x f(x, y)\, dA \qquad \mu_2 = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} y f(x, y)\, dA$$

Notice how closely the expressions for μ_1 and μ_2 in (11) resemble the moments M_x and M_y of a lamina with density function ρ in Equations 3 and 4. In fact, we can think of probability as being like continuously distributed mass. We calculate probability the way we calculate mass—by integrating a density function. And because the total "probability mass" is 1, the expressions for $\bar{x}$ and $\bar{y}$ in (5) show that we can think of the expected values of X and Y, μ_1 and μ_2, as the coordinates of the "center of mass" of the probability distribution.

In the next example we deal with normal distributions. As in Section 8.5, a single random variable is *normally distributed* if its probability density function is of the form

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}\, e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}$$

where μ is the mean and σ is the standard deviation.

EXAMPLE 8 A factory produces (cylindrically shaped) roller bearings that are sold as having diameter 4.0 cm and length 6.0 cm. In fact, the diameters X are normally distributed with mean 4.0 cm and standard deviation 0.01 cm while the lengths Y are normally distributed with mean 6.0 cm and standard deviation 0.01 cm. Assuming that X and Y are independent, write the joint density function and graph it. Find the probability that a bearing randomly chosen from the production line has either length or diameter that differs from the mean by more than 0.02 cm.

SOLUTION We are given that X and Y are normally distributed with $\mu_1 = 4.0$, $\mu_2 = 6.0$, and $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = 0.01$. So the individual density functions for X and Y are

$$f_1(x) = \frac{1}{0.01\sqrt{2\pi}}\, e^{-(x-4)^2/0.0002} \qquad f_2(y) = \frac{1}{0.01\sqrt{2\pi}}\, e^{-(y-6)^2/0.0002}$$

Since X and Y are independent, the joint density function is the product:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) = f_1(x) f_2(y) &= \frac{1}{0.0002\pi}\, e^{-(x-4)^2/0.0002} e^{-(y-6)^2/0.0002} \\ &= \frac{5000}{\pi}\, e^{-5000[(x-4)^2+(y-6)^2]} \end{aligned}$$

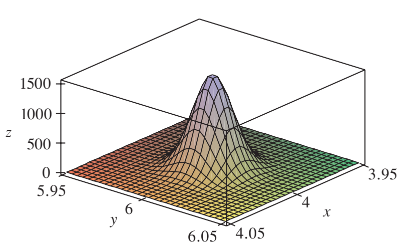


FIGURE 9
Graph of the bivariate normal joint density function in Example 8

A graph of this function is shown in Figure 9.

Let's first calculate the probability that both X and Y differ from their means by less than 0.02 cm. Using a calculator or computer to estimate the integral, we have

$$\begin{aligned} P(3.98 < X < 4.02,\ 5.98 < Y < 6.02) &= \int_{3.98}^{4.02} \int_{5.98}^{6.02} f(x, y)\, dy\, dx \\ &= \frac{5000}{\pi} \int_{3.98}^{4.02} \int_{5.98}^{6.02} e^{-5000[(x-4)^2+(y-6)^2]}\, dy\, dx \\ &\approx 0.91 \end{aligned}$$

Then the probability that either X or Y differs from its mean by more than 0.02 cm is approximately

$$1 - 0.91 = 0.09$$ ■

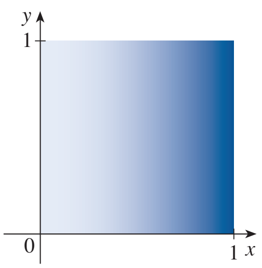
15.4 Exercises

1. Electric charge is distributed over the rectangle $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 5$, $2 \leqslant y \leqslant 5$ so that the charge density at (x, y) is $\sigma(x, y) = 2x + 4y$ (measured in coulombs per square meter). Find the total charge on the rectangle.

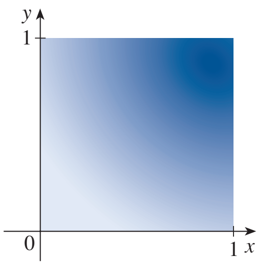
2. Electric charge is distributed over the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$ so that the charge density at (x, y) is $\sigma(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ (measured in coulombs per square meter). Find the total charge on the disk.

3–4 The figure shows a lamina that is shaded according to the given density function: darker shading indicates higher density. Estimate the location of the center of mass of the lamina, and then calculate its exact location.

3. $\rho(x, y) = x^2$



4. $\rho(x, y) = xy$



5–12 Find the mass and center of mass of the lamina that occupies the region D and has the given density function ρ.

5. $D = \{(x, y) \mid 1 \leqslant x \leqslant 3,\ 1 \leqslant y \leqslant 4\}$; $\rho(x, y) = ky^2$

6. $D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant a,\ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant b\}$; $\rho(x, y) = 1 + x^2 + y^2$

7. D is the triangular region with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(2, 1)$, $(0, 3)$; $\rho(x, y) = x + y$

8. D is the triangular region enclosed by the lines $y = 0$, $y = 2x$, and $x + 2y = 1$; $\rho(x, y) = x$

9. D is bounded by $y = 1 - x^2$ and $y = 0$; $\rho(x, y) = ky$

10. D is bounded by $y = x + 2$ and $y = x^2$; $\rho(x, y) = kx^2$

11. D is bounded by the curves $y = e^{-x}$, $y = 0$, $x = 0$, $x = 1$; $\rho(x, y) = xy$

12. D is enclosed by the curves $y = 0$ and $y = \cos x$, $-\pi/2 \leqslant x \leqslant \pi/2$; $\rho(x, y) = y$

13. A lamina occupies the part of the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$ in the first quadrant. Find its center of mass if the density at any point is proportional to its distance from the x-axis.

14. Find the center of mass of the lamina in Exercise 13 if the density at any point is proportional to the square of its distance from the origin.

15. The boundary of a lamina consists of the semicircles $y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ and $y = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$ together with the portions of the x-axis that join them. Find the center of mass of the lamina if the density at any point is proportional to its distance from the origin.

16. Find the center of mass of the lamina in Exercise 15 if the density at any point is inversely proportional to its distance from the origin.

17. Find the center of mass of a lamina in the shape of an isosceles right triangle with equal sides of length a if the density at any point is proportional to the square of the distance from the vertex opposite the hypotenuse.

18. A lamina occupies the region inside the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 2y$ but outside the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Find the center of mass if the density at any point is inversely proportional to its distance from the origin.

19. Find the moments of inertia I_x, I_y, I_0 for the lamina of Exercise 5.

20. Find the moments of inertia I_x, I_y, I_0 for the lamina of Exercise 8.

21. Find the moments of inertia I_x, I_y, I_0 for the lamina of Exercise 17.

22. Consider a square fan blade with sides of length 2 and the lower left corner placed at the origin. If the density of the blade is $\rho(x, y) = 1 + 0.1x$, is it more difficult to rotate the blade about the x-axis or the y-axis?

23–26 A lamina with constant density $\rho(x, y) = \rho$ occupies the given region. Find the moments of inertia I_x and I_y and the radii of gyration $\bar{\bar{x}}$ and $\bar{\bar{y}}$.

23. The rectangle $0 \leqslant x \leqslant b$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant h$

24. The triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(b, 0)$, and $(0, h)$

25. The part of the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant a^2$ in the first quadrant

26. The region under the curve $y = \sin x$ from $x = 0$ to $x = \pi$

T **27–28** Use a computer algebra system to find the mass, center of mass, and moments of inertia of the lamina that occupies the region D and has the given density function.

27. D is enclosed by the right loop of the four-leaved rose $r = \cos 2\theta$; $\rho(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$

28. $D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant y \leqslant xe^{-x},\ 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2\}$; $\rho(x, y) = x^2y^2$

29. The joint density function for a pair of random variables X and Y is

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} Cx(1 + y) & \text{if } 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,\ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(a) Find the value of the constant C.
(b) Find $P(X \leqslant 1, Y \leqslant 1)$.
(c) Find $P(X + Y \leqslant 1)$.

30. (a) Verify that

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 4xy & \text{if } 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,\ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

is a joint density function.
(b) If X and Y are random variables whose joint density function is the function f in part (a), find
(i) $P\left(X \geqslant \frac{1}{2}\right)$ (ii) $P\left(X \geqslant \frac{1}{2}, Y \leqslant \frac{1}{2}\right)$
(c) Find the expected values of X and Y.

31. Suppose X and Y are random variables with joint density function

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0.1e^{-(0.5x + 0.2y)} & \text{if } x \geqslant 0,\ y \geqslant 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(a) Verify that f is indeed a joint density function.
(b) Find the following probabilities.
(i) $P(Y \geqslant 1)$ (ii) $P(X \leqslant 2, Y \leqslant 4)$
(c) Find the expected values of X and Y.

32. (a) A lamp has two bulbs, each of a type with average lifetime 1000 hours. Assuming that we can model the probability of failure of a bulb by an exponential density function with mean $\mu = 1000$, find the probability that both of the lamp's bulbs fail within 1000 hours.
(b) Another lamp has just one bulb of the same type as in part (a). If one bulb burns out and is replaced by a bulb of the same type, find the probability that the two bulbs fail within a total of 1000 hours.

T **33.** Suppose that X and Y are independent random variables, where X is normally distributed with mean 45 and standard deviation 0.5 and Y is normally distributed with mean 20 and standard deviation 0.1. Evaluate a double integral numerically to find the given probability correct to three decimal places.
(a) $P(40 \leqslant X \leqslant 50, 20 \leqslant Y \leqslant 25)$
(b) $P(4(X - 45)^2 + 100(Y - 20)^2 \leqslant 2)$

34. Xavier and Yolanda both have classes that end at noon and they agree to meet every day after class. They arrive at the coffee shop independently. Xavier's arrival time is X and Yolanda's arrival time is Y, where X and Y are measured in minutes after noon. The individual density functions are

$$f_1(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-x} & \text{if } x \geqslant 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases} \qquad f_2(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{50}y & \text{if } 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 10 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(Xavier arrives sometime after noon and is more likely to arrive promptly than late. Yolanda always arrives by 12:10 PM and is more likely to arrive late than promptly.) After Yolanda arrives, she'll wait for up to half an hour for Xavier, but he won't wait for her. Find the probability that they meet.

35. When studying the spread of an epidemic, we assume that the probability that an infected individual will spread the disease to an uninfected individual is a function of the distance between them. Consider a circular city of radius 10 kilometers in which the population is uniformly distributed. For an uninfected individual at a fixed point $A(x_0, y_0)$, assume that the probability function is given by

$$f(P) = \tfrac{1}{20}[20 - d(P, A)]$$

where $d(P, A)$ denotes the distance between points P and A.
(a) Suppose the exposure of a person to the disease is the sum of the probabilities of catching the disease from all members of the population. Assume that the infected people are uniformly distributed throughout the city, with k infected individuals per square kilometer. Find a double integral that represents the exposure of a person residing at A.
(b) Evaluate the integral for the case in which A is the center of the city and for the case in which A is located on the edge of the city. Where would you prefer to live?

15.5 Surface Area

In Section 16.6 we will deal with areas of more general surfaces, called parametric surfaces, and so this section may be omitted if that later section will be covered.

In this section we apply double integrals to the problem of computing the area of a surface. In Section 8.2 we found the area of a very special type of surface—a surface of revolution—by the methods of single-variable calculus. Here we compute the area of a surface with equation $z = f(x, y)$, the graph of a function of two variables.

Let S be a surface with equation $z = f(x, y)$, where f has continuous partial derivatives. For simplicity in deriving the surface area formula, we assume that $f(x, y) \geqslant 0$ and the domain D of f is a rectangle. We divide D into small rectangles R_{ij} with area $\Delta A = \Delta x\, \Delta y$. If (x_i, y_j) is the corner of R_{ij} closest to the origin, let $P_{ij}(x_i, y_j, f(x_i, y_j))$ be

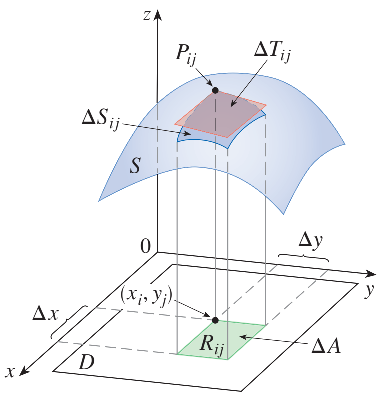


FIGURE 1

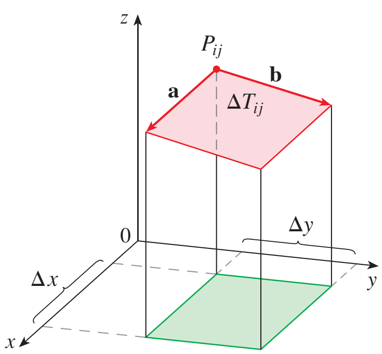


FIGURE 2

the point on S directly above it (see Figure 1). The tangent plane to S at P_{ij} is an approximation to S near P_{ij}. So the area ΔT_{ij} of the part of this tangent plane (a parallelogram) that lies directly above R_{ij} is an approximation to the area ΔS_{ij} of the part of S that lies directly above R_{ij}. Thus the sum $\Sigma\Sigma\, \Delta T_{ij}$ is an approximation to the total area of S, and this approximation appears to improve as the number of rectangles increases. Therefore we define the **surface area** of S to be

1
$$A(S) = \lim_{m,\, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Delta T_{ij}$$

To find a formula that is more convenient than Equation 1 for computational purposes, we let **a** and **b** be the vectors that start at P_{ij} and lie along the sides of the parallelogram with area ΔT_{ij}. (See Figure 2.) Then $\Delta T_{ij} = |\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|$. Recall from Section 14.3 that $f_x(x_i, y_j)$ and $f_y(x_i, y_j)$ are the slopes of the tangent lines through P_{ij} in the directions of **a** and **b**. Therefore

$$\mathbf{a} = \Delta x\, \mathbf{i} + f_x(x_i, y_j)\, \Delta x\, \mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \Delta y\, \mathbf{j} + f_y(x_i, y_j)\, \Delta y\, \mathbf{k}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \Delta x & 0 & f_x(x_i, y_j)\, \Delta x \\ 0 & \Delta y & f_y(x_i, y_j)\, \Delta y \end{vmatrix} \\
&= -f_x(x_i, y_j)\, \Delta x\, \Delta y\, \mathbf{i} - f_y(x_i, y_j)\, \Delta x\, \Delta y\, \mathbf{j} + \Delta x\, \Delta y\, \mathbf{k} \\
&= [-f_x(x_i, y_j)\mathbf{i} - f_y(x_i, y_j)\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}]\, \Delta A
\end{aligned}$$

Thus $$\Delta T_{ij} = |\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}| = \sqrt{[f_x(x_i, y_j)]^2 + [f_y(x_i, y_j)]^2 + 1}\, \Delta A$$

From Definition 1 we then have

$$\begin{aligned}
A(S) &= \lim_{m,n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Delta T_{ij} \\
&= \lim_{m,n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sqrt{[f_x(x_i, y_j)]^2 + [f_y(x_i, y_j)]^2 + 1}\, \Delta A
\end{aligned}$$

and by the definition of a double integral we get the following formula.

2 The area of the surface with equation $z = f(x, y)$, $(x, y) \in D$, where f_x and f_y are continuous, is

$$A(S) = \iint_D \sqrt{[f_x(x, y)]^2 + [f_y(x, y)]^2 + 1}\; dA$$

We will verify in Section 16.6 that this formula is consistent with our previous formula for the area of a surface of revolution. If we use the alternative notation for partial derivatives, we can rewrite Formula 2 as follows:

Notice the similarity between the surface area formula in Equation 3 and the arc length formula from Section 8.1:

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}\, dx$$

3
$$A(S) = \iint_D \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)^2}\; dA$$

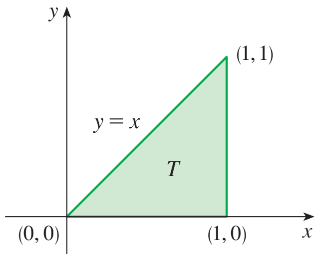


FIGURE 3

EXAMPLE 1 Find the surface area of the part of the surface $z = x^2 + 2y + 2$ that lies above the triangular region T in the xy-plane with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(1, 1)$.

SOLUTION The region T is shown in Figure 3 and is described by

$$T = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,\ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant x\}$$

Using Formula 2 with $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2y + 2$, we get

$$A = \iint_T \sqrt{(2x)^2 + (2)^2 + 1}\, dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^x \sqrt{4x^2 + 5}\, dy\, dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 x\sqrt{4x^2 + 5}\, dx = \tfrac{1}{8} \cdot \tfrac{2}{3}(4x^2 + 5)^{3/2}\Big]_0^1 = \tfrac{1}{12}\left(27 - 5\sqrt{5}\right)$$

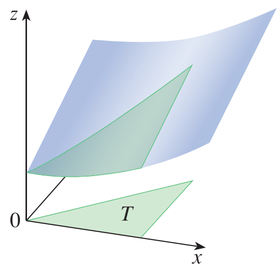


FIGURE 4

Figure 4 shows the portion of the surface whose area we have just computed. ■

EXAMPLE 2 Find the area of the part of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ that lies under the plane $z = 9$.

SOLUTION The plane intersects the paraboloid in the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 9$, $z = 9$. Therefore the given surface lies above the disk D with center the origin and radius 3. (See Figure 5.) Using Formula 3, we have

$$A = \iint_D \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)^2}\, dA = \iint_D \sqrt{1 + (2x)^2 + (2y)^2}\, dA$$

$$= \iint_D \sqrt{1 + 4(x^2 + y^2)}\, dA$$

Converting to polar coordinates, we obtain

$$A = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^3 \sqrt{1 + 4r^2}\, r\, dr\, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^3 \tfrac{1}{8}\sqrt{1 + 4r^2}\,(8r)\, dr$$

$$= 2\pi\left(\tfrac{1}{8}\right)\tfrac{2}{3}(1 + 4r^2)^{3/2}\Big]_0^3 = \frac{\pi}{6}\left(37\sqrt{37} - 1\right)$$ ■

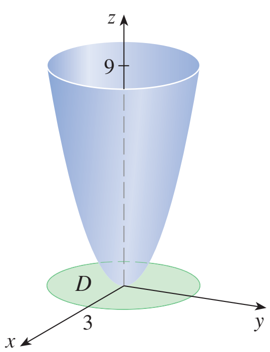
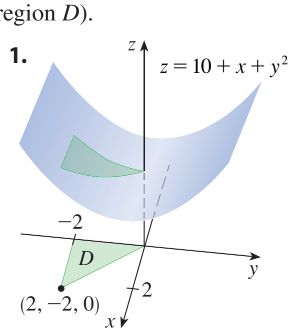


FIGURE 5

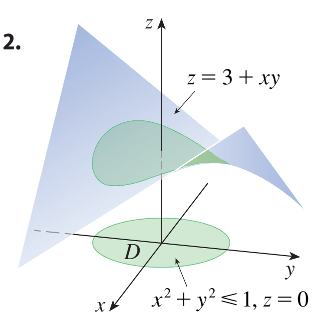
15.5 Exercises

1–2 Find the area of the indicated part of the surface (above the region D).

1.



2.



3–14 Find the area of the surface.

3. The part of the plane $5x + 3y - z + 6 = 0$ that lies above the rectangle $[1, 4] \times [2, 6]$

4. The part of the plane $6x + 4y + 2z = 1$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 25$

5. The part of the plane $3x + 2y + z = 6$ that lies in the first octant

6. The part of the surface $2y + 4z - x^2 = 5$ that lies above the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(2, 0)$, and $(2, 4)$

7. The part of the paraboloid $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$ that lies above the plane $z = -2$

8. The part of the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 4$ that lies above the square with vertices (0, 0), (1, 0), (0, 1), and (1, 1)

9. The part of the hyperbolic paraboloid $z = y^2 - x^2$ that lies between the cylinders $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

10. The surface $z = \frac{2}{3}(x^{3/2} + y^{3/2}),\ 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,\ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$

11. The part of the surface $z = xy$ that lies within the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

12. The part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ that lies above the plane $z = 1$

13. The part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ that lies within the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = ax$ and above the xy-plane

14. The part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4z$ that lies inside the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$

T **15–16** Find the area of the surface correct to four decimal places by first simplifying an expression for area to one in terms of a single integral, and then evaluating the integral numerically.

15. The part of the surface $z = 1/(1 + x^2 + y^2)$ that lies above the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$

16. The part of the surface $z = \cos(x^2 + y^2)$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

17. (a) Use the Midpoint Rule for double integrals (see Section 15.1) with four squares to estimate the surface area of the portion of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ that lies above the square $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$.

T (b) Use a computer algebra system to approximate the surface area in part (a) to four decimal places. Compare with the answer to part (a).

18. (a) Use the Midpoint Rule for double integrals with $m = n = 2$ to estimate the area of the surface $z = xy + x^2 + y^2,\ 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2,\ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2$.

T (b) Use a computer algebra system to approximate the surface area in part (a) to four decimal places. Compare with the answer to part (a).

T **19.** Use a computer algebra system to find the exact area of the surface $z = 1 + 2x + 3y + 4y^2$, $1 \leqslant x \leqslant 4$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$.

T **20.** Use a computer algebra system to find the exact area of the surface

$$z = 1 + x + y + x^2 \qquad -2 \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \quad -1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$$

Illustrate by graphing the surface.

T **21.** Use a computer algebra system to find, correct to four decimal places, the area of the part of the surface $z = 1 + x^2y^2$ that lies above the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$.

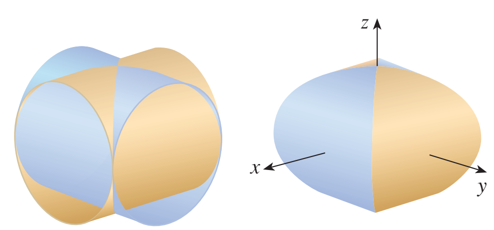
T **22.** Use a computer algebra system to find, correct to four decimal places, the area of the part of the surface $z = (1 + x^2)/(1 + y^2)$ that lies above the square $|x| + |y| \leqslant 1$. Illustrate by graphing this part of the surface.

23. Show that the area of the part of the plane $z = ax + by + c$ that projects onto a region D in the xy-plane with area $A(D)$ is $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + 1}\,A(D)$.

24. If you attempt to use Formula 2 to find the area of the top half of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$, you have a slight problem because the double integral is improper. In fact, the integrand has an infinite discontinuity at every point of the boundary circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$. However, the integral can be computed as the limit of the integral over the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant t^2$ as $t \to a^-$. Use this method to show that the area of a sphere of radius a is $4\pi a^2$.

25. Find the area of the finite part of the paraboloid $y = x^2 + z^2$ cut off by the plane $y = 25$. [*Hint:* Project the surface onto the xz-plane.]

26. The figure shows the surface created when the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 1$ intersects the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 1$. Find the area of this surface.



15.6 Triple Integrals

Just as we defined single integrals for functions of one variable and double integrals for functions of two variables, so we can define triple integrals for functions of three variables.

Triple Integrals over Rectangular Boxes

Let's first deal with the simplest case where f is defined on a rectangular box:

$$\boxed{1} \qquad B = \{(x, y, z) \mid a \leqslant x \leqslant b,\ c \leqslant y \leqslant d,\ r \leqslant z \leqslant s\}$$

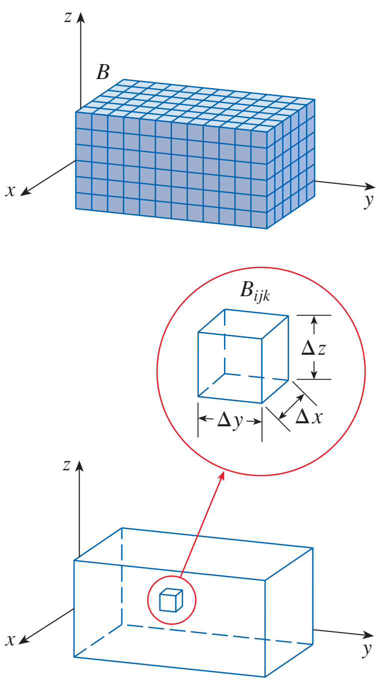


FIGURE 1

The first step is to divide B into sub-boxes. We do this by dividing the interval $[a, b]$ into l subintervals $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ of equal width Δx, dividing $[c, d]$ into m subintervals of width Δy, and dividing $[r, s]$ into n subintervals of width Δz. The planes through the endpoints of these subintervals parallel to the coordinate planes divide the box B into lmn sub-boxes

$$B_{ijk} = [x_{i-1}, x_i] \times [y_{j-1}, y_j] \times [z_{k-1}, z_k]$$

which are shown in Figure 1. Each sub-box has volume $\Delta V = \Delta x\, \Delta y\, \Delta z$.

Then we form the **triple Riemann sum**

2
$$\sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(x_{ijk}^*, y_{ijk}^*, z_{ijk}^*)\, \Delta V$$

where the sample point $(x_{ijk}^*, y_{ijk}^*, z_{ijk}^*)$ is in B_{ijk}. By analogy with the definition of a double integral (15.1.5), we define the triple integral as the limit of the triple Riemann sums in (2).

3 Definitio The **triple integral** of f over the box B is

$$\iiint_B f(x, y, z)\, dV = \lim_{l, m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(x_{ijk}^*, y_{ijk}^*, z_{ijk}^*)\, \Delta V$$

if this limit exists.

Again, the triple integral always exists if f is continuous. We can choose the sample point to be any point in the sub-box, but if we choose it to be the point (x_i, y_j, z_k) we get a simpler-looking expression for the triple integral:

$$\iiint_B f(x, y, z)\, dV = \lim_{l, m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(x_i, y_j, z_k)\, \Delta V$$

Just as for double integrals, the practical method for evaluating triple integrals is to express them as iterated integrals as follows.

4 Fubini's Theorem for Triple Integrals If f is continuous on the rectangular box $B = [a, b] \times [c, d] \times [r, s]$, then

$$\iiint_B f(x, y, z)\, dV = \int_r^s \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dy\, dz$$

The iterated integral on the right side of Fubini's Theorem means that we integrate first with respect to x (keeping y and z fixed), then we integrate with respect to y (keeping z fixed), and finally we integrate with respect to z. There are five other possible orders in which we can integrate, all of which give the same value. For instance, if we integrate with respect to y, then z, and then x, we have

$$\iiint_B f(x, y, z)\, dV = \int_a^b \int_r^s \int_c^d f(x, y, z)\, dy\, dz\, dx$$

EXAMPLE 1 Evaluate the triple integral $\iiint_B xyz^2\,dV$, where B is the rectangular box given by

$$B = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,\ -1 \leqslant y \leqslant 2,\ 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 3\}$$

SOLUTION We could use any of the six possible orders of integration. If we choose to integrate with respect to x, then y, and then z, we obtain

$$\iiint_B xyz^2\,dV = \int_0^3 \int_{-1}^2 \int_0^1 xyz^2\,dx\,dy\,dz = \int_0^3 \int_{-1}^2 \left[\frac{x^2yz^2}{2}\right]_{x=0}^{x=1} dy\,dz$$

$$= \int_0^3 \int_{-1}^2 \frac{yz^2}{2}\,dy\,dz = \int_0^3 \left[\frac{y^2z^2}{4}\right]_{y=-1}^{y=2} dz$$

$$= \int_0^3 \frac{3z^2}{4}\,dz = \frac{z^3}{4}\bigg]_0^3 = \frac{27}{4}$$

Triple Integrals over General Regions

Now we define the **triple integral over a general bounded region *E*** in three-dimensional space (a solid) by much the same procedure that we used for double integrals (15.2.2). We enclose E in a box B of the type given by Equation 1. Then we define F so that it agrees with f on E but is 0 for points in B that are outside E. By definition,

$$\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\,dV = \iiint_B F(x, y, z)\,dV$$

This integral exists if f is continuous and the boundary of E is "reasonably smooth." The triple integral has essentially the same properties as the double integral (Properties 5–8 in Section 15.2).

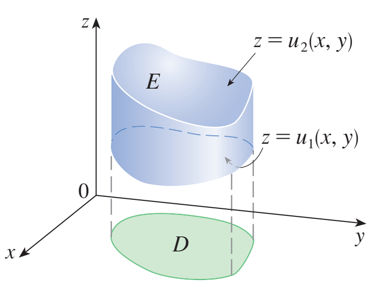


FIGURE 2
A type 1 solid region

We restrict our attention to continuous functions f and to certain simple types of regions. A solid region E is said to be of **type 1** if it lies between the graphs of two continuous functions of x and y, that is,

5 $$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid (x, y) \in D,\ u_1(x, y) \leqslant z \leqslant u_2(x, y)\}$$

where D is the projection of E onto the xy-plane as shown in Figure 2. Notice that the upper boundary of the solid E is the surface with equation $z = u_2(x, y)$, while the lower boundary is the surface $z = u_1(x, y)$.

By the same sort of argument that led to (15.2.3), it can be shown that if E is a type 1 region given by Equation 5, then

6 $$\boxed{\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\,dV = \iint_D \left[\int_{u_1(x, y)}^{u_2(x, y)} f(x, y, z)\,dz\right] dA}$$

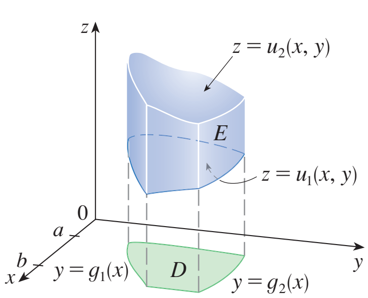


FIGURE 3
A type 1 solid region where the projection D is a type I plane region

The meaning of the inner integral on the right side of Equation 6 is that x and y are held fixed, and therefore $u_1(x, y)$ and $u_2(x, y)$ are regarded as constants, while $f(x, y, z)$ is integrated with respect to z.

In particular, if the projection D of E onto the xy-plane is a type I plane region (as in Figure 3), then

$$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid a \leqslant x \leqslant b,\ g_1(x) \leqslant y \leqslant g_2(x),\ u_1(x, y) \leqslant z \leqslant u_2(x, y)\}$$

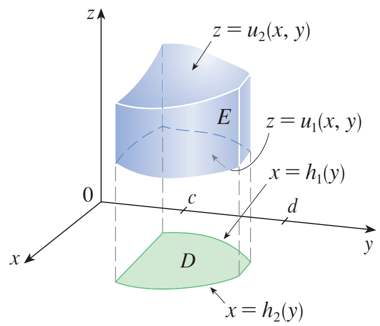


FIGURE 4
A type 1 solid region with a type II projection

and Equation 6 becomes

7
$$\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV = \int_a^b \int_{g_1(x)}^{g_2(x)} \int_{u_1(x, y)}^{u_2(x, y)} f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dy\, dx$$

If, on the other hand, D is a type II plane region (as in Figure 4), then

$$E = \left\{(x, y, z) \mid c \leqslant y \leqslant d,\ h_1(y) \leqslant x \leqslant h_2(y),\ u_1(x, y) \leqslant z \leqslant u_2(x, y)\right\}$$

and Equation 6 becomes

8
$$\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV = \int_c^d \int_{h_1(y)}^{h_2(y)} \int_{u_1(x, y)}^{u_2(x, y)} f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dx\, dy$$

EXAMPLE 2 Evaluate $\iiint_E z\, dV$ where E is the solid in the first octant bounded by the surface $z = 12xy$ and the planes $y = x$, $x = 1$.

SOLUTION When we set up a triple integral it's wise to draw *two* diagrams: one of the solid region E (Figure 5) and, for a type 1 region, one of its projection D onto the xy-plane (Figure 6). The lower boundary of the solid E is the plane $z = 0$ and the upper boundary is the surface $z = 12xy$, so we use $u_1(x, y) = 0$ and $u_2(x, y) = 12xy$ in Formula 7. Notice that the projection of E onto the xy-plane is the triangular region shown in Figure 6, and we have

9
$$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant x, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 12xy\}$$

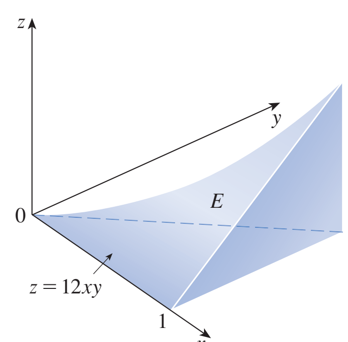


FIGURE 5

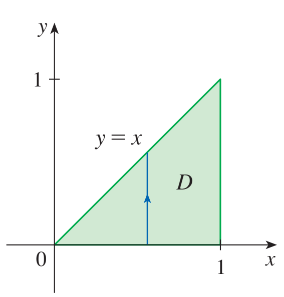


FIGURE 6

This description of E as a type 1 region enables us to evaluate the integral as follows:

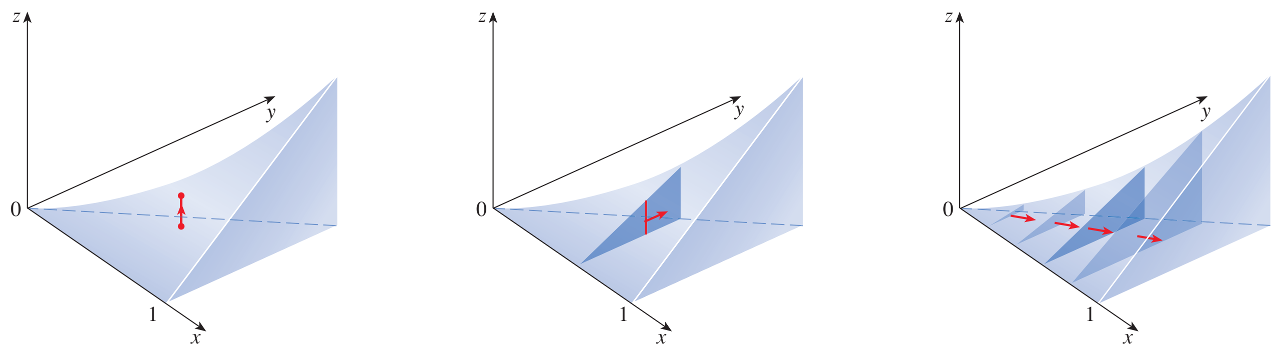
$$\iiint_E z\, dV = \int_0^1 \int_0^x \int_0^{12xy} z\, dz\, dy\, dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^x \left[\frac{z^2}{2}\right]_{z=0}^{z=12xy} dy\, dx$$

$$= \tfrac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \int_0^x (12xy)^2\, dy\, dx = 72 \int_0^1 \int_0^x x^2 y^2\, dy\, dx$$

$$= 72 \int_0^1 \left[x^2 \frac{y^3}{3}\right]_{y=0}^{y=x} dx = 24 \int_0^1 x^5\, dx = 24\left[\frac{x^6}{6}\right]_{x=0}^{x=1} = 4$$

■

Figure 7 shows how the solid E of Example 2 is swept out by the iterated triple integral if we integrate first with respect to z, then y, then x.



z varies from 0 to xy while x and y are constant.

y varies from 0 to x while x is constant.

x varies from 0 to 1.

FIGURE 7

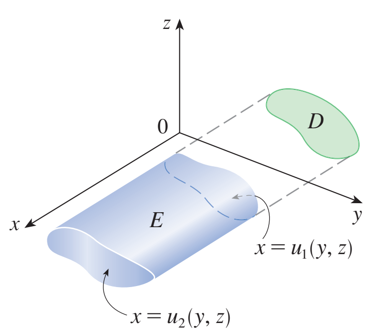


FIGURE 8
A type 2 region

A solid region E is of **type 2** if it is of the form

$$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid (y, z) \in D,\ u_1(y, z) \leqslant x \leqslant u_2(y, z)\}$$

where, this time, D is the projection of E onto the yz-plane (see Figure 8). The back surface is $x = u_1(y, z)$, the front surface is $x = u_2(y, z)$, and we have

10 $$\iiint\limits_E f(x, y, z)\, dV = \iint\limits_D \left[\int_{u_1(y, z)}^{u_2(y, z)} f(x, y, z)\, dx\right] dA$$

Finally, a **type 3** region is of the form

$$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid (x, z) \in D,\ u_1(x, z) \leqslant y \leqslant u_2(x, z)\}$$

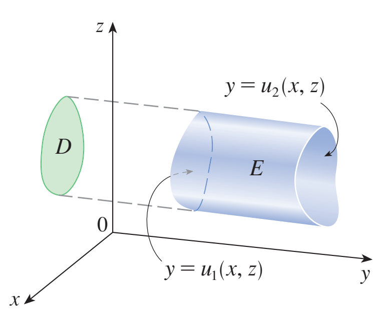


FIGURE 9
A type 3 region

where D is the projection of E onto the xz-plane, $y = u_1(x, z)$ is the left surface, and $y = u_2(x, z)$ is the right surface (see Figure 9). For this type of region we have

11 $$\iiint\limits_E f(x, y, z)\, dV = \iint\limits_D \left[\int_{u_1(x, z)}^{u_2(x, z)} f(x, y, z)\, dy\right] dA$$

In each of Equations 10 and 11 there may be two possible expressions for the integral depending on whether D is a type I or type II plane region (and corresponding to Equations 7 and 8).

EXAMPLE 3 Evaluate $\iiint_E \sqrt{x^2 + z^2}\, dV$, where E is the region bounded by the paraboloid $y = x^2 + z^2$ and the plane $y = 4$.

SOLUTION The solid E is shown in Figure 10. If we regard it as a type 1 region, then we need to consider its projection D_1 onto the xy-plane, which is the parabolic region shown in Figures 10 and 11. (The trace of $y = x^2 + z^2$ in the plane $z = 0$ is the parabola $y = x^2$.)

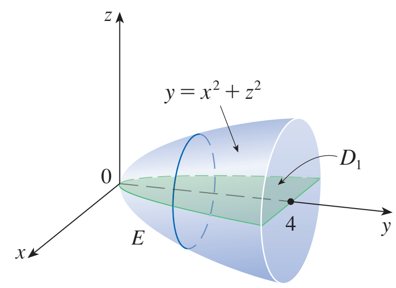


FIGURE 10
Region of integration

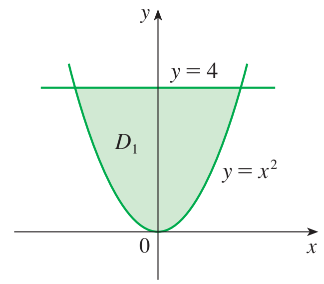


FIGURE 11
Projection onto the xy-plane

From $y = x^2 + z^2$ we obtain $z = \pm\sqrt{y - x^2}$, so the lower boundary surface of E is $z = -\sqrt{y - x^2}$ and the upper surface is $z = \sqrt{y - x^2}$. Therefore the description of E as a type 1 region is

$$E = \left\{(x, y, z) \mid -2 \leqslant x \leqslant 2,\ x^2 \leqslant y \leqslant 4,\ -\sqrt{y - x^2} \leqslant z \leqslant \sqrt{y - x^2}\right\}$$

and so we obtain

$$\iiint_E \sqrt{x^2 + z^2}\, dV = \int_{-2}^{2} \int_{x^2}^{4} \int_{-\sqrt{y-x^2}}^{\sqrt{y-x^2}} \sqrt{x^2 + z^2}\, dz\, dy\, dx$$

Although this expression is correct, it is extremely difficult to evaluate. So let's instead consider E as a region of a different type. If we regard E as a type 3 region, then we need to consider its projection D_3 onto the xz-plane, which is the disk $x^2 + z^2 \leqslant 4$ shown in Figures 12 and 13. (The trace of $y = x^2 + z^2$ in the plane $y = 4$ is the circle $x^2 + z^2 = 4$.)

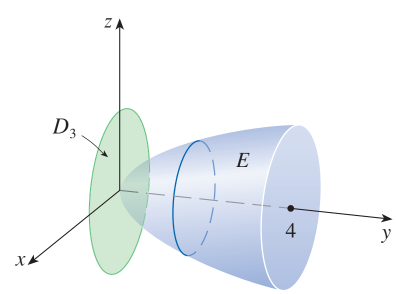


FIGURE 12
Region of integration

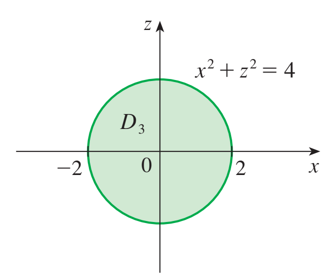


FIGURE 13
Projection onto the xz-plane

Then the left boundary of E is the paraboloid $y = x^2 + z^2$ and the right boundary is the plane $y = 4$, so taking $u_1(x, z) = x^2 + z^2$ and $u_2(x, z) = 4$ in Equation 11, we have

$$\iiint_E \sqrt{x^2 + z^2}\, dV = \iint_{D_3} \left[\int_{x^2+z^2}^{4} \sqrt{x^2 + z^2}\, dy\right] dA = \iint_{D_3} (4 - x^2 - z^2)\sqrt{x^2 + z^2}\, dA$$

The most difficult step in evaluating a triple integral is setting up an expression for the region of integration (such as Equation 9 in Example 2). Remember that the limits of integration in the inner integral contain at most two variables, the limits of integration in the middle integral contain at most one variable, and the limits of integration in the outer integral must be constants.

Although this integral could be written as

$$\int_{-2}^{2}\int_{-\sqrt{4-x^2}}^{\sqrt{4-x^2}} (4 - x^2 - z^2)\sqrt{x^2+z^2}\,dz\,dx$$

it's easier to convert to polar coordinates in the xz-plane: $x = r\cos\theta$, $z = r\sin\theta$. This gives

$$\begin{aligned}\iiint_E \sqrt{x^2+z^2}\,dV &= \iint_{D_3} (4 - x^2 - z^2)\sqrt{x^2+z^2}\,dA \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^2 (4 - r^2) r\, r\,dr\,d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^2 (4r^2 - r^4)\,dr \\ &= 2\pi\left[\frac{4r^3}{3} - \frac{r^5}{5}\right]_0^2 = \frac{128\pi}{15}\end{aligned}$$

Changing the Order of Integration

Fubini's Theorem for Triple Integrals allows us to express a triple integral as an iterated integral, and there are six different orders of integration in which we can do this. Given an iterated integral, it may be advantageous to change the order of integration because evaluating an iterated integral in one order may be simpler than in another. In the next example we investigate equivalent iterated integrals using different orders of integration.

EXAMPLE 4 Express the iterated integral $\int_0^1 \int_0^{x^2} \int_0^y f(x, y, z)\,dz\,dy\,dx$ as a triple integral and then rewrite it as an iterated integral in the following orders.
(a) Integrate first with respect to x, then z, and then y.
(b) Integrate first with respect to y, then x, and then z.

SOLUTION We can write

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^{x^2} \int_0^y f(x, y, z)\,dz\,dy\,dx = \iiint_E f(x, y, z)\,dV$$

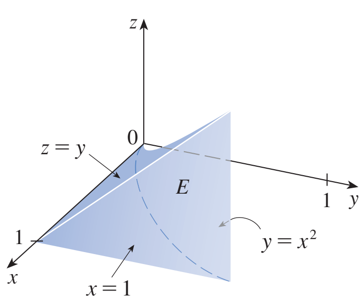


FIGURE 14 The solid E

where $E = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant x^2, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant y\}$. From this description of E as a type 1 region we see that E lies between the lower surface $z = 0$ and the upper surface $z = y$, and its projection onto the xy-plane is $\{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant x^2\}$, as shown in Figures 14 and 15. So E is the solid enclosed by the planes $z = 0$, $x = 1$, $y = z$ and the parabolic cylinder $y = x^2$ $\left(\text{or } x = \sqrt{y}\right)$.

Using Figure 14 as a guide, we can write projections onto the three coordinate planes as follows (see Figure 15):

$$\begin{aligned}\text{onto the } xy\text{-plane:}\quad D_1 &= \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant x^2\} \\ &= \left\{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1, \sqrt{y} \leqslant x \leqslant 1\right\} \\ \text{onto the } yz\text{-plane:}\quad D_2 &= \{(y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant y\} \\ &= \{(y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 1, z \leqslant y \leqslant 1\} \\ \text{onto the } xz\text{-plane:}\quad D_3 &= \{(x, z) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant x^2\} \\ &= \left\{(x, z) \mid 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 1, \sqrt{z} \leqslant x \leqslant 1\right\}\end{aligned}$$

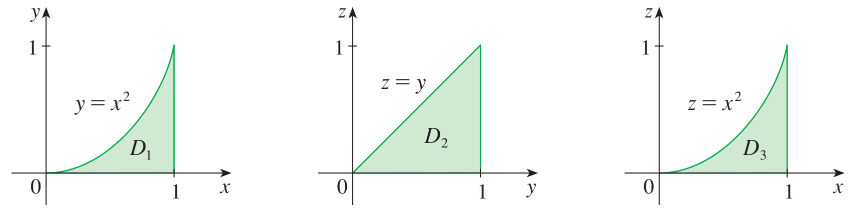


FIGURE 15
Projections of E

(a) In order to integrate first with respect to x, then z, and then y, we need to consider E as a type 2 region where the back boundary is the surface $x = \sqrt{y}$ and the front boundary is the plane $x = 1$; the projection onto the yz-plane is D_2. We describe E by

$$E = \left\{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant y, \sqrt{y} \leqslant x \leqslant 1\right\}$$

and then $$\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV = \int_0^1 \int_0^y \int_{\sqrt{y}}^1 f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dz\, dy$$

(b) In order to integrate first with respect to y, then x, and then z, we need to consider E as a type 3 region where the left boundary is the plane $y = z$ and the right boundary is the surface $y = x^2$. The projection onto the xz-plane is D_3 and

$$E = \left\{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 1, \sqrt{z} \leqslant x \leqslant 1, z \leqslant y \leqslant x^2\right\}$$

Thus $$\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV = \int_0^1 \int_{\sqrt{z}}^1 \int_z^{x^2} f(x, y, z)\, dy\, dx\, dz$$ ■

Applications of Triple Integrals

Recall that if $f(x) \geqslant 0$, then the single integral $\int_a^b f(x)\, dx$ represents the area under the curve $y = f(x)$ from a to b, and if $f(x, y) \geqslant 0$, then the double integral $\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA$ represents the volume under the surface $z = f(x, y)$ and above D. The corresponding interpretation of a triple integral $\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV$, where $f(x, y, z) \geqslant 0$, is not very useful because it would be the "hypervolume" of a four-dimensional object and, of course, that is very difficult to visualize. (Remember that E is just the *domain* of the function f; the graph of f lies in four-dimensional space.) Nonetheless, the triple integral $\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV$ can be interpreted in different ways in different physical situations, depending on the physical interpretations of x, y, z, and $f(x, y, z)$.

Let's begin with the special case where $f(x, y, z) = 1$ for all points in E. Then the triple integral does represent the volume of E:

12 $$\boxed{V(E) = \iiint_E dV}$$

For example, you can see this in the case of a type 1 region by putting $f(x, y, z) = 1$ in Formula 6:

$$\iiint_E 1\, dV = \iint_D \left[\int_{u_1(x, y)}^{u_2(x, y)} dz\right] dA = \iint_D [u_2(x, y) - u_1(x, y)]\, dA$$

and from Section 15.2 we know this represents the volume that lies between the surfaces $z = u_1(x, y)$ and $z = u_2(x, y)$.

EXAMPLE 5 Use a triple integral to find the volume of the tetrahedron T bounded by the planes $x + 2y + z = 2$, $x = 2y$, $x = 0$, and $z = 0$.

SOLUTION The tetrahedron T and its projection D onto the xy-plane are shown in Figures 16 and 17. The lower boundary of T is the plane $z = 0$ and the upper boundary is the plane $x + 2y + z = 2$, that is, $z = 2 - x - 2y$.

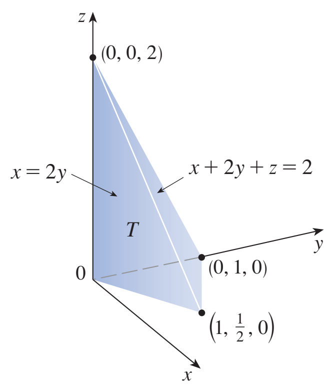


FIGURE 16

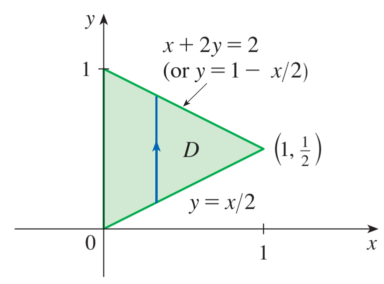


FIGURE 17

Therefore we have

$$V(T) = \iiint_T dV = \int_0^1 \int_{x/2}^{1-x/2} \int_0^{2-x-2y} dz\, dy\, dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \int_{x/2}^{1-x/2} (2 - x - 2y)\, dy\, dx = \tfrac{1}{3}$$

by the same calculation as in Example 15.2.4.

(Notice that it is not necessary to use triple integrals to compute volumes. They simply give an alternative method for setting up the calculation.) ■

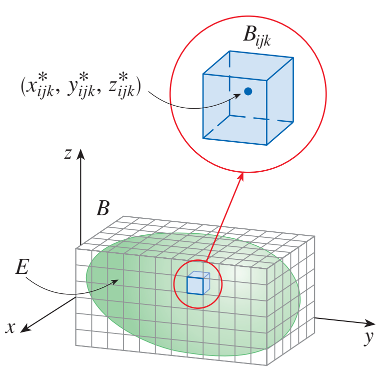


FIGURE 18
The mass of each sub-box B_{ijk} is approximated by $\rho(x^*_{ijk}, y^*_{ijk}, z^*_{ijk})\, \Delta V$

All the applications of double integrals in Section 15.4 can be extended to triple integrals using analogous reasoning. For example, suppose that a solid object occupying a region E has density $\rho(x, y, z)$, in units of mass per unit volume, at each point (x, y, z) in E. To find the total mass m of E we divide a rectangular box B containing E into sub-boxes B_{ijk} of the same size (as in Figure 18), and consider $\rho(x, y, z)$ to be 0 outside E. If we choose a point $(x^*_{ijk}, y^*_{ijk}, z^*_{ijk})$ in B_{ijk}, then the mass of the part of E that occupies B_{ijk} is approximately $\rho(x^*_{ijk}, y^*_{ijk}, z^*_{ijk})\, \Delta V$, where ΔV is the volume of B_{ijk}. We get an approximation to the total mass by adding the (approximate) masses of all the sub-boxes, and if we increase the number of sub-boxes, we obtain the total mass m of E as the limiting value of the approximations:

$$\boxed{13} \qquad m = \lim_{l, m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \rho(x^*_{ijk}, y^*_{ijk}, z^*_{ijk})\, \Delta V = \iiint_E \rho(x, y, z)\, dV$$

Similarly, the **moments** of E about the three coordinate planes are

$$\boxed{14} \qquad M_{yz} = \iiint_E x\,\rho(x, y, z)\, dV \qquad M_{xz} = \iiint_E y\,\rho(x, y, z)\, dV$$

$$M_{xy} = \iiint_E z\,\rho(x, y, z)\, dV$$

The **center of mass** is located at the point $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$, where

$$\boxed{15} \qquad \bar{x} = \frac{M_{yz}}{m} \qquad \bar{y} = \frac{M_{xz}}{m} \qquad \bar{z} = \frac{M_{xy}}{m}$$

If the density is constant, the center of mass of the solid is called the **centroid** of E. The **moments of inertia** about the three coordinate axes are

$$\boxed{16} \quad I_x = \iiint_E (y^2 + z^2)\,\rho(x, y, z)\,dV \qquad I_y = \iiint_E (x^2 + z^2)\,\rho(x, y, z)\,dV$$

$$I_z = \iiint_E (x^2 + y^2)\,\rho(x, y, z)\,dV$$

As in Section 15.4, the total **electric charge** on a solid object occupying a region E and having charge density $\sigma(x, y, z)$ is

$$Q = \iiint_E \sigma(x, y, z)\,dV$$

If we have three continuous random variables X, Y, and Z, their **joint density function** is a function of three variables such that the probability that (X, Y, Z) lies in E is

$$P((X, Y, Z) \in E) = \iiint_E f(x, y, z)\,dV$$

In particular,

$$P(a \leqslant X \leqslant b,\ c \leqslant Y \leqslant d,\ r \leqslant Z \leqslant s) = \int_a^b \int_c^d \int_r^s f(x, y, z)\,dz\,dy\,dx$$

The joint density function satisfies

$$f(x, y, z) \geqslant 0 \qquad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y, z)\,dz\,dy\,dx = 1$$

EXAMPLE 6 Find the center of mass of a solid of constant density that is bounded by the parabolic cylinder $x = y^2$ and the planes $x = z$, $z = 0$, and $x = 1$.

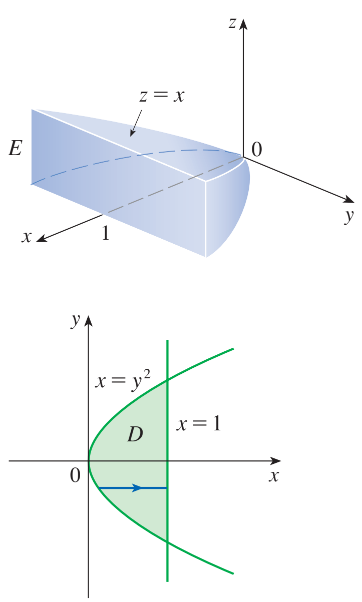


FIGURE 19

SOLUTION The solid E and its projection onto the xy-plane are shown in Figure 19. The lower and upper surfaces of E are the planes $z = 0$ and $z = x$, so we describe E as a type 1 region:

$$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid -1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1,\ y^2 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,\ 0 \leqslant z \leqslant x\}$$

Then, if the density is $\rho(x, y, z) = \rho$, the mass is

$$m = \iiint_E \rho\,dV = \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{y^2}^{1} \int_0^x \rho\,dz\,dx\,dy$$

$$= \rho \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{y^2}^{1} x\,dx\,dy = \rho \int_{-1}^{1} \left[\frac{x^2}{2}\right]_{x=y^2}^{x=1} dy$$

$$= \frac{\rho}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} (1 - y^4)\,dy = \rho \int_0^1 (1 - y^4)\,dy$$

$$= \rho\left[y - \frac{y^5}{5}\right]_0^1 = \frac{4\rho}{5}$$

Because of the symmetry of E and ρ about the xz-plane, we can immediately say that $M_{xz} = 0$ and therefore $\bar{y} = 0$. The other moments are

$$M_{yz} = \iiint_E x\rho\, dV = \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{y^2}^{1} \int_0^x x\rho\, dz\, dx\, dy$$

$$= \rho \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{y^2}^{1} x^2\, dx\, dy = \rho \int_{-1}^{1} \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{x=y^2}^{x=1} dy$$

$$= \frac{2\rho}{3} \int_0^1 (1 - y^6)\, dy = \frac{2\rho}{3} \left[y - \frac{y^7}{7} \right]_0^1 = \frac{4\rho}{7}$$

$$M_{xy} = \iiint_E z\rho\, dV = \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{y^2}^{1} \int_0^x z\rho\, dz\, dx\, dy$$

$$= \rho \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{y^2}^{1} \left[\frac{z^2}{2} \right]_{z=0}^{z=x} dx\, dy = \frac{\rho}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{y^2}^{1} x^2\, dx\, dy$$

$$= \frac{\rho}{3} \int_0^1 (1 - y^6)\, dy = \frac{2\rho}{7}$$

Therefore the center of mass is

$$(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z}) = \left(\frac{M_{yz}}{m}, \frac{M_{xz}}{m}, \frac{M_{xy}}{m} \right) = \left(\tfrac{5}{7}, 0, \tfrac{5}{14}\right)$$ ■

15.6 Exercises

1. Evaluate the integral in Example 1, integrating first with respect to y, then z, and then x.

2. Evaluate the integral $\iiint_E (xy + z^2)\, dV$, where

$$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 3\}$$

using three different orders of integration.

3–8 Evaluate the iterated integral.

3. $\displaystyle\int_0^2 \int_0^{z^2} \int_0^{y-z} (2x - y)\, dx\, dy\, dz$

4. $\displaystyle\int_0^1 \int_y^{2y} \int_0^{x+y} 6xy\, dz\, dx\, dy$

5. $\displaystyle\int_1^2 \int_0^{2z} \int_0^{\ln x} xe^{-y}\, dy\, dx\, dz$

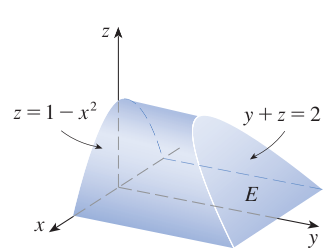
6. $\displaystyle\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2x} \int_0^{x+z} \cos(x - 2y + z)\, dy\, dz\, dx$

7. $\displaystyle\int_1^3 \int_{-1}^{2} \int_{-y}^{z} \frac{z}{y}\, dx\, dz\, dy$

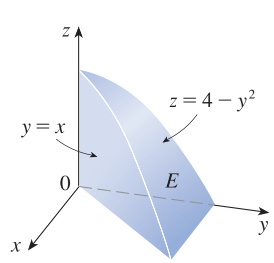
8. $\displaystyle\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^{2-x^2-y^2} xye^z\, dz\, dy\, dx$

9–12
(a) Express the triple integral $\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV$ as an iterated integral for the given function f and solid region E.
(b) Evaluate the iterated integral.

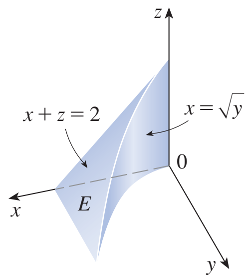
9. $f(x, y, z) = x$



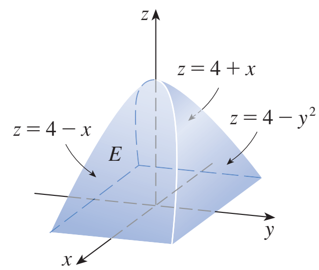
10. $f(x, y, z) = xy$



11. $f(x, y, z) = x + y$



12. $f(x, y, z) = 2$



13–22 Evaluate the triple integral.

13. $\iiint_E y\,dV$, where
$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 3, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant x, x - y \leqslant z \leqslant x + y\}$

14. $\iiint_E e^{z/y}\,dV$, where
$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1, y \leqslant x \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant xy\}$

15. $\iiint_E (1/x^3)\,dV$, where
$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant y^2, 1 \leqslant x \leqslant z + 1\}$

16. $\iiint_E \sin y\,dV$, where E lies below the plane $z = x$ and above the triangular region with vertices $(0, 0, 0)$, $(\pi, 0, 0)$, and $(0, \pi, 0)$

17. $\iiint_E 6xy\,dV$, where E lies under the plane $z = 1 + x + y$ and above the region in the xy-plane bounded by the curves $y = \sqrt{x}$, $y = 0$, and $x = 1$

18. $\iiint_E (x - y)\,dV$, where E is enclosed by the surfaces $z = x^2 - 1$, $z = 1 - x^2$, $y = 0$, and $y = 2$

19. $\iiint_T y^2\,dV$, where T is the solid tetrahedron with vertices $(0, 0, 0)$, $(2, 0, 0)$, $(0, 2, 0)$, and $(0, 0, 2)$

20. $\iiint_T xz\,dV$, where T is the solid tetrahedron with vertices $(0, 0, 0)$, $(1, 0, 1)$, $(0, 1, 1)$, and $(0, 0, 1)$

21. $\iiint_E x\,dV$, where E is bounded by the paraboloid $x = 4y^2 + 4z^2$ and the plane $x = 4$

22. $\iiint_E z\,dV$, where E is bounded by the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 9$ and the planes $x = 0$, $y = 3x$, and $z = 0$ in the first octant

23–26 Use a triple integral to find the volume of the given solid.

23. The tetrahedron enclosed by the coordinate planes and the plane $2x + y + z = 4$

24. The solid enclosed by the paraboloids $y = x^2 + z^2$ and $y = 8 - x^2 - z^2$

25. The solid enclosed by the cylinder $y = x^2$ and the planes $z = 0$ and $y + z = 1$

26. The solid enclosed by the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 4$ and the planes $y = -1$ and $y + z = 4$

27. (a) Express the volume of the wedge in the first octant that is cut from the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 1$ by the planes $y = x$ and $x = 1$ as a triple integral.

T (b) Use either the Table of Integrals (on Reference Pages 6–10) or a computer algebra system to find the exact value of the triple integral in part (a).

28–30 Midpoint Rule for Triple Integrals In the *Midpoint Rule for triple integrals* we use a triple Riemann sum to approximate a triple integral over a box B, where $f(x, y, z)$ is evaluated at the center $(\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_j, \bar{z}_k)$ of the box B_{ijk}. Use the Midpoint Rule to estimate the value of the integral. Divide B into eight sub-boxes of equal size.

28. $\iiint_B \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}\,dV$, where
$B = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 4, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 4, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 4\}$

29. $\iiint_B \cos(xyz)\,dV$, where
$B = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 1\}$

30. $\iiint_B \sqrt{x}\,e^{xyz}\,dV$, where
$B = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 4, 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 2\}$

31–32 Sketch the solid whose volume is given by the iterated integral.

31. $\displaystyle\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{2-2z} dy\,dz\,dx$

32. $\displaystyle\int_0^2 \int_0^{2-y} \int_0^{4-y^2} dx\,dz\,dy$

33–36 Express the integral $\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\,dV$ as an iterated integral in six different ways, where E is the solid bounded by the given surfaces.

33. $y = 4 - x^2 - 4z^2$, $y = 0$

34. $y^2 + z^2 = 9$, $x = -2$, $x = 2$

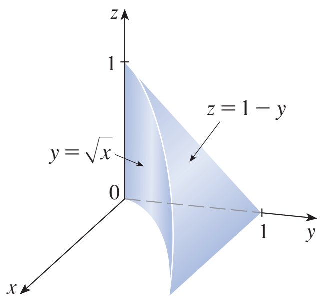
35. $y = x^2$, $z = 0$, $y + 2z = 4$

36. $x = 2$, $y = 2$, $z = 0$, $x + y - 2z = 2$

37. The figure shows the region of integration for the integral

$$\int_0^1 \int_{\sqrt{x}}^1 \int_0^{1-y} f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dy\, dx$$

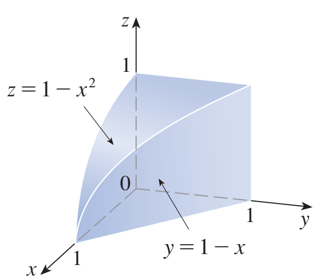
Rewrite this integral as an equivalent iterated integral in the five other orders.



38. The figure shows the region of integration for the integral

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x^2} \int_0^{1-x} f(x, y, z)\, dy\, dz\, dx$$

Rewrite this integral as an equivalent iterated integral in the five other orders.



39–40 Write five other iterated integrals that are equal to the given iterated integral.

39. $\int_0^1 \int_y^1 \int_0^y f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dx\, dy$ **40.** $\int_0^1 \int_y^1 \int_0^z f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dz\, dy$

41–42 Evaluate the triple integral using only geometric interpretation and symmetry.

41. $\iiint_C (4 + 5x^2yz^2)\, dV$, where C is the cylindrical region $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 4$, $-2 \leqslant z \leqslant 2$

42. $\iiint_B (z^3 + \sin y + 3)\, dV$, where B is the unit ball $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 1$

43–46 Find the mass and center of mass of the solid E with the given density function ρ.

43. E lies above the xy-plane and below the paraboloid $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$; $\rho(x, y, z) = 3$

44. E is bounded by the parabolic cylinder $z = 1 - y^2$ and the planes $x + z = 1$, $x = 0$, and $z = 0$; $\rho(x, y, z) = 4$

45. E is the cube given by $0 \leqslant x \leqslant a$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant a$, $0 \leqslant z \leqslant a$; $\rho(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

46. E is the tetrahedron bounded by the planes $x = 0$, $y = 0$, $z = 0$, $x + y + z = 1$; $\rho(x, y, z) = y$

47–50 Assume that the solid has constant density k.

47. Find the moments of inertia for a cube with side length L if one vertex is located at the origin and three edges lie along the coordinate axes.

48. Find the moments of inertia for a rectangular brick with dimensions a, b, and c and mass M if the center of the brick is situated at the origin and the edges are parallel to the coordinate axes.

49. Find the moment of inertia about the z-axis of the solid cylinder $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant a^2$, $0 \leqslant z \leqslant h$.

50. Find the moment of inertia about the z-axis of the solid cone $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \leqslant z \leqslant h$.

51–52 Set up, but do not evaluate, integral expressions for (a) the mass, (b) the center of mass, and (c) the moment of inertia about the z-axis.

51. The solid of Exercise 25; $\rho(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

52. The hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 1$, $z \geqslant 0$; $\rho(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

T **53.** Let E be the solid in the first octant bounded by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the planes $y = z$, $x = 0$, and $z = 0$ with the density function $\rho(x, y, z) = 1 + x + y + z$. Use a computer algebra system to find the exact values of the following quantities for E.
(a) The mass
(b) The center of mass
(c) The moment of inertia about the z-axis

T **54.** If E is the solid of Exercise 22 with density function $\rho(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2$, find the following quantities, correct to three decimal places.
(a) The mass
(b) The center of mass
(c) The moment of inertia about the z-axis

55. The joint density function for random variables X, Y, and Z is $f(x, y, z) = Cxyz$ if $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2$, $0 \leqslant z \leqslant 2$, and $f(x, y, z) = 0$ otherwise.
(a) Find the value of the constant C.
(b) Find $P(X \leqslant 1, Y \leqslant 1, Z \leqslant 1)$.
(c) Find $P(X + Y + Z \leqslant 1)$.

56. Suppose X, Y, and Z are random variables with joint density function $f(x, y, z) = Ce^{-(0.5x+0.2y+0.1z)}$ if $x \geqslant 0$, $y \geqslant 0$, $z \geqslant 0$, and $f(x, y, z) = 0$ otherwise.
(a) Find the value of the constant C.
(b) Find $P(X \leqslant 1, Y \leqslant 1)$.
(c) Find $P(X \leqslant 1, Y \leqslant 1, Z \leqslant 1)$.

57–58 Average Value The *average value* of a function $f(x, y, z)$ over a solid region E is defined to be

$$f_{\text{avg}} = \frac{1}{V(E)} \iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV$$

where $V(E)$ is the volume of E. For instance, if ρ is a density function, then ρ_{avg} is the average density of E.

57. Find the average value of the function $f(x, y, z) = xyz$ over the cube with side length L that lies in the first octant with one vertex at the origin and edges parallel to the coordinate axes.

58. Find the average height of the points in the solid hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 1$, $z \geqslant 0$.

59. (a) Find the region E for which the triple integral

$$\iiint_E (1 - x^2 - 2y^2 - 3z^2)\, dV$$

is a maximum.
T (b) Use a computer algebra system to calculate the exact maximum value of the triple integral in part (a).

DISCOVERY PROJECT | VOLUMES OF HYPERSPHERES

In this project we find formulas for the volume enclosed by a hypersphere in n-dimensional space. The hypersphere in $\mathbb{R}^n$ of radius r centered at the origin has equation

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + \cdots + x_n^2 = r^2$$

Let $V_n(r)$ denote the volume enclosed by this hypersphere. A hypersphere in $\mathbb{R}^2$ is a circle and in $\mathbb{R}^3$, a sphere.

1. Use a double integral and trigonometric substitution, together with Formula 64 in the Table of Integrals, to find the area enclosed by a circle of radius r in $\mathbb{R}^2$.

2. Use a triple integral and trigonometric substitution to find the volume $V_3(r)$ enclosed by a sphere with radius r in $\mathbb{R}^3$.

3. Use a quadruple integral to find the (4-dimensional) volume $V_4(r)$ enclosed by the hypersphere of radius r in $\mathbb{R}^4$. (Use only trigonometric substitution and the reduction formulas for $\int \sin^n x\, dx$ or $\int \cos^n x\, dx$.)

4. Use an n-tuple integral to find the volume $V_n(r)$ enclosed by a hypersphere of radius r in $\mathbb{R}^n$. [*Hint:* The formulas are different for n even and n odd.]

5. Show that the volume $V_n(1)$ enclosed by the unit hypersphere in $\mathbb{R}^n$ approaches zero as n increases.

15.7 Triple Integrals in Cylindrical Coordinates

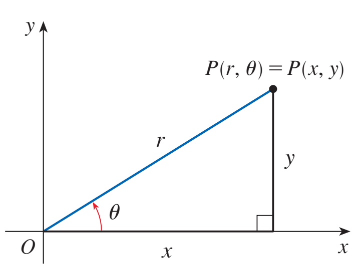


FIGURE 1

In plane geometry the polar coordinate system is used to give a convenient description of certain curves and regions. (See Section 10.3.) Figure 1 enables us to recall the connection between polar and Cartesian coordinates. If the point P has Cartesian coordinates (x, y) and polar coordinates (r, θ), then, from the figure,

$$x = r\cos\theta \qquad y = r\sin\theta$$

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2 \qquad \tan\theta = \frac{y}{x}$$

In three dimensions there is a coordinate system, called *cylindrical coordinates*, that is similar to polar coordinates and gives convenient descriptions of some commonly occurring surfaces and solids. As we will see, some triple integrals are much easier to evaluate in cylindrical coordinates.

Cylindrical Coordinates

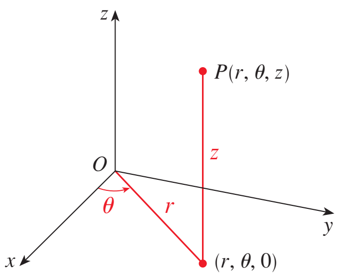


FIGURE 2
The cylindrical coordinates of a point

In the **cylindrical coordinate system**, a point P in three-dimensional space is represented by the ordered triple (r, θ, z), where r and θ are polar coordinates of the projection of P onto the xy-plane and z is the directed distance from the xy-plane to P. (See Figure 2.)

To convert from cylindrical to rectangular coordinates, we use the equations

1
$$\boxed{x = r\cos\theta \qquad y = r\sin\theta \qquad z = z}$$

whereas to convert from rectangular to cylindrical coordinates, we use

2
$$\boxed{r^2 = x^2 + y^2 \qquad \tan\theta = \frac{y}{x} \qquad z = z}$$

EXAMPLE 1

(a) Plot the point with cylindrical coordinates $(2, 2\pi/3, 1)$ and find its rectangular coordinates.
(b) Find cylindrical coordinates of the point with rectangular coordinates $(3, -3, -7)$.

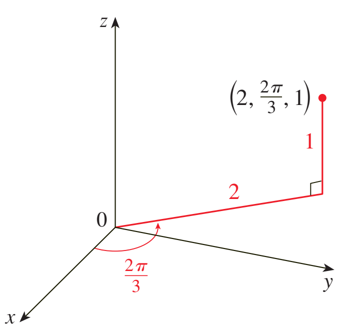


FIGURE 3

SOLUTION
(a) The point with cylindrical coordinates $(2, 2\pi/3, 1)$ is plotted in Figure 3. From Equations 1, its rectangular coordinates are

$$x = 2\cos\frac{2\pi}{3} = 2\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = -1$$

$$y = 2\sin\frac{2\pi}{3} = 2\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = \sqrt{3}$$

$$z = 1$$

So the point is $\left(-1, \sqrt{3}, 1\right)$ in rectangular coordinates.

(b) From Equations 2 and noting that θ is in quadrant IV of the xy-plane, we have

$$r = \sqrt{3^2 + (-3)^2} = 3\sqrt{2}$$

$$\tan\theta = \frac{-3}{3} = -1 \qquad \text{so} \qquad \theta = \frac{7\pi}{4} + 2n\pi$$

$$z = -7$$

Therefore one set of cylindrical coordinates is $\left(3\sqrt{2}, 7\pi/4, -7\right)$. Another is $\left(3\sqrt{2}, -\pi/4, -7\right)$. As with polar coordinates, there are infinitely many choices. ■

Cylindrical coordinates are useful in problems that involve symmetry about an axis, and the z-axis is chosen to coincide with this axis of symmetry. For instance, the axis of the circular cylinder with Cartesian equation $x^2 + y^2 = c^2$ is the z-axis. In cylindrical coordinates this cylinder has the very simple equation $r = c$. (See Figure 4.) This is the reason for the name "cylindrical" coordinates. The graph of the equation $\theta = c$ is a vertical plane through the origin (see Figure 5), and the graph of the equation $z = c$ is a horizontal plane (see Figure 6).

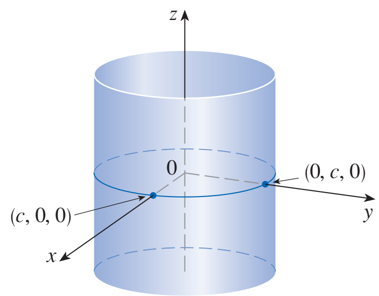


FIGURE 4
$r = c$, a cylinder

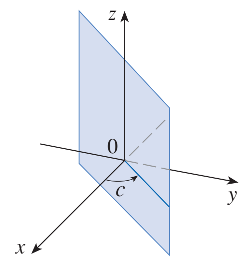


FIGURE 5
$\theta = c$, a vertical plane

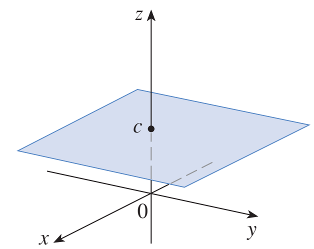


FIGURE 6
$z = c$, a horizontal plane

EXAMPLE 2 Describe the surface whose equation in cylindrical coordinates is $z = r$.

SOLUTION The equation says that the z-value, or height, of each point on the surface is the same as r, the distance from the point to the z-axis. Because θ doesn't appear, it can vary. So any horizontal trace in the plane $z = k$ ($k > 0$) is a circle of radius k. These traces suggest that the surface is a cone. This prediction can be confirmed by converting the equation into rectangular coordinates. From the first equation in (2) we have

$$z^2 = r^2 = x^2 + y^2$$

We recognize the equation $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$ (by comparison with Table 1 in Section 12.6) as being a circular cone whose axis is the z-axis (see Figure 7). ■

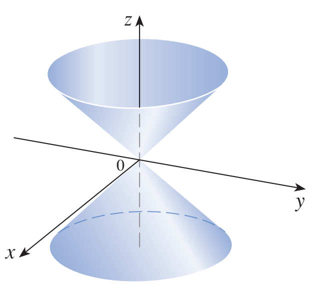


FIGURE 7
$z = r$, a cone

Triple Integrals in Cylindrical Coordinates

Suppose that E is a type 1 region whose projection D onto the xy-plane is conveniently described in polar coordinates (see Figure 8). In particular, suppose that f is continuous and

$$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid (x, y) \in D,\ u_1(x, y) \leqslant z \leqslant u_2(x, y)\}$$

where D is given in polar coordinates by

$$D = \{(r, \theta) \mid \alpha \leqslant \theta \leqslant \beta,\ h_1(\theta) \leqslant r \leqslant h_2(\theta)\}$$

We know from Equation 15.6.6 that

$$\boxed{3} \qquad \iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV = \iint_D \left[\int_{u_1(x, y)}^{u_2(x, y)} f(x, y, z)\, dz \right] dA$$

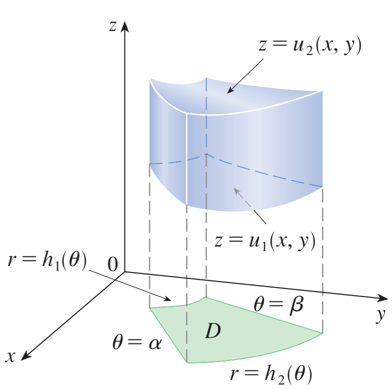


FIGURE 8

But we also know how to evaluate double integrals in polar coordinates. In fact, combining Equation 3 with Equation 15.3.3, we obtain

$$\boxed{4} \qquad \iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV = \int_\alpha^\beta \int_{h_1(\theta)}^{h_2(\theta)} \int_{u_1(r\cos\theta,\, r\sin\theta)}^{u_2(r\cos\theta,\, r\sin\theta)} f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta, z)\, r\, dz\, dr\, d\theta$$

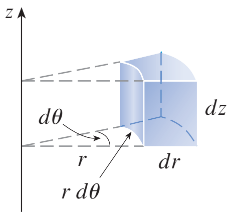


FIGURE 9
Volume element in cylindrical coordinates: $dV = r\,dz\,dr\,d\theta$

Formula 4 is the **formula for triple integration in cylindrical coordinates**. It says that we convert a triple integral from rectangular to cylindrical coordinates by writing $x = r\cos\theta$, $y = r\sin\theta$, leaving z as it is, using the appropriate limits of integration for z, r, and θ, and replacing dV by $r\,dz\,dr\,d\theta$. (Figure 9 shows how to remember this.) It is worthwhile to use this formula when E is a solid region easily described in cylindrical coordinates, and especially when the function $f(x, y, z)$ involves the expression $x^2 + y^2$.

EXAMPLE 3 Evaluate $\iiint_E x^2\,dV$, where E is the solid that lies under the paraboloid $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$ and above the xy-plane (see Figure 10).

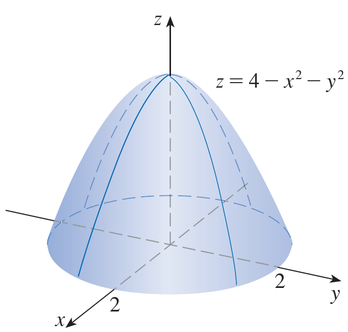


FIGURE 10

SOLUTION Because E is symmetric about the z-axis, we use cylindrical coordinates. In addition, cylindrical coordinates are appropriate because the paraboloid $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2 = 4 - (x^2 + y^2)$ is easily expressed in cylindrical coordinates as $z = 4 - r^2$. The paraboloid intersects the xy-plane in the circle $r^2 = 4$ or, equivalently, $r = 2$, so the projection of E onto the xy-plane is the disk $r \leqslant 2$. Thus the region E is given by

$$\{(r, \theta, z) \mid 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi,\ 0 \leqslant r \leqslant 2,\ 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 4 - r^2\}$$

and from Formula 4 we have

$$\begin{aligned}\iiint_E x^2\,dV &= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^2\int_0^{4-r^2} (r\cos\theta)^2\,r\,dz\,dr\,d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^2 (r^3\cos^2\theta)](4 - r^2)\,dr\,d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi}\cos^2\theta\,d\theta \int_0^2 (4r^3 - r^5)\,dr \\ &= \tfrac{1}{2}\Big[\theta + \tfrac{1}{2}\sin 2\theta\Big]_0^{2\pi}\Big[r^4 - \tfrac{1}{6}r^6\Big]_0^2 \\ &= \tfrac{1}{2}(2\pi)\big(16 - \tfrac{32}{3}\big) = \tfrac{16}{3}\pi\end{aligned}$$ ■

Figure 11 shows how the solid E in Example 3 is swept out by the iterated triple integral if we integrate first with respect to z, then r, then θ.

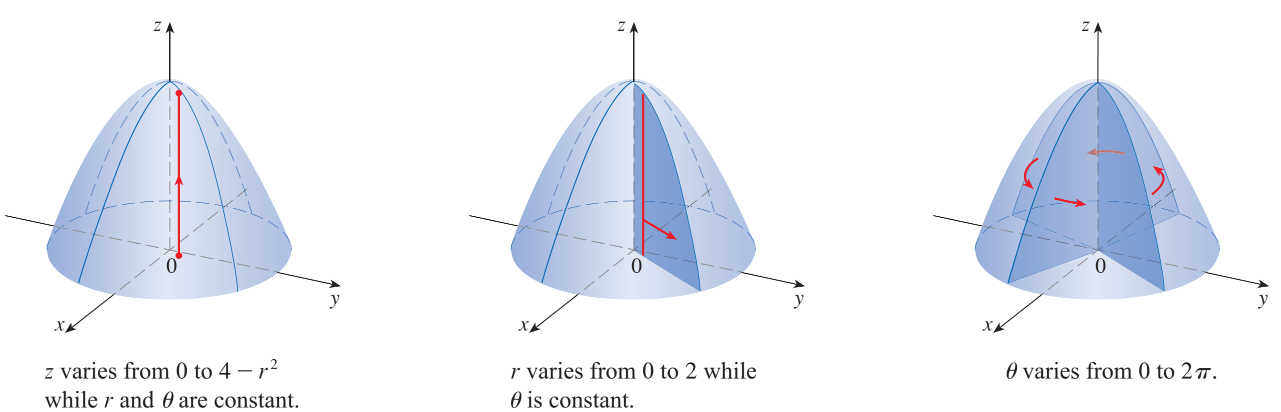


FIGURE 11

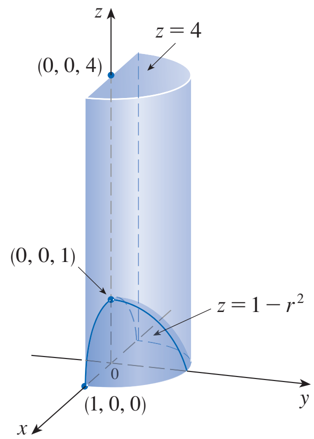


FIGURE 12

EXAMPLE 4 A solid E lies within the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ to the right of the xz-plane, below the plane $z = 4$, and above the paraboloid $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$. (See Figure 12.) The density at any point is proportional to its distance from the axis of the cylinder. Find the mass of E.

SOLUTION In cylindrical coordinates the cylinder is $r = 1$ and the paraboloid is $z = 1 - r^2$, so we can write

$$E = \{(r, \theta, z) \mid 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi,\ 0 \leqslant r \leqslant 1,\ 1 - r^2 \leqslant z \leqslant 4\}$$

Since the density at (x, y, z) is proportional to the distance from the z-axis, the density function is

$$\rho(x, y, z) = K\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = Kr$$

where K is the proportionality constant. Therefore, from Formula 15.6.13, the mass of E is

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \iiint_E K\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\, dV = \int_0^{\pi}\int_0^1\int_{1-r^2}^4 (Kr)\, r\, dz\, dr\, d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\pi}\int_0^1 Kr^2[4 - (1 - r^2)]\, dr\, d\theta = K\int_0^{\pi} d\theta \int_0^1 (3r^2 + r^4)\, dr \\ &= \pi K\left[r^3 + \frac{r^5}{5}\right]_0^1 = \frac{6\pi K}{5} \end{aligned}$$

■

EXAMPLE 5 Evaluate $\displaystyle\int_{-2}^{2}\int_{-\sqrt{4-x^2}}^{\sqrt{4-x^2}}\int_{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}^{2} (x^2 + y^2)\, dz\, dy\, dx$.

SOLUTION This iterated integral is a triple integral over the solid region

$$E = \left\{(x, y, z) \mid -2 \leqslant x \leqslant 2,\ -\sqrt{4 - x^2} \leqslant y \leqslant \sqrt{4 - x^2},\ \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \leqslant z \leqslant 2\right\}$$

and the projection of E onto the xy-plane is the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 4$. The lower surface of E is the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and its upper surface is the plane $z = 2$. (See Figure 13.) This region has a much simpler description in cylindrical coordinates:

$$E = \{(r, \theta, z) \mid 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi,\ 0 \leqslant r \leqslant 2,\ r \leqslant z \leqslant 2\}$$

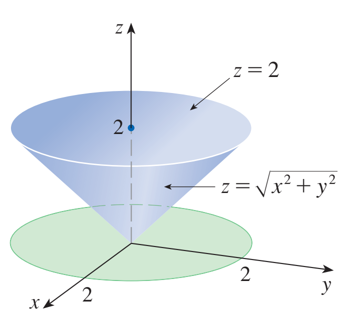


FIGURE 13

Therefore we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-2}^{2}\int_{-\sqrt{4-x^2}}^{\sqrt{4-x^2}}\int_{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}^{2} (x^2 + y^2)\, dz\, dy\, dx &= \iiint_E (x^2 + y^2)\, dV \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^2\int_r^2 r^2\, r\, dz\, dr\, d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^2 r^3(2 - r)\, dr \\ &= 2\pi\left[\tfrac{1}{2}r^4 - \tfrac{1}{5}r^5\right]_0^2 = \tfrac{16}{5}\pi \end{aligned}$$

■

15.7 Exercises

1–2 Plot the point whose cylindrical coordinates are given. Then find the rectangular coordinates of the point.

1. (a) $(5, \pi/2, 2)$
(b) $(6, -\pi/4, -3)$

2. (a) $(2, 5\pi/6, 1)$
(b) $(8, -2\pi/3, 5)$

3–4 Change from rectangular to cylindrical coordinates.

3. (a) $(4, 4, -3)$
(b) $\left(5\sqrt{3}, -5, \sqrt{3}\right)$

4. (a) $(0, -2, 9)$
(b) $\left(-1, \sqrt{3}, 6\right)$

5–6 Describe in words the surface whose equation is given.

5. $r = 2$ **6.** $\theta = \pi/6$

7–8 Identify the surface whose equation is given.

7. $r^2 + z^2 = 4$ **8.** $r = 2\sin\theta$

9–10 Write the equations in cylindrical coordinates.

9. (a) $x^2 - x + y^2 + z^2 = 1$
(b) $z = x^2 - y^2$

10. (a) $2x^2 + 2y^2 - z^2 = 4$
(b) $2x - y + z = 1$

11–12 Sketch the solid described by the given inequalities.

11. $r^2 \leqslant z \leqslant 8 - r^2$

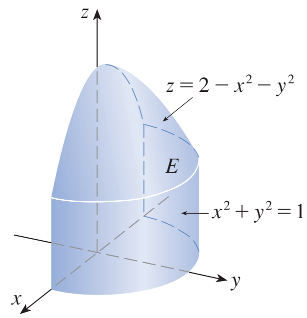
12. $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/2, \quad r \leqslant z \leqslant 2$

13. A cylindrical shell is 20 cm long, with inner radius 6 cm and outer radius 7 cm. Write inequalities that describe the shell in an appropriate coordinate system. Explain how you have positioned the coordinate system with respect to the shell.

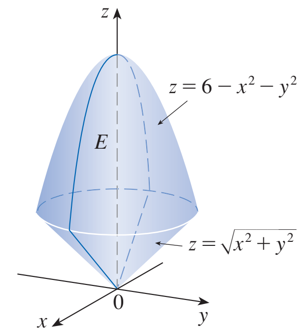
14. Use graphing software to draw the solid enclosed by the paraboloids $z = x^2 + y^2$ and $z = 5 - x^2 - y^2$.

15–16
(a) Express the triple integral $\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV$ as an iterated integral in cylindrical coordinates for the given function f and solid region E.
(b) Evaluate the iterated integral.

15. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2$



16. $f(x, y, z) = xy$



17–18 Sketch the solid whose volume is given by the integral and evaluate the integral.

17. $\displaystyle\int_{\pi/2}^{3\pi/2} \int_0^3 \int_{r^2}^{9} r\, dz\, dr\, d\theta$

18. $\displaystyle\int_0^2 \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{r} r\, dz\, d\theta\, dr$

19–30 Use cylindrical coordinates.

19. Evaluate $\iiint_E \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\, dV$, where E is the region that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 16$ and between the planes $z = -5$ and $z = 4$.

20. Evaluate $\iiint_E z\, dV$, where E is enclosed by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and the plane $z = 4$.

21. Evaluate $\iiint_E (x + y + z)\, dV$, where E is the solid in the first octant that lies under the paraboloid $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$.

22. Evaluate $\iiint_E (x - y)\, dV$, where E is the solid that lies between the cylinders $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 16$, above the xy-plane, and below the plane $z = y + 4$.

23. Evaluate $\iiint_E x^2\, dV$, where E is the solid that lies within the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, above the plane $z = 0$, and below the cone $z^2 = 4x^2 + 4y^2$.

24. Find the volume of the solid that lies within both the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$.

25. Find the volume of the solid that is enclosed by the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2$.

26. Find the volume of the solid that lies between the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2$.

27. (a) Find the volume of the region E that lies between the paraboloid $z = 24 - x^2 - y^2$ and the cone $z = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$.
(b) Find the centroid of E (the center of mass in the case where the density is constant).

28. (a) Find the volume of the solid that the cylinder $r = a \cos\theta$ cuts out of the sphere of radius a centered at the origin.
(b) Illustrate the solid of part (a) by graphing the sphere and the cylinder on the same screen.

29. Find the mass and center of mass of the solid S bounded by the paraboloid $z = 4x^2 + 4y^2$ and the plane $z = a$ $(a > 0)$ if S has constant density K.

30. Find the mass of a ball B given by $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant a^2$ if the density at any point is proportional to its distance from the z-axis.

31–32 Evaluate the integral by changing to cylindrical coordinates.

31. $\displaystyle\int_{-2}^{2} \int_{-\sqrt{4-y^2}}^{\sqrt{4-y^2}} \int_{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}^{2} xz\, dz\, dx\, dy$

32. $\displaystyle\int_{-3}^{3} \int_{0}^{\sqrt{9-x^2}} \int_{0}^{9-x^2-y^2} \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\, dz\, dy\, dx$

33. When studying the formation of mountain ranges, geologists estimate the amount of work required to lift a mountain from sea level. Consider a mountain that is essentially in the shape of a right circular cone. Suppose that the weight density of the material in the vicinity of a point P is $g(P)$ and the height is $h(P)$.
(a) Find a definite integral that represents the total work done in forming the mountain.
(b) Assume that Mount Fuji in Japan is in the shape of a right circular cone with radius 19,000 m, height 3800 m, and density a constant 3200 kg/m^3. How much work was done in forming Mount Fuji if the land was initially at sea level?

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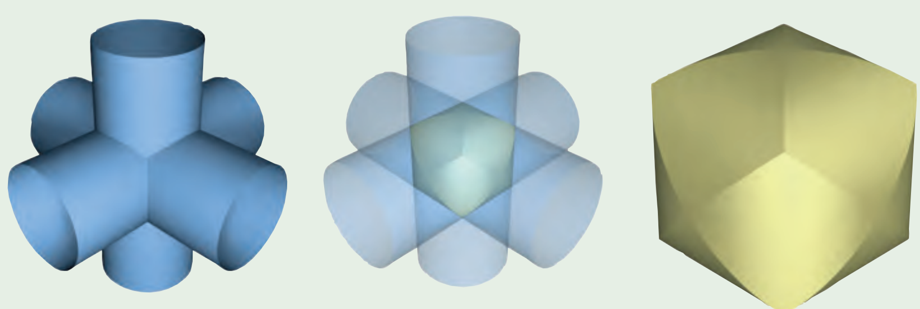
DISCOVERY PROJECT | THE INTERSECTION OF THREE CYLINDERS

The figure shows the solid enclosed by three circular cylinders with the same diameter that intersect at right angles. In this project we compute its volume and determine how its shape changes if the cylinders have different diameters.



1. Sketch carefully the solid enclosed by the three cylinders $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, $x^2 + z^2 = 1$, and $y^2 + z^2 = 1$. Indicate the positions of the coordinate axes and label the faces with the equations of the corresponding cylinders.

2. Find the volume of the solid in Problem 1.

3. Use graphing software to draw the edges of the solid.

4. What happens to the solid in Problem 1 if the radius of the first cylinder is different from 1? Illustrate with a hand-drawn sketch or a computer graph.

5. If the first cylinder is $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$, where $a < 1$, set up, but do not evaluate, a double integral for the volume of the solid. What if $a > 1$?

15.8 Triple Integrals in Spherical Coordinates

Another useful coordinate system in three dimensions is the *spherical coordinate system.* It simplifies the evaluation of triple integrals over regions bounded by spheres or cones.

Spherical Coordinates

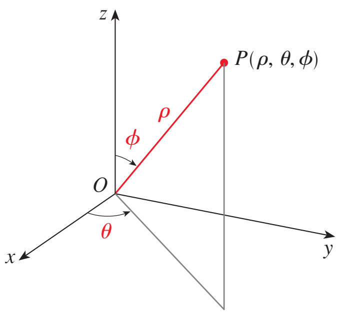


FIGURE 1
The spherical coordinates of a point

The **spherical coordinates** (ρ, θ, ϕ) of a point P in space are shown in Figure 1, where $\rho = |OP|$ is the distance from the origin to P, θ is the same angle as in cylindrical coordinates, and ϕ is the angle between the positive z-axis and the line segment OP. Note that

$$\rho \geqslant 0 \qquad 0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi$$

The spherical coordinate system is especially useful in problems where there is symmetry about a point, and the origin is placed at this point. For example, the sphere with center the origin and radius c has the simple equation $\rho = c$ (see Figure 2): this is the reason for the name "spherical" coordinates. The graph of the equation $\theta = c$ is a vertical half-plane (see Figure 3), and the equation $\phi = c$ represents a half-cone with the z-axis as its axis (see Figure 4).

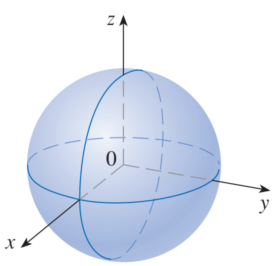


FIGURE 2 $\rho = c$, a sphere

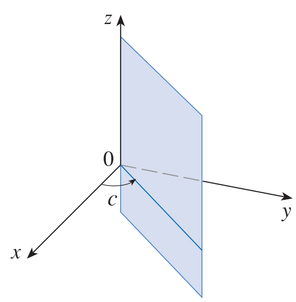


FIGURE 3 $\theta = c$, a half-plane

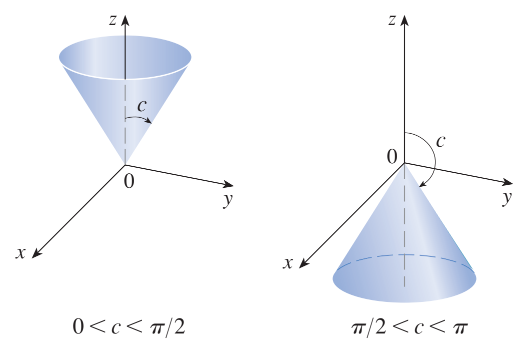


FIGURE 4 $\phi = c$, a half-cone

The relationship between rectangular and spherical coordinates can be seen from Figure 5. From triangles OPQ and OPP' we have

$$z = \rho \cos \phi \qquad r = \rho \sin \phi$$

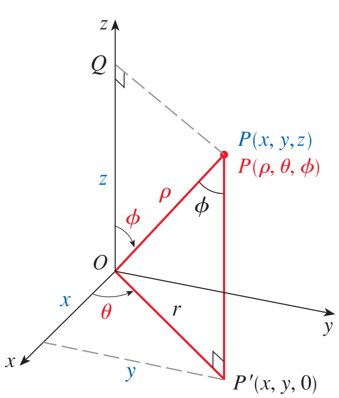


FIGURE 5

But $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$, so to convert from spherical to rectangular coordinates, we use the equations

1
$$\boxed{x = \rho \sin \phi \, \cos \theta \qquad y = \rho \sin \phi \, \sin \theta \qquad z = \rho \cos \phi}$$

Also, the distance formula shows that

2
$$\boxed{\rho^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

We use this equation in converting from rectangular to spherical coordinates.

EXAMPLE 1 The point $(2, \pi/4, \pi/3)$ is given in spherical coordinates. Plot the point and find its rectangular coordinates.

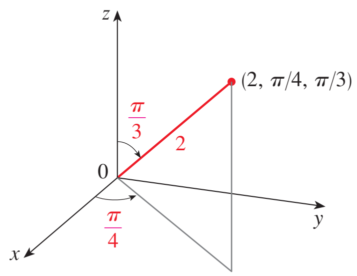


FIGURE 6

SOLUTION We plot the point in Figure 6. From Equations 1 we have

$$x = \rho \sin\phi \cos\theta = 2 \sin\frac{\pi}{3} \cos\frac{\pi}{4} = 2\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}$$

$$y = \rho \sin\phi \sin\theta = 2 \sin\frac{\pi}{3} \sin\frac{\pi}{4} = 2\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}$$

$$z = \rho \cos\phi = 2 \cos\frac{\pi}{3} = 2\left(\tfrac{1}{2}\right) = 1$$

Thus the point $(2, \pi/4, \pi/3)$ is $\left(\sqrt{3/2}, \sqrt{3/2}, 1\right)$ in rectangular coordinates. ■

EXAMPLE 2 The point $\left(0, 2\sqrt{3}, -2\right)$ is given in rectangular coordinates. Find spherical coordinates for this point.

WARNING There is not universal agreement on the notation for spherical coordinates. Most books on physics reverse the meanings of θ and ϕ and use r in place of ρ.

SOLUTION From Equation 2 we have $\rho = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = \sqrt{0 + 12 + 4} = 4$ and so Equations 1 give

$$\cos\phi = \frac{z}{\rho} = \frac{-2}{4} = -\frac{1}{2} \qquad \phi = \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

$$\cos\theta = \frac{x}{\rho \sin\phi} = 0 \qquad \theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

(Note that $\theta \neq 3\pi/2$ because $y = 2\sqrt{3} > 0$.) Therefore spherical coordinates of the given point are $(4, \pi/2, 2\pi/3)$. ■

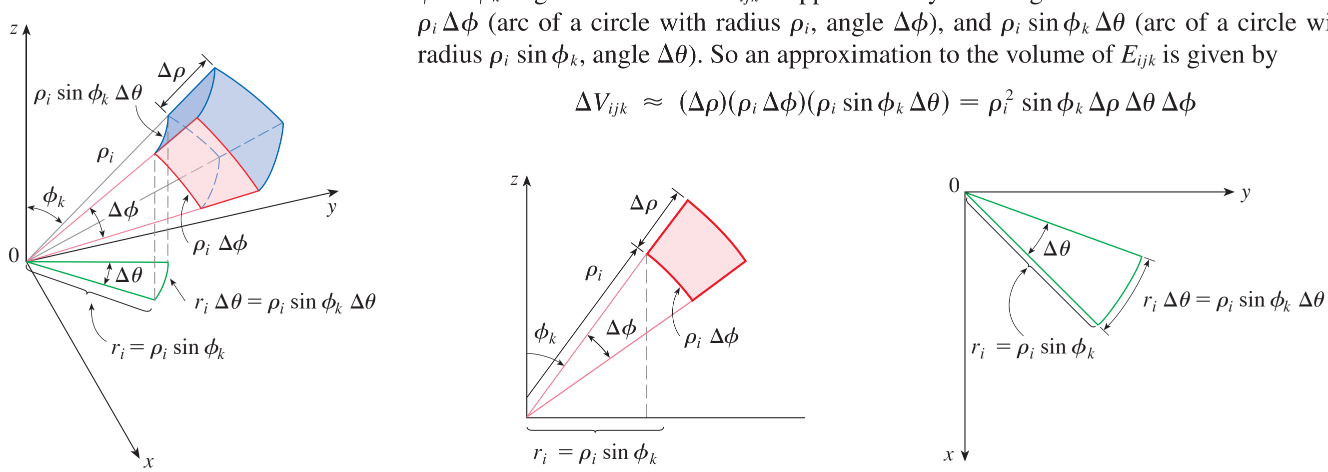
Triple Integrals in Spherical Coordinates

In the spherical coordinate system the counterpart of a rectangular box is a **spherical wedge**

$$E = \left\{(\rho, \theta, \phi) \mid a \leqslant \rho \leqslant b,\ \alpha \leqslant \theta \leqslant \beta,\ c \leqslant \phi \leqslant d\right\}$$

where $a \geqslant 0$ and $\beta - \alpha \leqslant 2\pi$, and $d - c \leqslant \pi$. Although we defined triple integrals by dividing solids into small boxes, it can be shown that dividing a solid into small spherical wedges always gives the same result. So we divide E into smaller spherical wedges E_{ijk} by means of equally spaced spheres $\rho = \rho_i$, half-planes $\theta = \theta_j$, and half-cones $\phi = \phi_k$. Figure 7 shows that E_{ijk} is approximately a rectangular box with dimensions $\Delta\rho$, $\rho_i\,\Delta\phi$ (arc of a circle with radius ρ_i, angle $\Delta\phi$), and $\rho_i \sin\phi_k\,\Delta\theta$ (arc of a circle with radius $\rho_i \sin\phi_k$, angle $\Delta\theta$). So an approximation to the volume of E_{ijk} is given by

$$\Delta V_{ijk} \approx (\Delta\rho)(\rho_i\,\Delta\phi)(\rho_i \sin\phi_k\,\Delta\theta) = \rho_i^2 \sin\phi_k\,\Delta\rho\,\Delta\theta\,\Delta\phi$$



(a) A spherical wedge (b) Side view (c) Top view

FIGURE 7

In fact, it can be shown, with the aid of the Mean Value Theorem (Exercise 51), that the volume of E_{ijk} is given exactly by

$$\Delta V_{ijk} = \tilde{\rho}_i^2 \sin \tilde{\phi}_k \, \Delta\rho \, \Delta\theta \, \Delta\phi$$

where $(\tilde{\rho}_i, \tilde{\theta}_j, \tilde{\phi}_k)$ is some point in E_{ijk}. Let $(x_{ijk}^*, y_{ijk}^*, z_{ijk}^*)$ be the rectangular coordinates of this point. Then

$$\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV = \lim_{l, m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(x_{ijk}^*, y_{ijk}^*, z_{ijk}^*)\, \Delta V_{ijk}$$

$$= \lim_{l, m, n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(\tilde{\rho}_i \sin \tilde{\phi}_k \cos \tilde{\theta}_j, \tilde{\rho}_i \sin \tilde{\phi}_k \sin \tilde{\theta}_j, \tilde{\rho}_i \cos \tilde{\phi}_k)\, \tilde{\rho}_i^2 \sin \tilde{\phi}_k \, \Delta\rho \, \Delta\theta \, \Delta\phi$$

But this sum is a Riemann sum for the function

$$F(\rho, \theta, \phi) = f(\rho \sin\phi \cos\theta, \rho \sin\phi \sin\theta, \rho \cos\phi)\, \rho^2 \sin\phi$$

Consequently, we have arrived at the following **formula for triple integration in spherical coordinates**.

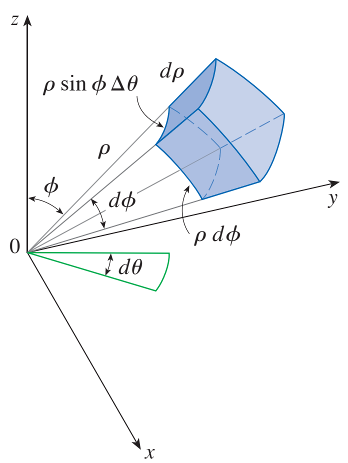


FIGURE 8
Volume element in spherical coordinates: $dV = \rho^2 \sin\phi \, d\rho \, d\theta \, d\phi$

3 $$\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV$$

$$= \int_c^d \int_\alpha^\beta \int_a^b f(\rho \sin\phi \cos\theta, \rho \sin\phi \sin\theta, \rho \cos\phi)\, \rho^2 \sin\phi \, d\rho \, d\theta \, d\phi$$

where E is a spherical wedge given by

$$E = \{(\rho, \theta, \phi) \mid a \leqslant \rho \leqslant b, \ \alpha \leqslant \theta \leqslant \beta, \ c \leqslant \phi \leqslant d\}$$

Formula 3 says that we convert a triple integral from rectangular coordinates to spherical coordinates by writing

$$x = \rho \sin\phi \cos\theta \qquad y = \rho \sin\phi \sin\theta \qquad z = \rho \cos\phi$$

using the appropriate limits of integration and replacing dV by $\rho^2 \sin\phi \, d\rho \, d\theta \, d\phi$. This is illustrated in Figure 8.

This formula can be extended to include more general spherical regions such as

$$E = \{(\rho, \theta, \phi) \mid \alpha \leqslant \theta \leqslant \beta, \ c \leqslant \phi \leqslant d, \ g_1(\theta, \phi) \leqslant \rho \leqslant g_2(\theta, \phi)\}$$

In this case the formula is the same as in (3) except that the limits of integration for ρ are $g_1(\theta, \phi)$ and $g_2(\theta, \phi)$.

Usually, spherical coordinates are used in triple integrals when surfaces such as cones and spheres form the boundary of the region of integration.

EXAMPLE 3 Evaluate $\iiint_B e^{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}}\, dV$, where B is the unit ball:

$$B = \{(x, y, z) \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 1\}$$

SOLUTION Since the boundary of B is a sphere, we use spherical coordinates:

$$B = \{(\rho, \theta, \phi) \mid 0 \leqslant \rho \leqslant 1, \ 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi, \ 0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi\}$$

In addition, spherical coordinates are appropriate because

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = \rho^2$$

Thus (3) gives

$$\iiint_B e^{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}}\,dV = \int_0^{\pi}\int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^1 e^{(\rho^2)^{3/2}}\rho^2\sin\phi\,d\rho\,d\theta\,d\phi$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi}\sin\phi\,d\phi\int_0^{2\pi}d\theta\int_0^1\rho^2e^{\rho^3}\,d\rho$$

$$= \Big[-\cos\phi\Big]_0^{\pi}(2\pi)\Big[\tfrac{1}{3}e^{\rho^3}\Big]_0^1 = \tfrac{4}{3}\pi(e-1)$$

NOTE It would have been extremely awkward to evaluate the integral in Example 3 without spherical coordinates. In rectangular coordinates the iterated integral would have been

$$\int_{-1}^{1}\int_{-\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}}\int_{-\sqrt{1-x^2-y^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2-y^2}} e^{(x^2+y^2+z^2)^{3/2}}\,dz\,dy\,dx$$

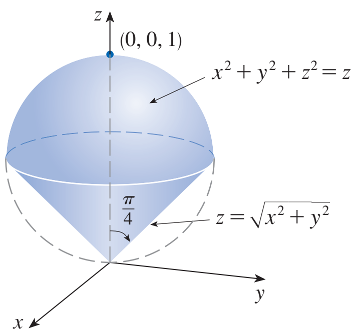


FIGURE 9

EXAMPLE 4 Use spherical coordinates to find the volume of the solid that lies above the cone $z=\sqrt{x^2+y^2}$ and below the sphere $x^2+y^2+z^2=z$. (See Figure 9.)

SOLUTION Notice that the sphere passes through the origin and has center $\left(0, 0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$. We write the equation of the sphere in spherical coordinates as

$$\rho^2 = \rho\cos\phi \qquad \text{or} \qquad \rho = \cos\phi$$

The equation of the cone can be written as

$$\rho\cos\phi = \sqrt{\rho^2\sin^2\phi\,\cos^2\theta + \rho^2\sin^2\phi\,\sin^2\theta} = \rho\sin\phi$$

This gives $\sin\phi = \cos\phi$, or $\phi = \pi/4$. Therefore the description of the solid E in spherical coordinates is

$$E = \{(\rho,\theta,\phi) \mid 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi,\ 0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi/4,\ 0 \leqslant \rho \leqslant \cos\phi\}$$

Figure 10 shows how E is swept out if we integrate first with respect to ρ, then ϕ, and then θ. The volume of E is

$$V(E) = \iiint_E dV = \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^{\pi/4}\int_0^{\cos\phi}\rho^2\sin\phi\,d\rho\,d\phi\,d\theta$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi}d\theta\int_0^{\pi/4}\sin\phi\left[\frac{\rho^3}{3}\right]_{\rho=0}^{\rho=\cos\phi}d\phi$$

$$= \frac{2\pi}{3}\int_0^{\pi/4}\sin\phi\,\cos^3\phi\,d\phi = \frac{2\pi}{3}\left[-\frac{\cos^4\phi}{4}\right]_0^{\pi/4} = \frac{\pi}{8}$$

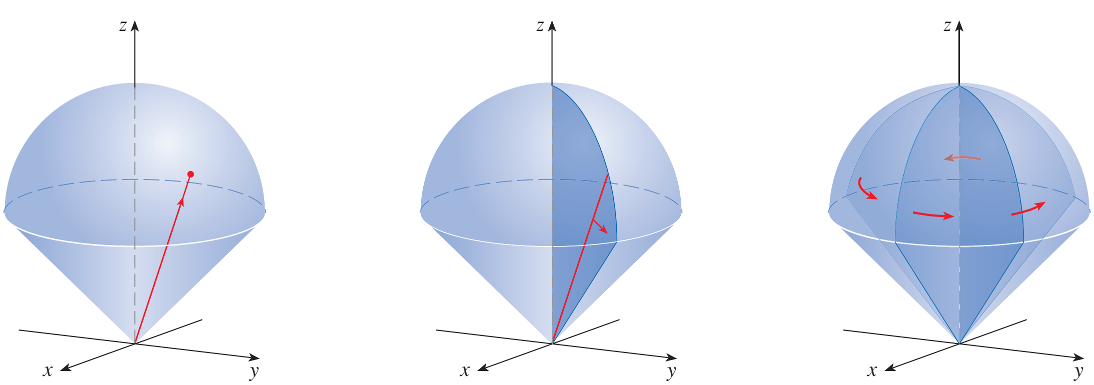


FIGURE 10

ρ varies from 0 to $\cos\phi$ while ϕ and θ are constant.

ϕ varies from 0 to $\pi/4$ while θ is constant.

θ varies from 0 to 2π.

15.8 Exercises

1–2 Plot the point whose spherical coordinates are given. Then find the rectangular coordinates of the point.

1. (a) $(2, 3\pi/4, \pi/2)$ (b) $(4, -\pi/3, \pi/4)$

2. (a) $(5, \pi/2, \pi/3)$ (b) $(6, 0, 5\pi/6)$

3–4 Change from rectangular to spherical coordinates.

3. (a) $(3, 3, 0)$ (b) $(1, -\sqrt{3}, 2\sqrt{3})$

4. (a) $(0, 4, -4)$ (b) $(-2, 2, 2\sqrt{6})$

5–6 Describe in words the surface whose equation is given.

5. $\phi = 3\pi/4$ **6.** $\rho^2 - 3\rho + 2 = 0$

7–8 Identify the surface whose equation is given.

7. $\rho \cos \phi = 1$ **8.** $\rho = \cos \phi$

9–10 Write the equation in spherical coordinates.

9. (a) $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$ (b) $x^2 - y^2 - z^2 = 1$

10. (a) $z = x^2 + y^2$ (b) $z = x^2 - y^2$

11–14 Sketch the solid described by the given inequalities.

11. $\rho \leqslant 1, \quad 0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi/6, \quad 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi$

12. $1 \leqslant \rho \leqslant 2, \quad \pi/2 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi$

13. $1 \leqslant \rho \leqslant 3, \quad 0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi/2, \quad \pi \leqslant \theta \leqslant 3\pi/2$

14. $\rho \leqslant 2, \quad \rho \leqslant \csc \phi$

15. A solid lies inside the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4z$ and outside the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. Write a description of the solid in terms of inequalities involving spherical coordinates.

16. (a) Find inequalities that describe a hollow ball with diameter 30 cm and thickness 0.5 cm. Explain how you have positioned the coordinate system that you have chosen.
(b) Suppose the ball is cut in half. Write inequalities that describe one of the halves.

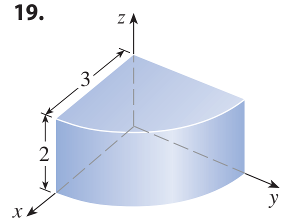
17–18 Sketch the solid whose volume is given by the integral and evaluate the integral.

17. $\displaystyle\int_0^{\pi/6} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^3 \rho^2 \sin \phi \; d\rho \, d\theta \, d\phi$

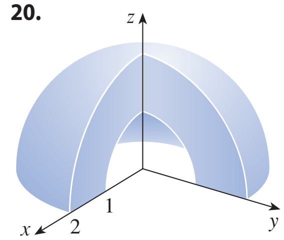
18. $\displaystyle\int_0^{\pi/4} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\sec \phi} \rho^2 \sin \phi \; d\rho \, d\theta \, d\phi$

19–20 Set up the triple integral of an arbitrary continuous function $f(x, y, z)$ in cylindrical or spherical coordinates over the solid shown.

19.

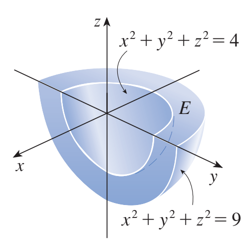


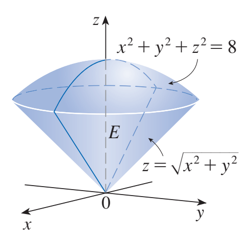
20.



21–22
(a) Express the triple integral $\iiint_E f(x, y, z) \, dV$ as an iterated integral in spherical coordinates for the given function f and solid region E.
(b) Evaluate the iterated integral.

21. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ **22.** $f(x, y, z) = xy$





23–36 Use spherical coordinates.

23. Evaluate $\iiint_B (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^2 \, dV$, where B is the ball with center the origin and radius 5.

24. Evaluate $\iiint_E y^2 z^2 \, dV$, where E lies above the cone $\phi = \pi/3$ and below the sphere $\rho = 1$.

25. Evaluate $\iiint_E (x^2 + y^2) \, dV$, where E lies between the spheres $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ and $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$.

26. Evaluate $\iiint_E y^2 \, dV$, where E is the solid hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 9$, $y \geqslant 0$.

27. Evaluate $\iiint_E x e^{x^2+y^2+z^2} \, dV$, where E is the portion of the unit ball $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 1$ that lies in the first octant.

28. Evaluate $\iiint_E \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \, dV$, where E lies above the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and between the spheres $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ and $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$.

29. Find the volume of the part of the ball $\rho \leqslant a$ that lies between the cones $\phi = \pi/6$ and $\phi = \pi/3$.

30. Find the average distance from a point in a ball of radius a to its center.

31. (a) Find the volume of the solid that lies above the cone $\phi = \pi/3$ and below the sphere $\rho = 4\cos\phi$.
(b) Find the centroid of the solid in part (a).

32. Find the volume of the solid that lies within the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$, above the xy-plane, and below the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$.

33. (a) Find the centroid of the solid in Example 4. (Assume constant density K.)
(b) Find the moment of inertia about the z-axis for this solid.

34. Let H be a solid hemisphere of radius a whose density at any point is proportional to its distance from the center of the base.
(a) Find the mass of H.
(b) Find the center of mass of H.
(c) Find the moment of inertia of H about its axis.

35. (a) Find the centroid of a solid homogeneous hemisphere of radius a.
(b) Find the moment of inertia of the solid in part (a) about a diameter of its base.

36. Find the mass and center of mass of a solid hemisphere of radius a if the density at any point is proportional to its distance from the base.

37–42 Use cylindrical or spherical coordinates, whichever seems more appropriate.

37. Find the volume and centroid of the solid E that lies above the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and below the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$.

38. Find the volume of the smaller wedge cut from a sphere of radius a by two planes that intersect along a diameter at an angle of $\pi/6$.

39. A solid cylinder with constant density has base radius a and height h.
(a) Find the moment of inertia of the cylinder about its axis.
(b) Find the moment of inertia of the cylinder about a diameter of its base.

40. A solid right circular cone with constant density has base radius a and height h.
(a) Find the moment of inertia of the cone about its axis.
(b) Find the moment of inertia of the cone about a diameter of its base.

41. Evaluate $\iiint_E z\, dV$, where E lies above the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and below the plane $z = 2y$. Use either the Table of Integrals (on Reference Pages 6–10) or a computer algebra system to evaluate the integral.

42. (a) Find the volume enclosed by the torus $\rho = \sin\phi$.
(b) Use graphing software to draw the torus.

43–45 Evaluate the integral by changing to spherical coordinates.

43. $\displaystyle\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \int_{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}}^{\sqrt{2-x^2-y^2}} xy\, dz\, dy\, dx$

44. $\displaystyle\int_{-a}^{a} \int_{-\sqrt{a^2-y^2}}^{\sqrt{a^2-y^2}} \int_{-\sqrt{a^2-x^2-y^2}}^{\sqrt{a^2-x^2-y^2}} (x^2z + y^2z + z^3)\, dz\, dx\, dy$

45. $\displaystyle\int_{-2}^{2} \int_{-\sqrt{4-x^2}}^{\sqrt{4-x^2}} \int_{2-\sqrt{4-x^2-y^2}}^{2+\sqrt{4-x^2-y^2}} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}\, dz\, dy\, dx$

46. A model for the density δ of the earth's atmosphere near its surface is

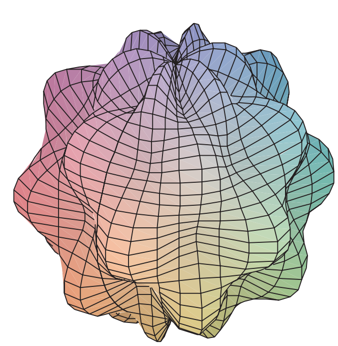
$$\delta = 619.09 - 0.000097\rho$$

where ρ (the distance from the center of the earth) is measured in meters and δ is measured in kilograms per cubic meter. If we take the surface of the earth to be a sphere with radius 6370 km, then this model is a reasonable one for $6.370 \times 10^6 \leqslant \rho \leqslant 6.375 \times 10^6$. Use this model to estimate the mass of the atmosphere between the ground and an altitude of 5 km.

47. Use graphing software to draw a silo consisting of a cylinder with radius 3 and height 10 surmounted by a hemisphere.

48. The latitude and longitude of a point P in the Northern Hemisphere are related to spherical coordinates ρ, θ, ϕ as follows. We take the origin to be the center of the earth and the positive z-axis to pass through the North Pole. The positive x-axis passes through the point where the prime meridian (the meridian through Greenwich, England) intersects the equator. Then the latitude of P is $\alpha = 90° - \phi°$ and the longitude is $\beta = 360° - \theta°$. Find the great-circle distance from Los Angeles (lat. 34.06° N, long. 118.25° W) to Montréal (lat. 45.50° N, long. 73.60° W). Take the radius of the earth to be 6370 km. (A *great circle* is the circle of intersection of a sphere and a plane through the center of the sphere.)

49. The surfaces $\rho = 1 + \frac{1}{5}\sin m\theta \sin n\phi$ have been used as models for tumors. The "bumpy sphere" with $m = 6$ and $n = 5$ is shown. Use a computer algebra system to find the volume it encloses.



50. Show that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\sqrt{x^2+y^2+z^2}\,e^{-(x^2+y^2+z^2)}\,dx\,dy\,dz = 2\pi$$

(The improper triple integral is defined as the limit of a triple integral over a solid sphere as the radius of the sphere increases indefinitely.)

51. (a) Use cylindrical coordinates to show that the volume of the solid bounded above by the sphere $r^2 + z^2 = a^2$ and below by the cone $z = r\cot\phi_0$ (or $\phi = \phi_0$), where $0 < \phi_0 < \pi/2$, is

$$V = \frac{2\pi a^3}{3}(1 - \cos\phi_0)$$

(b) Deduce that the volume of the spherical wedge given by $\rho_1 \leqslant \rho \leqslant \rho_2$, $\theta_1 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \theta_2$, $\phi_1 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \phi_2$ is

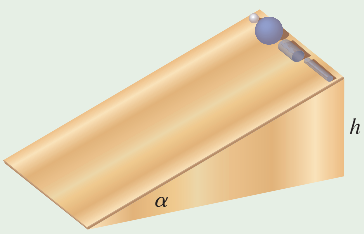
$$\Delta V = \frac{\rho_2^3 - \rho_1^3}{3}(\cos\phi_1 - \cos\phi_2)(\theta_2 - \theta_1)$$

(c) Use the Mean Value Theorem to show that the volume in part (b) can be written as

$$\Delta V = \tilde{\rho}^2 \sin\tilde{\phi}\,\Delta\rho\,\Delta\theta\,\Delta\phi$$

where $\tilde{\rho}$ lies between ρ_1 and ρ_2, $\tilde{\phi}$ lies between ϕ_1 and ϕ_2, $\Delta\rho = \rho_2 - \rho_1$, $\Delta\theta = \theta_2 - \theta_1$, and $\Delta\phi = \phi_2 - \phi_1$.

APPLIED PROJECT | ROLLER DERBY



Suppose that a solid ball (a marble), a hollow ball (a squash ball), a solid cylinder (a steel bar), and a hollow cylinder (a lead pipe) roll down a slope. Which of these objects reaches the bottom first? (Make a guess before proceeding.)

To answer this question, we consider a ball or cylinder with mass m, radius r, and moment of inertia I (about the axis of rotation). If the vertical drop is h, then the potential energy at the top is mgh. Suppose the object reaches the bottom with velocity v and angular velocity ω, so $v = \omega r$. The kinetic energy at the bottom consists of two parts: $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ from translation (moving down the slope) and $\frac{1}{2}I\omega^2$ from rotation. If we assume that energy loss from rolling friction is negligible, then conservation of energy gives

$$mgh = \tfrac{1}{2}mv^2 + \tfrac{1}{2}I\omega^2$$

1. Show that

$$v^2 = \frac{2gh}{1 + I^*} \qquad \text{where } I^* = \frac{I}{mr^2}$$

2. If $y(t)$ is the vertical distance traveled at time t, then the same reasoning as used in Problem 1 shows that $v^2 = 2gy/(1 + I^*)$ at any time t. Use this result to show that y satisfies the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \sqrt{\frac{2g}{1 + I^*}}\,(\sin\alpha)\sqrt{y}$$

where α is the angle of inclination of the plane.

3. By solving the differential equation in Problem 2, show that the total travel time is

$$T = \sqrt{\frac{2h(1 + I^*)}{g\sin^2\alpha}}$$

This shows that the object with the smallest value of I^* wins the race.

4. Show that $I^* = \frac{1}{2}$ for a solid cylinder and $I^* = 1$ for a hollow cylinder.

5. Calculate I^* for a partly hollow ball with inner radius a and outer radius r. Express your answer in terms of $b = a/r$. What happens as $a \to 0$ and as $a \to r$?

6. Show that $I^* = \frac{2}{5}$ for a solid ball and $I^* = \frac{2}{3}$ for a hollow ball. Thus the objects finish in the following order: solid ball, solid cylinder, hollow ball, hollow cylinder.

15.9 Change of Variables in Multiple Integrals

In one-dimensional calculus we often use a change of variable (a substitution) to simplify an integral. By reversing the roles of x and u, we can write the Substitution Rule (5.5.6) as

1 $$\int_a^b f(x)\,dx = \int_c^d f(g(u))\,g'(u)\,du$$

where $x = g(u)$ and $a = g(c)$, $b = g(d)$. Another way of writing Formula 1 is as follows:

2 $$\int_a^b f(x)\,dx = \int_c^d f(x(u))\,\frac{dx}{du}\,du$$

A change of variables can also be useful in evaluating double and triple integrals.

Change of Variables in Double Integrals

We have already seen an example of a change of variables for double integrals: conversion to polar coordinates. The new variables r and θ are related to the old variables x and y by the equations

$$x = r\cos\theta \qquad y = r\sin\theta$$

and the change of variables formula (15.3.2) can be written as

$$\iint_R f(x, y)\,dA = \iint_S f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)\,r\,dr\,d\theta$$

where S is the region in the $r\theta$-plane that corresponds to the region R in the xy-plane.

More generally, we consider a change of variables that is given by a **transformation** T from the uv-plane to the xy-plane:

$$T(u, v) = (x, y)$$

where x and y are related to u and v by the equations

3 $$x = g(u, v) \qquad y = h(u, v)$$

or, as we sometimes write,

$$x = x(u, v) \qquad y = y(u, v)$$

We usually assume that T is a $\boldsymbol{C^1}$ **transformation**, which means that g and h have continuous first-order partial derivatives.

A transformation T is really just a function whose domain and range are both subsets of $\mathbb{R}^2$. If $T(u_1, v_1) = (x_1, y_1)$, then the point (x_1, y_1) is called the **image** of the point (u_1, v_1). If no two points have the same image, T is called **one-to-one**. Figure 1 shows the effect of a transformation T on a region S in the uv-plane. T transforms S into a region R in the xy-plane called the **image of S**, consisting of the images of all points in S.

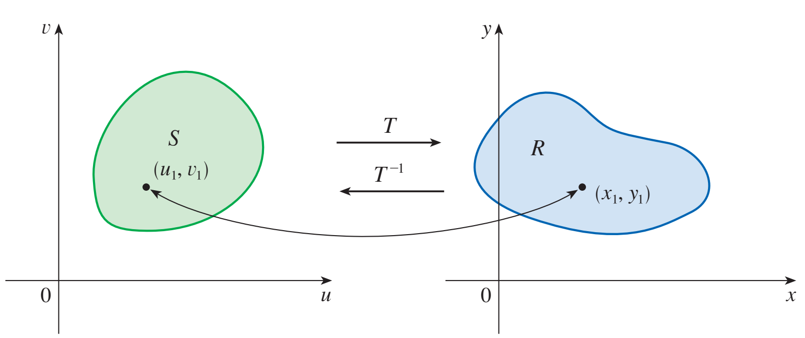


FIGURE 1

If T is a one-to-one transformation, then it has an **inverse transformation** T^{-1} from the xy-plane to the uv-plane and it may be possible to solve Equations 3 for u and v in terms of x and y:

$$u = G(x, y) \qquad v = H(x, y)$$

EXAMPLE 1 A transformation is defined by the equations

$$x = u^2 - v^2 \qquad y = 2uv$$

Find the image of the square $S = \{(u, v) \mid 0 \leqslant u \leqslant 1,\ 0 \leqslant v \leqslant 1\}$.

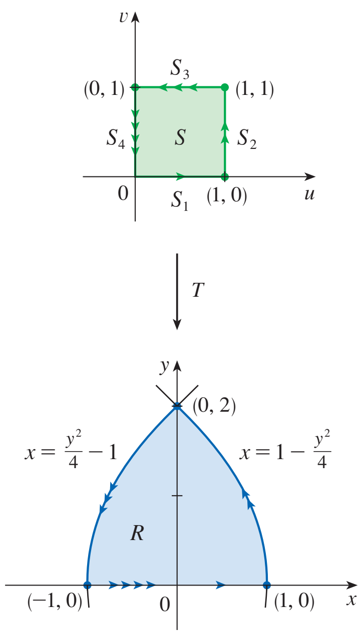


FIGURE 2

SOLUTION The transformation maps the boundary of S into the boundary of the image. So we begin by finding the images of the sides of S. The first side, S_1, is given by $v = 0$ $(0 \leqslant u \leqslant 1)$. (See Figure 2.) From the given equations we have $x = u^2$, $y = 0$, and so $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$. Thus S_1 is mapped onto the line segment from $(0, 0)$ to $(1, 0)$ in the xy-plane. The second side, S_2, is $u = 1$ $(0 \leqslant v \leqslant 1)$ and, putting $u = 1$ in the given equations, we get

$$x = 1 - v^2 \qquad y = 2v$$

Eliminating v, we obtain

$$\boxed{4} \qquad x = 1 - \frac{y^2}{4} \qquad 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$$

which is part of a parabola. Similarly, S_3 is given by $v = 1$ $(0 \leqslant u \leqslant 1)$, whose image is the parabolic arc

$$\boxed{5} \qquad x = \frac{y^2}{4} - 1 \qquad -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 0$$

Finally, S_4 is given by $u = 0$ $(0 \leqslant v \leqslant 1)$ whose image is $x = -v^2$, $y = 0$, that is, $-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 0$. (Notice that as we move around the square in the counterclockwise direction, we also move around the parabolic region in the counterclockwise direction.) The image of S is the region R (shown in Figure 2) bounded by the x-axis and the parabolas given by Equations 4 and 5. ■

Now let's see how a change of variables affects a double integral. We start with a small rectangle S in the uv-plane whose lower left corner is the point (u_0, v_0) and whose dimensions are Δu and Δv. (See Figure 3.)

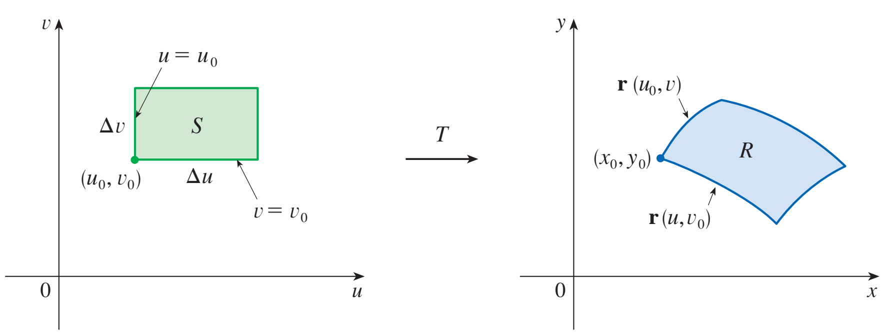


FIGURE 3

The image of S is a region R in the xy-plane, one of whose boundary points is $(x_0, y_0) = T(u_0, v_0)$. The vector

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = g(u, v)\,\mathbf{i} + h(u, v)\,\mathbf{j}$$

is the position vector of the image of the point (u, v). The equation of the lower side of S is $v = v_0$, whose image curve is given by the vector function $\mathbf{r}(u, v_0)$. The tangent vector at (x_0, y_0) to this image curve is

$$\mathbf{r}_u = g_u(u_0, v_0)\,\mathbf{i} + h_u(u_0, v_0)\,\mathbf{j} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}\,\mathbf{j}$$

Similarly, the tangent vector at (x_0, y_0) to the image curve of the left side of S (namely, $u = u_0$) is

$$\mathbf{r}_v = g_v(u_0, v_0)\,\mathbf{i} + h_v(u_0, v_0)\,\mathbf{j} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}\,\mathbf{j}$$

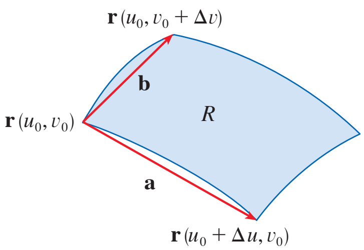


FIGURE 4

We can approximate the image region $R = T(S)$ by a parallelogram determined by the secant vectors

$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{r}(u_0 + \Delta u, v_0) - \mathbf{r}(u_0, v_0) \qquad \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{r}(u_0, v_0 + \Delta v) - \mathbf{r}(u_0, v_0)$$

shown in Figure 4. But

$$\mathbf{r}_u = \lim_{\Delta u \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(u_0 + \Delta u, v_0) - \mathbf{r}(u_0, v_0)}{\Delta u}$$

and so $$\mathbf{r}(u_0 + \Delta u, v_0) - \mathbf{r}(u_0, v_0) \approx \Delta u\,\mathbf{r}_u$$

Similarly $$\mathbf{r}(u_0, v_0 + \Delta v) - \mathbf{r}(u_0, v_0) \approx \Delta v\,\mathbf{r}_v$$

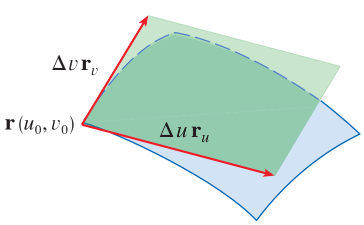


FIGURE 5

This means that we can approximate R by a parallelogram determined by the vectors $\Delta u\,\mathbf{r}_u$ and $\Delta v\,\mathbf{r}_v$. (See Figure 5.) Therefore we can approximate the area of R by the area of this parallelogram, which, from Section 12.4, is

6 $$|(\Delta u\,\mathbf{r}_u) \times (\Delta v\,\mathbf{r}_v)| = |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\,\Delta u\,\Delta v$$

Computing the cross product, we obtain

$$\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial u} & 0 \\ \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial v} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial v} & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial u} \\ \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial v} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k} = \begin{vmatrix} \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}$$

The determinant that arises in this calculation is called the *Jacobian* of the transformation and is given a special notation.

The Jacobian is named after the German mathematician Carl Gustav Jacob Jacobi (1804–1851). Although the French mathematician Cauchy first used these special determinants involving partial derivatives, Jacobi developed them into a method for evaluating multiple integrals.

7 Definitio The **Jacobian** of the transformation T given by $x = g(u, v)$ and $y = h(u, v)$ is

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = \begin{vmatrix} \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u}\frac{\partial y}{\partial v} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}\frac{\partial y}{\partial u}$$

With this notation we can use Equation 6 to give an approximation to the area ΔA of R:

8 $$\Delta A \approx \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| \Delta u\,\Delta v$$

where the Jacobian is evaluated at (u_0, v_0).

Next we divide a region S in the uv-plane into rectangles S_{ij} and call their images in the xy-plane R_{ij}. (See Figure 6.)

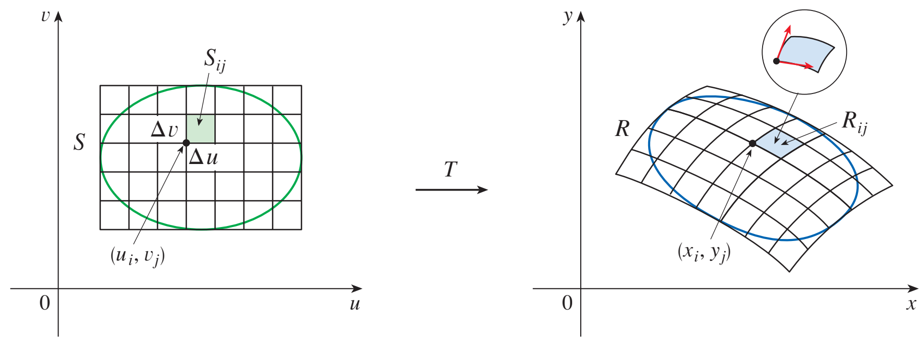


FIGURE 6

Applying the approximation (8) to each R_{ij}, we approximate the double integral of f over R as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA &\approx \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(x_i, y_j)\, \Delta A \\ &\approx \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(g(u_i, v_j), h(u_i, v_j)) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| \Delta u\, \Delta v\end{aligned}$$

where the Jacobian is evaluated at (u_i, v_j). Notice that this double sum is a Riemann sum for the integral

$$\iint_S f(g(u, v), h(u, v)) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| du\, dv$$

The foregoing argument suggests that the following theorem is true. (A full proof is given in books on advanced calculus.)

9 Change of Variables in a Double Integral Suppose that T is a C^1 transformation whose Jacobian is nonzero and that T maps a region S in the uv-plane onto a region R in the xy-plane. Suppose that f is continuous on R and that R and S are type I or type II plane regions. Suppose also that T is one-to-one, except perhaps on the boundary of S. Then

$$\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA = \iint_S f(x(u, v), y(u, v)) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| du\, dv$$

Theorem 9 says that we change from an integral in x and y to an integral in u and v by expressing x and y in terms of u and v and writing

$$dA = \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| du\, dv$$

Notice the similarity between Theorem 9 and the one-dimensional formula in Equation 2. Instead of the derivative dx/du, we have the absolute value of the Jacobian, that is, $|\partial(x, y)/\partial(u, v)|$.

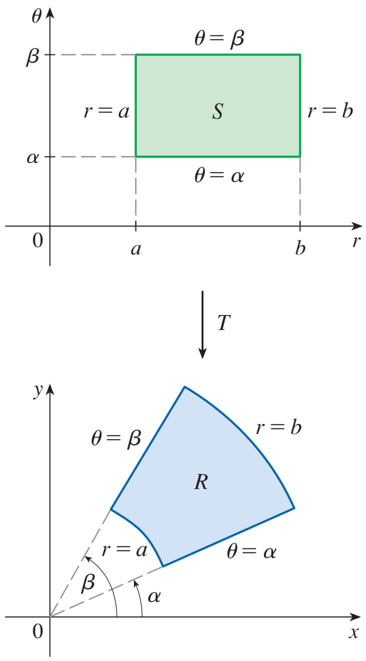


FIGURE 7
The polar coordinate transformation

As a first illustration of Theorem 9, we show that the formula for integration in polar coordinates is just a special case. Here the transformation T from the $r\theta$-plane to the xy-plane is given by

$$x = g(r, \theta) = r\cos\theta \qquad y = h(r, \theta) = r\sin\theta$$

and the geometry of the transformation is shown in Figure 7: T maps an ordinary rectangle in the $r\theta$-plane to a polar rectangle in the xy-plane. The Jacobian of T is

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(r, \theta)} = \begin{vmatrix} \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \cos\theta & -r\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & r\cos\theta \end{vmatrix} = r\cos^2\theta + r\sin^2\theta = r > 0$$

Thus Theorem 9 gives

$$\iint_R f(x, y)\, dx\, dy = \iint_S f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(r, \theta)} \right| dr\, d\theta$$

$$= \int_\alpha^\beta \int_a^b f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)\, r\, dr\, d\theta$$

which is the same as Formula 15.3.2.

EXAMPLE 2 Use the change of variables $x = u^2 - v^2$, $y = 2uv$ to evaluate the integral $\iint_R y\, dA$, where R is the region bounded by the x-axis and the parabolas $y^2 = 4 - 4x$ and $y^2 = 4 + 4x$, $y \geqslant 0$.

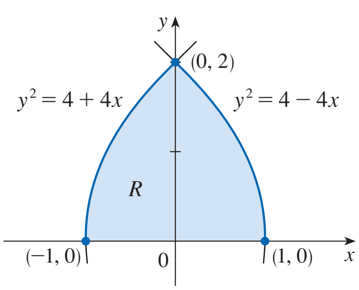


FIGURE 8

SOLUTION The region R is pictured in Figure 8. It is the region from Example 1 (see Figure 2); in that example we discovered that $T(S) = R$, where S is the square $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$. Indeed, the reason for making the change of variables to evaluate the integral is that S is a much simpler region than R. First we need to compute the Jacobian:

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = \begin{vmatrix} \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 2u & -2v \\ 2v & 2u \end{vmatrix} = 4u^2 + 4v^2 > 0$$

Therefore, by Theorem 9,

$$\iint_R y\, dA = \iint_S 2uv \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (2uv)4(u^2 + v^2)\, du\, dv$$

$$= 8 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (u^3 v + uv^3)\, du\, dv = 8 \int_0^1 \left[\tfrac{1}{4}u^4 v + \tfrac{1}{2}u^2 v^3 \right]_{u=0}^{u=1} dv$$

$$= \int_0^1 (2v + 4v^3)\, dv = \left[v^2 + v^4 \right]_0^1 = 2 \qquad \blacksquare$$

NOTE Example 2 was not a very difficult problem to solve because we were given a suitable change of variables. If we are not supplied with a transformation, then the first step is to think of an appropriate change of variables. If $f(x, y)$ is difficult to integrate, then the form of $f(x, y)$ may suggest a transformation. If the region of integration R is awkward, then the transformation should be chosen so that the corresponding region S in the uv-plane has a convenient description.

EXAMPLE 3 Evaluate the integral $\iint_R e^{(x+y)/(x-y)}\,dA$, where R is the trapezoidal region with vertices $(1, 0)$, $(2, 0)$, $(0, -2)$, and $(0, -1)$.

SOLUTION Since it isn't easy to integrate $e^{(x+y)/(x-y)}$, we make a change of variables suggested by the form of this function:

$$\boxed{10} \qquad u = x + y \qquad v = x - y$$

These equations define a transformation T^{-1} from the xy-plane to the uv-plane. Theorem 9 talks about a transformation T from the uv-plane to the xy-plane. It is obtained by solving Equations 10 for x and y:

$$\boxed{11} \qquad x = \tfrac{1}{2}(u + v) \qquad y = \tfrac{1}{2}(u - v)$$

The Jacobian of T is

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = \begin{vmatrix} \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{1}{2}$$

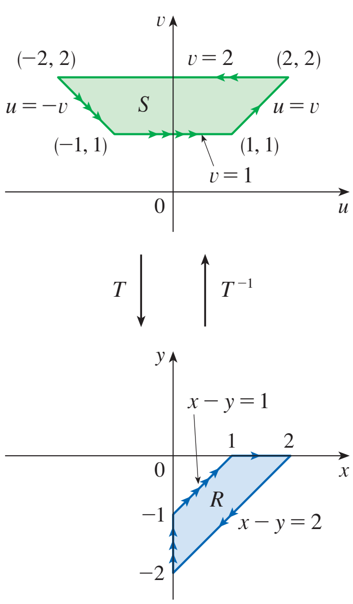


FIGURE 9

To find the region S in the uv-plane corresponding to R, we note that the sides of R lie on the lines

$$y = 0 \qquad x - y = 2 \qquad x = 0 \qquad x - y = 1$$

and, from either Equations 10 or Equations 11, the image lines in the uv-plane are

$$u = v \qquad v = 2 \qquad u = -v \qquad v = 1$$

Thus the region S is the trapezoidal region with vertices $(1, 1)$, $(2, 2)$, $(-2, 2)$, and $(-1, 1)$ shown in Figure 9. Since

$$S = \{(u, v) \mid 1 \leqslant v \leqslant 2,\ -v \leqslant u \leqslant v\}$$

Theorem 9 gives

$$\iint_R e^{(x+y)/(x-y)}\,dA = \iint_S e^{u/v} \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| du\,dv$$

$$= \int_1^2 \int_{-v}^{v} e^{u/v}\left(\tfrac{1}{2}\right) du\,dv = \frac{1}{2}\int_1^2 \Big[ve^{u/v}\Big]_{u=-v}^{u=v}\,dv$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\int_1^2 (e - e^{-1})v\,dv = \tfrac{3}{4}(e - e^{-1}) \qquad \blacksquare$$

Change of Variables in Triple Integrals

There is a similar change of variables formula for triple integrals. Let T be a one-to-one transformation that maps a region S in uvw-space onto a region R in xyz-space by means of the equations

$$x = g(u, v, w) \qquad y = h(u, v, w) \qquad z = k(u, v, w)$$

The **Jacobian** of T is the following 3×3 determinant:

12
$$\frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(u, v, w)} = \begin{vmatrix} \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial v} & \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial w} \\ \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial v} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial w} \\ \dfrac{\partial z}{\partial u} & \dfrac{\partial z}{\partial v} & \dfrac{\partial z}{\partial w} \end{vmatrix}$$

Under hypotheses similar to those in Theorem 9, we have the following formula for triple integrals:

13
$$\iiint_R f(x, y, z)\, dV = \iiint_S f(x(u, v, w), y(u, v, w), z(u, v, w)) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(u, v, w)} \right| du\, dv\, dw$$

EXAMPLE 4 Use Formula 13 to derive the formula for triple integration in spherical coordinates.

SOLUTION Here the change of variables is given by

$$x = \rho \sin\phi \cos\theta \qquad y = \rho \sin\phi \sin\theta \qquad z = \rho\cos\phi$$

We compute the Jacobian as follows:

$$\frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(\rho, \theta, \phi)} = \begin{vmatrix} \sin\phi\cos\theta & -\rho\sin\phi\sin\theta & \rho\cos\phi\cos\theta \\ \sin\phi\sin\theta & \rho\sin\phi\cos\theta & \rho\cos\phi\sin\theta \\ \cos\phi & 0 & -\rho\sin\phi \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \cos\phi \begin{vmatrix} -\rho\sin\phi\sin\theta & \rho\cos\phi\cos\theta \\ \rho\sin\phi\cos\theta & \rho\cos\phi\sin\theta \end{vmatrix} - \rho\sin\phi \begin{vmatrix} \sin\phi\cos\theta & -\rho\sin\phi\sin\theta \\ \sin\phi\sin\theta & \rho\sin\phi\cos\theta \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \cos\phi\,(-\rho^2\sin\phi\cos\phi\sin^2\theta - \rho^2\sin\phi\cos\phi\cos^2\theta)$$

$$\qquad - \rho\sin\phi\,(\rho\sin^2\phi\cos^2\theta + \rho\sin^2\phi\sin^2\theta)$$

$$= -\rho^2\sin\phi\cos^2\phi - \rho^2\sin\phi\sin^2\phi = -\rho^2\sin\phi$$

Since $0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi$, we have $\sin\phi \geqslant 0$. Therefore

$$\left| \frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(\rho, \theta, \phi)} \right| = |-\rho^2\sin\phi| = \rho^2\sin\phi$$

and Formula 13 gives

$$\iiint_R f(x, y, z)\, dV = \iiint_S f(\rho\sin\phi\cos\theta, \rho\sin\phi\sin\theta, \rho\cos\phi)\, \rho^2\sin\phi\, d\rho\, d\theta\, d\phi$$

which is equivalent to Formula 15.8.3. ■

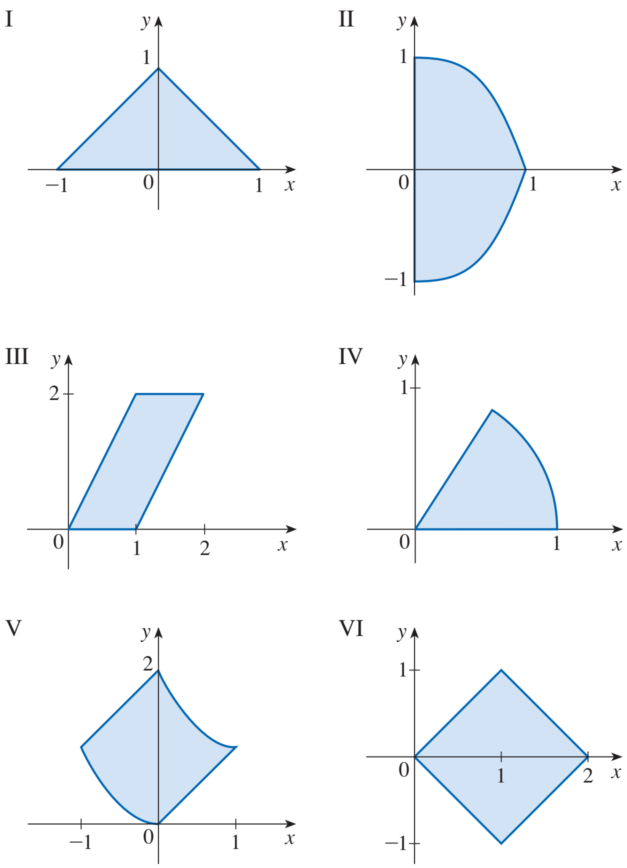
15.9 Exercises

1. Match the given transformation with the image (labeled I–VI) of the set $S = \{(u, v) \mid 0 \leqslant u \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant v \leqslant 1\}$ under the transformation. Give reasons for your choices.

(a) $x = u + v$, $y = u - v$ (b) $x = u - v$, $y = uv$

(c) $x = u \cos v$, $y = u \sin v$ (d) $x = u - v$, $y = u + v^2$

(e) $x = u + v$, $y = 2v$ (f) $x = uv$, $y = u^3 - v^3$



2–6 Find the image of the set S under the given transformation.

2. $S = \{(u, v) \mid 0 \leqslant u \leqslant 1, 0 \leqslant v \leqslant 2\}$;
$x = u + v,\ y = -v$

3. $S = \{(u, v) \mid 0 \leqslant u \leqslant 3,\ 0 \leqslant v \leqslant 2\}$;
$x = 2u + 3v,\ y = u - v$

4. S is the square bounded by the lines $u = 0$, $u = 1$, $v = 0$, $v = 1$; $x = v,\ y = u(1 + v^2)$

5. S is the triangular region with vertices (0, 0), (1, 1), (0, 1); $x = u^2,\ y = v$

6. S is the disk given by $u^2 + v^2 \leqslant 1$; $x = au,\ y = bv$

7–10 A region R in the xy-plane is given. Find equations for a transformation T that maps a rectangular region S in the uv-plane onto R, where the sides of S are parallel to the u- and v-axes.

7. R is bounded by $y = 2x - 1$, $y = 2x + 1$, $y = 1 - x$, $y = 3 - x$

8. R is the parallelogram with vertices (0, 0), (4, 3), (2, 4), $(-2, 1)$

9. R lies between the circles $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 2$ in the first quadrant

10. R is bounded by the hyperbolas $y = 1/x$, $y = 4/x$ and the lines $y = x$, $y = 4x$ in the first quadrant

11–16 Find the Jacobian of the transformation.

11. $x = 2u + v, \quad y = 4u - v$

12. $x = u^2 + uv, \quad y = uv^2$

13. $x = s \cos t, \quad y = s \sin t$

14. $x = pe^q, \quad y = qe^p$

15. $x = uv, \quad y = vw, \quad z = wu$

16. $x = u + vw, \quad y = v + wu, \quad z = w + uv$

17–22 Use the given transformation to evaluate the integral.

17. $\iint_R (x - 3y)\, dA$, where R is the triangular region with vertices (0, 0), (2, 1), and (1, 2); $x = 2u + v,\ y = u + 2v$

18. $\iint_R (4x + 8y)\, dA$, where R is the parallelogram with vertices $(-1, 3)$, $(1, -3)$, $(3, -1)$, and $(1, 5)$; $x = \frac{1}{4}(u + v),\ y = \frac{1}{4}(v - 3u)$

19. $\iint_R x^2\, dA$, where R is the region bounded by the ellipse $9x^2 + 4y^2 = 36$; $x = 2u,\ y = 3v$

20. $\iint_R (x^2 - xy + y^2)\, dA$, where R is the region bounded by the ellipse $x^2 - xy + y^2 = 2$;
$x = \sqrt{2}\, u - \sqrt{2/3}\, v,\ y = \sqrt{2}\, u + \sqrt{2/3}\, v$

21. $\iint_R xy\, dA$, where R is the region in the first quadrant bounded by the lines $y = x$ and $y = 3x$ and the hyperbolas $xy = 1$, $xy = 3$; $x = u/v,\ y = v$

22. $\iint_R y^2\, dA$, where R is the region bounded by the curves $xy = 1$, $xy = 2$, $xy^2 = 1$, $xy^2 = 2$; $u = xy,\ v = xy^2$. Illustrate by using a graphing calculator or computer to draw R.

23. (a) Evaluate $\iiint_E dV$, where E is the solid enclosed by the ellipsoid $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 + z^2/c^2 = 1$. Use the transformation $x = au,\ y = bv,\ z = cw$.

(b) The earth is not a perfect sphere; rotation has resulted in flattening at the poles. So the shape can be approximated by an ellipsoid with $a = b = 6378$ km and $c = 6356$ km. Use part (a) to estimate the volume of the earth.

(c) If the solid of part (a) has constant density k, find its moment of inertia about the z-axis.

24. An important problem in thermodynamics is to find the work done by an ideal Carnot engine. A cycle consists of alternating expansion and compression of gas in a piston. The work done by the engine is equal to the area of the region R enclosed by two isothermal curves $xy = a$, $xy = b$ and two adiabatic curves $xy^{1.4} = c$, $xy^{1.4} = d$, where $0 < a < b$ and $0 < c < d$. Compute the work done by determining the area of R.

25–30 Evaluate the integral by making an appropriate change of variables.

25. $\displaystyle\iint_R \frac{x - 2y}{3x - y}\, dA$, where R is the parallelogram enclosed by the lines $x - 2y = 0$, $x - 2y = 4$, $3x - y = 1$, and $3x - y = 8$

26. $\iint_R (x + y)e^{x^2 - y^2}\, dA$, where R is the rectangle enclosed by the lines $x - y = 0$, $x - y = 2$, $x + y = 0$, and $x + y = 3$

27. $\displaystyle\iint_R \cos\left(\frac{y - x}{y + x}\right) dA$, where R is the trapezoidal region with vertices $(1, 0)$, $(2, 0)$, $(0, 2)$, and $(0, 1)$

28. $\iint_R \sin(9x^2 + 4y^2)\, dA$, where R is the region in the first quadrant bounded by the ellipse $9x^2 + 4y^2 = 1$

29. $\iint_R e^{x+y}\, dA$, where R is given by the inequality $|x| + |y| \leqslant 1$

30. $\displaystyle\iint_R \frac{y}{x}\, dA$, where R is the region enclosed by the lines $x + y = 1$, $x + y = 3$, $y = 2x$, $y = x/2$

31. Let f be continuous on $[0, 1]$ and let R be the triangular region with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(0, 1)$. Show that

$$\iint_R f(x + y)\, dA = \int_0^1 u f(u)\, du$$

15 REVIEW

CONCEPT CHECK

Answers to the Concept Check are available at StewartCalculus.com.

1. Suppose f is a continuous function defined on a rectangle $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$.
(a) Write an expression for a double Riemann sum of f. If $f(x, y) \geqslant 0$, what does the sum represent?
(b) Write the definition of $\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$ as a limit.
(c) What is the geometric interpretation of $\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$ if $f(x, y) \geqslant 0$? What if f takes on both positive and negative values?
(d) How do you evaluate $\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$?
(e) What does the Midpoint Rule for double integrals say?
(f) Write an expression for the average value of f.

2. (a) How do you define $\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA$ if D is a bounded region that is not a rectangle?
(b) What is a type I region? How do you evaluate $\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA$ if D is a type I region?
(c) What is a type II region? How do you evaluate $\iint_D f(x, y)\, dA$ if D is a type II region?
(d) What properties do double integrals have?

3. How do you change from rectangular coordinates to polar coordinates in a double integral? Why would you want to make the change?

4. If a lamina occupies a plane region D and has density function $\rho(x, y)$, write expressions for each of the following in terms of double integrals.
(a) The mass
(b) The moments about the axes
(c) The center of mass
(d) The moments of inertia about the axes and the origin

5. Let f be a joint density function of a pair of continuous random variables X and Y.
(a) Write a double integral for the probability that X lies between a and b and Y lies between c and d.
(b) What properties does f possess?
(c) What are the expected values of X and Y?

6. Write an expression for the area of a surface with equation $z = f(x, y)$, $(x, y) \in D$.

7. (a) Write the definition of the triple integral of f over a rectangular box B.
(b) How do you evaluate $\iiint_B f(x, y, z)\, dV$?
(c) How do you define $\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV$ if E is a bounded solid region that is not a box?
(d) What is a type 1 solid region? How do you evaluate $\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV$ if E is such a region?
(e) What is a type 2 solid region? How do you evaluate $\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV$ if E is such a region?
(f) What is a type 3 solid region? How do you evaluate $\iiint_E f(x, y, z)\, dV$ if E is such a region?

8. Suppose a solid object occupies the region E and has density function $\rho(x, y, z)$. Write expressions for each of the following.
(a) The mass
(b) The moments about the coordinate planes
(c) The coordinates of the center of mass
(d) The moments of inertia about the axes

9. (a) How do you change from rectangular coordinates to cylindrical coordinates in a triple integral?
(b) How do you change from rectangular coordinates to spherical coordinates in a triple integral?
(c) In what situations would you change to cylindrical or spherical coordinates?

10. (a) If a transformation T is given by

$$x = g(u, v) \qquad y = h(u, v)$$

what is the Jacobian of T?
(b) How do you change variables in a double integral?
(c) How do you change variables in a triple integral?

TRUE-FALSE QUIZ

Determine whether the statement is true or false. If it is true, explain why. If it is false, explain why or give an example that disproves the statement.

1. $\int_{-1}^{2} \int_{0}^{6} x^2 \sin(x - y)\, dx\, dy = \int_{0}^{6} \int_{-1}^{2} x^2 \sin(x - y)\, dy\, dx$

2. $\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{x} \sqrt{x + y^2}\, dy\, dx = \int_{0}^{x} \int_{0}^{1} \sqrt{x + y^2}\, dx\, dy$

3. $\int_{1}^{2} \int_{3}^{4} x^2 e^y\, dy\, dx = \int_{1}^{2} x^2\, dx \int_{3}^{4} e^y\, dy$

4. $\int_{-1}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} e^{x^2 + y^2} \sin y\, dx\, dy = 0$

5. If f is continuous on $[0, 1]$, then

$$\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} f(x) f(y)\, dy\, dx = \left[\int_{0}^{1} f(x)\, dx \right]^2$$

6. $\int_{1}^{4} \int_{0}^{1} \left(x^2 + \sqrt{y}\right) \sin(x^2 y^2)\, dx\, dy \leqslant 9$

7. If D is the disk given by $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 4$, then

$$\iint_D \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}\, dA = \tfrac{16}{3}\pi$$

8. The integral $\iiint_E kr^3\, dz\, dr\, d\theta$ represents the moment of inertia about the z-axis of a solid E with constant density k.

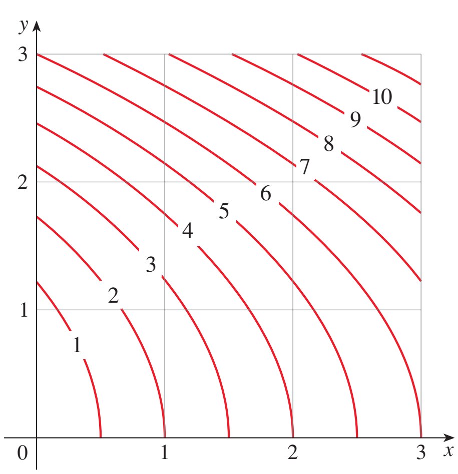
9. The integral

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \int_{0}^{2} \int_{r}^{2} dz\, dr\, d\theta$$

represents the volume enclosed by the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and the plane $z = 2$.

EXERCISES

1. A contour map is shown for a function f on the square $R = [0, 3] \times [0, 3]$. Use a Riemann sum with nine terms to estimate the value of $\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$. Take the sample points to be the upper right corners of the squares.



2. Use the Midpoint Rule to estimate the integral in Exercise 1.

3–8 Calculate the iterated integral.

3. $\int_{1}^{2} \int_{0}^{2} (y + 2xe^y)\, dx\, dy$

4. $\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} ye^{xy}\, dx\, dy$

5. $\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{x} \cos(x^2)\, dy\, dx$

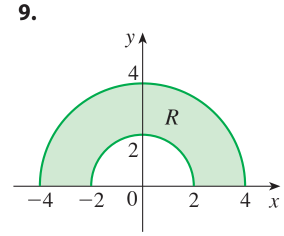
6. $\int_{0}^{1} \int_{x}^{e^x} 3xy^2\, dy\, dx$

7. $\int_{0}^{\pi} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} y \sin x\, dz\, dy\, dx$

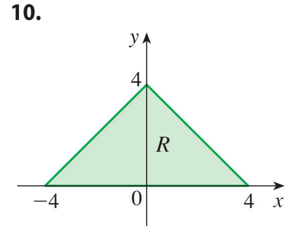
8. $\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{y} \int_{x}^{1} 6xyz\, dz\, dx\, dy$

9–10 Write $\iint_R f(x, y)\, dA$ as an iterated integral, where R is the region shown and f is an arbitrary continuous function on R.

9.



10.



11. The cylindrical coordinates of a point are $(2\sqrt{3}, \pi/3, 2)$. Find the rectangular and spherical coordinates of the point.

12. The rectangular coordinates of a point are $(2, 2, -1)$. Find the cylindrical and spherical coordinates of the point.

13. The spherical coordinates of a point are $(8, \pi/4, \pi/6)$. Find the rectangular and cylindrical coordinates of the point.

14. Identify the surfaces whose equations are given.
(a) $\theta = \pi/4$ (b) $\phi = \pi/4$

15. Write the equation in cylindrical coordinates and in spherical coordinates.
(a) $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ (b) $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

16. Sketch the solid consisting of all points with spherical coordinates (ρ, θ, ϕ) such that $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi/2$, $0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi/6$, and $0 \leqslant \rho \leqslant 2 \cos \phi$.

17. Describe the region whose area is given by the integral
$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\sin 2\theta} r \, dr \, d\theta$$

18. Describe the solid whose volume is given by the integral
$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_1^2 \rho^2 \sin \phi \; d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta$$
and evaluate the integral.

19–20 Calculate the iterated integral by first reversing the order of integration.

19. $\displaystyle\int_0^1 \int_x^1 \cos(y^2) \, dy \, dx$ **20.** $\displaystyle\int_0^1 \int_{\sqrt{y}}^1 \frac{ye^{x^2}}{x^3} \, dx \, dy$

21–34 Calculate the value of the multiple integral.

21. $\iint_R ye^{xy} \, dA$, where $R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2, \; 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 3\}$

22. $\iint_D xy \, dA$, where $D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1, \; y^2 \leqslant x \leqslant y + 2\}$

23. $\displaystyle\iint\limits_D \frac{y}{1 + x^2} \, dA$,
where D is bounded by $y = \sqrt{x}$, $y = 0$, $x = 1$

24. $\displaystyle\iint\limits_D \frac{1}{1 + x^2} \, dA$, where D is the triangular region with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 1)$, and $(0, 1)$

25. $\iint_D y \, dA$, where D is the region in the first quadrant bounded by the parabolas $x = y^2$ and $x = 8 - y^2$

26. $\iint_D y \, dA$, where D is the region in the first quadrant that lies above the hyperbola $xy = 1$ and the line $y = x$ and below the line $y = 2$

27. $\iint_D (x^2 + y^2)^{3/2} \, dA$, where D is the region in the first quadrant bounded by the lines $y = 0$ and $y = \sqrt{3}\,x$ and the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 9$

28. $\iint_D x \, dA$, where D is the region in the first quadrant that lies between the circles $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 2$

29. $\iiint_E xy \, dV$, where
$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 3, \; 0 \leqslant y \leqslant x, \; 0 \leqslant z \leqslant x + y\}$

30. $\iiint_T xy \, dV$, where T is the solid tetrahedron with vertices $(0, 0, 0)$, $(\frac{1}{3}, 0, 0)$, $(0, 1, 0)$, and $(0, 0, 1)$

31. $\iiint_E y^2z^2 \, dV$, where E is bounded by the paraboloid $x = 1 - y^2 - z^2$ and the plane $x = 0$

32. $\iiint_E z \, dV$, where E is bounded by the planes $y = 0$, $z = 0$, $x + y = 2$ and the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 1$ in the first octant

33. $\iiint_E yz \, dV$, where E lies above the plane $z = 0$, below the plane $z = y$, and inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

34. $\iiint_H z^3\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \, dV$, where H is the solid hemisphere that lies above the xy-plane and has center the origin and radius 1

35–40 Find the volume of the given solid.

35. Under the paraboloid $z = x^2 + 4y^2$ and above the rectangle $R = [0, 2] \times [1, 4]$

36. Under the surface $z = x^2y$ and above the triangle in the xy-plane with vertices $(1, 0)$, $(2, 1)$, and $(4, 0)$

37. The solid tetrahedron with vertices $(0, 0, 0)$, $(0, 0, 1)$, $(0, 2, 0)$, and $(2, 2, 0)$

38. Bounded by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the planes $z = 0$ and $y + z = 3$

39. One of the wedges cut from the cylinder $x^2 + 9y^2 = a^2$ by the planes $z = 0$ and $z = mx$

40. Above the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and below the half-cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

41. Consider a lamina that occupies the region D bounded by the parabola $x = 1 - y^2$ and the coordinate axes in the first quadrant with density function $\rho(x, y) = y$.
(a) Find the mass of the lamina.
(b) Find the center of mass.
(c) Find the moments of inertia and radii of gyration about the x- and y-axes.

42. A lamina occupies the part of the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant a^2$ that lies in the first quadrant.
(a) Find the centroid of the lamina.
(b) Find the center of mass of the lamina if the density function is $\rho(x, y) = xy^2$.

43. (a) Find the centroid of a solid right circular cone with height h and base radius a. (Place the cone so that its base is in the xy-plane with center the origin and its axis along the positive z-axis.)
(b) If the cone has density function $\rho(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, find the moment of inertia of the cone about its axis (the z-axis).

44. Find the area of the part of the cone $z^2 = a^2(x^2 + y^2)$ between the planes $z = 1$ and $z = 2$.

45. Find the area of the part of the surface $z = x^2 + y$ that lies above the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(0, 2)$.

T **46.** Use a computer algebra system to graph the surface $z = x \sin y$, $-3 \leqslant x \leqslant 3$, $-\pi \leqslant y \leqslant \pi$, and find its surface area correct to four decimal places.

47. Use polar coordinates to evaluate

$$\int_0^3 \int_{-\sqrt{9-x^2}}^{\sqrt{9-x^2}} (x^3 + xy^2)\, dy\, dx$$

48. Use spherical coordinates to evaluate

$$\int_{-2}^2 \int_0^{\sqrt{4-y^2}} \int_{-\sqrt{4-x^2-y^2}}^{\sqrt{4-x^2-y^2}} y^2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}\, dz\, dx\, dy$$

49. If D is the region bounded by the curves $y = 1 - x^2$ and $y = e^x$, find the approximate value of the integral $\iint_D y^2\, dA$. (Use a graph to estimate the points of intersection of the curves.)

T 50. Use a computer algebra system to find the center of mass of the solid tetrahedron with vertices (0, 0, 0), (1, 0, 0), (0, 2, 0), (0, 0, 3) and density function $\rho(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$.

51. The joint density function for random variables X and Y is

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} C(x + y) & \text{if } 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 3,\ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(a) Find the value of the constant C.
(b) Find $P(X \leqslant 2, Y \geqslant 1)$.
(c) Find $P(X + Y \leqslant 1)$.

52. A lamp has three bulbs, each of a type with average lifetime 800 hours. If we model the probability of failure of a bulb by an exponential density function with mean 800, find the probability that all three bulbs fail within a total of 1000 hours.

53. Rewrite the integral

$$\int_{-1}^1 \int_{x^2}^1 \int_0^{1-y} f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dy\, dx$$

as an iterated integral in the order $dx\, dy\, dz$.

54. Give five other iterated integrals that are equal to

$$\int_0^2 \int_0^{y^3} \int_0^{y^2} f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dx\, dy$$

55. Use the transformation $u = x - y$, $v = x + y$ to evaluate

$$\iint_R \frac{x - y}{x + y}\, dA$$

where R is the square with vertices (0, 2), (1, 1), (2, 2), and (1, 3).

56. Use the transformation $x = u^2$, $y = v^2$, $z = w^2$ to find the volume of the region bounded by the surface $\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y} + \sqrt{z} = 1$ and the coordinate planes.

57. Use the change of variables formula and an appropriate transformation to evaluate $\iint_R xy\, dA$, where R is the square with vertices (0, 0), (1, 1), (2, 0), and (1, −1).

58. (a) Evaluate

$$\iint_D \frac{1}{(x^2 + y^2)^{n/2}}\, dA$$

where n is an integer and D is the region bounded by the circles with center the origin and radii r and R, $0 < r < R$.

(b) For what values of n does the integral in part (a) have a limit as $r \to 0^+$?

(c) Find

$$\iiint_E \frac{1}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{n/2}}\, dV$$

where E is the region bounded by the spheres with center the origin and radii r and R, $0 < r < R$.

(d) For what values of n does the integral in part (c) have a limit as $r \to 0^+$?

Problems Plus

1. If $[\![x]\!]$ denotes the greatest integer in x, evaluate the integral

$$\iint_R [\![x + y]\!] \, dA$$

where $R = \{(x, y) \mid 1 \leqslant x \leqslant 3,\ 2 \leqslant y \leqslant 5\}$.

2. Evaluate the integral

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 e^{\max\{x^2, y^2\}} \, dy \, dx$$

where $\max\{x^2, y^2\}$ means the larger of the numbers x^2 and y^2.

3. Find the average value of the function $f(x) = \int_x^1 \cos(t^2) \, dt$ on the interval $[0, 1]$.

4. Show that

$$\int_0^2 \int_0^x 2e^{x^2 - y^2} \, dy \, dx = \int_0^2 \int_y^{4-y} e^{xy} \, dx \, dy$$

5. The double integral $\displaystyle\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1 - xy} \, dx \, dy$ is an improper integral and could be defined as the limit of double integrals over the rectangle $[0, t] \times [0, t]$ as $t \to 1^-$. But if we expand the integrand as a geometric series, we can express the integral as the sum of an infinite series. Show that

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1 - xy} \, dx \, dy = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

6. Leonhard Euler was able to find the exact sum of the series in Problem 5. In 1736 he proved that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

In this problem we ask you to prove this fact by evaluating the double integral in Problem 5. Start by making the change of variables

$$x = \frac{u - v}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad y = \frac{u + v}{\sqrt{2}}$$

This gives a rotation about the origin through the angle $\pi/4$. You will need to sketch the corresponding region in the uv-plane.

[*Hint:* If, in evaluating the integral, you encounter either of the expressions $(1 - \sin\theta)/\cos\theta$ or $(\cos\theta)/(1 + \sin\theta)$, you might like to use the identity $\cos\theta = \sin((\pi/2) - \theta)$ and the corresponding identity for $\sin\theta$.]

7. (a) Show that

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1 - xyz} \, dx \, dy \, dz = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$$

(Nobody has ever been able to find the exact value of the sum of this series.)

(b) Show that

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1 + xyz} \, dx \, dy \, dz = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^3}$$

Use this equation to evaluate the triple integral correct to two decimal places.

8. Show that

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{\arctan \pi x - \arctan x}{x}\, dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \ln \pi$$

by first expressing the integral as an iterated integral.

9. (a) Show that when Laplace's equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

is written in cylindrical coordinates, it becomes

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial u}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \theta^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

(b) Show that when Laplace's equation is written in spherical coordinates, it becomes

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \rho^2} + \frac{2}{\rho}\frac{\partial u}{\partial \rho} + \frac{\cot \phi}{\rho^2}\frac{\partial u}{\partial \phi} + \frac{1}{\rho^2}\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{1}{\rho^2 \sin^2\phi}\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial \theta^2} = 0$$

10. (a) A lamina has constant density ρ and takes the shape of a disk with center the origin and radius R. Use Newton's Law of Gravitation (see Section 13.4) to show that the magnitude of the force of attraction that the lamina exerts on a body with mass m located at the point $(0, 0, d)$ on the positive z-axis is

$$F = 2\pi G m \rho d\left(\frac{1}{d} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{R^2 + d^2}}\right)$$

[*Hint:* Divide the disk as in Figure 15.3.4 and first compute the vertical component of the force exerted by the polar subrectangle R_{ij}.]

(b) Show that the magnitude of the force of attraction of a lamina with density ρ that occupies an entire plane on an object with mass m located at a distance d from the plane is

$$F = 2\pi G m \rho$$

Notice that this expression does not depend on d.

11. If f is continuous, show that

$$\int_0^x \int_0^y \int_0^z f(t)\, dt\, dz\, dy = \tfrac{1}{2} \int_0^x (x - t)^2 f(t)\, dt$$

12. Evaluate $\displaystyle\lim_{n\to\infty} n^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n^2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2 + ni + j}}$.

13. The plane

$$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{z}{c} = 1 \qquad a > 0, \quad b > 0, \quad c > 0$$

cuts the solid ellipsoid

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} \leqslant 1$$

into two pieces. Find the volume of the smaller piece.

Vector fields an be used to model such diverse phenomena as gravity, electricity and magnetism, and fluid flow. For instance, a hurricane can be modeled by a function that describes the velocity vectors at each point in space. We can then use vector calculus to calculate quantities such as the circulation, the twisting (curl), the fl w (flux), or the xpansions and compressions (divergence) of the wind, as well as relationships between these quantities.

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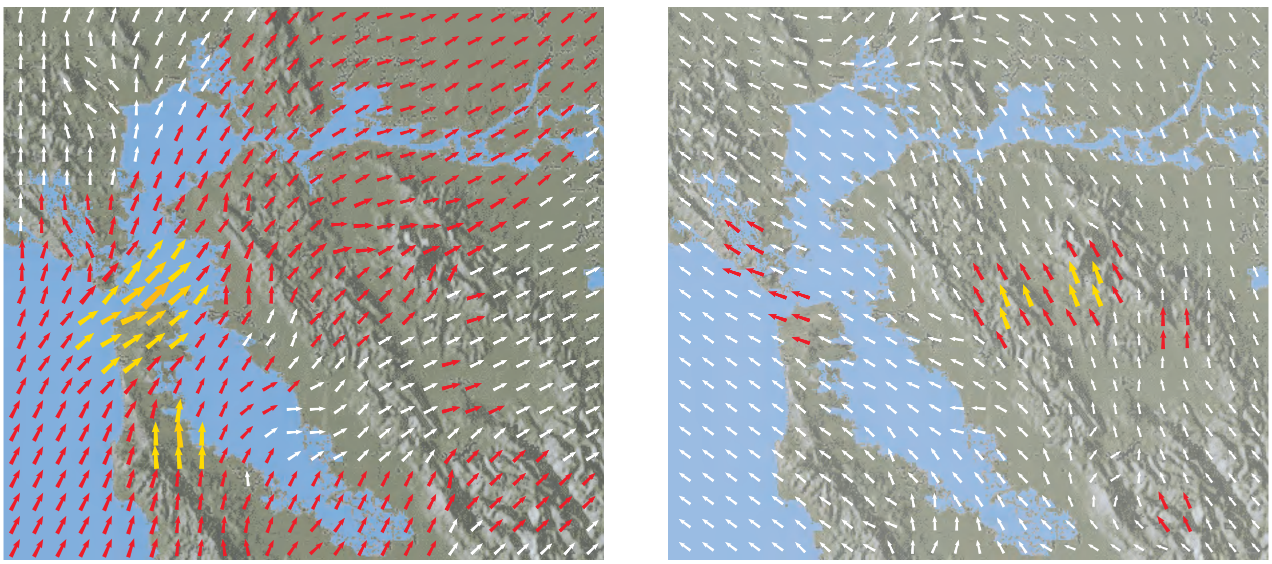
16 Vector Calculus

IN THIS CHAPTER WE STUDY the calculus of vector fields. (These are functions that assign vectors to points in space.) In particular we define line integrals (which can be used to find the work done by a force field in moving an object along a curve). Then we define surface integrals (which can be used to find the rate of fluid flow across a surface). The connections between these new types of integrals and the single, double, and triple integrals that we have already met are given by the higher-dimensional versions of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: Green's Theorem, Stokes' Theorem, and the Divergence Theorem.

16.1 Vector Fields

Vector Fields in $\mathbb{R}^2$ and $\mathbb{R}^3$

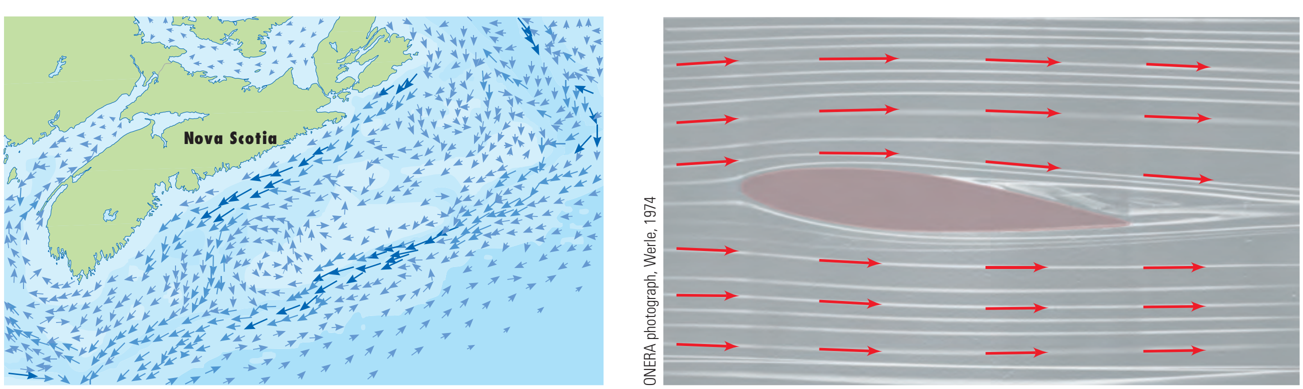
The vectors in Figure 1 are air velocity vectors that indicate the wind speed and direction at points 10 m above the surface elevation in the San Francisco Bay area. We see at a glance from the largest arrows in part (a) that the greatest wind speeds at that time occurred as the winds entered the bay across the Golden Gate Bridge. Part (b) shows the very different wind pattern 12 hours earlier. Associated with every point in the air we can imagine a wind velocity vector. This is an example of a *velocity vector field.*



(a) 6:00 PM (b) 6:00 AM

FIGURE 1 Velocity vector fields showing San Francisco Bay wind patterns on a particular spring day

Other examples of velocity vector fields are illustrated in Figure 2: ocean currents and flow past an airfoil.



(a) Ocean currents off the coast of Nova Scotia (b) Airflow past an inclined airfoil

FIGURE 2
Velocity vector fields

Another type of vector field, called a *force field,* associates a force vector with each point in a region. An example is the gravitational force field that we will look at in Example 4.

In general, a vector field is a function whose domain is a set of points in $\mathbb{R}^2$ (or $\mathbb{R}^3$) and whose range is a set of vectors in V_2 (or V_3).

> **1 Definitio** Let D be a set in $\mathbb{R}^2$ (a plane region). A **vector field on** $\mathbb{R}^2$ is a function $\mathbf{F}$ that assigns to each point (x, y) in D a two-dimensional vector $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$.

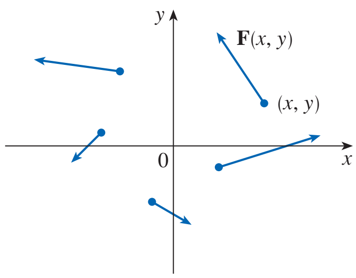


FIGURE 3
Vector field on $\mathbb{R}^2$

The best way to picture a vector field is to draw the arrow representing the vector $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$ starting at the point (x, y). Of course, it's impossible to do this for all points (x, y), but we can form a reasonable impression of $\mathbf{F}$ by drawing vectors for a few representative points in D as in Figure 3. Since $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$ is a two-dimensional vector, we can write it in terms of its **component functions** P and Q as follows:

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = P(x, y)\,\mathbf{i} + Q(x, y)\,\mathbf{j} = \langle P(x, y), Q(x, y)\rangle$$

or, for short,
$$\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j}$$

Notice that P and Q are scalar functions of two variables and are sometimes called **scalar fields** to distinguish them from vector fields.

> **2 Definitio** Let E be a subset of $\mathbb{R}^3$. A **vector field on** $\mathbb{R}^3$ is a function $\mathbf{F}$ that assigns to each point (x, y, z) in E a three-dimensional vector $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$.

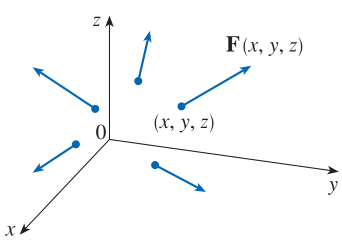


FIGURE 4
Vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$

A vector field $\mathbf{F}$ on $\mathbb{R}^3$ is pictured in Figure 4. We can express it in terms of its component functions P, Q, and R as

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = P(x, y, z)\,\mathbf{i} + Q(x, y, z)\,\mathbf{j} + R(x, y, z)\,\mathbf{k}$$

As with the vector functions in Section 13.1, we can define continuity of vector fields and show that $\mathbf{F}$ is continuous if and only if its component functions P, Q, and R are continuous.

We sometimes identify a point (x, y, z) with its position vector $\mathbf{x} = \langle x, y, z\rangle$ and write $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$ instead of $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$. Then $\mathbf{F}$ becomes a function that assigns a vector $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$ to a vector $\mathbf{x}$.

EXAMPLE 1 A vector field on $\mathbb{R}^2$ is defined by $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = -y\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j}$. Describe $\mathbf{F}$ by sketching some of the vectors $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$ as in Figure 3.

SOLUTION Since $\mathbf{F}(1, 0) = \mathbf{j}$, we draw the vector $\mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1\rangle$ starting at the point $(1, 0)$ in Figure 5. Since $\mathbf{F}(0, 1) = -\mathbf{i}$, we draw the vector $\langle -1, 0\rangle$ with starting point $(0, 1)$. Continuing in this way, we calculate several other representative values of $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$ in the table and draw the corresponding vectors to represent the vector field in Figure 5.

(x, y)	$\mathbf{F}(x, y)$	(x, y)	$\mathbf{F}(x, y)$
$(1, 0)$	$\langle 0, 1\rangle$	$(-1, 0)$	$\langle 0, -1\rangle$
$(2, 2)$	$\langle -2, 2\rangle$	$(-2, -2)$	$\langle 2, -2\rangle$
$(3, 0)$	$\langle 0, 3\rangle$	$(-3, 0)$	$\langle 0, -3\rangle$
$(0, 1)$	$\langle -1, 0\rangle$	$(0, -1)$	$\langle 1, 0\rangle$
$(-2, 2)$	$\langle -2, -2\rangle$	$(2, -2)$	$\langle 2, 2\rangle$
$(0, 3)$	$\langle -3, 0\rangle$	$(0, -3)$	$\langle 3, 0\rangle$

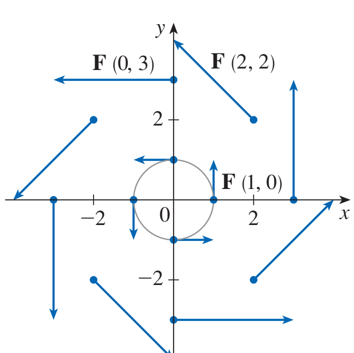


FIGURE 5
$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = -y\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j}$

It appears from Figure 5 that each arrow is tangent to a circle with center the origin. To confirm this, we take the dot product of the position vector $\mathbf{x} = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j}$ with the vector $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{F}(x, y)$:

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = (x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j}) \cdot (-y\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j}) = -xy + yx = 0$$

This shows that $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$ is perpendicular to the position vector $\langle x, y\rangle$ and is therefore tangent to a circle with center the origin and radius $|\mathbf{x}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. Notice also that

$$|\mathbf{F}(x, y)| = \sqrt{(-y)^2 + x^2} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = |\mathbf{x}|$$

so the magnitude of the vector $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$ is equal to the radius of the circle. ■

Some graphing software is capable of plotting vector fields in two or three dimensions. The results give a better impression of the vector field than is possible by hand because a computer can plot a large number of representative vectors. Figure 6 shows a computer plot of the vector field in Example 1; Figures 7 and 8 show two other vector fields. Notice that the software scales the lengths of the vectors so they are not too long and yet are proportional to their true lengths.

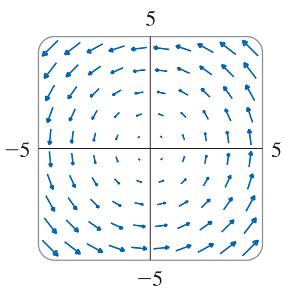


FIGURE 6
$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle -y, x\rangle$

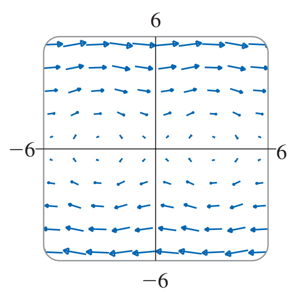


FIGURE 7
$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle y, \sin x\rangle$

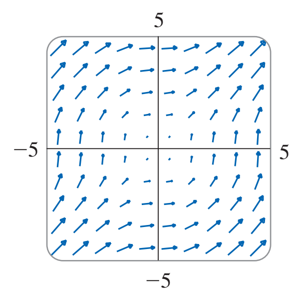


FIGURE 8
$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle \ln(1 + y^2), \ln(1 + x^2)\rangle$

EXAMPLE 2 Sketch the vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ given by $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z\,\mathbf{k}$.

SOLUTION A sketch is shown in Figure 9. Notice that all vectors are vertical and point upward above the xy-plane or downward below it. The magnitude increases with distance from the xy-plane.

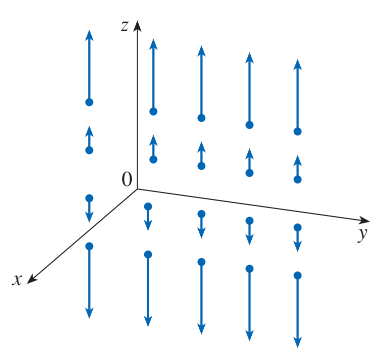


FIGURE 9
$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z\,\mathbf{k}$

■

We were able to draw the vector field in Example 2 by hand because of its particularly simple formula. Most three-dimensional vector fields, however, are virtually impossible to sketch by hand and so we need to resort to computer software. Examples are shown in Figures 10, 11, and 12. Notice that the vector fields in Figures 10 and 11 have similar formulas, but all the vectors in Figure 11 point in the general direction of the negative y-axis because their y-components are all -2. If the vector field in Figure 12 represents a velocity field, then a particle would be swept upward and would spiral around the z-axis in the clockwise direction as viewed from above.

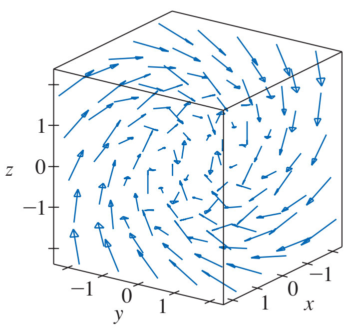


FIGURE 10
$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y\,\mathbf{i} + z\,\mathbf{j} + x\,\mathbf{k}$

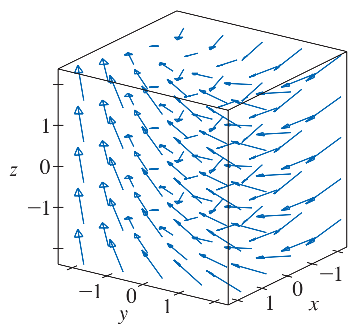


FIGURE 11
$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y\,\mathbf{i} - 2\,\mathbf{j} + x\,\mathbf{k}$

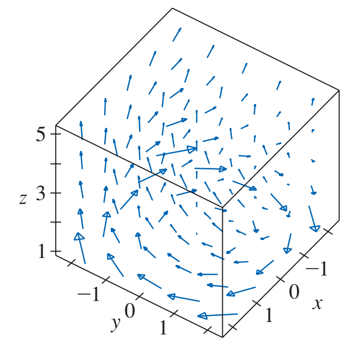


FIGURE 12
$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \dfrac{y}{z}\,\mathbf{i} - \dfrac{x}{z}\,\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{z}{4}\,\mathbf{k}$

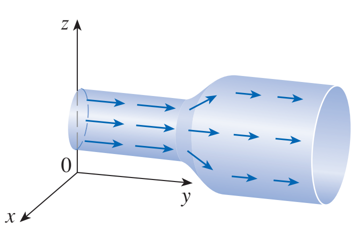


FIGURE 13
Velocity field in fluid flow

EXAMPLE 3 Imagine a fluid flowing steadily along a pipe and let $\mathbf{V}(x, y, z)$ be the velocity vector at a point (x, y, z). Then $\mathbf{V}$ assigns a vector to each point (x, y, z) in a certain domain E (the interior of the pipe) and so $\mathbf{V}$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ called a **velocity field**. A possible velocity field is illustrated in Figure 13. The speed at any given point is indicated by the length of the arrow.

Velocity fields also occur in other areas of physics. For instance, the vector field in Example 1 could be used as the velocity field describing the counterclockwise rotation of a wheel. We have seen other examples of velocity fields in Figures 1 and 2. ■

EXAMPLE 4 Newton's Law of Gravitation states that the magnitude of the gravitational force between two objects with masses m and M is

$$|\mathbf{F}| = \frac{mMG}{r^2}$$

where r is the distance between the objects and G is the gravitational constant. (This is an example of an inverse square law; see Section 1.2.) Let's assume that the object with mass M is located at the origin in $\mathbb{R}^3$. (For instance, M could be the mass of the earth and the origin would be at its center.) Let the position vector of the object with mass m be $\mathbf{x} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$. Then $r = |\mathbf{x}|$, so $r^2 = |\mathbf{x}|^2$. The gravitational force exerted on this second object acts toward the origin, and the unit vector in this direction is

$$-\frac{\mathbf{x}}{|\mathbf{x}|}$$

Therefore the gravitational force acting on the object at $\mathbf{x} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$ is

$$\boxed{3} \qquad \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{mMG}{|\mathbf{x}|^3}\,\mathbf{x}$$

[Physicists often use the notation $\mathbf{r}$ instead of $\mathbf{x}$ for the position vector, so you may see Formula 3 written in the form $\mathbf{F} = -(mMG/r^3)\mathbf{r}$.] The function given by Equation 3 is an example of a vector field, called the **gravitational field**, because it associates a vector [the force $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$] with every point $\mathbf{x}$ in space.

Formula 3 is a compact way of writing the gravitational field, but we can also write it in terms of its component functions by using the facts that $\mathbf{x} = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$ and $|\mathbf{x}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$:

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \frac{-mMGx}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{-mMGy}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{-mMGz}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}\,\mathbf{k}$$

The gravitational field $\mathbf{F}$ is pictured in Figure 14.

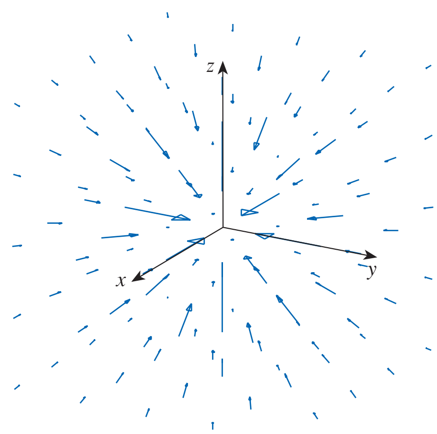


FIGURE 14
Gravitational force field

EXAMPLE 5 Suppose an electric charge Q is located at the origin. According to Coulomb's Law, the electric force $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$ exerted by this charge on a charge q located at a point (x, y, z) with position vector $\mathbf{x} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$ is

$$\boxed{4} \qquad \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\varepsilon q Q}{|\mathbf{x}|^3}\,\mathbf{x}$$

where ε is a constant (that depends on the units used). For like charges, we have $qQ > 0$ and the force is repulsive; for unlike charges, we have $qQ < 0$ and the force is attractive. Notice the similarity between Formulas 3 and 4. Both vector fields are examples of **force fields**.

Instead of considering the electric force $\mathbf{F}$, physicists often consider the force per unit charge:

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{q}\,\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\varepsilon Q}{|\mathbf{x}|^3}\,\mathbf{x}$$

Then $\mathbf{E}$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ called the **electric field** of Q.

Gradient Fields

If f is a scalar function of two variables, recall from Section 14.6 that its gradient ∇f (or grad f) is defined by

$$\nabla f(x, y) = f_x(x, y)\,\mathbf{i} + f_y(x, y)\,\mathbf{j}$$

Therefore ∇f is really a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^2$ and is called a **gradient vector field**. Likewise, if f is a scalar function of three variables, its gradient is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ given by

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = f_x(x, y, z)\,\mathbf{i} + f_y(x, y, z)\,\mathbf{j} + f_z(x, y, z)\,\mathbf{k}$$

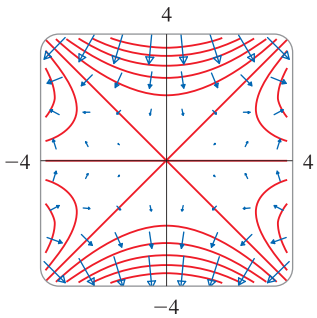


FIGURE 15

EXAMPLE 6 Find the gradient vector field of $f(x, y) = x^2y - y^3$. Plot the gradient vector field together with a contour map of f. How are they related?

SOLUTION The gradient vector field is given by

$$\nabla f(x, y) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\,\mathbf{j} = 2xy\,\mathbf{i} + (x^2 - 3y^2)\,\mathbf{j}$$

Figure 15 shows a contour map of f with the gradient vector field. Notice that the gradient vectors are perpendicular to the level curves, as we would expect from Section 14.6. Notice also that the gradient vectors are long where the level curves are close to each other and short where the curves are farther apart. That's because the length of the gradient vector is the value of the directional derivative of f and closely spaced level curves indicate a steep graph. ■

A vector field $\mathbf{F}$ is called a **conservative vector field** if it is the gradient of some scalar function, that is, if there exists a function f such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$. In this situation f is called a **potential function** for $\mathbf{F}$.

Not all vector fields are conservative, but such fields do arise frequently in physics. For example, the gravitational field $\mathbf{F}$ in Example 4 is conservative because if we define

$$f(x, y, z) = \frac{mMG}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$$

then

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla f(x, y, z) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\,\mathbf{k}\\ &= \frac{-mMGx}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{-mMGy}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{-mMGz}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}\,\mathbf{k}\\ &= \mathbf{F}(x, y, z)\end{aligned}$$

In Sections 16.3 and 16.5 we will learn how to tell whether or not a given vector field is conservative.

16.1 Exercises

1–12 Sketch the vector field $\mathbf{F}$ by drawing a diagram like Figure 5 or Figure 9.

1. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{2}\,\mathbf{j}$

2. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = 2\,\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$

3. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{2}y\,\mathbf{j}$

4. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{2}y\,\mathbf{j}$

5. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = -\frac{1}{2}\,\mathbf{i} + (y - x)\,\mathbf{j}$

6. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = y\,\mathbf{i} + (x + y)\,\mathbf{j}$

7. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \dfrac{y\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j}}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$

8. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \dfrac{y\,\mathbf{i} - x\,\mathbf{j}}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$

9. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \mathbf{i}$

10. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z\,\mathbf{i}$

11. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -y\,\mathbf{i}$

12. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{k}$

13–18 Match the vector fields $\mathbf{F}$ with the plots labeled I–VI. Give reasons for your choices.

13. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle x, -y \rangle$

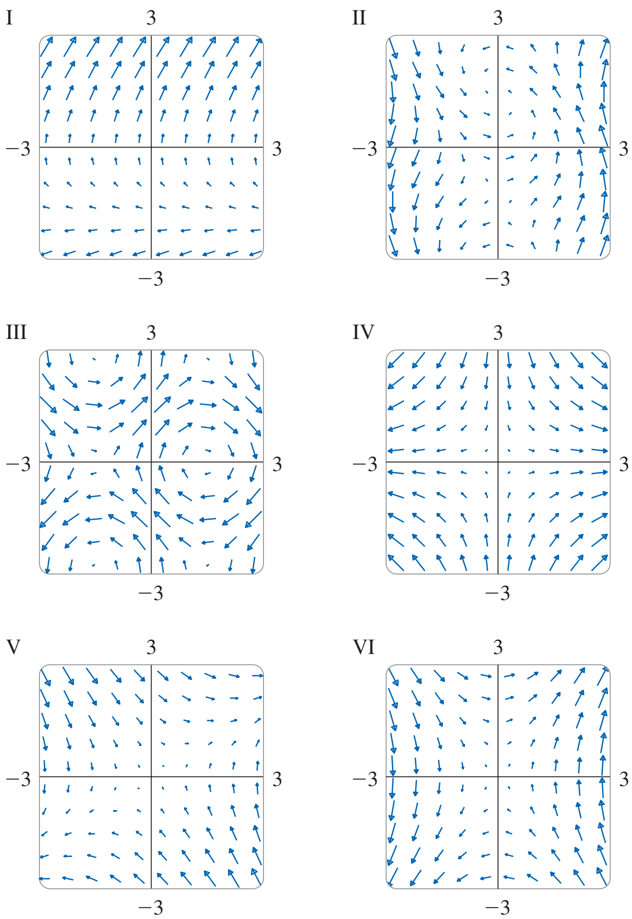
14. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle y, x - y \rangle$

15. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle y, y + 2 \rangle$

16. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle y, 2x \rangle$

17. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle \sin y, \cos x \rangle$

18. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle \cos(x + y), x \rangle$



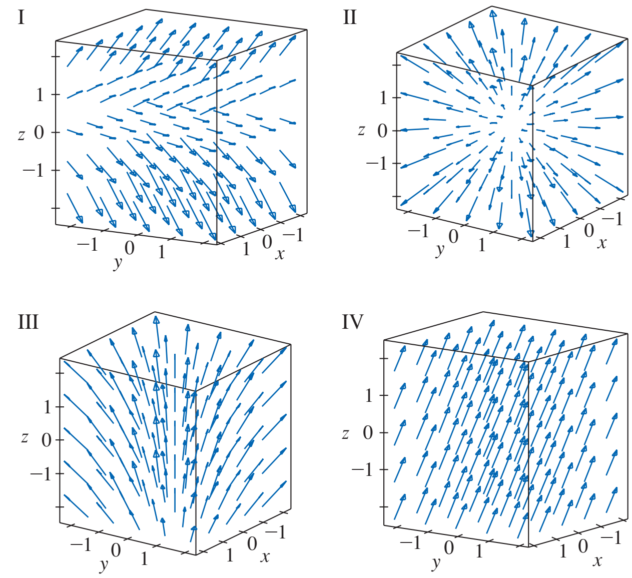
19–22 Match the vector fields $\mathbf{F}$ on $\mathbb{R}^3$ with the plots labeled I–IV. Give reasons for your choices.

19. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \mathbf{i} + 2\,\mathbf{j} + 3\,\mathbf{k}$

20. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \mathbf{i} + 2\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$

21. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + 3\,\mathbf{k}$

22. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$



23. Use graphing software to plot the vector field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (y^2 - 2xy)\,\mathbf{i} + (3xy - 6x^2)\,\mathbf{j}$$

Explain the appearance by finding the set of points (x, y) such that $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \mathbf{0}$.

24. Let $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = (r^2 - 2r)\mathbf{x}$, where $\mathbf{x} = \langle x, y \rangle$ and $r = |\mathbf{x}|$. Use graphing software to plot this vector field in various domains until you can see what is happening. Describe the appearance of the plot and explain it by finding the points where $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$.

25–28 Find the gradient vector field ∇f of f.

25. $f(x, y) = y \sin(xy)$

26. $f(s, t) = \sqrt{2s + 3t}$

27. $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

28. $f(x, y, z) = x^2 y e^{y/z}$

29–30 Find the gradient vector field ∇f of f and sketch it.

29. $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(x - y)^2$

30. $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2)$

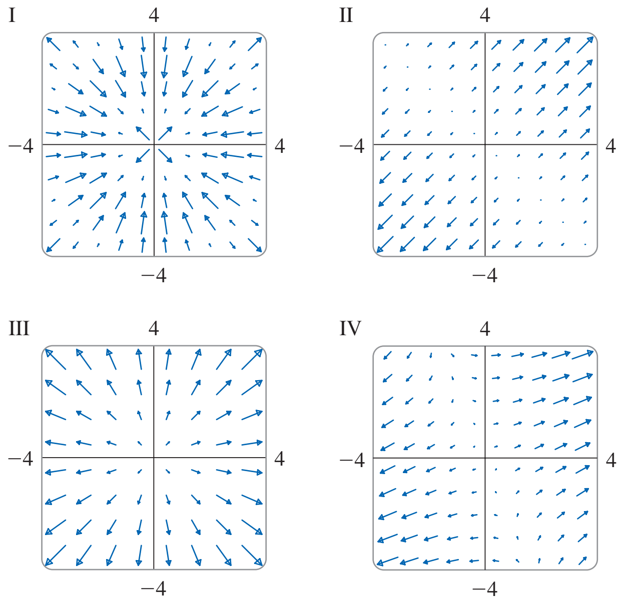
31–34 Match the functions f with the plots of their gradient vector fields labeled I–IV. Give reasons for your choices.

31. $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$

32. $f(x, y) = x(x + y)$

33. $f(x, y) = (x + y)^2$

34. $f(x, y) = \sin\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$



35–36 Plot the gradient vector field of f together with a contour map of f. Explain how they are related to each other.

35. $f(x, y) = \ln(1 + x^2 + 2y^2)$

36. $f(x, y) = \cos x - 2 \sin y$

37. A particle moves in a velocity field $\mathbf{V}(x, y) = \langle x^2, x + y^2 \rangle$. If it is at position $(2, 1)$ at time $t = 3$, estimate its location at time $t = 3.01$.

38. At time $t = 1$, a particle is located at position $(1, 3)$. If it moves in a velocity field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle xy - 2, y^2 - 10 \rangle$$

find its approximate location at time $t = 1.05$.

39–40 Flow Lines The *flow lines* (or *streamlines*) of a vector field are the paths followed by a particle whose velocity field is the given vector field. Thus the vectors in a vector field are tangent to the flow lines.

39. (a) Use a sketch of the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x\,\mathbf{i} - y\,\mathbf{j}$ to draw some flow lines. From your sketches, can you guess the equations of the flow lines?

(b) If parametric equations of a flow line are $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$, explain why these functions satisfy the differential equations $dx/dt = x$ and $dy/dt = -y$. Then solve the differential equations to find an equation of the flow line that passes through the point $(1, 1)$.

40. (a) Sketch the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j}$ and then sketch some flow lines. What shape do these flow lines appear to have?

(b) If parametric equations of the flow lines are $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$, what differential equations do these functions satisfy? Deduce that $dy/dx = x$.

(c) If a particle starts at the origin in the velocity field given by $\mathbf{F}$, find an equation of the path it follows.

16.2 Line Integrals

In this section we define an integral that is similar to a single integral except that instead of integrating over an interval $[a, b]$, we integrate over a curve C. Such integrals are called *line integrals,* although "curve integrals" would be better terminology. They were invented in the early 19th century to solve problems involving fluid flow, forces, electricity, and magnetism.

Line Integrals in the Plane

We start with a plane curve C given by the parametric equations

$$\boxed{1} \qquad x = x(t) \qquad y = y(t) \qquad a \leqslant t \leqslant b$$

or, equivalently, by the vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\,\mathbf{i} + y(t)\,\mathbf{j}$, and we assume that C is a smooth curve. [This means that $\mathbf{r}'$ is continuous and $\mathbf{r}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$. See Section 13.3.] If we divide the parameter interval $[a, b]$ into n subintervals $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$ of equal width and we let $x_i = x(t_i)$ and $y_i = y(t_i)$, then the corresponding points $P_i(x_i, y_i)$ divide C into n subarcs with lengths $\Delta s_1, \Delta s_2, \ldots, \Delta s_n$. (See Figure 1.) We choose any point $P_i^*(x_i^*, y_i^*)$ in the ith subarc. (This corresponds to a point t_i^* in $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$.) Now if f is any function of two

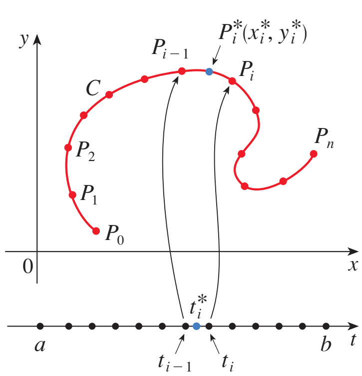


FIGURE 1

variables whose domain includes the curve C, we evaluate f at the point (x_i^*, y_i^*), multiply by the length Δs_i of the subarc, and form the sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*, y_i^*)\, \Delta s_i$$

which is similar to a Riemann sum. Then we take the limit of these sums and make the following definition by analogy with a single integral.

2 Definitio If f is defined on a smooth curve C given by Equations 1, then the **line integral of f along C** is

$$\int_C f(x, y)\, ds = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*, y_i^*)\, \Delta s_i$$

if this limit exists.

In Section 10.2 we found that the length of C is

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

A similar type of argument can be used to show that if f is a continuous function, then the limit in Definition 2 always exists and the following formula can be used to evaluate the line integral:

3 $$\int_C f(x, y)\, ds = \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t)) \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}\, dt$$

The value of the line integral does not depend on the parametrization of the curve, provided that the curve is traversed exactly once as t increases from a to b.

The arc length function s is discussed in Section 13.3.

If $s(t)$ is the length of C between $\mathbf{r}(a)$ and $\mathbf{r}(t)$, then

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = |\mathbf{r}'(t)| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}$$

(See Equation 13.3.7.) So the way to remember Formula 3 is to express everything in terms of the parameter t: use the parametric equations to express x and y in terms of t and write ds as

$$ds = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}\, dt$$

NOTE In the special case where C is the line segment that joins $(a, 0)$ to $(b, 0)$, using x as the parameter, we can write the parametric equations of C as follows: $x = x$, $y = 0$, $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$. Formula 3 then becomes

$$\int_C f(x, y)\, ds = \int_a^b f(x, 0)\, dx$$

and so the line integral reduces to an ordinary single integral in this case.

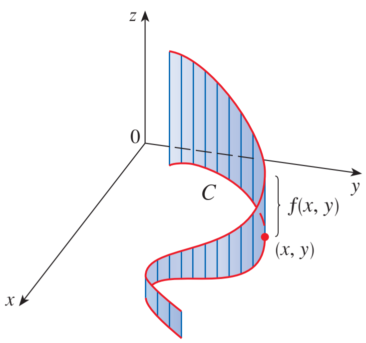


FIGURE 2

Just as for an ordinary single integral, we can interpret the line integral of a *positive* function as an area. In fact, if $f(x, y) \geqslant 0$, $\int_C f(x, y)\, ds$ represents the area of one side of the "fence" or "curtain" in Figure 2, whose base is C and whose height above the point (x, y) is $f(x, y)$.

EXAMPLE 1 Evaluate $\int_C (2 + x^2 y)\, ds$, where C is the upper half of the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

SOLUTION In order to use Formula 3, we first need parametric equations to represent C. Recall that the unit circle can be parametrized by means of the equations

$$x = \cos t \qquad y = \sin t$$

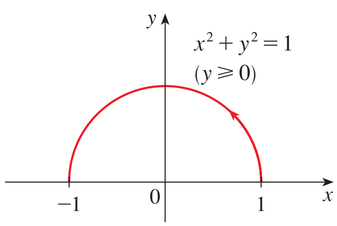


FIGURE 3

and the upper half of the circle is described by the parameter interval $0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$. (See Figure 3.) Therefore Formula 3 gives

$$\begin{aligned}\int_C (2 + x^2 y)\, ds &= \int_0^{\pi} (2 + \cos^2 t \sin t) \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2}\, dt \\ &= \int_0^{\pi} (2 + \cos^2 t \sin t) \sqrt{\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t}\, dt \\ &= \int_0^{\pi} (2 + \cos^2 t \sin t)\, dt = \left[2t - \frac{\cos^3 t}{3}\right]_0^{\pi} \\ &= 2\pi + \tfrac{2}{3}\end{aligned}$$

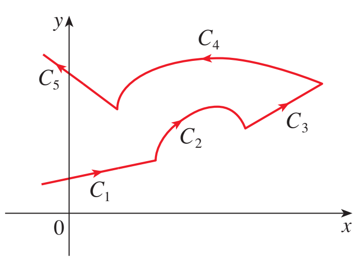


FIGURE 4
A piecewise-smooth curve

Suppose now that C is a **piecewise-smooth curve**; that is, C is a union of a finite number of smooth curves $C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_n$, where, as illustrated in Figure 4, the initial point of C_{i+1} is the terminal point of C_i. Then we define the integral of f along C as the sum of the integrals of f along each of the smooth pieces of C:

$$\int_C f(x, y)\, ds = \int_{C_1} f(x, y)\, ds + \int_{C_2} f(x, y)\, ds + \cdots + \int_{C_n} f(x, y)\, ds$$

EXAMPLE 2 Evaluate $\int_C 2x\, ds$, where C consists of the arc C_1 of the parabola $y = x^2$ from $(0, 0)$ to $(1, 1)$ followed by the vertical line segment C_2 from $(1, 1)$ to $(1, 2)$.

SOLUTION The curve C is shown in Figure 5. C_1 is the graph of a function of x, so we can choose x as the parameter and the equations for C_1 become

$$x = x \qquad y = x^2 \qquad 0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$$

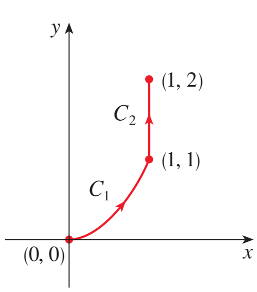


FIGURE 5
$C = C_1 \cup C_2$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{C_1} 2x\, ds &= \int_0^1 2x \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dx}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}\, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 2x\sqrt{1 + 4x^2}\, dx \\ &= \tfrac{1}{4} \cdot \tfrac{2}{3}(1 + 4x^2)^{3/2}\Big]_0^1 = \frac{5\sqrt{5} - 1}{6}\end{aligned}$$

On C_2 we choose y as the parameter, so the equations of C_2 are

$$x = 1 \qquad y = y \qquad 1 \leqslant y \leqslant 2$$

and
$$\int_{C_2} 2x\, ds = \int_1^2 2(1)\sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dy}\right)^2}\, dy = \int_1^2 2\, dy = 2$$

Thus
$$\int_C 2x\, ds = \int_{C_1} 2x\, ds + \int_{C_2} 2x\, ds = \frac{5\sqrt{5} - 1}{6} + 2$$ ■

Any physical interpretation of a line integral $\int_C f(x, y)\, ds$ depends on the physical interpretation of the function f. Suppose that $\rho(x, y)$ represents the linear density at a point (x, y) of a thin wire shaped like a curve C (see Example 3.7.2). Then the mass of the part of the wire from P_{i-1} to P_i in Figure 1 is approximately $\rho(x_i^*, y_i^*)\, \Delta s_i$ and so the total mass of the wire is approximately $\Sigma\, \rho(x_i^*, y_i^*)\, \Delta s_i$. By taking more and more points on the curve, we obtain the **mass** m of the wire as the limiting value of these approximations:

$$m = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho(x_i^*, y_i^*)\, \Delta s_i = \int_C \rho(x, y)\, ds$$

[For example, if $f(x, y) = 2 + x^2 y$ represents the density of a semicircular wire, then the integral in Example 1 would represent the mass of the wire.] The **center of mass** of the wire with density function ρ is located at the point $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$, where

4
$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{m}\int_C x\,\rho(x, y)\, ds \qquad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{m}\int_C y\,\rho(x, y)\, ds$$

Other physical interpretations of line integrals will be discussed later in this chapter.

EXAMPLE 3 A wire takes the shape of the semicircle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, $y \geqslant 0$, and is thicker near its base than near the top. Find the center of mass of the wire if the linear density at any point is proportional to its distance from the line $y = 1$.

SOLUTION As in Example 1 we use the parametrization $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$, and find that $ds = dt$. The linear density is

$$\rho(x, y) = k(1 - y)$$

where k is a constant, and so the mass of the wire is

$$m = \int_C k(1 - y)\, ds = \int_0^\pi k(1 - \sin t)\, dt = k\Big[t + \cos t\Big]_0^\pi = k(\pi - 2)$$

From Equations 4 we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{y} &= \frac{1}{m}\int_C y\,\rho(x, y)\, ds = \frac{1}{k(\pi - 2)}\int_C y\,k(1 - y)\, ds \\
&= \frac{1}{\pi - 2}\int_0^\pi (\sin t - \sin^2 t)\, dt = \frac{1}{\pi - 2}\Big[-\cos t - \tfrac{1}{2}t + \tfrac{1}{4}\sin 2t\Big]_0^\pi \\
&= \frac{4 - \pi}{2(\pi - 2)}
\end{aligned}$$

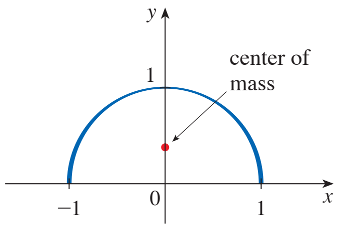


FIGURE 6

By symmetry we see that $\bar{x} = 0$, so the center of mass is

$$\left(0, \frac{4 - \pi}{2(\pi - 2)}\right) \approx (0, 0.38)$$

See Figure 6. ■

■ Line Integrals with Respect to x or y

Two other types of line integrals are obtained by replacing Δs_i by either $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$ or $\Delta y_i = y_i - y_{i-1}$ in Definition 2. They are called the **line integrals of f along C with respect to x and y**:

$$\boxed{5} \qquad \int_C f(x, y)\, dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*, y_i^*)\, \Delta x_i$$

$$\boxed{6} \qquad \int_C f(x, y)\, dy = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*, y_i^*)\, \Delta y_i$$

When we want to distinguish the original line integral $\int_C f(x, y)\, ds$ from those in Equations 5 and 6, we call it the **line integral with respect to arc length**.

The following formulas say that line integrals with respect to x and y can also be evaluated by expressing everything in terms of t: $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$, $dx = x'(t)\, dt$, $dy = y'(t)\, dt$.

$$\boxed{7} \qquad \boxed{\begin{aligned} \int_C f(x, y)\, dx &= \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t))\, x'(t)\, dt \\ \int_C f(x, y)\, dy &= \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t))\, y'(t)\, dt \end{aligned}}$$

We will see throughout this chapter that line integrals with respect to x and y frequently occur together (see, for instance, Equation 14). When this happens, it's customary to abbreviate by writing

$$\int_C P(x, y)\, dx + \int_C Q(x, y)\, dy = \int_C P(x, y)\, dx + Q(x, y)\, dy$$

When we are setting up a line integral, sometimes the most difficult thing is to think of a parametric representation for a curve whose geometric description is given. In particular, we often need to parametrize a line segment, so it's useful to remember that a vector representation of the line segment that starts at $\mathbf{r}_0$ and ends at $\mathbf{r}_1$ is given by

$$\boxed{8} \qquad \boxed{\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 - t)\mathbf{r}_0 + t\,\mathbf{r}_1 \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1}$$

(See Equation 12.5.4.)

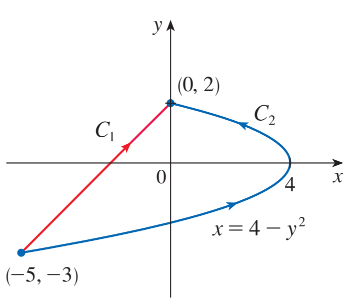


FIGURE 7

EXAMPLE 4 Evaluate $\int_C y^2\, dx + x\, dy$ for two different paths C.

(a) $C = C_1$ is the line segment from $(-5, -3)$ to $(0, 2)$.
(b) $C = C_2$ is the arc of the parabola $x = 4 - y^2$ from $(-5, -3)$ to $(0, 2)$.
(See Figure 7.)

SOLUTION

(a) A parametric representation for the line segment is

$$x = 5t - 5 \qquad y = 5t - 3 \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

(Use Equation 8 with $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle -5, -3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}_1 = \langle 0, 2 \rangle$.) Then $dx = 5\,dt$, $dy = 5\,dt$, and Formulas 7 give

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{C_1} y^2\,dx + x\,dy &= \int_0^1 (5t-3)^2(5\,dt) + (5t-5)(5\,dt) \\ &= 5\int_0^1 (25t^2 - 25t + 4)\,dt \\ &= 5\left[\frac{25t^3}{3} - \frac{25t^2}{2} + 4t\right]_0^1 = -\frac{5}{6} \end{aligned}$$

(b) Since the parabola is given as a function of y, let's take y as the parameter and write C_2 as

$$x = 4 - y^2 \qquad y = y \qquad -3 \leqslant y \leqslant 2$$

Then $dx = -2y\,dy$ and by Formulas 7 we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{C_2} y^2\,dx + x\,dy &= \int_{-3}^{2} y^2(-2y)\,dy + (4 - y^2)\,dy \\ &= \int_{-3}^{2} (-2y^3 - y^2 + 4)\,dy \\ &= \left[-\frac{y^4}{2} - \frac{y^3}{3} + 4y\right]_{-3}^{2} = 40\tfrac{5}{6} \end{aligned}$$

■

Notice that we got different answers in parts (a) and (b) of Example 4 even though the two curves had the same endpoints. Thus, in general, the value of a line integral depends not just on the endpoints of the curve but also on the path. (But see Section 16.3 for conditions under which the integral is independent of the path.)

Notice also that the answers in Example 4 depend on the direction, or orientation, of the curve. If $-C_1$ denotes the line segment from $(0, 2)$ to $(-5, -3)$, you can verify, using the parametrization

$$x = -5t \qquad y = 2 - 5t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

that

$$\int_{-C_1} y^2\,dx + x\,dy = \tfrac{5}{6}$$

In general, a given parametrization $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, determines an **orientation** of a curve C, with the positive direction corresponding to increasing values of the parameter t. (See Figure 8, where the initial point A corresponds to the parameter value a and the terminal point B corresponds to $t = b$.)

If $-C$ denotes the curve consisting of the same points as C but with the opposite orientation (from initial point B to terminal point A in Figure 8), then we have

$$\int_{-C} f(x, y)\,dx = -\int_C f(x, y)\,dx \qquad \int_{-C} f(x, y)\,dy = -\int_C f(x, y)\,dy$$

But if we integrate with respect to arc length, the value of the line integral does *not* change when we reverse the orientation of the curve:

$$\int_{-C} f(x, y)\,ds = \int_C f(x, y)\,ds$$

This is because Δs_i is always positive, whereas Δx_i and Δy_i change sign when we reverse the orientation of C.

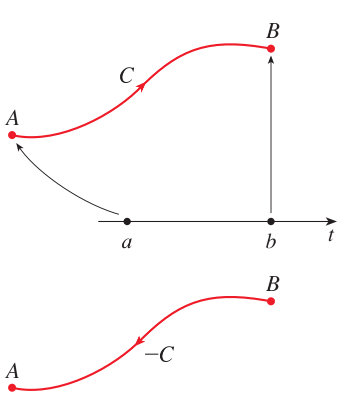


FIGURE 8

Line Integrals in Space

We now suppose that C is a smooth space curve given by the parametric equations

$$x = x(t) \qquad y = y(t) \qquad z = z(t) \qquad a \leqslant t \leqslant b$$

or by a vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\,\mathbf{i} + y(t)\,\mathbf{j} + z(t)\,\mathbf{k}$. If f is a function of three variables that is continuous on some region containing C, then we define the **line integral of f along C** (with respect to arc length) in a manner similar to that for plane curves:

$$\int_C f(x, y, z)\, ds = \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*)\, \Delta s_i$$

We evaluate it using a formula similar to Formula 3:

$$\boxed{9} \quad \int_C f(x, y, z)\, ds = \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t), z(t)) \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2}\, dt$$

Observe that the integrals in both Formulas 3 and 9 can be written in the more compact vector notation

$$\int_a^b f(\mathbf{r}(t))\, |\mathbf{r}'(t)|\, dt$$

For the special case $f(x, y, z) = 1$, we get

$$\int_C ds = \int_a^b |\mathbf{r}'(t)|\, dt = L$$

where L is the length of the curve C (see Formula 13.3.3).

Line integrals along C with respect to x, y, and z can also be defined. For example,

$$\int_C f(x, y, z)\, dz = \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*)\, \Delta z_i$$

$$= \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t), z(t))\, z'(t)\, dt$$

Therefore, as with line integrals in the plane, we evaluate integrals of the form

$$\boxed{10} \qquad \int_C P(x, y, z)\, dx + Q(x, y, z)\, dy + R(x, y, z)\, dz$$

by expressing everything (x, y, z, dx, dy, dz) in terms of the parameter t.

EXAMPLE 5 Evaluate $\int_C y \sin z\, ds$, where C is the circular helix given by the equations $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t$, $z = t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$. (See Figure 9.)

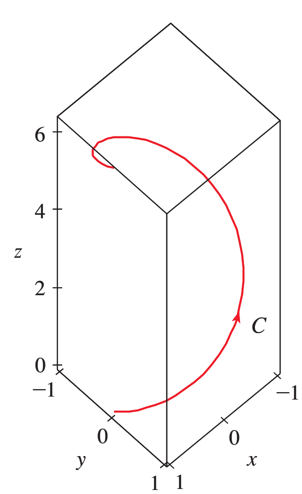


FIGURE 9

SOLUTION Formula 9 gives

$$\int_C y \sin z\, ds = \int_0^{2\pi} (\sin t) \sin t \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2}\, dt$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 t \sqrt{\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t + 1}\, dt = \sqrt{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \tfrac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2t)\, dt$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\left[t - \tfrac{1}{2}\sin 2t\right]_0^{2\pi} = \sqrt{2}\,\pi$$ ■

EXAMPLE 6 Evaluate $\int_C y\,dx + z\,dy + x\,dz$, where C consists of the line segment C_1 from $(2, 0, 0)$ to $(3, 4, 5)$, followed by the vertical line segment C_2 from $(3, 4, 5)$ to $(3, 4, 0)$.

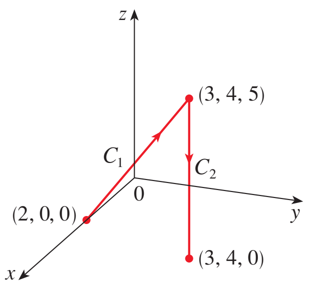


FIGURE 10

SOLUTION The curve C is shown in Figure 10. Using Equation 8, we write C_1 as

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 - t)\langle 2, 0, 0\rangle + t\langle 3, 4, 5\rangle = \langle 2 + t, 4t, 5t\rangle$$

or, in parametric form, as

$$x = 2 + t \qquad y = 4t \qquad z = 5t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

Thus

$$\int_{C_1} y\,dx + z\,dy + x\,dz = \int_0^1 (4t)\,dt + (5t)4\,dt + (2 + t)5\,dt$$

$$= \int_0^1 (10 + 29t)\,dt = 10t + 29\,\frac{t^2}{2}\bigg]_0^1 = 24.5$$

Likewise, C_2 can be written in the form

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 - t)\langle 3, 4, 5\rangle + t\langle 3, 4, 0\rangle = \langle 3, 4, 5 - 5t\rangle$$

or $$x = 3 \qquad y = 4 \qquad z = 5 - 5t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

Then $dx = 0 = dy$, so

$$\int_{C_2} y\,dx + z\,dy + x\,dz = \int_0^1 3(-5)\,dt = -15$$

Adding the values of these integrals, we obtain

$$\int_C y\,dx + z\,dy + x\,dz = 24.5 - 15 = 9.5$$

Line Integrals of Vector Fields; Work

Recall from Section 6.4 that the work done by a variable force $f(x)$ in moving a particle from a to b along the x-axis is $W = \int_a^b f(x)\,dx$. Then in Section 12.3 we found that the work done by a constant force $\mathbf{F}$ in moving an object from a point P to another point Q in space is $W = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{D}$, where $\mathbf{D} = \overrightarrow{PQ}$ is the displacement vector.

Now suppose that $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}$ is a continuous force field on $\mathbb{R}^3$, such as the gravitational field of Example 16.1.4 or the electric force field of Example 16.1.5. (A force field on $\mathbb{R}^2$ could be regarded as a special case where $R = 0$ and P and Q depend only on x and y.) We wish to compute the work done by this force in moving a particle along a smooth curve C. See Figure 11.

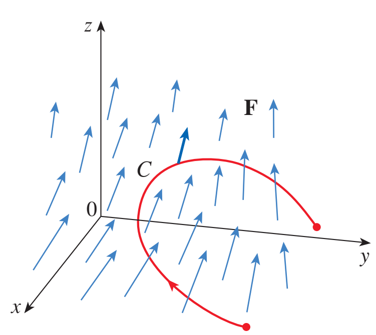


FIGURE 11

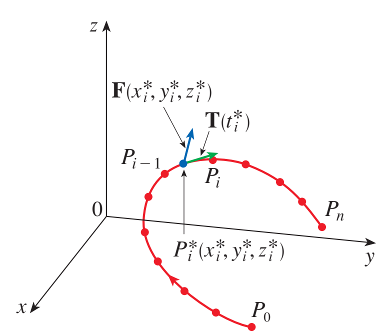


FIGURE 12

To find the work done by $\mathbf{F}$ in moving a particle along C, we divide C into subarcs $P_{i-1}P_i$ with lengths Δs_i by dividing the parameter interval $[a, b]$ into subintervals of equal width. (See Figure 1 for the two-dimensional case or Figure 12 for the three-dimensional case.) Choose a point $P_i^*(x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*)$ on the ith subarc corresponding to the parameter value t_i^*. If Δs_i is small, then as the particle moves from P_{i-1} to P_i along the curve, it proceeds approximately in the direction of $\mathbf{T}(t_i^*)$, the unit tangent vector at P_i^*. Thus the work done by the force $\mathbf{F}$ in moving the particle from P_{i-1} to P_i is approximately

$$\mathbf{F}(x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*) \cdot [\Delta s_i \, \mathbf{T}(t_i^*)] = [\mathbf{F}(x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*) \cdot \mathbf{T}(t_i^*)] \, \Delta s_i$$

and the total work done in moving the particle along C is approximately

11 $$\sum_{i=1}^{n} [\mathbf{F}(x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*) \cdot \mathbf{T}(x_i^*, y_i^*, z_i^*)] \, \Delta s_i$$

where $\mathbf{T}(x, y, z)$ is the unit tangent vector at the point (x, y, z) on C. Intuitively, we see that these approximations ought to become better as n becomes larger. Therefore we define the **work** W done by the force field $\mathbf{F}$ as the limit of the Riemann sums in (11), namely,

12 $$W = \int_C \mathbf{F}(x, y, z) \cdot \mathbf{T}(x, y, z) \, ds = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds$$

Equation 12 says that *work is the line integral with respect to arc length of the tangential component of the force.*

If the curve C is given by the vector equation $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\,\mathbf{i} + y(t)\,\mathbf{j} + z(t)\,\mathbf{k}$, then $\mathbf{T}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t)/|\mathbf{r}'(t)|$, so using Equation 9 we can rewrite Equation 12 in the form

$$W = \int_a^b \left[\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} \right] |\mathbf{r}'(t)| \, dt = \int_a^b \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) \, dt$$

This integral is often abbreviated as $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ and occurs in other areas of physics as well. Therefore we make the following definition for the line integral of *any* continuous vector field.

13 Definitio Let $\mathbf{F}$ be a continuous vector field defined on a smooth curve C given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$. Then the **line integral of F along *C*** is

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_a^b \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) \, dt = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds$$

When using Definition 13, bear in mind that $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t))$ is just an abbreviation for the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x(t), y(t), z(t))$, so we evaluate $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t))$ simply by putting $x = x(t)$, $y = y(t)$, and $z = z(t)$ in the expression for $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$. Notice also that we can formally write $d\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}'(t) \, dt$.

Figure 13 shows the force field and the curve in Example 7. The work done is negative because the field impedes movement along the curve.

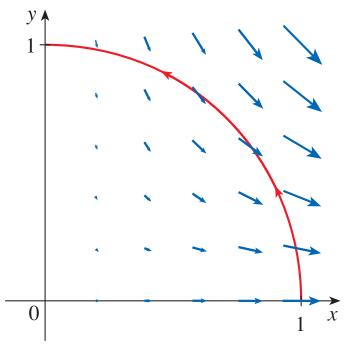


FIGURE 13

EXAMPLE 7 Find the work done by the force field $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x^2\,\mathbf{i} - xy\,\mathbf{j}$ in moving a particle along the quarter-circle $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j}$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/2$.

SOLUTION Since $x = \cos t$ and $y = \sin t$, we have

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) = \cos^2 t\,\mathbf{i} - \cos t\,\sin t\,\mathbf{j}$$

and
$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = -\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j}$$

Therefore the work done is

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_0^{\pi/2} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)\,dt = \int_0^{\pi/2} (-\cos^2 t\,\sin t - \cos^2 t\,\sin t)\,dt$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} (-2\cos^2 t\,\sin t)\,dt = 2\,\frac{\cos^3 t}{3}\bigg]_0^{\pi/2} = -\frac{2}{3}$$ ■

NOTE Even though $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}\,ds$ and integrals with respect to arc length are unchanged when orientation is reversed, it is still true that

$$\int_{-C} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = -\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

because the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}$ is replaced by its negative when C is replaced by $-C$.

Figure 14 shows the twisted cubic C in Example 8 and some typical vectors acting at three points on C.

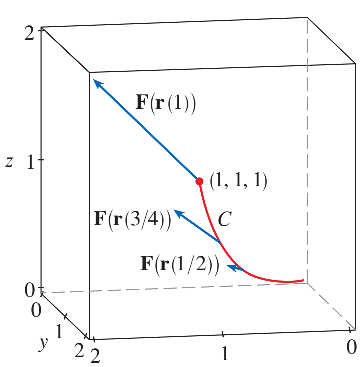


FIGURE 14

EXAMPLE 8 Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xy\,\mathbf{i} + yz\,\mathbf{j} + zx\,\mathbf{k}$ and C is the twisted cubic given by

$$x = t \qquad y = t^2 \qquad z = t^3 \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

SOLUTION We have

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t^3\,\mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{i} + 2t\,\mathbf{j} + 3t^2\,\mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) = t^3\,\mathbf{i} + t^5\,\mathbf{j} + t^4\,\mathbf{k}$$

Thus
$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_0^1 \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)\,dt$$

$$= \int_0^1 (t^3 + 5t^6)\,dt = \frac{t^4}{4} + \frac{5t^7}{7}\bigg]_0^1 = \frac{27}{28}$$ ■

Finally, we note the connection between line integrals of vector fields and line integrals of scalar fields. Suppose the vector field $\mathbf{F}$ on $\mathbb{R}^3$ is given in component form by the equation $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}$. We use Definition 13 to compute its line integral along C:

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_a^b \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)\,dt$$

$$= \int_a^b (P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}) \cdot (x'(t)\,\mathbf{i} + y'(t)\,\mathbf{j} + z'(t)\,\mathbf{k})\,dt$$

$$= \int_a^b \Big[P(x(t), y(t), z(t))\,x'(t) + Q(x(t), y(t), z(t))\,y'(t) + R(x(t), y(t), z(t))\,z'(t)\Big]\,dt$$

But this last integral is precisely the line integral in (10). Therefore we have

$$\boxed{\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C P\,dx + Q\,dy + R\,dz \qquad \text{where } \mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}}$$

For example, the integral $\int_C y\,dx + z\,dy + x\,dz$ in Example 6 could be expressed as $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y\,\mathbf{i} + z\,\mathbf{j} + x\,\mathbf{k}$$

A similar result holds for vector fields $\mathbf{F}$ on $\mathbb{R}^2$:

$$\boxed{14} \qquad \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C P\,dx + Q\,dy$$

where $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j}$.

16.2 Exercises

1–8 Evaluate the line integral, where C is the given plane curve.

1. $\int_C y\,ds$, $\quad C$: $x = t^2$, $y = 2t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$

2. $\int_C (x/y)\,ds$, $\quad C$: $x = t^3$, $y = t^4$, $1 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

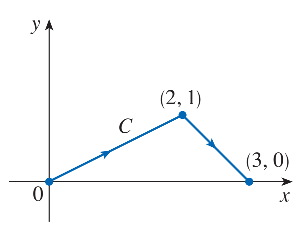
3. $\int_C xy^4\,ds$, $\quad C$ is the right half of the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 16$

4. $\int_C xe^y\,ds$, $\quad C$ is the line segment from $(2, 0)$ to $(5, 4)$

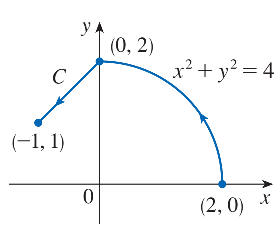
5. $\int_C (x^2y + \sin x)\,dy$,
C is the arc of the parabola $y = x^2$ from $(0, 0)$ to (π, π^2)

6. $\int_C e^x\,dx$,
C is the arc of the curve $x = y^3$ from $(-1, -1)$ to $(1, 1)$

7. $\int_C (x + 2y)\,dx + x^2\,dy$



8. $\int_C x^2\,dx + y^2\,dy$



9–18 Evaluate the line integral, where C is the given space curve.

9. $\int_C x^2y\,ds$,
C: $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t$, $z = t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/2$

10. $\int_C y^2z\,ds$,
C is the line segment from $(3, 1, 2)$ to $(1, 2, 5)$

11. $\int_C xe^{yz}\,ds$,
C is the line segment from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 2, 3)$

12. $\int_C (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\,ds$,
C: $x = t$, $y = \cos 2t$, $z = \sin 2t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$

13. $\int_C xye^{yz}\,dy$, $\quad C$: $x = t$, $y = t^2$, $z = t^3$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

14. $\int_C ye^z\,dz + x\ln x\,dy - y\,dx$,
C: $x = e^t$, $y = 2t$, $z = \ln t$, $1 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

15. $\int_C z\,dx + xy\,dy + y^2\,dz$,
C: $x = \sin t$, $y = \cos t$, $z = \tan t$, $-\pi/4 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/4$

16. $\int_C y\,dx + z\,dy + x\,dz$,
C: $x = \sqrt{t}$, $y = t$, $z = t^2$, $1 \leqslant t \leqslant 4$

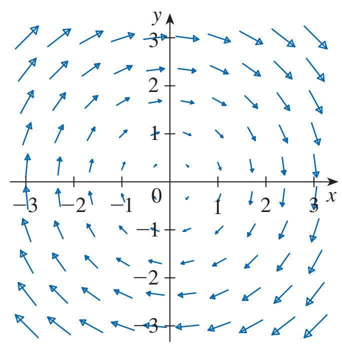
17. $\int_C z^2\,dx + x^2\,dy + y^2\,dz$,
C is the line segment from $(1, 0, 0)$ to $(4, 1, 2)$

18. $\int_C (y + z)\,dx + (x + z)\,dy + (x + y)\,dz$,
C consists of line segments from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 0, 1)$ and from $(1, 0, 1)$ to $(0, 1, 2)$

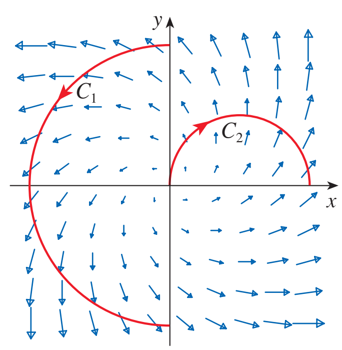
19. Let $\mathbf{F}$ be the vector field shown in the figure.

(a) If C_1 is the vertical line segment from $(-3, -3)$ to $(-3, 3)$, determine whether $\int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is positive, negative, or zero.

(b) If C_2 is the counterclockwise-oriented circle with radius 3 and center the origin, determine whether $\int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is positive, negative, or zero.



20. The figure shows a vector field $\mathbf{F}$ and two curves C_1 and C_2. Are the line integrals of $\mathbf{F}$ over C_1 and C_2 positive, negative, or zero? Explain.



21–24 Evaluate the line integral $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where C is given by the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

21. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = xy^2\,\mathbf{i} - x^2\,\mathbf{j}$,
$\mathbf{r}(t) = t^3\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

22. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x + y^2)\,\mathbf{i} + xz\,\mathbf{j} + (y + z)\,\mathbf{k}$,
$\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + t^3\,\mathbf{j} - 2t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

23. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \sin x\,\mathbf{i} + \cos y\,\mathbf{j} + xz\,\mathbf{k}$,
$\mathbf{r}(t) = t^3\,\mathbf{i} - t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

24. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xz\,\mathbf{i} + z^3\,\mathbf{j} + y\,\mathbf{k}$,
$\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\,\mathbf{i} + e^{2t}\,\mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\,\mathbf{k}, \quad -1 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

T **25–28** Use a calculator or computer to evaluate the line integral correct to four decimal places.

25. $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \sqrt{x + y}\,\mathbf{i} + (y/x)\,\mathbf{j}$ and
$\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin^2 t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t \cos t\,\mathbf{j}, \quad \pi/6 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/3$

26. $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = yze^x\,\mathbf{i} + zxe^y\,\mathbf{j} + xye^z\,\mathbf{k}$ and
$\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + \tan t\,\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/4$

27. $\int_C xy \arctan z\, ds$, where C has parametric equations
$x = t^2,\ y = t^3,\ z = \sqrt{t}, \quad 1 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

28. $\int_C z \ln(x + y)\, ds$, where C has parametric equations
$x = 1 + 3t,\ y = 2 + t^2,\ z = t^4, \quad -1 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

29–30 Use a graph of the vector field $\mathbf{F}$ and the curve C to guess whether the line integral of $\mathbf{F}$ over C is positive, negative, or zero. Then evaluate the line integral.

29. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x - y)\,\mathbf{i} + xy\,\mathbf{j}$,
C is the arc of the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ traversed counterclockwise from $(2, 0)$ to $(0, -2)$

30. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \dfrac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}\,\mathbf{i} + \dfrac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}\,\mathbf{j}$,
C is the parabola $y = 1 + x^2$ from $(-1, 2)$ to $(1, 2)$

31. (a) Evaluate the line integral $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = e^{x-1}\,\mathbf{i} + xy\,\mathbf{j}$ and C is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + t^3\,\mathbf{j}, \ 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$.

(b) Illustrate part (a) by graphing C and the vectors from the vector field corresponding to $t = 0, 1/\sqrt{2}$, and 1 (as in Figure 14).

32. (a) Evaluate the line integral $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\,\mathbf{i} - z\,\mathbf{j} + y\,\mathbf{k}$ and C is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = 2t\,\mathbf{i} + 3t\,\mathbf{j} - t^2\,\mathbf{k}, \ -1 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$.

(b) Illustrate part (a) by graphing C and the vectors from the vector field corresponding to $t = \pm 1$ and $\pm\frac{1}{2}$ (as in Figure 14).

T **33.** Use a computer algebra system to find the exact value of $\int_C x^3 y^2 z\, ds$, where C is the curve with parametric equations $x = e^{-t} \cos 4t,\ y = e^{-t} \sin 4t,\ z = e^{-t}, \ 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$.

34. (a) Find the work done by the force field $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x^2\,\mathbf{i} + xy\,\mathbf{j}$ on a particle that moves once around the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ oriented in the counterclockwise direction.

(b) Graph the force field and circle on the same screen. Use the graph to explain your answer to part (a).

35. A thin wire is bent into the shape of a semicircle $x^2 + y^2 = 4,\ x \geqslant 0$. If the linear density is a constant k, find the mass and center of mass of the wire.

36. A thin wire has the shape of the first-quadrant portion of the circle with center the origin and radius a. If the density function is $\rho(x, y) = kxy$, find the mass and center of mass of the wire.

37. (a) Write the formulas similar to Equations 4 for the center of mass $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$ of a thin wire in the shape of a space curve C if the wire has density function $\rho(x, y, z)$.

(b) Find the center of mass of a wire in the shape of the helix $x = 2 \sin t$, $y = 2 \cos t$, $z = 3t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$, if the density is a constant k.

38. Find the mass and center of mass of a wire in the shape of the helix $x = t$, $y = \cos t$, $z = \sin t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$, if the density at any point is equal to the square of the distance from the origin.

39. If a wire with linear density $\rho(x, y)$ lies along a plane curve C, its **moments of inertia** about the x- and y-axes are defined as

$$I_x = \int_C y^2 \rho(x, y)\, ds \qquad I_y = \int_C x^2 \rho(x, y)\, ds$$

Find the moments of inertia for the wire in Example 3.

40. If a wire with linear density $\rho(x, y, z)$ lies along a space curve C, its **moments of inertia** about the x-, y-, and z-axes are defined as

$$I_x = \int_C (y^2 + z^2)\rho(x, y, z)\, ds$$

$$I_y = \int_C (x^2 + z^2)\rho(x, y, z)\, ds$$

$$I_z = \int_C (x^2 + y^2)\rho(x, y, z)\, ds$$

Find the moments of inertia for the wire in Exercise 37(b).

41. Find the work done by the force field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x\,\mathbf{i} + (y + 2)\,\mathbf{j}$$

in moving an object along an arch of the cycloid

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (t - \sin t)\,\mathbf{i} + (1 - \cos t)\,\mathbf{j} \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

42. Find the work done by the force field $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x^2\,\mathbf{i} + ye^x\,\mathbf{j}$ on a particle that moves along the parabola $x = y^2 + 1$ from $(1, 0)$ to $(2, 1)$.

43. Find the work done by the force field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \langle x - y^2, y - z^2, z - x^2 \rangle$$

on a particle that moves along the line segment from $(0, 0, 1)$ to $(2, 1, 0)$.

44. The force exerted by an electric charge at the origin on a charged particle at a point (x, y, z) with position vector $\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$ is $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) = K\mathbf{r}/|\mathbf{r}|^3$ where K is a constant. (See Example 16.1.5.) Find the work done as the particle moves along a straight line from $(2, 0, 0)$ to $(2, 1, 5)$.

45. The position of an object with mass m at time t is $\mathbf{r}(t) = at^2\,\mathbf{i} + bt^3\,\mathbf{j}$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$.

(a) What is the force acting on the object at time t?

(b) What is the work done by the force during the time interval $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$?

46. An object with mass m moves with position function $\mathbf{r}(t) = a \sin t\,\mathbf{i} + b \cos t\,\mathbf{j} + ct\,\mathbf{k}$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/2$. Find the work done on the object during this time period.

47. A 72.5-kg man carries a 11-kg can of paint up a helical staircase that encircles a silo with a radius of 6 m. If the silo is 27 m high and the man makes exactly three complete revolutions climbing to the top, how much work is done by the man against gravity?

48. Suppose there is a hole in the can of paint in Exercise 47 and 4 kg of paint leaks steadily out of the can during the man's ascent. How much work is done?

49. (a) Show that a constant force field does zero work on a particle that moves once uniformly around the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

(b) Is this also true for a force field $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = k\mathbf{x}$, where k is a constant and $\mathbf{x} = \langle x, y \rangle$?

50. The base of a circular fence with radius 10 m is given by $x = 10 \cos t$, $y = 10 \sin t$. The height of the fence at position (x, y) is given by the function $h(x, y) = 4 + 0.01(x^2 - y^2)$, so the height varies from 3 m to 5 m. Suppose that 1 L of paint covers 100 m^2. Sketch the fence and determine how much paint you will need if you paint both sides of the fence.

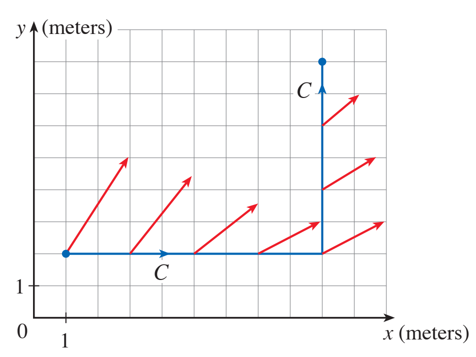
51. If C is a smooth curve given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, and $\mathbf{v}$ is a constant vector, show that

$$\int_C \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{v} \cdot [\mathbf{r}(b) - \mathbf{r}(a)]$$

52. If C is a smooth curve given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, show that

$$\int_C \mathbf{r} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \tfrac{1}{2}\left[|\mathbf{r}(b)|^2 - |\mathbf{r}(a)|^2 \right]$$

53. An object moves along the curve C shown in the figure from $(1, 2)$ to $(9, 8)$. The lengths of the vectors in the force field $\mathbf{F}$ are measured in newtons by the scales on the axes. Estimate the work done by $\mathbf{F}$ on the object.

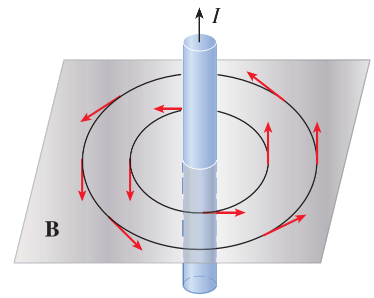


54. Experiments show that a steady current I in a long wire produces a magnetic field $\mathbf{B}$ that is tangent to any circle that lies in the plane perpendicular to the wire and whose center is the axis of the wire (as in the figure). *Ampère's Law* relates the electric current to its magnetic effects and states that

$$\int_C \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \mu_0 I$$

where I is the net current that passes through any surface bounded by a closed curve C, and μ_0 is a constant called the permeability of free space. By taking C to be a circle with radius r, show that the magnitude $B = |\mathbf{B}|$ of the magnetic field at a distance r from the center of the wire is

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$$



16.3 The Fundamental Theorem for Line Integrals

Recall from Section 5.3 that Part 2 of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus can be written as

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \int_a^b F'(x)\,dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

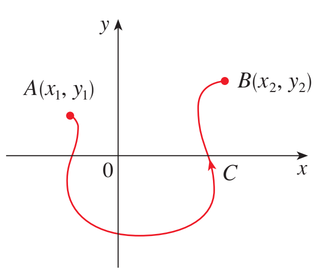
where F' is continuous on $[a, b]$. Equation 1 says that to evaluate the definite integral of F' on $[a, b]$, we need only know the values of F at a and b, the endpoints of the interval. In this section we formulate a similar result for line integrals.

The Fundamental Theorem for Line Integrals

If we think of the gradient vector ∇f of a function f of two or three variables as a sort of derivative of f, then the following theorem can be regarded as a version of the Fundamental Theorem for line integrals.

2 Theorem Let C be a smooth curve given by the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$. Let f be a differentiable function of two or three variables whose gradient vector ∇f is continuous on C. Then

$$\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(\mathbf{r}(b)) - f(\mathbf{r}(a))$$



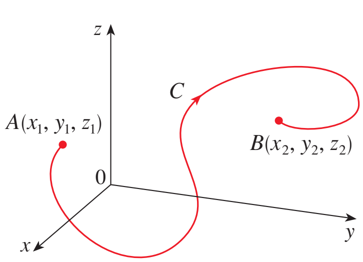


FIGURE 1

NOTE 1 Theorem 2 says that we can evaluate the line integral of a conservative vector field (the gradient vector field of the potential function f) simply by knowing the value of f at the endpoints of C. In fact, Theorem 2 says that the line integral of ∇f is the net change in f. If f is a function of two variables and C is a plane curve with initial point $A(x_1, y_1)$ and terminal point $B(x_2, y_2)$, as in Figure 1(a), then Theorem 2 becomes

$$\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(x_2, y_2) - f(x_1, y_1)$$

If f is a function of three variables and C is a space curve joining the point $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ to the point $B(x_2, y_2, z_2)$, as in Figure 1(b), then we have

$$\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(x_2, y_2, z_2) - f(x_1, y_1, z_1)$$

NOTE 2 Under the hypotheses of Theorem 2, if C_1 and C_2 are smooth curves with the same initial points and the same terminal points, then we can conclude that

$$\int_{C_1} \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_2} \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

We prove Theorem 2 for the case where f is a function of three variables.

PROOF OF THEOREM 2 Using Definition 16.2.13, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} &= \int_a^b \nabla f(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)\, dt \\
&= \int_a^b \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\frac{dz}{dt} \right) dt \\
&= \int_a^b \frac{d}{dt} f(\mathbf{r}(t))\, dt \qquad \text{(by the Chain Rule)} \\
&= f(\mathbf{r}(b)) - f(\mathbf{r}(a))
\end{aligned}$$

The last step follows from the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (Equation 1). ■

NOTE 3 Although we have proved Theorem 2 for smooth curves, it is also true for piecewise-smooth curves. This can be seen by subdividing C into a finite number of smooth curves and adding the resulting integrals.

EXAMPLE 1 Find the work done by the gravitational field

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{mMG}{|\mathbf{x}|^3}\mathbf{x}$$

in moving a particle with mass m from the point $(3, 4, 12)$ to the point $(2, 2, 0)$ along a piecewise-smooth curve C. (See Example 16.1.4.)

SOLUTION From Section 16.1 we know that $\mathbf{F}$ is a conservative vector field and, in fact, $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$, where

$$f(x, y, z) = \frac{mMG}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$$

Therefore, by Theorem 2, the work done is

$$\begin{aligned}
W &= \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} \\
&= f(2, 2, 0) - f(3, 4, 12) \\
&= \frac{mMG}{\sqrt{2^2 + 2^2}} - \frac{mMG}{\sqrt{3^2 + 4^2 + 12^2}} = mMG\left(\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} - \frac{1}{13} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

■

Independence of Path

Suppose C_1 and C_2 are two piecewise-smooth curves (which are called **paths**) that have the same initial point A and terminal point B. We know from Example 16.2.4 that, in general, $\int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} \neq \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$. But in Note 2 we observed that

$$\int_{C_1} \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_2} \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

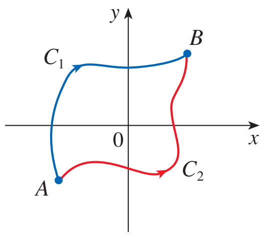


FIGURE 2
$\int_{C_1} \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_2} \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r}$

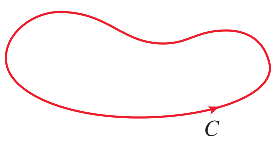


FIGURE 3
A closed curve

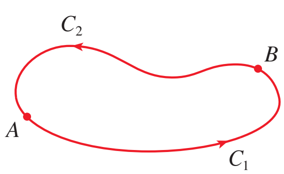


FIGURE 4

whenever ∇f is continuous (see Figure 2). In other words, the line integral of a *conservative* vector field depends only on the initial point and terminal point of a curve.

In general, if $\mathbf{F}$ is a continuous vector field with domain D, we say that the line integral $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is **independent of path** if $\int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ for any two paths C_1 and C_2 in D that have the same initial points and the same terminal points. With this terminology we can say that *line integrals of conservative vector fields are independent of path.*

A curve is called **closed** if its terminal point coincides with its initial point, that is, $\mathbf{r}(b) = \mathbf{r}(a)$. (See Figure 3.) If $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is independent of path in D and C is any closed path in D, we can choose any two points A and B on C and regard C as being composed of the path C_1 from A to B followed by the path C_2 from B to A. (See Figure 4.) Then

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} + \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} - \int_{-C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$$

since C_1 and $-C_2$ have the same initial and terminal points.

Conversely, if it is true that $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ whenever C is a closed path in D, then we demonstrate independence of path as follows. Take any two paths C_1 and C_2 from A to B in D and define C to be the curve consisting of C_1 followed by $-C_2$. Then

$$0 = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} + \int_{-C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} - \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

and so $\int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$. Thus we have proved the following theorem.

3 Theorem $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is independent of path in D if and only if $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ for every closed path C in D.

Since we know that the line integral of any conservative vector field $\mathbf{F}$ is independent of path, it follows that $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ for any closed path. The physical interpretation is that the work done by a conservative force field (such as the gravitational or electric field in Section 16.1) as it moves an object around a closed path is 0.

The following theorem says that the *only* vector fields that are independent of path are conservative. It is stated and proved for plane curves, but there is a similar version for space curves. We assume that D is **open**, which means that for every point P in D there is a disk with center P that lies entirely in D. (So D doesn't contain any of its boundary points.) In addition, we assume that D is **connected**: this means that any two points in D can be joined by a path that lies in D.

4 Theorem Suppose $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field that is continuous on an open connected region D. If $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is independent of path in D, then $\mathbf{F}$ is a conservative vector field on D; that is, there exists a function f such that $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$.

PROOF Let $A(a, b)$ be a fixed point in D. We construct the desired potential function f by defining

$$f(x, y) = \int_{(a, b)}^{(x, y)} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

for any point (x, y) in D. Since $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is independent of path, it does not matter which path C from (a, b) to (x, y) is used to evaluate $f(x, y)$. Since D is open, there exists a disk contained in D with center (x, y). Choose any point (x_1, y) in the disk with $x_1 < x$ and let C consist of any path C_1 from (a, b) to (x_1, y) followed by the horizontal

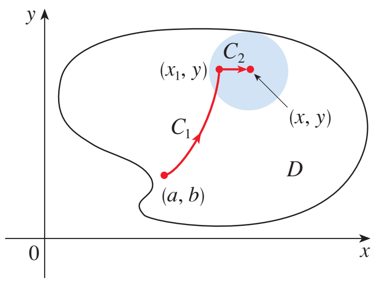


FIGURE 5

line segment C_2 from (x_1, y) to (x, y). (See Figure 5.) Then

$$f(x, y) = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} + \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{(a,b)}^{(x_1, y)} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} + \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

Notice that the first of these integrals does not depend on x, so

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x, y) = 0 + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

If we write $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j}$, then

$$\int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_2} P\,dx + Q\,dy$$

On C_2, y is constant, so $dy = 0$. Using t as the parameter, where $x_1 \leqslant t \leqslant x$, we have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x, y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{C_2} P\,dx + Q\,dy = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{x_1}^{x} P(t, y)\,dt = P(x, y)$$

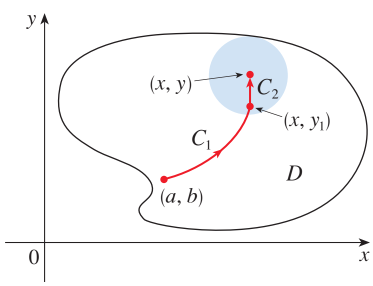


FIGURE 6

by Part 1 of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (see Section 5.3). A similar argument, using a vertical line segment (see Figure 6), shows that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(x, y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \int_{C_2} P\,dx + Q\,dy = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \int_{y_1}^{y} Q(x, t)\,dt = Q(x, y)$$

Thus
$$\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\,\mathbf{j} = \nabla f$$

which says that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative. ■

Conservative Vector Fields and Potential Functions

The question remains: how can we determine whether or not a vector field $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative? And if we know that a field $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative, how can we find a potential function f?

Suppose it is known that $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j}$ is conservative, where P and Q have continuous first-order partial derivatives. Then there is a function f such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$, that is,

$$P = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \qquad \text{and} \qquad Q = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

Therefore, by Clairaut's Theorem,

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y\,\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x\,\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}$$

5 Theorem If $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = P(x, y)\,\mathbf{i} + Q(x, y)\,\mathbf{j}$ is a conservative vector field, where P and Q have continuous first-order partial derivatives on a domain D, then throughout D we have

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}$$

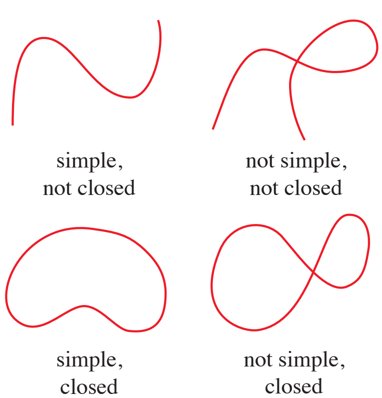


FIGURE 7
Types of curves

The converse of Theorem 5 is true only for a special type of region. To explain this, we first need the concept of a **simple curve**, which is a curve that doesn't intersect itself anywhere between its endpoints. [See Figure 7; $\mathbf{r}(a) = \mathbf{r}(b)$ for a simple closed curve, but $\mathbf{r}(t_1) \neq \mathbf{r}(t_2)$ when $a < t_1 < t_2 < b$.]

In Theorem 4 we needed an open connected region. For the next theorem we need a stronger condition. A **simply-connected region** in the plane is a connected region D such that every simple closed curve in D encloses only points that are in D. Notice from Figure 8 that, intuitively speaking, a simply-connected region contains no hole and can't consist of two separate pieces.

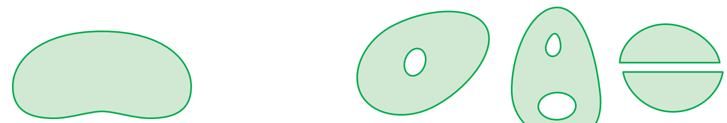


FIGURE 8 simply-connected region regions that are not simply-connected

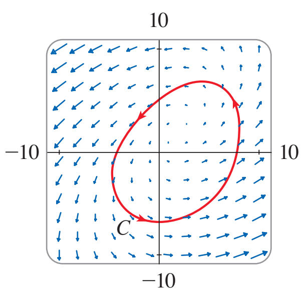


FIGURE 9

Figures 9 and 10 show the vector fields in Examples 2(a) and 2(b), respectively. The vectors in Figure 9 that start on the closed curve C all appear to point in roughly the same direction as C. So it looks as if $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} > 0$ and therefore $\mathbf{F}$ is not conservative. The calculation in Example 2(a) confirms this impression. Some of the vectors near the curves C_1 and C_2 in Figure 10 point in approximately the same direction as the curves, whereas others point in the opposite direction. So it appears plausible that line integrals around all closed paths are 0. Example 2(b) shows that $\mathbf{F}$ is indeed conservative.

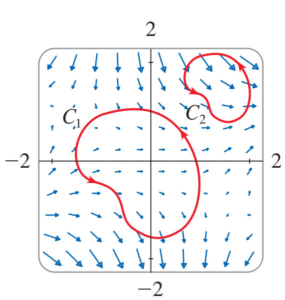


FIGURE 10

In terms of simply-connected regions, we can now state a partial converse to Theorem 5 that gives a convenient method for verifying that a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^2$ is conservative. The proof will be sketched in Section 16.4 as a consequence of Green's Theorem.

6 Theorem Let $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j}$ be a vector field on an open simply-connected region D. Suppose that P and Q have continuous first-order partial derivatives and

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \qquad \text{throughout } D$$

Then $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative.

EXAMPLE 2 Determine whether or not the given vector field is conservative.

(a) $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x - y)\,\mathbf{i} + (x - 2)\,\mathbf{j}$

(b) $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (3 + 2xy)\,\mathbf{i} + (x^2 - 3y^2)\,\mathbf{j}$

SOLUTION

(a) Let $P(x, y) = x - y$ and $Q(x, y) = x - 2$. Then

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = -1 \qquad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} = 1$$

Since $\partial P/\partial y \neq \partial Q/\partial x$, $\mathbf{F}$ is not conservative by Theorem 5.

(b) Let $P(x, y) = 3 + 2xy$ and $Q(x, y) = x^2 - 3y^2$. Then

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = 2x = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}$$

Also, the domain of $\mathbf{F}$ is the entire plane ($D = \mathbb{R}^2$), which is open and simply-connected. Therefore we can apply Theorem 6 and conclude that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative. ■

In Example 2(b), Theorem 6 told us that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative, but it did not tell us how to find the (potential) function f such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$. The proof of Theorem 4 gives us a clue as to how to find f. We use "partial integration" as in the following example.

EXAMPLE 3 If $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (3 + 2xy)\,\mathbf{i} + (x^2 - 3y^2)\,\mathbf{j}$, find a function f such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$.

SOLUTION From Example 2(b) we know that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative and so there exists a function f with $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$, that is,

$$\boxed{7} \qquad f_x(x, y) = 3 + 2xy$$

$$\boxed{8} \qquad f_y(x, y) = x^2 - 3y^2$$

Integrating (7) with respect to x, we obtain

$$\boxed{9} \qquad f(x, y) = 3x + x^2 y + g(y)$$

Notice that the constant of integration is a constant with respect to x, that is, a function of y, which we have called $g(y)$. Next we differentiate both sides of (9) with respect to y:

$$\boxed{10} \qquad f_y(x, y) = x^2 + g'(y)$$

Comparing (8) and (10), we see that

$$g'(y) = -3y^2$$

Integrating with respect to y, we have

$$g(y) = -y^3 + K$$

where K is a constant. Putting this in (9), we have

$$f(x, y) = 3x + x^2 y - y^3 + K$$

as the desired potential function. ■

EXAMPLE 4 Evaluate the line integral $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (3 + 2xy)\,\mathbf{i} + (x^2 - 3y^2)\,\mathbf{j}$$

and C is the curve given by

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t \sin t\,\mathbf{i} + e^t \cos t\,\mathbf{j} \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$$

SOLUTION 1 From Example 2(b) we know that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative, so we can use Theorem 2. In Example 3 we found that a potential function for $\mathbf{F}$ is $f(x, y) = 3x + x^2 y - y^3$ (choosing $K = 0$). According to Theorem 2, we need to know only the initial and terminal points of C, namely, $\mathbf{r}(0) = (0, 1)$ and $\mathbf{r}(\pi) = (0, -e^\pi)$. Then

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(0, -e^\pi) - f(0, 1) = e^{3\pi} - (-1) = e^{3\pi} + 1$$

This method is much shorter than the straightforward method for evaluating line integrals that we learned in Section 16.2.

SOLUTION 2 Because $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative, we know that $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is independent of path. Let's replace the curve C with another (simpler) curve C_1 that has the same initial point

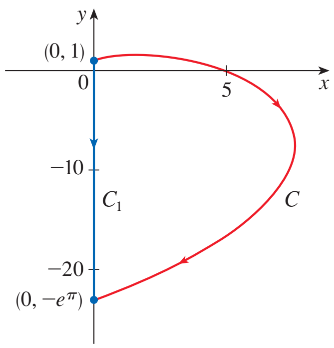


FIGURE 11

and the same terminal point as C. Let C_1 be the straight line segment from $(0, 1)$ to $(0, -e^{\pi})$ as shown in Figure 11. Then C_1 is represented by

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = -t\,\mathbf{j} \qquad -1 \leqslant t \leqslant e^{\pi}$$

and

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{-1}^{e^{\pi}} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)\, dt$$

$$= \int_{-1}^{e^{\pi}} (3\,\mathbf{i} - 3t^2\mathbf{j}) \cdot (-\mathbf{j})\, dt$$

$$= \int_{-1}^{e^{\pi}} 3t^2\, dt = t^3 \Big]_{-1}^{e^{\pi}} = e^{3\pi} + 1$$

A criterion for determining whether or not a vector field $\mathbf{F}$ on $\mathbb{R}^3$ is conservative is given in Section 16.5. Meanwhile, the next example shows that the technique for finding the potential function is much the same as for vector fields on $\mathbb{R}^2$.

EXAMPLE 5 If $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y^2\,\mathbf{i} + (2xy + e^{3z})\,\mathbf{j} + 3ye^{3z}\,\mathbf{k}$, find a function f such that $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$.

SOLUTION If there is such a function f, then

$$\boxed{11} \qquad f_x(x, y, z) = y^2$$

$$\boxed{12} \qquad f_y(x, y, z) = 2xy + e^{3z}$$

$$\boxed{13} \qquad f_z(x, y, z) = 3ye^{3z}$$

Integrating (11) with respect to x, we get

$$\boxed{14} \qquad f(x, y, z) = xy^2 + g(y, z)$$

where $g(y, z)$ is a constant with respect to x. Then differentiating (14) with respect to y, we have

$$f_y(x, y, z) = 2xy + g_y(y, z)$$

and comparison with (12) gives

$$g_y(y, z) = e^{3z}$$

Thus $g(y, z) = ye^{3z} + h(z)$ and we rewrite (14) as

$$f(x, y, z) = xy^2 + ye^{3z} + h(z)$$

Finally, differentiating with respect to z and comparing with (13), we obtain $h'(z) = 0$ and therefore $h(z) = K$, a constant. The desired function is

$$f(x, y, z) = xy^2 + ye^{3z} + K$$

It is easily verified that $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$.

Conservation of Energy

Let's apply the ideas of this chapter to a continuous force field $\mathbf{F}$ that moves an object along a path C given by $\mathbf{r}(t)$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, where $\mathbf{r}(a) = A$ is the initial point and $\mathbf{r}(b) = B$ is the terminal point of C. According to Newton's Second Law of Motion (see Section 13.4), the force $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t))$ at a point on C is related to the acceleration $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{r}''(t)$ by the equation

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) = m\mathbf{r}''(t)$$

So the work done by the force on the object is

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_a^b \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)\, dt = \int_a^b m\mathbf{r}''(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)\, dt \\ &= \frac{m}{2} \int_a^b \frac{d}{dt} [\mathbf{r}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)]\, dt && \text{(Theorem 13.2.3, Formula 4)} \\ &= \frac{m}{2} \int_a^b \frac{d}{dt} |\mathbf{r}'(t)|^2\, dt = \frac{m}{2} \Big[|\mathbf{r}'(t)|^2 \Big]_a^b && \text{(Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)} \\ &= \frac{m}{2} \left(|\mathbf{r}'(b)|^2 - |\mathbf{r}'(a)|^2 \right) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\boxed{15} \qquad W = \tfrac{1}{2} m |\mathbf{v}(b)|^2 - \tfrac{1}{2} m |\mathbf{v}(a)|^2$$

where $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{r}'$ is the velocity.

The quantity $\frac{1}{2} m |\mathbf{v}(t)|^2$, that is, half the mass times the square of the speed, is called the **kinetic energy** of the object. Therefore we can rewrite Equation 15 as

$$\boxed{16} \qquad W = K(B) - K(A)$$

which says that the work done by the force field along C is equal to the change in kinetic energy at the endpoints of C.

Now let's further assume that $\mathbf{F}$ is a conservative force field; that is, we can write $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$. In physics, the **potential energy** of an object at the point (x, y, z) is defined as $P(x, y, z) = -f(x, y, z)$, so we have $\mathbf{F} = -\nabla P$. Then by Theorem 2 we have

$$W = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = -\int_C \nabla P \cdot d\mathbf{r} = -[P(\mathbf{r}(b)) - P(\mathbf{r}(a))] = P(A) - P(B)$$

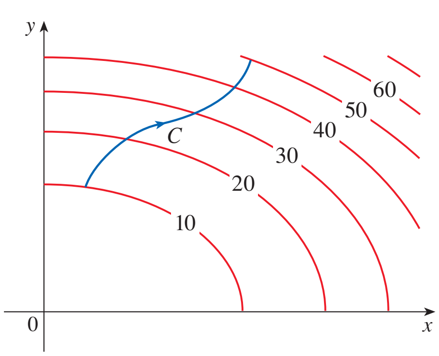
Comparing this equation with Equation 16, we see that

$$P(A) + K(A) = P(B) + K(B)$$

which says that if an object moves from one point A to another point B under the influence of a conservative force field, then the sum of its potential energy and its kinetic energy remains constant. This is called the **Law of Conservation of Energy** and it is the reason the vector field is called *conservative*.

16.3 Exercises

1. The figure shows a curve C and a contour map of a function f whose gradient is continuous. Find $\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r}$.



2. A table of values of a function f with continuous gradient is given. Find $\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where C has parametric equations

$$x = t^2 + 1 \qquad y = t^3 + t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$$

$x \backslash y$	0	1	2
0	1	6	4
1	3	5	7
2	8	2	9

3–10 Determine whether or not $\mathbf{F}$ is a conservative vector field. If it is, find a function f such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$.

3. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (xy + y^2)\,\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + 2xy)\,\mathbf{j}$

4. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (y^2 - 2x)\,\mathbf{i} + 2xy\,\mathbf{j}$

5. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = y^2e^{xy}\,\mathbf{i} + (1 + xy)e^{xy}\,\mathbf{j}$

6. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = ye^x\,\mathbf{i} + (e^x + e^y)\,\mathbf{j}$

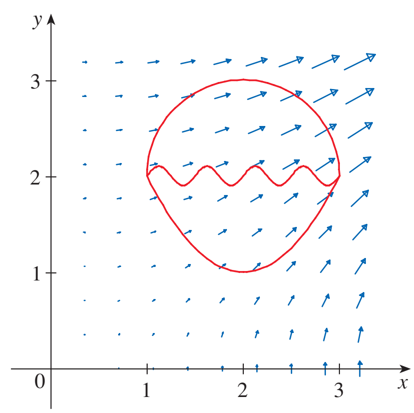
7. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (ye^x + \sin y)\,\mathbf{i} + (e^x + x\cos y)\,\mathbf{j}$

8. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (2xy + y^{-2})\,\mathbf{i} + (x^2 - 2xy^{-3})\,\mathbf{j}, \quad y > 0$

9. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (y^2\cos x + \cos y)\,\mathbf{i} + (2y\sin x - x\sin y)\,\mathbf{j}$

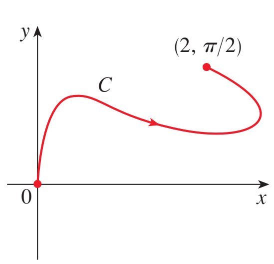
10. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (\ln y + y/x)\,\mathbf{i} + (\ln x + x/y)\,\mathbf{j}$

11. The figure shows the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle 2xy, x^2\rangle$ and three curves that start at (1, 2) and end at (3, 2).
(a) Explain why $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ has the same value for all three curves.
(b) What is this common value?

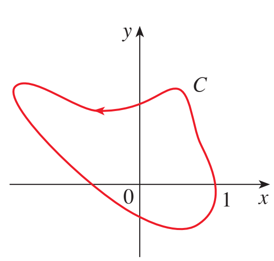


12. Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ for the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = 2xy\,\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + \sin y)\,\mathbf{j}$ and the curve C shown.

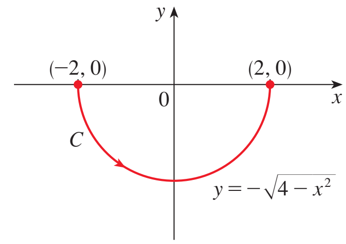
(a)



(b)



13. Let $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (3x^2 + y^2)\,\mathbf{i} + 2xy\,\mathbf{j}$ and let C be the curve shown.



(a) Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ directly.
(b) Show that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative and find a function f such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$.
(c) Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ using Theorem 2.
(d) Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ by first replacing C by a simpler curve that has the same initial and terminal points.

14–15 A vector field $\mathbf{F}$ and a curve C are given.
(a) Show that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative and find a potential function f.
(b) Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ using Theorem 2.
(c) Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ by first replacing C with a line segment that has the same initial and terminal points.

14. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle \sin y + e^x, x\cos y\rangle$,
C: $x = t,\ y = t(3 - t),\ 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 3$

15. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle ye^{xy}, xe^{xy}\rangle$,
C: $x = \sin\dfrac{\pi}{2}t,\ y = e^{t-1}(1 - \cos \pi t),\ 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

16. Evaluate $\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $f(x, y, z) = xy^2z + x^2$ and C is the curve $x = t^2$, $y = e^{t^2-1}$, $z = t^2 + t$, $-1 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$.

17–24 (a) Find a function f such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ and (b) use part (a) to evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ along the given curve C.

17. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle 2x, 4y\rangle$,
C is the arc of the parabola $x = y^2$ from $(4, -2)$ to $(1, 1)$

18. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (3 + 2xy^2)\,\mathbf{i} + 2x^2y\,\mathbf{j}$,
C is the arc of the hyperbola $y = 1/x$ from $(1, 1)$ to $\left(4, \frac{1}{4}\right)$

19. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x^2y^3\,\mathbf{i} + x^3y^2\,\mathbf{j}$,
C: $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t^3 - 2t, t^3 + 2t\rangle, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

20. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (1 + xy)e^{xy}\,\mathbf{i} + x^2e^{xy}\,\mathbf{j}$,
C: $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + 2\sin t\,\mathbf{j}, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/2$

21. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = 2xy\,\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + 2yz)\,\mathbf{j} + y^2\,\mathbf{k}$,
C is the line segment from $(2, -3, 1)$ to $(-5, 1, 2)$

22. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (y^2z + 2xz^2)\,\mathbf{i} + 2xyz\,\mathbf{j} + (xy^2 + 2x^2z)\,\mathbf{k}$,
C: $x = \sqrt{t},\ y = t + 1,\ z = t^2, \quad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

23. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = yze^{xz}\,\mathbf{i} + e^{xz}\,\mathbf{j} + xye^{xz}\,\mathbf{k}$,
C: $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^2 + 1)\,\mathbf{i} + (t^2 - 1)\,\mathbf{j} + (t^2 - 2t)\,\mathbf{k}$,
$0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2$

24. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \sin y\,\mathbf{i} + (x\cos y + \cos z)\,\mathbf{j} - y\sin z\,\mathbf{k}$,
C: $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t\,\mathbf{i} + t\,\mathbf{j} + 2t\,\mathbf{k}$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi/2$

25–26 Show that the line integral is independent of path and evaluate the integral.

25. $\int_C 2xe^{-y}\,dx + (2y - x^2e^{-y})\,dy$,
C is any path from $(1, 0)$ to $(2, 1)$

26. $\int_C \sin y\,dx + (x\cos y - \sin y)\,dy$,
C is any path from $(2, 0)$ to $(1, \pi)$

27. Suppose you're asked to determine the curve that requires the least work for a force field **F** to move a particle from one point to another point. You decide to check first whether **F** is conservative, and indeed it turns out that it is. How would you reply to the request?

28. Suppose an experiment determines that the amount of work required for a force field **F** to move a particle from the point $(1, 2)$ to the point $(5, -3)$ along a curve C_1 is 1.2 J and the work done by **F** in moving the particle along another curve C_2 between the same two points is 1.4 J. What can you say about **F**? Why?

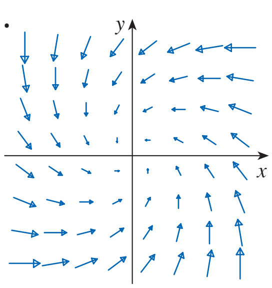
29–30 Find the work done by the force field **F** in moving an object from P to Q.

29. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x^3\,\mathbf{i} + y^3\,\mathbf{j}$; $P(1, 0)$, $Q(2, 2)$

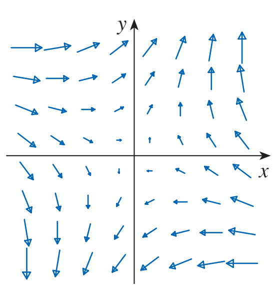
30. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (2x + y)\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j}$; $P(1, 1)$, $Q(4, 3)$

31–32 Is the vector field shown in the figure conservative? Explain.

31.



32.



33. If $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \sin y\,\mathbf{i} + (1 + x\cos y)\,\mathbf{j}$, use a plot to guess whether **F** is conservative. Then determine whether your guess is correct.

34. Let $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$, where $f(x, y) = \sin(x - 2y)$. Find curves C_1 and C_2 that are not closed and satisfy the equation.

(a) $\int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ (b) $\int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 1$

35. Show that if the vector field $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}$ is conservative and P, Q, R have continuous first-order partial derivatives, then

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \qquad \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} \qquad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial R}{\partial y}$$

36. Use Exercise 35 to show that the line integral $\int_C y\,dx + x\,dy + xyz\,dz$ is not independent of path.

37–40 Determine whether or not the given set is (a) open, (b) connected, and (c) simply-connected.

37. $\{(x, y) \mid 0 < y < 3\}$

38. $\{(x, y) \mid 1 < |x| < 2\}$

39. $\{(x, y) \mid 1 \leqslant x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 4,\ y \geqslant 0\}$

40. $\{(x, y) \mid (x, y) \neq (2, 3)\}$

41. Let $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \dfrac{-y\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j}}{x^2 + y^2}$.

(a) Show that $\partial P/\partial y = \partial Q/\partial x$.
(b) Show that $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is not independent of path. [*Hint:* Compute $\int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ and $\int_{C_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where C_1 and C_2 are the upper and lower halves of the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ from $(1, 0)$ to $(-1, 0)$.] Does this contradict Theorem 6?

42. Inverse Square Fields Suppose that **F** is an *inverse square force field*, that is,

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{c\mathbf{r}}{|\mathbf{r}|^3}$$

for some constant c, where $\mathbf{r} = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$.

(a) Find the work done by **F** in moving an object from a point P_1 along a path to a point P_2 in terms of the distances d_1 and d_2 from these points to the origin.
(b) An example of an inverse square field is the gravitational field $\mathbf{F} = -(mMG)\mathbf{r}/|\mathbf{r}|^3$ discussed in Example 16.1.4. Use part (a) to find the work done by the gravitational field when the earth moves from aphelion (at a maximum distance of 1.52×10^8 km from the sun) to perihelion (at a minimum distance of 1.47×10^8 km). (Use the values $m = 5.97 \times 10^{24}$ kg, $M = 1.99 \times 10^{30}$ kg, and $G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11}\ \mathrm{N{\cdot}m^2/kg^2}$.)
(c) Another example of an inverse square field is the electric force field $\mathbf{F} = \varepsilon qQ\mathbf{r}/|\mathbf{r}|^3$ discussed in Example 16.1.5. Suppose that an electron with a charge of -1.6×10^{-19} C is located at the origin. A positive unit charge is positioned a distance 10^{-12} m from the electron and moves to a position half that distance from the electron. Use part (a) to find the work done by the electric force field. (Use the value $\varepsilon = 8.985 \times 10^9$.)

16.4 Green's Theorem

Green's Theorem gives the relationship between a line integral around a simple closed curve and a double integral over the plane region bounded by the curve.

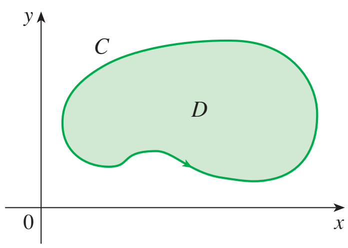


FIGURE 1

Green's Theorem

Let C be a simple closed curve and let D be the region bounded by C, as in Figure 1. (We assume that D consists of all points inside C as well as all points on C.) In stating Green's Theorem we use the convention that the **positive orientation** of a simple closed curve C refers to a single *counterclockwise* traversal of C. Thus if C is given by the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$, then the region D is always on the left as the point $\mathbf{r}(t)$ traverses C. (See Figure 2.)

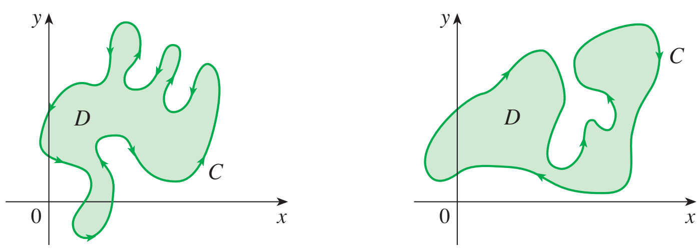


FIGURE 2 (a) Positive orientation (b) Negative orientation

Green's Theorem Let C be a positively oriented, piecewise-smooth, simple closed curve in the plane and let D be the region bounded by C. If P and Q have continuous partial derivatives on an open region that contains D, then

$$\int_C P\,dx + Q\,dy = \iint_D \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right) dA$$

Recall that the left side of this equation is another way of writing $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j}$.

NOTE The notation

$$\oint_C P\,dx + Q\,dy \qquad \text{or} \qquad \circlearrowleft\!\!\!\!\int_C P\,dx + Q\,dy$$

is sometimes used to indicate that the line integral is calculated using the positive orientation of the closed curve C. Another notation for the positively oriented boundary curve of D is ∂D, so the equation in Green's Theorem can be written as

1
$$\iint_D \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right) dA = \int_{\partial D} P\,dx + Q\,dy$$

Green's Theorem should be regarded as the counterpart of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus for double integrals. Compare Equation 1 with the statement of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2, in the following equation:

$$\int_a^b F'(x)\,dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

In both cases there is an integral involving derivatives (F', $\partial Q/\partial x$, and $\partial P/\partial y$) on the left side of the equation. And in both cases the right side involves the values of the original

George Green

Green's Theorem is named after the self-taught English scientist George Green (1793–1841). He worked full-time in his father's bakery from the age of nine and taught himself mathematics from library books. In 1828 he published privately *An Essay on the Application of Mathematical Analysis to the Theories of Electricity and Magnetism*, but only 100 copies were printed and most of those went to his friends. This pamphlet contained a theorem that is equivalent to what we know as Green's Theorem, but it didn't become widely known at that time. Finally, at age 40, Green entered Cambridge University as an undergraduate but died four years after graduation. In 1846 William Thomson (Lord Kelvin) located a copy of Green's essay, realized its significan e, and had it reprinted. Green was the first person to try to formulate a mathematical theory of electricity and magnetism. His work was the basis for the subsequent electromagnetic theories of Thomson, Stokes, Rayleigh, and Maxwell.

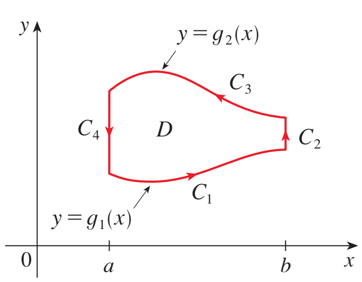


FIGURE 3

functions (F, Q, and P) only on the *boundary* of the domain. (In the one-dimensional case, the domain is an interval $[a, b]$ whose boundary consists of just two points, a and b.)

Green's Theorem is not easy to prove in general, but we can give a proof for the special case where the region is both type I and type II (see Section 15.2). Let's call such regions **simple regions**.

PROOF OF GREEN'S THEOREM FOR THE CASE IN WHICH D IS A SIMPLE REGION

Notice that Green's Theorem will be proved if we can show that

$$\boxed{2} \qquad \int_C P\,dx = -\iint_D \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\,dA$$

and

$$\boxed{3} \qquad \int_C Q\,dy = \iint_D \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}\,dA$$

We prove Equation 2 by expressing D as a type I region:

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid a \leqslant x \leqslant b,\ g_1(x) \leqslant y \leqslant g_2(x)\}$$

where g_1 and g_2 are continuous functions. This enables us to compute the double integral on the right side of Equation 2 as follows:

$$\boxed{4} \qquad \iint_D \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\,dA = \int_a^b \int_{g_1(x)}^{g_2(x)} \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}(x, y)\,dy\,dx = \int_a^b [P(x, g_2(x)) - P(x, g_1(x))]\,dx$$

where the last step follows from the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

Now we compute the left side of Equation 2 by breaking up C as the union of the four curves C_1, C_2, C_3, and C_4 shown in Figure 3. On C_1 we take x as the parameter and write the parametric equations as $x = x$, $y = g_1(x)$, $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$. Thus

$$\int_{C_1} P(x, y)\,dx = \int_a^b P(x, g_1(x))\,dx$$

Observe that C_3 goes from right to left but $-C_3$ goes from left to right, so we can write the parametric equations of $-C_3$ as $x = x$, $y = g_2(x)$, $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$. Therefore

$$\int_{C_3} P(x, y)\,dx = -\int_{-C_3} P(x, y)\,dx = -\int_a^b P(x, g_2(x))\,dx$$

On C_2 or C_4 (either of which might reduce to just a single point), x is constant, so $dx = 0$ and

$$\int_{C_2} P(x, y)\,dx = 0 = \int_{C_4} P(x, y)\,dx$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\int_C P(x, y)\,dx &= \int_{C_1} P(x, y)\,dx + \int_{C_2} P(x, y)\,dx + \int_{C_3} P(x, y)\,dx + \int_{C_4} P(x, y)\,dx \\ &= \int_a^b P(x, g_1(x))\,dx - \int_a^b P(x, g_2(x))\,dx\end{aligned}$$

Comparing this expression with the one in Equation 4, we see that

$$\int_C P(x, y)\,dx = -\iint_D \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\,dA$$

Equation 3 can be proved in much the same way by expressing D as a type II region (see Exercise 34). Then, by adding Equations 2 and 3, we obtain Green's Theorem. ■

EXAMPLE 1 Evaluate $\int_C x^4\,dx + xy\,dy$, where C is the triangular curve consisting of the line segments from $(0, 0)$ to $(1, 0)$, from $(1, 0)$ to $(0, 1)$, and from $(0, 1)$ to $(0, 0)$.

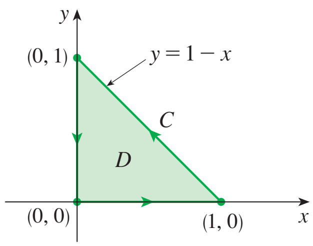


FIGURE 4

SOLUTION Although the given line integral could be evaluated as usual by the methods of Section 16.2, that would involve setting up three separate integrals along the three sides of the triangle, so let's use Green's Theorem instead. Notice that the region D enclosed by C is simple and C has positive orientation (see Figure 4). If we let $P(x, y) = x^4$ and $Q(x, y) = xy$, then we have

$$\int_C x^4\,dx + xy\,dy = \iint_D \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right) dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (y - 0)\,dy\,dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \left[\tfrac{1}{2}y^2\right]_{y=0}^{y=1-x} dx = \tfrac{1}{2}\int_0^1 (1 - x)^2\,dx$$

$$= -\tfrac{1}{6}(1 - x)^3\Big]_0^1 = \tfrac{1}{6}$$ ■

EXAMPLE 2 Evaluate $\oint_C (3y - e^{\sin x})\,dx + \left(7x + \sqrt{y^4 + 1}\right) dy$, where C is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 9$.

SOLUTION The region D bounded by C is the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 9$, so let's change to polar coordinates after applying Green's Theorem:

$$\oint_C (3y - e^{\sin x})\,dx + \left(7x + \sqrt{y^4 + 1}\right) dy$$

$$= \iint_D \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(7x + \sqrt{y^4 + 1}\right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(3y - e^{\sin x})\right] dA$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^3 (7 - 3)\,r\,dr\,d\theta = 4\int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^3 r\,dr = 36\pi$$ ■

Instead of using polar coordinates, we could simply use the fact that D is a disk of radius 3 and write

$$\iint_D 4\,dA = 4 \cdot \pi(3)^2 = 36\pi$$

In Examples 1 and 2 we found that the double integral was easier to evaluate than the line integral. (Try setting up the line integral in Example 2 and you'll soon be convinced!) But sometimes it's easier to evaluate the line integral, and Green's Theorem is used in the reverse direction. For instance, if it is known that $P(x, y) = Q(x, y) = 0$ on the curve C, then Green's Theorem gives

$$\iint_D \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right) dA = \int_C P\,dx + Q\,dy = 0$$

no matter what values P and Q assume in the region D.

Finding Areas with Green's Theorem

Another application of the reverse direction of Green's Theorem is in computing areas. Since the area of D is $\iint_D 1\,dA$, we wish to choose P and Q so that

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = 1$$

There are several possibilities:

$$P(x, y) = 0 \qquad P(x, y) = -y \qquad P(x, y) = -\tfrac{1}{2}y$$
$$Q(x, y) = x \qquad Q(x, y) = 0 \qquad Q(x, y) = \tfrac{1}{2}x$$

Then Green's Theorem gives the following formulas for the area of D:

5
$$\boxed{A = \oint_C x\,dy = -\oint_C y\,dx = \tfrac{1}{2}\oint_C x\,dy - y\,dx}$$

EXAMPLE 3 Find the area enclosed by the ellipse $\dfrac{x^2}{a^2} + \dfrac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$.

SOLUTION The ellipse has parametric equations $x = a\cos t$ and $y = b\sin t$, where $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$. Using the third formula in Equation 5, we have

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \tfrac{1}{2}\int_C x\,dy - y\,dx \\ &= \tfrac{1}{2}\int_0^{2\pi} (a\cos t)(b\cos t)\,dt - (b\sin t)(-a\sin t)\,dt \\ &= \frac{ab}{2}\int_0^{2\pi} dt = \pi ab \end{aligned}$$

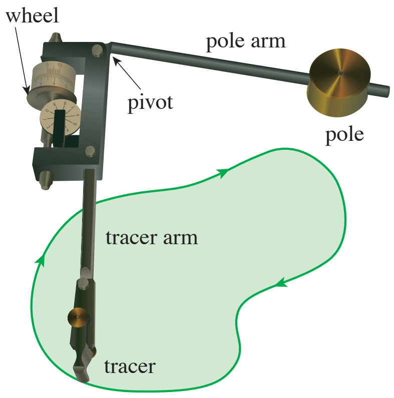


FIGURE 5
A Keuffel and Esser polar planimeter

Formula 5 can be used to explain how planimeters work. A **planimeter** is an ingenious mechanical instrument invented in the 19th century for measuring the area of a region by tracing its boundary curve. For instance, a biologist could use one of these devices to measure the surface area of a leaf or bird wing.

Figure 5 shows the operation of a polar planimeter: the pole is fixed and, as the tracer is moved along the boundary curve of the region, the wheel partly slides and partly rolls perpendicular to the tracer arm. The planimeter measures the distance that the wheel rolls and this is proportional to the area of the enclosed region. The explanation as a consequence of Formula 5 can be found in the following articles:

- R. W. Gatterman, "The planimeter as an example of Green's Theorem" *Amer. Math. Monthly,* Vol. 88 (1981), pp. 701–4.
- Tanya Leise, "As the planimeter wheel turns" *College Math. Journal,* Vol. 38 (2007), pp. 24–31.

Extended Versions of Green's Theorem

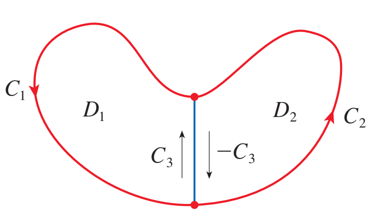


FIGURE 6

Although we have proved Green's Theorem only for the case where D is simple, we can now extend it to the case where D is a finite union of simple regions. For example, if D is the region shown in Figure 6, then we can write $D = D_1 \cup D_2$, where D_1 and D_2 are both simple. The boundary of D_1 is $C_1 \cup C_3$ and the boundary of D_2 is $C_2 \cup (-C_3)$ so, applying Green's Theorem to D_1 and D_2 separately, we get

$$\int_{C_1 \cup C_3} P\,dx + Q\,dy = \iint_{D_1} \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right) dA$$

$$\int_{C_2 \cup (-C_3)} P\,dx + Q\,dy = \iint_{D_2} \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right) dA$$

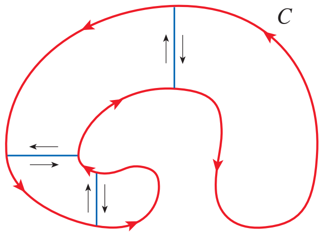


FIGURE 7

If we add these two equations, the line integrals along C_3 and $-C_3$ cancel, so we get

$$\int_{C_1 \cup C_2} P\,dx + Q\,dy = \iint_D \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dA$$

which is Green's Theorem for $D = D_1 \cup D_2$, since its boundary is $C = C_1 \cup C_2$.

The same sort of argument allows us to establish Green's Theorem for any finite union of nonoverlapping simple regions (see Figure 7).

EXAMPLE 4 Evaluate $\oint_C y^2\,dx + 3xy\,dy$, where C is the boundary of the semiannular region D in the upper half-plane between the circles $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 4$.

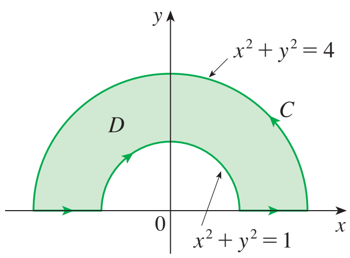


FIGURE 8

SOLUTION Notice that although D is not simple, the y-axis divides it into two simple regions (see Figure 8). In polar coordinates we can write

$$D = \{(r, \theta) \mid 1 \leqslant r \leqslant 2,\ 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant \pi\}$$

Therefore Green's Theorem gives

$$\begin{aligned}
\oint_C y^2\,dx + 3xy\,dy &= \iint_D \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(3xy) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(y^2) \right] dA \\
&= \iint_D y\,dA = \int_0^{\pi} \int_1^2 (r \sin\theta)\, r\,dr\,d\theta \\
&= \int_0^{\pi} \sin\theta\,d\theta \int_1^2 r^2\,dr = \Big[-\cos\theta\Big]_0^{\pi} \Big[\tfrac{1}{3}r^3\Big]_1^2 = \tfrac{14}{3}
\end{aligned}$$ ■

Green's Theorem can be extended to apply to regions with holes, that is, regions that are not simply-connected. Observe that the boundary C of the region D in Figure 9 consists of two simple closed curves C_1 and C_2. We assume that these boundary curves are oriented so that the region D is always on the left as the curve C is traversed. Thus the positive direction is counterclockwise for the outer curve C_1 but clockwise for the inner curve C_2. If we divide D into two regions D' and D'' by means of the lines shown in Figure 10 and then apply Green's Theorem to each of D' and D'', we get

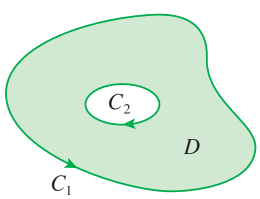


FIGURE 9

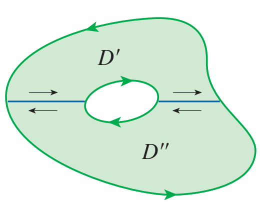


FIGURE 10

$$\begin{aligned}
\iint_D \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dA &= \iint_{D'} \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dA + \iint_{D''} \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dA \\
&= \int_{\partial D'} P\,dx + Q\,dy + \int_{\partial D''} P\,dx + Q\,dy
\end{aligned}$$

Since the line integrals along the common boundary lines are in opposite directions, they cancel and we get

$$\iint_D \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dA = \int_{C_1} P\,dx + Q\,dy + \int_{C_2} P\,dx + Q\,dy = \int_C P\,dx + Q\,dy$$

which is Green's Theorem for the region D.

EXAMPLE 5 If $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (-y\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j})/(x^2 + y^2)$, show that $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 2\pi$ for every positively oriented simple closed path that encloses the origin.

SOLUTION Since C is an *arbitrary* closed path that encloses the origin, it's difficult to compute the given integral directly. So let's consider a counterclockwise-oriented circle C'

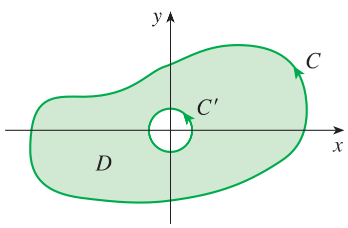


FIGURE 11

with center the origin and radius a, where a is chosen to be small enough that C' lies inside C. (See Figure 11.) Let D be the region bounded by C and C'. Then its positively oriented boundary is $C \cup (-C')$ and so the general version of Green's Theorem gives

$$\int_C P\,dx + Q\,dy + \int_{-C'} P\,dx + Q\,dy = \iint_D \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right) dA$$

$$= \iint_D \left[\frac{y^2 - x^2}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} - \frac{y^2 - x^2}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}\right] dA = 0$$

Therefore $$\int_C P\,dx + Q\,dy = \int_{C'} P\,dx + Q\,dy$$

that is, $$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C'} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

We now easily compute this last integral using the parametrization given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = a \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + a \sin t\,\mathbf{j}$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$. Thus

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C'} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_0^{2\pi} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)\,dt$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{(-a \sin t)(-a \sin t) + (a \cos t)(a \cos t)}{a^2 \cos^2 t + a^2 \sin^2 t}\,dt = \int_0^{2\pi} dt = 2\pi \qquad ■$$

We end this section by using Green's Theorem to discuss a result that was stated in the preceding section.

SKETCH OF PROOF OF THEOREM 16.3.6 We're assuming that $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j}$ is a vector field on an open simply-connected region D, that P and Q have continuous first-order partial derivatives, and that

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \qquad \text{throughout } D$$

If C is any simple closed path in D and R is the region that C encloses, then Green's Theorem gives

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \oint_C P\,dx + Q\,dy = \iint_R \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right) dA = \iint_R 0\,dA = 0$$

A curve that is not simple crosses itself at one or more points and can be broken up into a number of simple curves. We have shown that the line integrals of $\mathbf{F}$ around these simple curves are all 0 and, adding these integrals, we see that $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ for any closed curve C. Therefore $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is independent of path in D by Theorem 16.3.3. It follows that $\mathbf{F}$ is a conservative vector field. ■

16.4 Exercises

1–4 Evaluate the line integral by two methods: (a) directly and (b) using Green's Theorem.

1. $\oint_C y^2\,dx + x^2 y\,dy$,
C is the rectangle with vertices (0, 0), (5, 0), (5, 4), and (0, 4)

2. $\oint_C y\,dx - x\,dy$,
C is the circle with center the origin and radius 4

3. $\oint_C xy\,dx + x^2 y^3\,dy$,
C is the triangle with vertices (0, 0), (1, 0), and (1, 2)

4. $\oint_C x^2y^2\,dx + xy\,dy$, C consists of the arc of the parabola $y = x^2$ from $(0, 0)$ to $(1, 1)$ and the line segments from $(1, 1)$ to $(0, 1)$ and from $(0, 1)$ to $(0, 0)$

5–12 Use Green's Theorem to evaluate the line integral along the given positively oriented curve.

5. $\int_C ye^x\,dx + 2e^x\,dy$,
C is the rectangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(3, 0)$, $(3, 4)$, and $(0, 4)$

6. $\int_C \ln(xy)\,dx + (y/x)\,dy$,
C is the rectangle with vertices $(1, 1)$, $(1, 4)$, $(2, 4)$, and $(2, 1)$

7. $\int_C x^2y^2\,dx + y\tan^{-1}y\,dy$,
C is the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(1, 3)$

8. $\int_C (x^2 + y^2)\,dx + (x^2 - y^2)\,dy$,
C is the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(2, 1)$, and $(0, 1)$

9. $\int_C \left(y + e^{\sqrt{x}}\right)dx + (2x + \cos y^2)\,dy$,
C is the boundary of the region enclosed by the parabolas $y = x^2$ and $x = y^2$

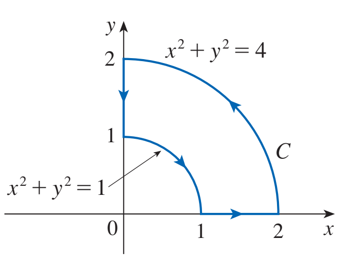
10. $\int_C y^4\,dx + 2xy^3\,dy$, C is the ellipse $x^2 + 2y^2 = 2$

11. $\int_C y^3\,dx - x^3\,dy$, C is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

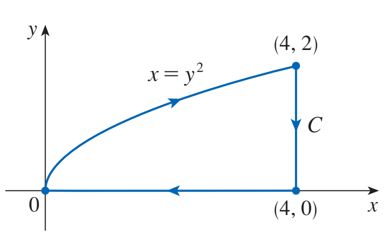
12. $\int_C (1 - y^3)\,dx + (x^3 + e^{y^2})\,dy$, C is the boundary of the region between the circles $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 9$

13–18 Use Green's Theorem to evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$. (Check the orientation of the curve before applying the theorem.)

13. $\int_C (3 + e^{x^2})\,dx + (\tan^{-1}y + 3x^2)\,dy$



14. $\int_C (x^{2/3} + y^2)\,dx + (y^{4/3} - x^2)\,dy$



15. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle y\cos x - xy\sin x,\ xy + x\cos x\rangle$,
C is the triangle from $(0, 0)$ to $(0, 4)$ to $(2, 0)$ to $(0, 0)$

16. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle e^{-x} + y^2,\ e^{-y} + x^2\rangle$,
C consists of the arc of the curve $y = \cos x$ from $(-\pi/2, 0)$ to $(\pi/2, 0)$ and the line segment from $(\pi/2, 0)$ to $(-\pi/2, 0)$

17. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle y - \cos y,\ x\sin y\rangle$,
C is the circle $(x - 3)^2 + (y + 4)^2 = 4$ oriented clockwise

18. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \left\langle \sqrt{x^2 + 1},\ \tan^{-1}x\right\rangle$, C is the triangle from $(0, 0)$ to $(1, 1)$ to $(0, 1)$ to $(0, 0)$

T **19–20** Verify Green's Theorem by using a computer algebra system to evaluate both the line integral and the double integral.

19. $P(x, y) = x^3y^4$, $Q(x, y) = x^5y^4$,
C consists of the line segment from $(-\pi/2, 0)$ to $(\pi/2, 0)$ followed by the arc of the curve $y = \cos x$ from $(\pi/2, 0)$ to $(-\pi/2, 0)$

20. $P(x, y) = 2x - x^3y^5$, $Q(x, y) = x^3y^8$,
C is the ellipse $4x^2 + y^2 = 4$

21. Use Green's Theorem to find the work done by the force $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = x(x + y)\,\mathbf{i} + xy^2\,\mathbf{j}$ in moving a particle from the origin along the x-axis to $(1, 0)$, then along the line segment to $(0, 1)$, and then back to the origin along the y-axis.

22. A particle starts at the origin, moves along the x-axis to $(5, 0)$, then along the quarter-circle $x^2 + y^2 = 25$, $x \geqslant 0$, $y \geqslant 0$ to the point $(0, 5)$, and then down the y-axis back to the origin. Use Green's Theorem to find the work done on this particle by the force field $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \left\langle \sin x,\ \sin y + xy^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3\right\rangle$.

23. Use one of the formulas in (5) to find the area under one arch of the cycloid $x = t - \sin t$, $y = 1 - \cos t$.

24. If a circle C with radius 1 rolls along the outside of the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 16$, a fixed point P on C traces out a curve called an *epicycloid,* with parametric equations $x = 5\cos t - \cos 5t$, $y = 5\sin t - \sin 5t$. Graph the epicycloid and use (5) to find the area it encloses.

25. (a) If C is the line segment connecting the point (x_1, y_1) to the point (x_2, y_2), show that

$$\int_C x\,dy - y\,dx = x_1y_2 - x_2y_1$$

(b) If the vertices of a polygon, in counterclockwise order, are $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$, show that the area of the polygon is

$$A = \tfrac{1}{2}[(x_1y_2 - x_2y_1) + (x_2y_3 - x_3y_2) + \cdots + (x_{n-1}y_n - x_ny_{n-1}) + (x_ny_1 - x_1y_n)]$$

(c) Find the area of the pentagon with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(2, 1)$, $(1, 3)$, $(0, 2)$, and $(-1, 1)$.

26. Let D be a region bounded by a simple closed path C in the xy-plane. Use Green's Theorem to prove that the coordinates of the centroid $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ of D are

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{2A} \oint_C x^2 \, dy \qquad \bar{y} = -\frac{1}{2A} \oint_C y^2 \, dx$$

where A is the area of D.

27. Use Exercise 26 to find the centroid of a quarter-circular region of radius a.

28. Use Exercise 26 to find the centroid of the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(a, 0)$, and (a, b), where $a > 0$ and $b > 0$.

29. A plane lamina with constant density $\rho(x, y) = \rho$ occupies a region in the xy-plane bounded by a simple closed path C. Show that its moments of inertia about the axes are

$$I_x = -\frac{\rho}{3} \oint_C y^3 \, dx \qquad I_y = \frac{\rho}{3} \oint_C x^3 \, dy$$

(See Section 15.4.)

30. Use Exercise 29 to find the moment of inertia of a circular disk of radius a with constant density ρ about a diameter. (Compare with Example 15.4.4.)

31. Use the method of Example 5 to calculate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \frac{2xy \, \mathbf{i} + (y^2 - x^2) \, \mathbf{j}}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}$$

and C is any positively oriented simple closed curve that encloses the origin.

32. Calculate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle x^2 + y, 3x - y^2 \rangle$ and C is the positively oriented boundary curve of a region D that has area 6.

33. If $\mathbf{F}$ is the vector field of Example 5, show that $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ for every simple closed path that does not pass through or enclose the origin.

34. Complete the proof of the special case of Green's Theorem by proving Equation 3.

35. Use Green's Theorem to prove the change of variables formula for a double integral (Formula 15.9.9) for the case where $f(x, y) = 1$:

$$\iint_R dx \, dy = \iint_S \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| du \, dv$$

Here R is the region in the xy-plane that corresponds to the region S in the uv-plane under the transformation given by $x = g(u, v)$, $y = h(u, v)$.

[*Hint:* Note that the left side is $A(R)$ and apply the first part of Equation 5. Convert the line integral over ∂R to a line integral over ∂S and apply Green's Theorem in the uv-plane.]

16.5 Curl and Divergence

In this section we define two operations that can be performed on vector fields and that play a basic role in the applications of vector calculus to fluid flow and electricity and magnetism. Each operation resembles differentiation, but one produces a vector field whereas the other produces a scalar field.

Curl

If $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ and the partial derivatives of P, Q, and R all exist, then the curl of $\mathbf{F}$ is the vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ defined by

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \right) \mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} \right) \mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) \mathbf{k}$$

As an aid to our memory, let's rewrite Equation 1 using operator notation. We introduce the vector differential operator ∇ ("del") as

$$\nabla = \mathbf{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \mathbf{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \mathbf{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$$

It has meaning when it operates on a scalar function to produce the gradient of f:

$$\nabla f = \mathbf{i}\,\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \mathbf{j}\,\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} + \mathbf{k}\,\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\,\mathbf{k}$$

If we think of ∇ as a vector with components $\partial/\partial x$, $\partial/\partial y$, and $\partial/\partial z$, we can also consider the formal cross product of ∇ with the vector field $\mathbf{F}$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \times \mathbf{F} &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \dfrac{\partial}{\partial x} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial y} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ P & Q & R \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z}\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial x}\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right)\mathbf{k} \\ &= \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \end{aligned}$$

So the easiest way to remember Definition 1 is by means of the symbolic expression

2
$$\boxed{\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F}}$$

EXAMPLE 1 If $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xz\,\mathbf{i} + xyz\,\mathbf{j} - y^2\,\mathbf{k}$, find curl $\mathbf{F}$.

SOLUTION Using Equation 2, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F} &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \dfrac{\partial}{\partial x} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial y} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ xz & xyz & -y^2 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(-y^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(xyz)\right]\mathbf{i} - \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(-y^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(xz)\right]\mathbf{j} \\ &\qquad + \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(xyz) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(xz)\right]\mathbf{k} \\ &= (-2y - xy)\,\mathbf{i} - (0 - x)\,\mathbf{j} + (yz - 0)\,\mathbf{k} \\ &= -y(2 + x)\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j} + yz\,\mathbf{k} \end{aligned}$$

■

T Most computer algebra systems have commands that compute the curl and divergence of vector fields. If you have access to a CAS, use these commands to check the answers to the examples and exercises in this section.

Recall that the gradient of a function f of three variables is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ and so we can compute its curl. The following theorem says that the curl of a gradient vector field is $\mathbf{0}$.

3 Theorem If f is a function of three variables that has continuous second-order partial derivatives, then

$$\operatorname{curl}(\nabla f) = \mathbf{0}$$

PROOF We have

Notice the similarity to what we know from Section 12.4: $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$ for every three-dimensional vector $\mathbf{a}$.

$$\operatorname{curl}(\nabla f) = \nabla \times (\nabla f) = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \dfrac{\partial}{\partial x} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial y} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ \dfrac{\partial f}{\partial x} & \dfrac{\partial f}{\partial y} & \dfrac{\partial f}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y\,\partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z\,\partial y} \right) \mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z\,\partial x} - \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x\,\partial z} \right) \mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x\,\partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y\,\partial x} \right) \mathbf{k}$$

$$= 0\,\mathbf{i} + 0\,\mathbf{j} + 0\,\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{0}$$

by Clairaut's Theorem. ■

Since a conservative vector field is one for which $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$, Theorem 3 can be rephrased as follows:

Compare this with Exercise 16.3.35.

If $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative, then curl $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$.

This gives us a way of verifying that a vector field is *not* conservative.

EXAMPLE 2 Show that the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xz\,\mathbf{i} + xyz\,\mathbf{j} - y^2\,\mathbf{k}$ is not conservative.

SOLUTION In Example 1 we showed that

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = -y(2 + x)\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j} + yz\,\mathbf{k}$$

This shows that curl $\mathbf{F} \neq \mathbf{0}$ and so, by the remarks preceding this example, $\mathbf{F}$ is not conservative. ■

The converse of Theorem 3 is not true in general, but the following theorem says the converse is true if $\mathbf{F}$ is defined everywhere. (More generally it is true if the domain is simply-connected, that is, "has no hole.") Theorem 4 is the three-dimensional version of Theorem 16.3.6. Its proof requires Stokes' Theorem and is sketched at the end of Section 16.8.

4 Theorem If $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field defined on all of $\mathbb{R}^3$ whose component functions have continuous partial derivatives and curl $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$, then $\mathbf{F}$ is a conservative vector field.

EXAMPLE 3

(a) Show that

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y^2 z^3\,\mathbf{i} + 2xyz^3\,\mathbf{j} + 3xy^2 z^2\,\mathbf{k}$$

is a conservative vector field.

(b) Find a function f such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$.

SOLUTION

(a) We compute the curl of $\mathbf{F}$:

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \dfrac{\partial}{\partial x} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial y} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ y^2z^3 & 2xyz^3 & 3xy^2z^2 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (6xyz^2 - 6xyz^2)\,\mathbf{i} - (3y^2z^2 - 3y^2z^2)\,\mathbf{j} + (2yz^3 - 2yz^3)\,\mathbf{k}$$

$$= \mathbf{0}$$

Since $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$ and the domain of $\mathbf{F}$ is $\mathbb{R}^3$, $\mathbf{F}$ is a conservative vector field by Theorem 4.

(b) The technique for finding f was given in Section 16.3. We have

$$\boxed{5} \qquad f_x(x, y, z) = y^2z^3$$

$$\boxed{6} \qquad f_y(x, y, z) = 2xyz^3$$

$$\boxed{7} \qquad f_z(x, y, z) = 3xy^2z^2$$

Integrating (5) with respect to x, we obtain

$$\boxed{8} \qquad f(x, y, z) = xy^2z^3 + g(y, z)$$

Differentiating (8) with respect to y, we get $f_y(x, y, z) = 2xyz^3 + g_y(y, z)$, so comparison with (6) gives $g_y(y, z) = 0$. Thus $g(y, z) = h(z)$ and

$$f_z(x, y, z) = 3xy^2z^2 + h'(z)$$

Then (7) gives $h'(z) = 0$. Therefore

$$f(x, y, z) = xy^2z^3 + K$$

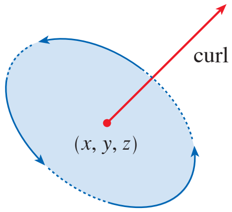
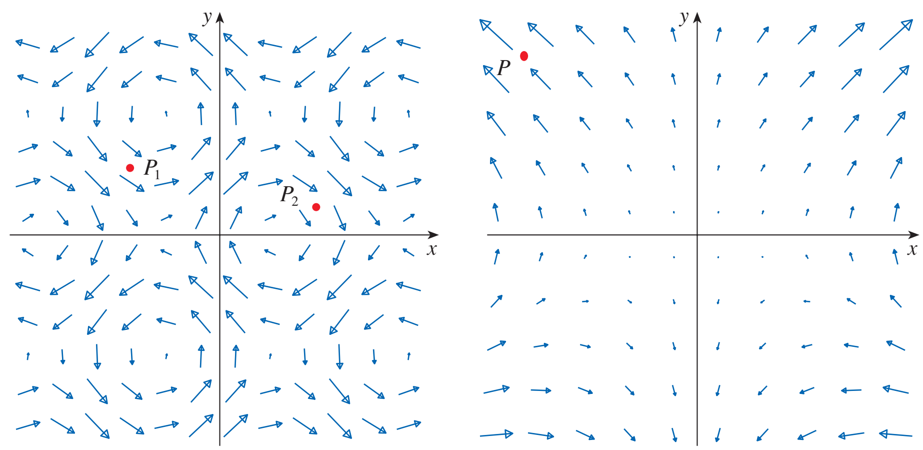


FIGURE 1

The reason for the name *curl* is that the curl vector is associated with rotations. One connection is explained in Exercise 39. Another occurs when $\mathbf{F}$ represents the velocity field in fluid flow (see Example 16.1.3). In Section 16.8 we show that particles near (x, y, z) in the fluid tend to rotate about the axis that points in the direction of $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$, following the right-hand rule, and the length of this curl vector is a measure of how quickly the particles move around the axis (see Figure 1). If $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$ at a point P, then the fluid is free from rotations at P and $\mathbf{F}$ is called **irrotational** at P. In this case, a tiny paddle wheel moves with the fluid but doesn't rotate about its axis. If $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \neq \mathbf{0}$, the paddle wheel rotates about its axis.

As an illustration, each vector field $\mathbf{F}$ in Figure 2 represents the velocity field of a fluid. In Figure 2(a), $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \neq \mathbf{0}$ at most points, including P_1 and P_2. A tiny paddle wheel placed at P_1 would rotate counterclockwise about its axis (the fluid near P_1 flows roughly in the same direction but with greater velocity on one side of the point than on the other), so the curl vector at P_1 points in the direction of $\mathbf{k}$. Similarly, a paddle wheel at P_2 would rotate clockwise and the curl vector there points in the direction of $-\mathbf{k}$. In Figure 2(b), $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$ everywhere. A paddle wheel placed at P moves with the fluid but doesn't rotate about its axis.

In Section 16.8 we give a more detailed explanation of curl and its interpretation (as a consequence of Stokes' Theorem).



(a) $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \sin y\,\mathbf{i} + \cos x\,\mathbf{j}$
curl $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -(\sin x + \cos y)\,\mathbf{k}$

(b) $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = 2xy\,\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + y)\,\mathbf{j}$
curl $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \mathbf{0}$

FIGURE 2 Velocity fields in fluid flow. (Only the part of $\mathbf{F}$ in the xy-plane is shown; the vector field looks the same in all horizontal planes because $\mathbf{F}$ is independent of z and the z-component is 0.)

Divergence

If $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ and $\partial P/\partial x$, $\partial Q/\partial y$, and $\partial R/\partial z$ exist, then the **divergence of F** is the function of three variables defined by

9
$$\boxed{\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}}$$

(If $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^2$, then div $\mathbf{F}$ is a function of two variables defined similarly to the three-variable case.) Observe that curl $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field but div $\mathbf{F}$ is a scalar field. In terms of the gradient operator $\nabla = (\partial/\partial x)\,\mathbf{i} + (\partial/\partial y)\,\mathbf{j} + (\partial/\partial z)\,\mathbf{k}$, the divergence of $\mathbf{F}$ can be written symbolically as the dot product of ∇ and $\mathbf{F}$:

10
$$\boxed{\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}}$$

EXAMPLE 4 If $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xz\,\mathbf{i} + xyz\,\mathbf{j} - y^2\,\mathbf{k}$, find div $\mathbf{F}$.

SOLUTION By the definition of divergence (Equation 9 or 10), we have

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(xz) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(xyz) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(-y^2) = z + xz$$ ■

If $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$, then curl $\mathbf{F}$ is also a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$. As such, we can compute its divergence. The next theorem shows that the result is 0.

11 Theorem If $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ and P, Q, and R have continuous second-order partial derivatives, then

$$\operatorname{div} \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = 0$$

PROOF Using the definitions of divergence and curl, we have

Note the analogy with the scalar triple product: $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{div} \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} &= \nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial x\, \partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 Q}{\partial x\, \partial z} + \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial y\, \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial y\, \partial x} + \frac{\partial^2 Q}{\partial z\, \partial x} - \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial z\, \partial y} \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

because the terms cancel in pairs by Clairaut's Theorem. ■

EXAMPLE 5 Show that the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xz\,\mathbf{i} + xyz\,\mathbf{j} - y^2\,\mathbf{k}$ can't be written as the curl of another vector field, that is, $\mathbf{F} \neq \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{G}$ for any vector field $\mathbf{G}$.

SOLUTION In Example 4 we showed that

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = z + xz$$

and therefore $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \neq 0$. If it were true that $\mathbf{F} = \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{G}$, then Theorem 11 would give

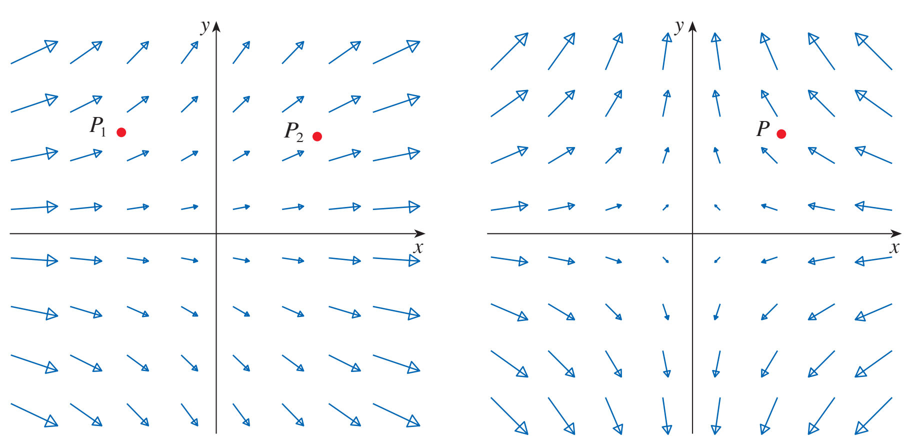
$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \operatorname{div} \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{G} = 0$$

which contradicts $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \neq 0$. Therefore $\mathbf{F}$ is not the curl of another vector field. ■

The reason for this interpretation of div **F** will be explained at the end of Section 16.9 as a consequence of the Divergence Theorem.

Again, the reason for the name *divergence* can be understood in the context of fluid flow. If $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ is the velocity of a fluid (or gas), then $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ represents the net rate of change (with respect to time) of the mass of fluid (or gas) flowing from the point (x, y, z) per unit volume. In other words, $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ measures the tendency of the fluid to diverge from the point (x, y, z). If $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = 0$, then $\mathbf{F}$ is said to be **incompressible**.

As an illustration, each vector field $\mathbf{F}$ in Figure 3 represents the velocity field of a fluid. In Figure 3(a), $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \neq 0$ in general. For instance, at the point P_1, $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}$ is negative (the vectors that start near P_1 are shorter than those that end near P_1, so the net flow is inward there). At the point P_2, $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}$ is positive (the vectors that start near P_2 are longer than those that end near P_2, so the net flow is outward there). In Figure 3(b), $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = 0$ everywhere (the vectors that start and end near any point P are about the same length).



(a) $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (1 + x^2)\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j}$
$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = 2x + 1$

(b) $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j}$
$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = 0$

FIGURE 3
Velocity fields in fluid flow. (Only the part of **F** in the xy-plane is shown; the vector field looks the same in all horizontal planes because **F** is independent of z and the z-component is 0.)

Another differential operator occurs when we compute the divergence of a gradient vector field ∇f. If f is a function of three variables, we have

$$\operatorname{div}(\nabla f) = \nabla \cdot (\nabla f) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2}$$

and this expression occurs so often that we abbreviate it as $\nabla^2 f$. The operator

$$\nabla^2 = \nabla \cdot \nabla$$

is called the **Laplace operator** because of its relation to **Laplace's equation**

$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

We can also apply the Laplace operator ∇^2 to a vector field

$$\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}$$

in terms of its components:

$$\nabla^2\mathbf{F} = \nabla^2 P\,\mathbf{i} + \nabla^2 Q\,\mathbf{j} + \nabla^2 R\,\mathbf{k}$$

Vector Forms of Green's Theorem

The curl and divergence operators allow us to rewrite Green's Theorem in versions that will be useful in our later work. We suppose that the plane region D, its boundary curve C, and the functions P and Q satisfy the hypotheses of Green's Theorem. Then we consider the vector field $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j}$. Its line integral is

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \oint_C P\,dx + Q\,dy$$

and, regarding $\mathbf{F}$ as a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ with third component 0, we have

$$\operatorname{curl}\mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \dfrac{\partial}{\partial x} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial y} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ P(x, y) & Q(x, y) & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right)\mathbf{k}$$

Therefore

$$(\operatorname{curl}\mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k} = \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right)\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{k} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}$$

and we can now rewrite the equation in Green's Theorem in the vector form

12 $$\boxed{\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}\,ds = \iint_D (\operatorname{curl}\mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k}\,dA}$$

Equation 12 expresses the line integral of the tangential component of $\mathbf{F}$ along C as the double integral of the vertical component of curl $\mathbf{F}$ over the region D enclosed by C. We now derive a similar formula involving the *normal* component of $\mathbf{F}$.

If C is given by the vector equation

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\,\mathbf{i} + y(t)\,\mathbf{j} \qquad a \leqslant t \leqslant b$$

then the unit tangent vector (see Section 13.2) is

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{x'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{y'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}\,\mathbf{j}$$

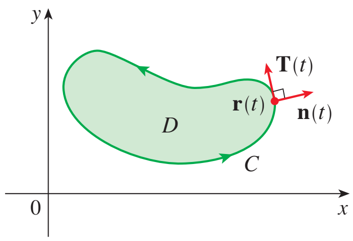


FIGURE 4

You can verify that the outward unit normal vector to C is given by

$$\mathbf{n}(t) = \frac{y'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}\,\mathbf{i} - \frac{x'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}\,\mathbf{j}$$

(See Figure 4.) Then, from Equation 16.2.3, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\oint_C \mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,ds &= \int_a^b (\mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{n})(t)\,|\mathbf{r}'(t)|\,dt \\
&= \int_a^b \left[\frac{P(x(t), y(t))\,y'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} - \frac{Q(x(t), y(t))\,x'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}\right] |\mathbf{r}'(t)|\,dt \\
&= \int_a^b P(x(t), y(t))\,y'(t)\,dt - Q(x(t), y(t))\,x'(t)\,dt \\
&= \int_C P\,dy - Q\,dx = \iint_D \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y}\right) dA
\end{aligned}$$

by Green's Theorem. But the integrand in this double integral is just the divergence of $\mathbf{F}$. So we have a second vector form of Green's Theorem.

$$\boxed{13} \qquad \oint_C \mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,ds = \iint_D \operatorname{div}\mathbf{F}(x, y)\,dA$$

This version says that the line integral of the normal component of $\mathbf{F}$ along C is equal to the double integral of the divergence of $\mathbf{F}$ over the region D enclosed by C.

16.5 Exercises

1–8 Find (a) the curl and (b) the divergence of the vector field.

1. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xy^2z^2\,\mathbf{i} + x^2yz^2\,\mathbf{j} + x^2y^2z\,\mathbf{k}$

2. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^3yz^2\,\mathbf{j} + y^4z^3\,\mathbf{k}$

3. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xye^z\,\mathbf{i} + yze^x\,\mathbf{k}$

4. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \sin yz\,\mathbf{i} + \sin zx\,\mathbf{j} + \sin xy\,\mathbf{k}$

5. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \dfrac{\sqrt{x}}{1+z}\,\mathbf{i} + \dfrac{\sqrt{y}}{1+x}\,\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{\sqrt{z}}{1+y}\,\mathbf{k}$

6. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \ln(2y + 3z)\,\mathbf{i} + \ln(x + 3z)\,\mathbf{j} + \ln(x + 2y)\,\mathbf{k}$

7. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \langle e^x \sin y,\, e^y \sin z,\, e^z \sin x\rangle$

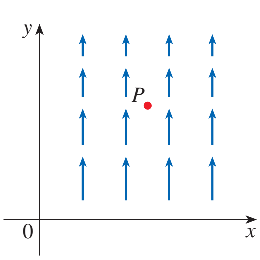
8. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \langle \arctan(xy), \arctan(yz), \arctan(zx)\rangle$

9–12 The vector field $\mathbf{F}$ is shown in the xy-plane and looks the same in all other horizontal planes. (In other words, $\mathbf{F}$ is independent of z and its z-component is 0.)

(a) Is div $\mathbf{F}$ positive, negative, or zero at P? Explain.

(b) Determine whether curl $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$. If not, in which direction does curl $\mathbf{F}$ point at P?

9.



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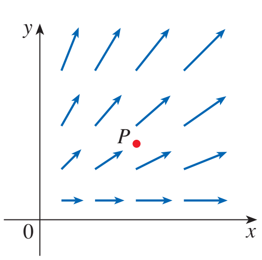

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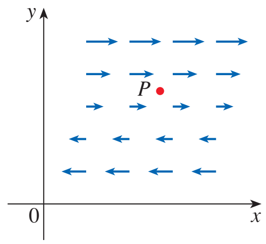
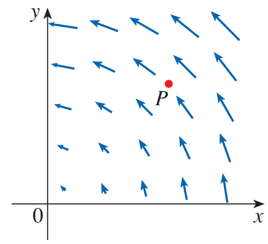


12.



13. (a) Verify Formula 3 for $f(x, y, z) = \sin xyz$.
(b) Verify Formula 11 for $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xyz^2\,\mathbf{i} + x^2yz^3\,\mathbf{j} + y^2\,\mathbf{k}$.

14. Let f be a scalar field and $\mathbf{F}$ a vector field. State whether each expression is meaningful. If not, explain why. If so, state whether it is a scalar field or a vector field.

(a) curl f (b) grad f
(c) div $\mathbf{F}$ (d) curl(grad f)
(e) grad $\mathbf{F}$ (f) grad(div $\mathbf{F}$)
(g) div(grad f) (h) grad(div f)
(i) curl(curl $\mathbf{F}$) (j) div(div $\mathbf{F}$)
(k) (grad f) $\times$ (div $\mathbf{F}$) (l) div(curl(grad f))

15–20 Determine whether or not the vector field is conservative. If it is conservative, find a function f such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$.

15. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \langle 2xy^3z^2, 3x^2y^2z^2, 2x^2y^3z\rangle$

16. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \langle yz, xz + y, xy - x\rangle$

17. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \langle \ln y, (x/y) + \ln z, y/z\rangle$

18. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = yz \sin xy\,\mathbf{i} + xz \sin xy\,\mathbf{j} - \cos xy\,\mathbf{k}$

19. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = yz^2e^{xz}\,\mathbf{i} + ze^{xz}\,\mathbf{j} + xyze^{xz}\,\mathbf{k}$

20. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = e^z \cos x\,\mathbf{i} + e^y \cos z\,\mathbf{j} + (e^z \sin x - e^y \sin z)\,\mathbf{k}$

21. Is there a vector field $\mathbf{G}$ on $\mathbb{R}^3$ such that curl $\mathbf{G} = \langle x \sin y, \cos y, z - xy\rangle$? Explain.

22. Is there a vector field $\mathbf{G}$ on $\mathbb{R}^3$ such that curl $\mathbf{G} = \langle x, y, z\rangle$? Explain.

23. Show that any vector field of the form

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = f(x)\,\mathbf{i} + g(y)\,\mathbf{j} + h(z)\,\mathbf{k}$$

where f, g, h are differentiable functions, is irrotational.

24. Show that any vector field of the form

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = f(y, z)\,\mathbf{i} + g(x, z)\,\mathbf{j} + h(x, y)\,\mathbf{k}$$

is incompressible.

25–31 Prove the identity, assuming that the appropriate partial derivatives exist and are continuous. If f is a scalar field and $\mathbf{F}$, $\mathbf{G}$ are vector fields, then $f\mathbf{F}$, $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{G}$, and $\mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{G}$ are defined by

$$(f\mathbf{F})(x, y, z) = f(x, y, z)\,\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$$
$$(\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{G})(x, y, z) = \mathbf{F}(x, y, z) \cdot \mathbf{G}(x, y, z)$$
$$(\mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{G})(x, y, z) = \mathbf{F}(x, y, z) \times \mathbf{G}(x, y, z)$$

25. $\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{F} + \mathbf{G}) = \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} + \operatorname{div} \mathbf{G}$

26. $\operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{F} + \mathbf{G}) = \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} + \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{G}$

27. $\operatorname{div}(f\mathbf{F}) = f \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} + \mathbf{F} \cdot \nabla f$

28. $\operatorname{curl}(f\mathbf{F}) = f \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} + (\nabla f) \times \mathbf{F}$

29. $\operatorname{div}(\mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{G}) = \mathbf{G} \cdot \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} - \mathbf{F} \cdot \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{G}$

30. $\operatorname{div}(\nabla f \times \nabla g) = 0$

31. $\operatorname{curl}(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) = \operatorname{grad}(\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}) - \nabla^2\mathbf{F}$

32–34 Let $\mathbf{r} = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$ and $r = |\mathbf{r}|$.

32. Verify each identity.
(a) $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{r} = 3$ (b) $\nabla \cdot (r\mathbf{r}) = 4r$
(c) $\nabla^2 r^3 = 12r$

33. Verify each identity.
(a) $\nabla r = \mathbf{r}/r$ (b) $\nabla \times \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{0}$
(c) $\nabla(1/r) = -\mathbf{r}/r^3$ (d) $\nabla \ln r = \mathbf{r}/r^2$

34. If $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{r}/r^p$, find div $\mathbf{F}$. Is there a value of p for which div $\mathbf{F} = 0$?

35. Use Green's Theorem in the form of Equation 13 to prove **Green's first identity**:

$$\iint_D f\nabla^2 g\, dA = \oint_C f(\nabla g) \cdot \mathbf{n}\, ds - \iint_D \nabla f \cdot \nabla g\, dA$$

where D and C satisfy the hypotheses of Green's Theorem and the appropriate partial derivatives of f and g exist and are continuous. (The quantity $\nabla g \cdot \mathbf{n} = D_{\mathbf{n}}\, g$ occurs in the line integral; it is the directional derivative in the direction of the normal vector $\mathbf{n}$ and is called the **normal derivative** of g.)

36. Use Green's first identity (Exercise 35) to prove **Green's second identity**:

$$\iint_D (f\nabla^2 g - g\nabla^2 f)\, dA = \oint_C (f\nabla g - g\nabla f) \cdot \mathbf{n}\, ds$$

where D and C satisfy the hypotheses of Green's Theorem and the appropriate partial derivatives of f and g exist and are continuous.

37. Recall from Section 14.3 that a function g is called *harmonic* on D if it satisfies Laplace's equation, that is, $\nabla^2 g = 0$ on D. Use Green's first identity (with the same hypotheses as in Exercise 35) to show that if g is harmonic on D, then $\oint_C D_{\mathbf{n}}\, g\, ds = 0$. Here $D_{\mathbf{n}}\, g$ is the normal derivative of g defined in Exercise 35.

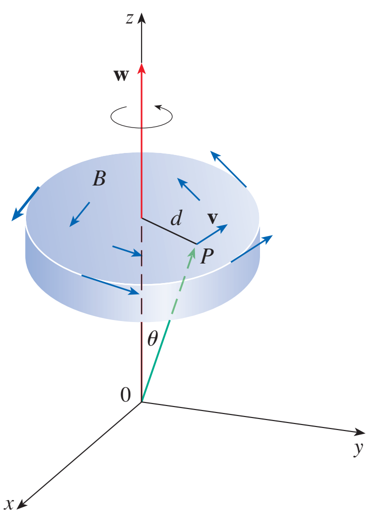
38. Use Green's first identity to show that if f is harmonic on D, and if $f(x, y) = 0$ on the boundary curve C, then $\iint_D |\nabla f|^2\, dA = 0$. (Assume the same hypotheses as in Exercise 35.)

39. This exercise demonstrates a connection between the curl vector and rotations. Let B be a rigid body rotating about the z-axis. The rotation can be described by the vector $\mathbf{w} = \omega\mathbf{k}$, where ω is the angular speed of B, that is, the tangential speed of any point P in B divided by the distance d from the axis of rotation. Let $\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$ be the position vector of P.

(a) By considering the angle θ in the figure, show that the velocity field of B is given by $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{w} \times \mathbf{r}$.

(b) Show that $\mathbf{v} = -\omega y\,\mathbf{i} + \omega x\,\mathbf{j}$.

(c) Show that $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{w}$.



40. Maxwell's equations relating the electric field $\mathbf{E}$ and magnetic field $\mathbf{H}$ as they vary with time in a region containing no charge and no current can be stated as follows:

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{E} = 0 \qquad \operatorname{div} \mathbf{H} = 0$$

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{E} = -\frac{1}{c}\frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t} \qquad \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{H} = \frac{1}{c}\frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}$$

where c is the speed of light. Use these equations to prove the following:

(a) $\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) = -\dfrac{1}{c^2}\dfrac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2}$

(b) $\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{H}) = -\dfrac{1}{c^2}\dfrac{\partial^2 \mathbf{H}}{\partial t^2}$

(c) $\nabla^2 \mathbf{E} = \dfrac{1}{c^2}\dfrac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2}$ [*Hint:* Use Exercise 31.]

(d) $\nabla^2 \mathbf{H} = \dfrac{1}{c^2}\dfrac{\partial^2 \mathbf{H}}{\partial t^2}$

41. We have seen that all vector fields of the form $\mathbf{F} = \nabla g$ satisfy the equation $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$ and that all vector fields of the form $\mathbf{F} = \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{G}$ satisfy the equation $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = 0$ (assuming continuity of the appropriate partial derivatives). This suggests the question: are there any equations that all functions of the form $f = \operatorname{div} \mathbf{G}$ must satisfy? Show that the answer to this question is "no" by proving that *every* continuous function f on $\mathbb{R}^3$ is the divergence of some vector field.

[*Hint:* Let $\mathbf{G}(x, y, z) = \langle g(x, y, z), 0, 0 \rangle$, where $g(x, y, z) = \int_0^x f(t, y, z)\,dt$.]

16.6 Parametric Surfaces and Their Areas

So far we have considered special types of surfaces: cylinders, quadric surfaces, graphs of functions of two variables, and level surfaces of functions of three variables. Here we use vector functions to describe more general surfaces, called *parametric surfaces*, and compute their areas. Then we take the general surface area formula and see how it applies to special surfaces.

Parametric Surfaces

In much the same way that we describe a space curve by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ of a single parameter t, we can describe a surface by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$ of two parameters u and v. We suppose that

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \mathbf{r}(u, v) = x(u, v)\,\mathbf{i} + y(u, v)\,\mathbf{j} + z(u, v)\,\mathbf{k}$$

is a vector-valued function defined on a region D in the uv-plane. So x, y, and z, the component functions of $\mathbf{r}$, are functions of the two variables u and v with domain D. The set of all points (x, y, z) in $\mathbb{R}^3$ such that

$$\boxed{2} \qquad x = x(u, v) \qquad y = y(u, v) \qquad z = z(u, v)$$

and (u, v) varies throughout D, is called a **parametric surface** S and Equations 2 are called **parametric equations** of S. Each choice of u and v gives a point on S; by making all choices, we get all of S. In other words, the surface S is traced out by the tip of the position vector $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$ as (u, v) moves throughout the region D. (See Figure 1.)

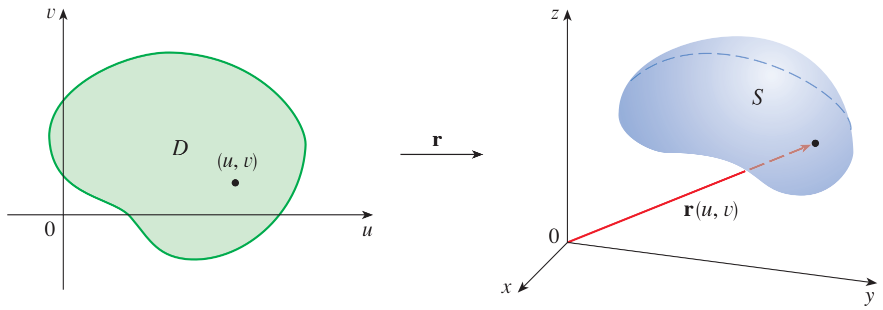


FIGURE 1
A parametric surface

EXAMPLE 1 Identify and sketch the surface with vector equation

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = 2\cos u\,\mathbf{i} + v\,\mathbf{j} + 2\sin u\,\mathbf{k}$$

SOLUTION The parametric equations for this surface are

$$x = 2\cos u \qquad y = v \qquad z = 2\sin u$$

So for any point (x, y, z) on the surface, we have

$$x^2 + z^2 = 4\cos^2 u + 4\sin^2 u = 4$$

This means that vertical cross-sections parallel to the xz-plane (that is, with y constant) are all circles with radius 2. Since $y = v$ and no restriction is placed on v, the surface is a circular cylinder with radius 2 whose axis is the y-axis (see Figure 2). ■

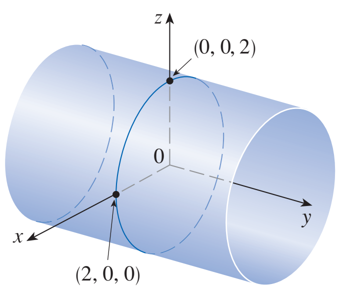


FIGURE 2

In Example 1 we placed no restrictions on the parameters u and v and so we obtained the entire cylinder. If, for instance, we restrict u and v by writing the parameter domain as

$$0 \leqslant u \leqslant \pi/2 \qquad 0 \leqslant v \leqslant 3$$

then $x \geqslant 0$, $z \geqslant 0$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 3$, and we get the quarter-cylinder with length 3 illustrated in Figure 3.

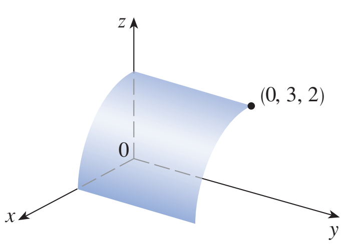


FIGURE 3

If a parametric surface S is given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$, then there are two useful families of curves that lie on S, one family with u constant and the other with v constant. These families correspond to vertical and horizontal lines in the uv-plane. If we keep u constant by putting $u = u_0$, then $\mathbf{r}(u_0, v)$ becomes a vector function of the single parameter v and defines a curve C_1 lying on S. (See Figure 4.)

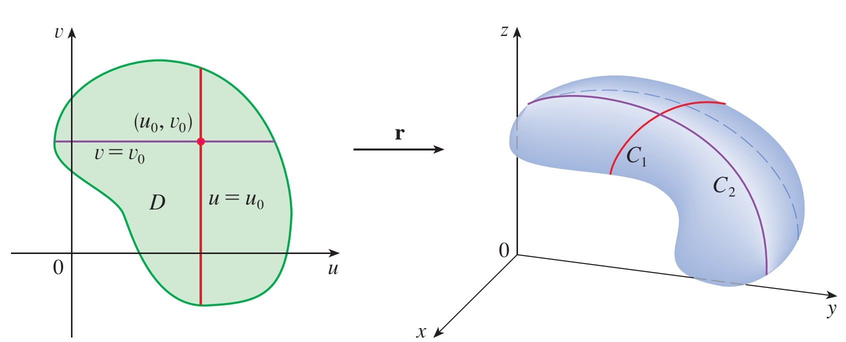


FIGURE 4

Similarly, if we keep v constant by putting $v = v_0$, we get a curve C_2 given by $\mathbf{r}(u, v_0)$ that lies on S. We call these curves **grid curves**. (In Example 1, for instance, the grid curves obtained by letting u be constant are horizontal lines, whereas the grid curves with v constant are circles.) In fact, when a computer graphs a parametric surface, it sometimes depicts the surface by plotting these grid curves, as we will see in the following example.

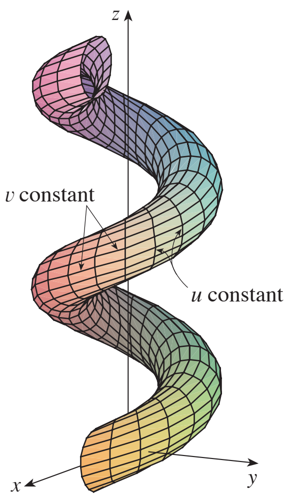


FIGURE 5

EXAMPLE 2 Use a computer to graph the surface

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle (2 + \sin v) \cos u, (2 + \sin v) \sin u, u + \cos v \rangle$$

Which grid curves have u constant? Which have v constant?

SOLUTION We graph the portion of the surface with parameter domain $0 \leqslant u \leqslant 4\pi$, $0 \leqslant v \leqslant 2\pi$ in Figure 5. It has the appearance of a spiral tube. To identify the grid curves, we write the corresponding parametric equations:

$$x = (2 + \sin v) \cos u \qquad y = (2 + \sin v) \sin u \qquad z = u + \cos v$$

If v is constant, then $\sin v$ and $\cos v$ are constant, so the parametric equations resemble those of the helix in Example 13.1.4. Thus the grid curves with v constant are the spiral curves in Figure 5. We deduce that the grid curves with u constant must be the curves that look like circles in the figure. Further evidence for this assertion is that if u is kept constant, $u = u_0$, then the equation $z = u_0 + \cos v$ shows that the z-values vary from $u_0 - 1$ to $u_0 + 1$. ■

In Examples 1 and 2 we were given a vector equation and asked to graph the corresponding parametric surface. In the following examples, however, we are given the more challenging problem of finding a vector function to represent a given surface. In the rest of this chapter we will often need to do exactly that.

EXAMPLE 3 Find a vector function that represents the plane that passes through the point P_0 with position vector $\mathbf{r}_0$ and that contains two nonparallel vectors $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$.

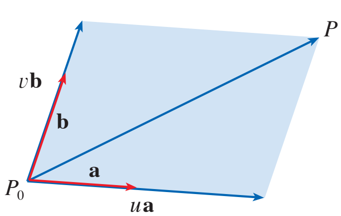


FIGURE 6

SOLUTION If P is any point in the plane, we can get from P_0 to P by moving a certain distance in the direction of $\mathbf{a}$ and another distance in the direction of $\mathbf{b}$. So there are scalars u and v such that $\overrightarrow{P_0P} = u\mathbf{a} + v\mathbf{b}$. (Figure 6 illustrates how this works, by means of the Parallelogram Law, for the case where u and v are positive. See also Exercise 12.2.46.) If $\mathbf{r}$ is the position vector of P, then

$$\mathbf{r} = \overrightarrow{OP_0} + \overrightarrow{P_0P} = \mathbf{r}_0 + u\mathbf{a} + v\mathbf{b}$$

So the vector equation of the plane can be written as

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \mathbf{r}_0 + u\mathbf{a} + v\mathbf{b}$$

where u and v are real numbers.

If we write $\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$, $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$, $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$, and $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$, then we can write the parametric equations of the plane through the point (x_0, y_0, z_0) as follows:

$$x = x_0 + ua_1 + vb_1 \qquad y = y_0 + ua_2 + vb_2 \qquad z = z_0 + ua_3 + vb_3$$ ■

EXAMPLE 4 Find a parametric representation of the sphere

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$$

SOLUTION The sphere has a simple representation $\rho = a$ in spherical coordinates, so let's choose the angles ϕ and θ in spherical coordinates as the parameters (see Section 15.8). Then, putting $\rho = a$ in the equations for conversion from spherical to rectangular coordinates (Equations 15.8.1), we obtain

$$x = a \sin\phi \cos\theta \qquad y = a \sin\phi \sin\theta \qquad z = a \cos\phi$$

as the parametric equations of the sphere. The corresponding vector equation is

$$\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta) = a \sin\phi \cos\theta \,\mathbf{i} + a \sin\phi \sin\theta \,\mathbf{j} + a \cos\phi \,\mathbf{k}$$

We have $0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi$ and $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$, so the parameter domain is the rectangle $D = [0, \pi] \times [0, 2\pi]$. The grid curves with ϕ constant are the circles of constant latitude (including the equator). The grid curves with θ constant are the meridians (semicircles), which connect the north and south poles (see Figure 7).

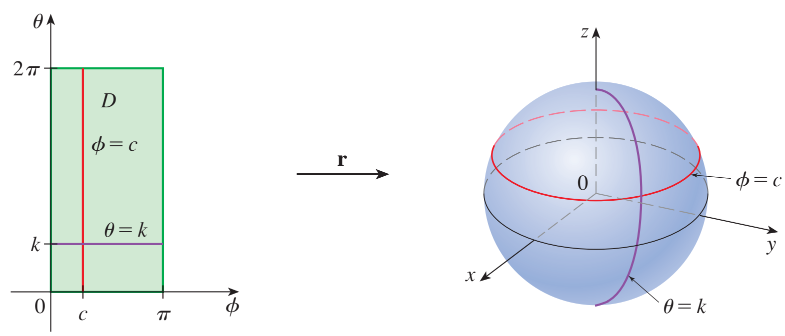


FIGURE 7

NOTE We saw in Example 4 that the grid curves for a sphere are curves of constant latitude or constant longitude. For a general parametric surface we are really making a map and the grid curves are similar to lines of latitude and longitude. Describing a point on a parametric surface (like the one in Figure 5) by giving specific values of u and v is like giving the latitude and longitude of a point.

One of the uses of parametric surfaces is in computer graphics. Figure 8 shows the result of trying to graph the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ by solving the equation for z and graphing the top and bottom hemispheres separately. Part of the sphere appears to be missing because of the rectangular grid system used by the software. The much better picture in Figure 9 was produced by a computer using the parametric equations found in Example 4.

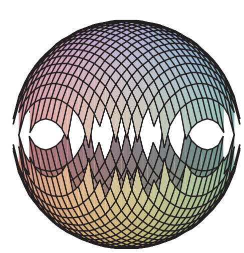


FIGURE 8

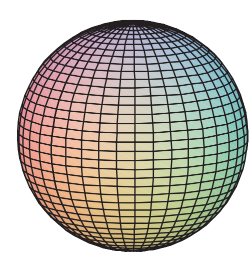


FIGURE 9

EXAMPLE 5 Find a parametric representation for the cylinder

$$x^2 + y^2 = 4 \qquad 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 1$$

SOLUTION The cylinder has a simple representation $r = 2$ in cylindrical coordinates, so we choose as parameters θ and z in cylindrical coordinates. Then the parametric equations of the cylinder are

$$x = 2 \cos\theta \qquad y = 2 \sin\theta \qquad z = z$$

where $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$ and $0 \leqslant z \leqslant 1$. In vector notation,

$$\mathbf{r}(\theta, z) = 2 \cos\theta \,\mathbf{i} + 2 \sin\theta \,\mathbf{j} + z \,\mathbf{k}$$

and the vector function **r** maps the parameter domain

$$D = \{(\theta, z) \mid 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi,\, 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 1\}$$

to a cylinder, as shown in Figure 10.

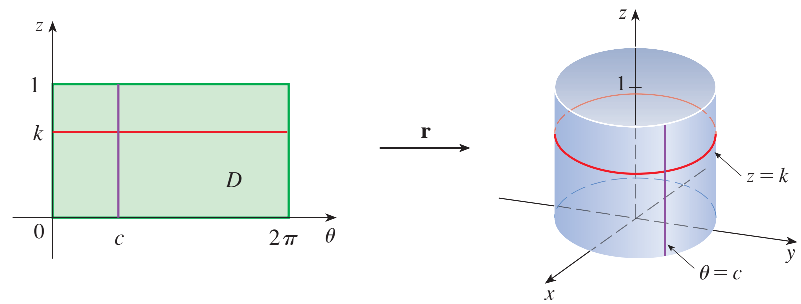


FIGURE 10

EXAMPLE 6 Find a vector function that represents the elliptic paraboloid $z = x^2 + 2y^2$.

SOLUTION If we regard x and y as parameters, then the parametric equations are simply

$$x = x \qquad y = y \qquad z = x^2 + 2y^2$$

and the vector equation is

$$\mathbf{r}(x, y) = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + (x^2 + 2y^2)\,\mathbf{k}$$

In general, a surface given as the graph of a function of x and y, that is, with an equation of the form $z = f(x, y)$, can always be regarded as a parametric surface by taking x and y as parameters and writing the parametric equations as

$$x = x \qquad y = y \qquad z = f(x, y)$$

Parametric representations (also called parametrizations) of surfaces are not unique. The next example shows two ways to parametrize a cone.

EXAMPLE 7 Find a parametric representation for the surface $z = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, that is, the top half of the cone $z^2 = 4x^2 + 4y^2$.

SOLUTION 1 One possible representation is obtained by choosing x and y as parameters:

$$x = x \qquad y = y \qquad z = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

So the vector equation is

$$\mathbf{r}(x, y) = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\,\mathbf{k}$$

SOLUTION 2 Another representation results from choosing as parameters the polar coordinates r and θ. A point (x, y, z) on the cone satisfies $x = r\cos\theta$, $y = r\sin\theta$, and $z = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = 2r$. So a vector equation for the cone is

$$\mathbf{r}(r, \theta) = r\cos\theta\,\mathbf{i} + r\sin\theta\,\mathbf{j} + 2r\,\mathbf{k}$$

where $r \geqslant 0$ and $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$.

For some purposes the parametric representations in Solutions 1 and 2 of Example 7 are equally good, but Solution 2 might be preferable in certain situations. If we are interested only in the part of the cone that lies below the plane $z = 1$, for instance, all we have to do in Solution 2 is change the parameter domain to

$$D = \left\{(r, \theta) \mid 0 \leqslant r \leqslant \tfrac{1}{2},\ 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi\right\}$$

Then the vector function $\mathbf{r}$ maps the region D to the half-cone shown in Figure 11.

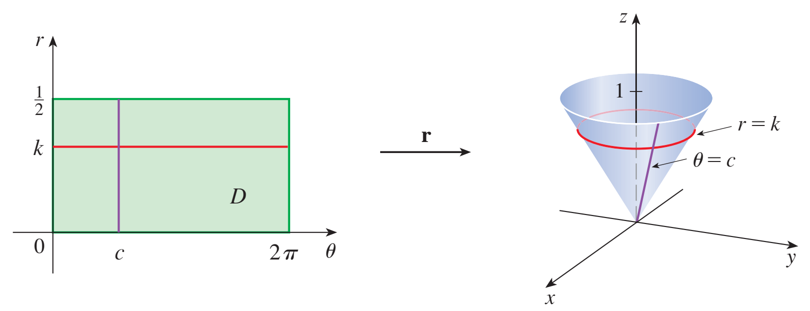


FIGURE 11

Surfaces of Revolution

Surfaces of revolution can be represented parametrically. For instance, let's consider the surface S obtained by rotating the curve $y = f(x)$, $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$, about the x-axis, where $f(x) \geqslant 0$. Let θ be the angle of rotation as shown in Figure 12. If (x, y, z) is a point on S, then

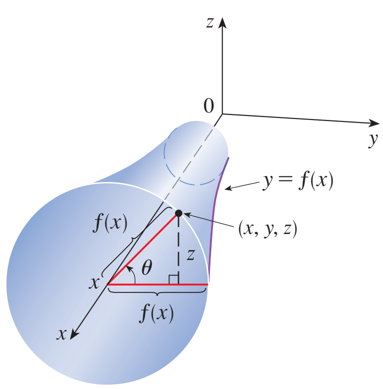


FIGURE 12

3 $$x = x \qquad y = f(x)\cos\theta \qquad z = f(x)\sin\theta$$

Therefore we take x and θ as parameters and regard Equations 3 as parametric equations of S. The parameter domain is given by $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$.

EXAMPLE 8 Find parametric equations for the surface generated by rotating the curve $y = \sin x$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2\pi$, about the x-axis. Use these equations to graph the surface of revolution.

SOLUTION From Equations 3, the parametric equations are

$$x = x \qquad y = \sin x \cos\theta \qquad z = \sin x \sin\theta$$

and the parameter domain is $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2\pi$, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$. Using a computer to plot these equations, we obtain the graph in Figure 13. ■

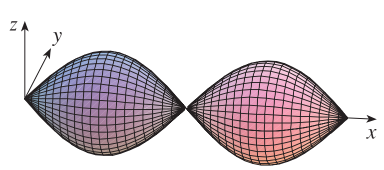


FIGURE 13

We can adapt Equations 3 to represent a surface obtained through revolution about the y- or z-axis (see Exercise 30).

Tangent Planes

We now find the tangent plane to a parametric surface S traced out by a vector function

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = x(u, v)\,\mathbf{i} + y(u, v)\,\mathbf{j} + z(u, v)\,\mathbf{k}$$

at a point P_0 with position vector $\mathbf{r}(u_0, v_0)$. If we keep u constant by putting $u = u_0$, then $\mathbf{r}(u_0, v)$ becomes a vector function of the single parameter v and defines a grid curve C_1

lying on S. (See Figure 14.) The tangent vector to C_1 at P_0 is obtained by taking the partial derivative of $\mathbf{r}$ with respect to v:

$$\boxed{4} \qquad \mathbf{r}_v = \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}(u_0, v_0)\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}(u_0, v_0)\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial v}(u_0, v_0)\,\mathbf{k}$$

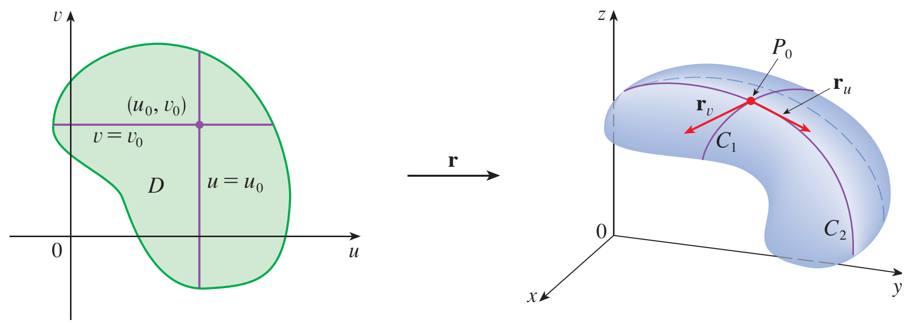


FIGURE 14

Similarly, if we keep v constant by putting $v = v_0$, we get a grid curve C_2 given by $\mathbf{r}(u, v_0)$ that lies on S, and its tangent vector at P_0 is

$$\boxed{5} \qquad \mathbf{r}_u = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u}(u_0, v_0)\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}(u_0, v_0)\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial u}(u_0, v_0)\,\mathbf{k}$$

If $\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v$ is never $\mathbf{0}$, then the surface S is called **smooth** (it has no "corners"). For a smooth surface, the **tangent plane** is the plane that contains the tangent vectors $\mathbf{r}_u$ and $\mathbf{r}_v$, and the vector $\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v$ is a normal vector to the tangent plane.

Figure 15 shows the self-intersecting surface in Example 9 and its tangent plane at $(1, 1, 3)$.

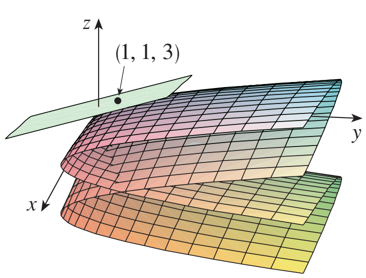


FIGURE 15

EXAMPLE 9 Find the tangent plane to the surface with parametric equations $x = u^2$, $y = v^2$, $z = u + 2v$ at the point $(1, 1, 3)$.

SOLUTION We first compute the tangent vectors:

$$\mathbf{r}_u = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial u}\mathbf{k} = 2u\,\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{r}_v = \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial v}\mathbf{k} = 2v\,\mathbf{j} + 2\,\mathbf{k}$$

Thus a normal vector to the tangent plane is

$$\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 2u & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2v & 2 \end{vmatrix} = -2v\,\mathbf{i} - 4u\,\mathbf{j} + 4uv\,\mathbf{k}$$

Notice that the point $(1, 1, 3)$ corresponds to the parameter values $u = 1$ and $v = 1$, so the normal vector there is

$$-2\,\mathbf{i} - 4\,\mathbf{j} + 4\,\mathbf{k}$$

Therefore an equation of the tangent plane at $(1, 1, 3)$ is

$$-2(x - 1) - 4(y - 1) + 4(z - 3) = 0$$

or

$$x + 2y - 2z + 3 = 0$$

■

Surface Area

Now we define the surface area of a general parametric surface given by Equation 1. For simplicity we start by considering a surface S whose parameter domain D is a rectangle, and we divide it into subrectangles R_{ij}. Let's choose (u_i^*, v_j^*) to be the lower left corner of R_{ij}. (See Figure 16.)

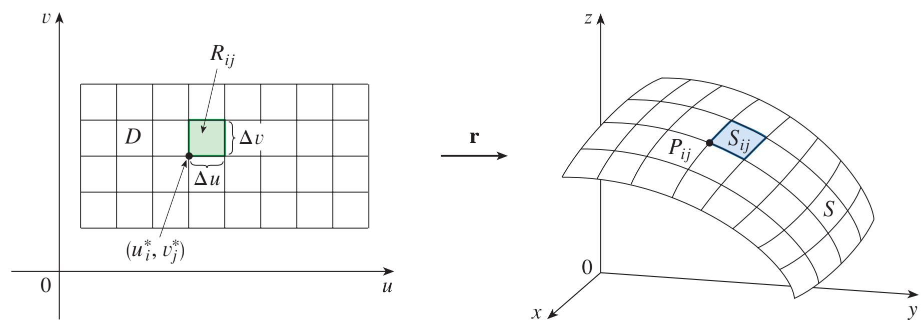


FIGURE 16
The image of the subrectangle R_{ij} is the patch S_{ij}.

The part S_{ij} of the surface S that corresponds to R_{ij} is called a *patch* and has the point P_{ij} with position vector $\mathbf{r}(u_i^*, v_j^*)$ as one of its corners. Let

$$\mathbf{r}_u^* = \mathbf{r}_u(u_i^*, v_j^*) \qquad \text{and} \qquad \mathbf{r}_v^* = \mathbf{r}_v(u_i^*, v_j^*)$$

be the tangent vectors at P_{ij} as given by Equations 5 and 4.

Figure 17(a) shows how the two edges of the patch that meet at P_{ij} can be approximated by vectors. These vectors, in turn, can be approximated by the vectors $\Delta u\, \mathbf{r}_u^*$ and $\Delta v\, \mathbf{r}_v^*$ because partial derivatives can be approximated by difference quotients. So we approximate S_{ij} by the parallelogram determined by the vectors $\Delta u\, \mathbf{r}_u^*$ and $\Delta v\, \mathbf{r}_v^*$. This parallelogram is shown in Figure 17(b) and lies in the tangent plane to S at P_{ij}. The area of this parallelogram is

$$|(\Delta u\, \mathbf{r}_u^*) \times (\Delta v\, \mathbf{r}_v^*)| = |\mathbf{r}_u^* \times \mathbf{r}_v^*|\, \Delta u\, \Delta v$$

and so an approximation to the area of S is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\mathbf{r}_u^* \times \mathbf{r}_v^*|\, \Delta u\, \Delta v$$

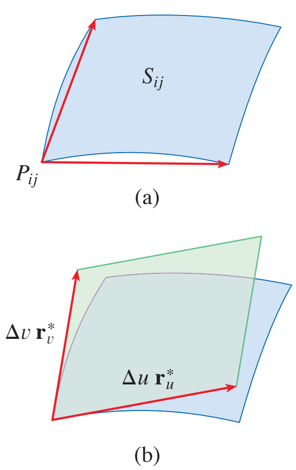


FIGURE 17
Approximating a patch by a parallelogram

Our intuition tells us that this approximation gets better as we increase the number of subrectangles, and we recognize the double sum as a Riemann sum for the double integral $\iint_D |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\, du\, dv$. This motivates the following definition.

6 Definitio If a smooth parametric surface S is given by the equation

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = x(u, v)\, \mathbf{i} + y(u, v)\, \mathbf{j} + z(u, v)\, \mathbf{k} \qquad (u, v) \in D$$

and S is covered just once as (u, v) ranges throughout the parameter domain D, then the **surface area** of S is

$$A(S) = \iint_D |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\, dA$$

where $\quad \mathbf{r}_u = \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial u}\mathbf{i} + \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial u}\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{\partial z}{\partial u}\mathbf{k} \qquad \mathbf{r}_v = \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial v}\mathbf{i} + \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial v}\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{\partial z}{\partial v}\mathbf{k}$

EXAMPLE 10 Find the surface area of a sphere of radius a.

SOLUTION In Example 4 we found the parametric representation

$$x = a\sin\phi\,\cos\theta \qquad y = a\sin\phi\,\sin\theta \qquad z = a\cos\phi$$

where the parameter domain is

$$D = \{(\phi, \theta) \mid 0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi,\ 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi\}$$

We first compute the cross product of the tangent vectors:

$$\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} & \dfrac{\partial z}{\partial \phi} \\ \dfrac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} & \dfrac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} & \dfrac{\partial z}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ a\cos\phi\,\cos\theta & a\cos\phi\,\sin\theta & -a\sin\phi \\ -a\sin\phi\,\sin\theta & a\sin\phi\,\cos\theta & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= a^2\sin^2\!\phi\,\cos\theta\,\mathbf{i} + a^2\sin^2\!\phi\,\sin\theta\,\mathbf{j} + a^2\sin\phi\,\cos\phi\,\mathbf{k}$$

Thus

$$|\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta| = \sqrt{a^4\sin^4\!\phi\,\cos^2\!\theta + a^4\sin^4\!\phi\,\sin^2\!\theta + a^4\sin^2\!\phi\,\cos^2\!\phi}$$

$$= \sqrt{a^4\sin^4\!\phi + a^4\sin^2\!\phi\,\cos^2\!\phi} = a^2\sqrt{\sin^2\!\phi} = a^2\sin\phi$$

since $\sin\phi \geqslant 0$ for $0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi$. Therefore, by Definition 6, the area of the sphere is

$$A = \iint_D |\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta|\,dA = \int_0^{2\pi}\!\int_0^{\pi} a^2\sin\phi\,d\phi\,d\theta$$

$$= a^2\int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^{\pi}\sin\phi\,d\phi = a^2(2\pi)2 = 4\pi a^2$$

■

Surface Area of the Graph of a Function

For the special case of a surface S with equation $z = f(x, y)$, where (x, y) lies in D and f has continuous partial derivatives, we take x and y as parameters. The parametric equations are

$$x = x \qquad y = y \qquad z = f(x, y)$$

so

$$\mathbf{r}_x = \mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)\mathbf{k} \qquad \mathbf{r}_y = \mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)\mathbf{k}$$

and

$$\boxed{7} \qquad \mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_y = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 0 & \dfrac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ 0 & 1 & \dfrac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$

Thus we have

$$\boxed{8} \qquad |\mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_y| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)^2 + 1} = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)^2}$$

Notice the similarity between the surface area formula in Equation 9 and the arc length formula

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}\, dx$$

from Section 8.1.

and the surface area formula in Definition 6 becomes

$$\boxed{9} \qquad \boxed{A(S) = \iint_D \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)^2}\, dA}$$

EXAMPLE 11 Find the area of the part of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ that lies under the plane $z = 9$.

SOLUTION The plane intersects the paraboloid in the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 9$, $z = 9$. Therefore the given surface lies above the disk D with center the origin and radius 3. (See Figure 18.) Using Formula 9, we have

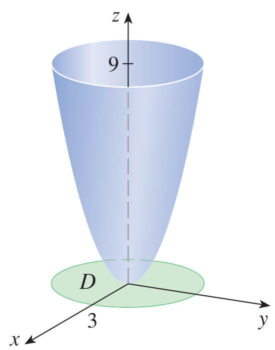


FIGURE 18

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \iint_D \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)^2}\, dA \\ &= \iint_D \sqrt{1 + (2x)^2 + (2y)^2}\, dA = \iint_D \sqrt{1 + 4(x^2 + y^2)}\, dA \end{aligned}$$

Converting to polar coordinates, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^3 \sqrt{1 + 4r^2}\, r\, dr\, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^3 r\sqrt{1 + 4r^2}\, dr \\ &= 2\pi\left(\tfrac{1}{8}\right)\tfrac{2}{3}(1 + 4r^2)^{3/2}\Big]_0^3 = \frac{\pi}{6}\left(37\sqrt{37} - 1\right) \end{aligned}$$ ■

The question remains whether our definition of surface area (6) is consistent with the surface area formula from single-variable calculus (8.2.4).

We consider the surface S obtained by rotating the curve $y = f(x)$, $a \leqslant x \leqslant b$, about the x-axis, where $f(x) \geqslant 0$ and f' is continuous. From Equations 3 we know that parametric equations of S are

$$x = x \qquad y = f(x)\cos\theta \qquad z = f(x)\sin\theta \qquad a \leqslant x \leqslant b \qquad 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$$

To compute the surface area of S we need the tangent vectors

$$\mathbf{r}_x = \mathbf{i} + f'(x)\cos\theta\,\mathbf{j} + f'(x)\sin\theta\,\mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{r}_\theta = -f(x)\sin\theta\,\mathbf{j} + f(x)\cos\theta\,\mathbf{k}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_\theta &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & f'(x)\cos\theta & f'(x)\sin\theta \\ 0 & -f(x)\sin\theta & f(x)\cos\theta \end{vmatrix} \\ &= f(x)f'(x)\,\mathbf{i} - f(x)\cos\theta\,\mathbf{j} - f(x)\sin\theta\,\mathbf{k} \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_\theta| &= \sqrt{[f(x)]^2[f'(x)]^2 + [f(x)]^2\cos^2\theta + [f(x)]^2\sin^2\theta} \\ &= \sqrt{[f(x)]^2[1 + [f'(x)]^2]} = f(x)\sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2} \end{aligned}$$

because $f(x) \geqslant 0$. Therefore the area of S is

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \iint_D |\mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_\theta|\, dA \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_a^b f(x)\sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2}\, dx\, d\theta \\ &= 2\pi \int_a^b f(x)\sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2}\, dx \end{aligned}$$

This is precisely the formula that was used to define the area of a surface of revolution in single-variable calculus (8.2.4).

16.6 Exercises

1–2 Determine whether the points P and Q lie on the given surface.

1. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle u + v, u - 2v, 3 + u - v \rangle$
$P(4, -5, 1)$, $Q(0, 4, 6)$

2. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle 1 + u - v, u + v^2, u^2 - v^2 \rangle$
$P(1, 2, 1)$, $Q(2, 3, 3)$

3–6 Identify the surface with the given vector equation.

3. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = (u + v)\,\mathbf{i} + (3 - v)\,\mathbf{j} + (1 + 4u + 5v)\,\mathbf{k}$

4. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = u^2\,\mathbf{i} + u\cos v\,\mathbf{j} + u\sin v\,\mathbf{k}$

5. $\mathbf{r}(s, t) = \langle s\cos t, s\sin t, s \rangle$

6. $\mathbf{r}(s, t) = \langle 3\cos t, s, \sin t \rangle$, $-1 \leqslant s \leqslant 1$

7–12 Use a computer to graph the parametric surface. Indicate on the graph which grid curves have u constant and which have v constant.

7. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle u^2, v^2, u + v \rangle$,
$-1 \leqslant u \leqslant 1$, $-1 \leqslant v \leqslant 1$

8. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle u, v^3, -v \rangle$,
$-2 \leqslant u \leqslant 2$, $-2 \leqslant v \leqslant 2$

9. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle u^3, u\sin v, u\cos v \rangle$,
$-1 \leqslant u \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant v \leqslant 2\pi$

10. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle u, \sin(u + v), \sin v \rangle$,
$-\pi \leqslant u \leqslant \pi$, $-\pi \leqslant v \leqslant \pi$

11. $x = \sin v$, $y = \cos u \sin 4v$, $z = \sin 2u \sin 4v$,
$0 \leqslant u \leqslant 2\pi$, $-\pi/2 \leqslant v \leqslant \pi/2$

12. $x = \cos u$, $y = \sin u \sin v$, $z = \cos v$,
$0 \leqslant u \leqslant 2\pi$, $0 \leqslant v \leqslant 2\pi$

13–18 Match the equations with the graphs labeled I–VI and give reasons for your answers. Determine which families of grid curves have u constant and which have v constant.

13. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = u\cos v\,\mathbf{i} + u\sin v\,\mathbf{j} + v\,\mathbf{k}$

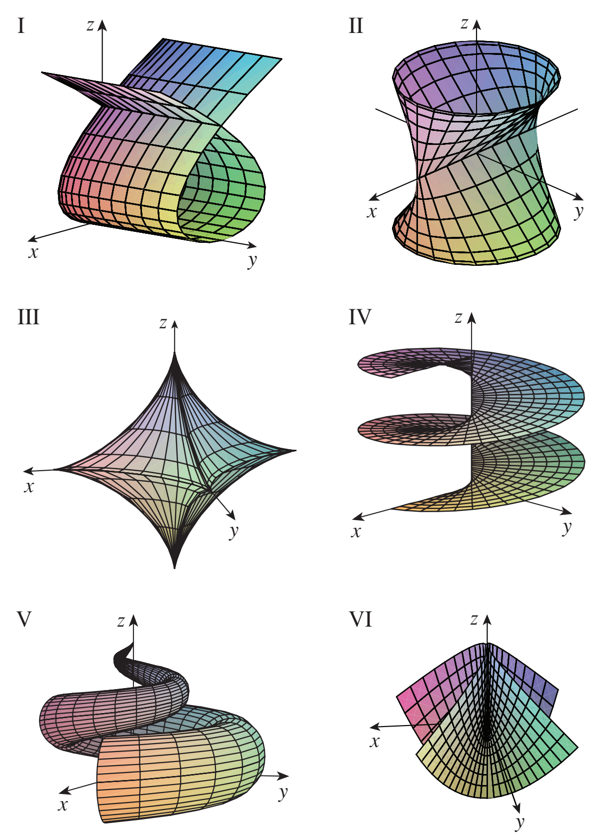
14. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = uv^2\,\mathbf{i} + u^2v\,\mathbf{j} + (u^2 - v^2)\,\mathbf{k}$

15. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = (u^3 - u)\,\mathbf{i} + v^2\,\mathbf{j} + u^2\,\mathbf{k}$

16. $x = (1 - u)(3 + \cos v)\cos 4\pi u$,
$y = (1 - u)(3 + \cos v)\sin 4\pi u$,
$z = 3u + (1 - u)\sin v$

17. $x = \cos^3 u \cos^3 v$, $y = \sin^3 u \cos^3 v$, $z = \sin^3 v$

18. $x = \sin u$, $y = \cos u \sin v$, $z = \sin v$



19–26 Find a parametric representation for the surface.

19. The plane through the origin that contains the vectors $\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$

20. The plane that passes through the point $(0, -1, 5)$ and contains the vectors $\langle 2, 1, 4 \rangle$ and $\langle -3, 2, 5 \rangle$

21. The part of the hyperboloid $4x^2 - 4y^2 - z^2 = 4$ that lies in front of the yz-plane

22. The part of the ellipsoid $x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2 = 1$ that lies to the left of the xz-plane

23. The part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ that lies above the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

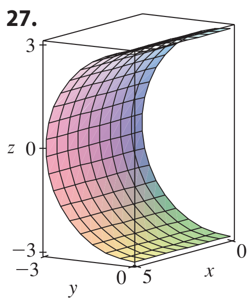
24. The part of the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 9$ that lies above the xy-plane and between the planes $y = -4$ and $y = 4$

25. The part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 36$ that lies between the planes $z = 0$ and $z = 3\sqrt{3}$

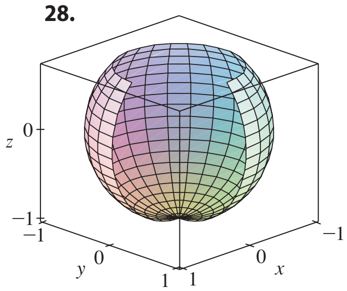
26. The part of the plane $z = x + 3$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

27–28 Use a computer to produce a graph that looks like the given one.

27.



28.



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29. Find parametric equations for the surface obtained by rotating the curve $y = 1/(1 + x^2)$, $-2 \leqslant x \leqslant 2$, about the x-axis and use them to graph the surface.

30. Find parametric equations for the surface obtained by rotating the curve $x = 1/y$, $y \geqslant 1$, about the y-axis and use them to graph the surface.

31. (a) What happens to the spiral tube in Example 2 (see Figure 5) if we replace $\cos u$ by $\sin u$ and $\sin u$ by $\cos u$?
(b) What happens if we replace $\cos u$ by $\cos 2u$ and $\sin u$ by $\sin 2u$?

32. The surface with parametric equations

$$x = 2\cos\theta + r\cos(\theta/2)$$
$$y = 2\sin\theta + r\cos(\theta/2)$$
$$z = r\sin(\theta/2)$$

where $-\frac{1}{2} \leqslant r \leqslant \frac{1}{2}$ and $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$, is called a **Möbius strip**. Graph this surface with several viewpoints. What is unusual about it?

33–36 Find an equation of the tangent plane to the given parametric surface at the specified point.

33. $x = u + v, \quad y = 3u^2, \quad z = u - v; \quad (2, 3, 0)$

34. $x = u^2 + 1, \quad y = v^3 + 1, \quad z = u + v; \quad (5, 2, 3)$

35. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = u\cos v\,\mathbf{i} + u\sin v\,\mathbf{j} + v\,\mathbf{k}; \quad u = 1,\ v = \pi/3$

36. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \sin u\,\mathbf{i} + \cos u\sin v\,\mathbf{j} + \sin v\,\mathbf{k};$
$u = \pi/6,\ v = \pi/6$

37–38 Find an equation of the tangent plane to the given parametric surface at the specified point. Graph the surface and the tangent plane.

37. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = u^2\,\mathbf{i} + 2u\sin v\,\mathbf{j} + u\cos v\,\mathbf{k}; \quad u = 1,\ v = 0$

38. $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = (1 - u^2 - v^2)\,\mathbf{i} - v\,\mathbf{j} - u\,\mathbf{k}; \quad (-1, -1, -1)$

39–50 Find the area of the surface.

39. The part of the plane $3x + 2y + z = 6$ that lies in the first octant

40. The part of the plane with vector equation $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle u + v, 2 - 3u, 1 + u - v \rangle$ that is given by $0 \leqslant u \leqslant 2$, $-1 \leqslant v \leqslant 1$

41. The part of the plane $x + 2y + 3z = 1$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 3$

42. The part of the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ that lies between the plane $y = x$ and the cylinder $y = x^2$

43. The surface $z = \frac{2}{3}(x^{3/2} + y^{3/2})$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$

44. The part of the surface $z = 4 - 2x^2 + y$ that lies above the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(1, 1)$

45. The part of the surface $z = xy$ that lies within the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

46. The part of the surface $x = z^2 + y$ that lies between the planes $y = 0$, $y = 2$, $z = 0$, and $z = 2$

47. The part of the paraboloid $y = x^2 + z^2$ that lies within the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 16$

48. The helicoid (or spiral ramp) with vector equation $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = u\cos v\,\mathbf{i} + u\sin v\,\mathbf{j} + v\,\mathbf{k}$, $0 \leqslant u \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant v \leqslant \pi$

49. The surface with parametric equations $x = u^2$, $y = uv$, $z = \frac{1}{2}v^2$, $0 \leqslant u \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant v \leqslant 2$

50. The part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = b^2$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$, where $0 < a < b$

---

51. If the equation of a surface S is $z = f(x, y)$, where $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant R^2$, and you know that $|f_x| \leqslant 1$ and $|f_y| \leqslant 1$, what can you say about $A(S)$?

52–53 Find the area of the surface correct to four decimal places by first simplifying an expression for area to one in terms of a single integral and then evaluating the integral numerically.

52. The part of the surface $z = \cos(x^2 + y^2)$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

53. The part of the surface $z = \ln(x^2 + y^2 + 2)$ that lies above the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$

---

54. Use a computer algebra system to find, to four decimal places, the area of the part of the surface $z = (1 + x^2)/(1 + y^2)$ that lies above the square $|x| + |y| \leqslant 1$. Illustrate by graphing this part of the surface.

55. (a) Use the Midpoint Rule for double integrals (see Section 15.1) with six squares to estimate the area of the surface $z = 1/(1 + x^2 + y^2)$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 6$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 4$.

(b) Use a computer algebra system to approximate the surface area in part (a) to four decimal places. Compare with the answer to part (a).

56. Use a computer algebra system to find the area of the surface with vector equation

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle \cos^3 u \cos^3 v, \sin^3 u \cos^3 v, \sin^3 v \rangle$$

$0 \leqslant u \leqslant \pi$, $0 \leqslant v \leqslant 2\pi$. State your answer correct to four decimal places.

57. Use a computer algebra system to find the exact area of the surface $z = 1 + 2x + 3y + 4y^2$, $1 \leqslant x \leqslant 4$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$.

58. (a) Set up, but do not evaluate, a double integral for the area of the surface with parametric equations $x = au\cos v$, $y = bu\sin v$, $z = u^2$, $0 \leqslant u \leqslant 2$, $0 \leqslant v \leqslant 2\pi$.

(b) Eliminate the parameters to show that the surface is an elliptic paraboloid and set up another double integral for the surface area.

(c) Use the parametric equations in part (a) with $a = 2$ and $b = 3$ to graph the surface.

(d) For the case $a = 2$, $b = 3$, use a computer algebra system to find the surface area correct to four decimal places.

59. (a) Show that the parametric equations $x = a\sin u\cos v$, $y = b\sin u\sin v$, $z = c\cos u$, $0 \leqslant u \leqslant \pi$, $0 \leqslant v \leqslant 2\pi$, represent an ellipsoid.

(b) Use the parametric equations in part (a) to graph the ellipsoid for the case $a = 1$, $b = 2$, $c = 3$.

(c) Set up, but do not evaluate, a double integral for the surface area of the ellipsoid in part (b).

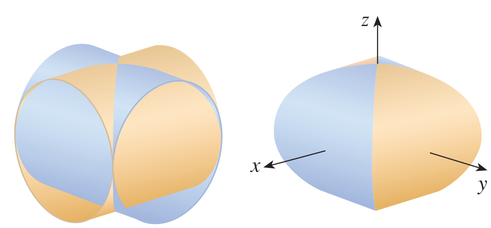
60. (a) Show that the parametric equations $x = a\cosh u\cos v$, $y = b\cosh u\sin v$, $z = c\sinh u$, represent a hyperboloid of one sheet.

(b) Use the parametric equations in part (a) to graph the hyperboloid for the case $a = 1$, $b = 2$, $c = 3$.

(c) Set up, but do not evaluate, a double integral for the surface area of the part of the hyperboloid in part (b) that lies between the planes $z = -3$ and $z = 3$.

61. Find the area of the part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4z$ that lies inside the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$.

62. The figure shows the surface created when the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 1$ intersects the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 1$. Find the area of this surface.

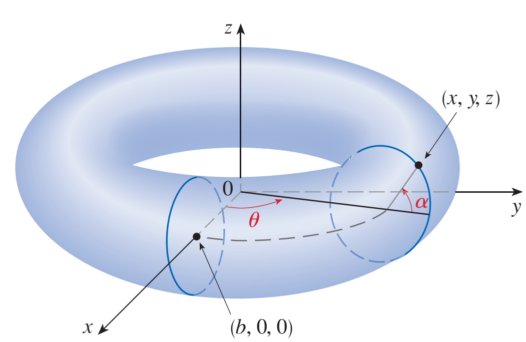


63. Find the area of the part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = ax$.

64. (a) Find a parametric representation for the torus obtained by rotating about the z-axis the circle in the xz-plane with center $(b, 0, 0)$ and radius $a < b$. [*Hint:* Take as parameters the angles θ and α shown in the figure.]

(b) Use the parametric equations found in part (a) to graph the torus for several values of a and b.

(c) Use the parametric representation from part (a) to find the surface area of the torus.



16.7 Surface Integrals

The relationship between surface integrals and surface area is much the same as the relationship between line integrals and arc length. Suppose f is a function of three variables whose domain includes a surface S. We will define the surface integral of f over S in such a way that, in the case where $f(x, y, z) = 1$, the value of the surface integral is equal to the surface area of S. We start with parametric surfaces and then deal with the special case where S is the graph of a function of two variables.

Parametric Surfaces

Suppose that a surface S has a vector equation

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = x(u, v)\,\mathbf{i} + y(u, v)\,\mathbf{j} + z(u, v)\,\mathbf{k} \qquad (u, v) \in D$$

We first assume that the parameter domain D is a rectangle and we divide it into subrectangles R_{ij} with dimensions Δu and Δv. Then the surface S is divided into corresponding patches S_{ij} as in Figure 1.

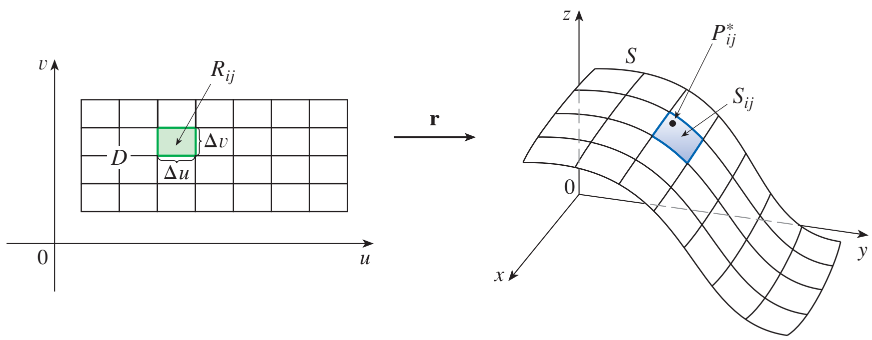


FIGURE 1

We evaluate f at a point P_{ij}^* in each patch, multiply by the area ΔS_{ij} of the patch, and form the Riemann sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(P_{ij}^*)\,\Delta S_{ij}$$

Then we take the limit as the number of patches increases and define the **surface integral of f over the surface S** as

$$\boxed{\iint_S f(x, y, z)\,dS = \lim_{m,n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(P_{ij}^*)\,\Delta S_{ij}} \tag{1}$$

Notice the analogy with the definition of a line integral (16.2.2) and also the analogy with the definition of a double integral (15.1.5).

To evaluate the surface integral in Equation 1 we approximate the patch area ΔS_{ij} by the area of an approximating parallelogram in the tangent plane. In our discussion of surface area in Section 16.6 we made the approximation

$$\Delta S_{ij} \approx |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\,\Delta u\,\Delta v$$

where $$\mathbf{r}_u = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial u}\mathbf{k} \qquad \mathbf{r}_v = \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial v}\mathbf{k}$$

are the tangent vectors at a corner of S_{ij}. If the components are continuous and $\mathbf{r}_u$ and $\mathbf{r}_v$ are nonzero and nonparallel in the interior of D, it can be shown from Definition 1, even when D is not a rectangle, that

We assume that the surface is covered only once as (u, v) ranges throughout D. The value of the surface integral does not depend on the parametrization that is used.

$$\boxed{\iint_S f(x, y, z)\,dS = \iint_D f(\mathbf{r}(u, v))\,|\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\,dA} \tag{2}$$

This should be compared with the formula for a line integral:

$$\int_C f(x, y, z)\, ds = \int_a^b f(\mathbf{r}(t))\,|\mathbf{r}'(t)|\, dt$$

Observe also that

$$\iint_S 1\, dS = \iint_D |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\, dA = A(S)$$

Formula 2 allows us to compute a surface integral by converting it into a double integral over the parameter domain D. When using this formula, remember that $f(\mathbf{r}(u, v))$ is evaluated by writing $x = x(u, v)$, $y = y(u, v)$, and $z = z(u, v)$ in the formula for $f(x, y, z)$.

EXAMPLE 1 Compute the surface integral $\iint_S x^2\, dS$, where S is the unit sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$.

SOLUTION As in Example 16.6.4, we use the parametric representation

$$x = \sin\phi\, \cos\theta \qquad y = \sin\phi\, \sin\theta \qquad z = \cos\phi \qquad 0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi \qquad 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$$

that is, $\qquad \mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta) = \sin\phi\, \cos\theta\, \mathbf{i} + \sin\phi\, \sin\theta\, \mathbf{j} + \cos\phi\, \mathbf{k}$

As in Example 16.6.10, we can compute that

$$|\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta| = \sin\phi$$

Therefore, by Formula 2,

Here we use the identities

$$\cos^2\theta = \tfrac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2\theta)$$

$$\sin^2\phi = 1 - \cos^2\phi$$

Instead, we could use Formulas 64 and 67 in the Table of Integrals.

$$\begin{aligned}
\iint_S x^2\, dS &= \iint_D (\sin\phi\, \cos\theta)^2\, |\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta|\, dA \\
&= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^{\pi} \sin^2\phi\, \cos^2\theta\, \sin\phi\, d\phi\, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2\theta\, d\theta \int_0^{\pi} \sin^3\phi\, d\phi \\
&= \int_0^{2\pi} \tfrac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2\theta)\, d\theta \int_0^{\pi} (\sin\phi - \sin\phi\, \cos^2\phi)\, d\phi \\
&= \tfrac{1}{2}\Big[\theta + \tfrac{1}{2}\sin 2\theta\Big]_0^{2\pi} \Big[-\cos\phi + \tfrac{1}{3}\cos^3\phi\Big]_0^{\pi} = \frac{4\pi}{3}
\end{aligned}$$

■

Surface integrals have applications similar to those for the integrals we have previously considered. For example, if a thin sheet (say, of aluminum foil) has the shape of a surface S and the density (mass per unit area) at the point (x, y, z) is $\rho(x, y, z)$, then the total **mass** of the sheet is

$$m = \iint_S \rho(x, y, z)\, dS$$

and the **center of mass** is $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$, where

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{m}\iint_S x\,\rho(x, y, z)\, dS \qquad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{m}\iint_S y\,\rho(x, y, z)\, dS \qquad \bar{z} = \frac{1}{m}\iint_S z\,\rho(x, y, z)\, dS$$

Moments of inertia can also be defined as before (see Exercise 41).

Graphs of Functions

Any surface S with equation $z = g(x, y)$ can be regarded as a parametric surface with parametric equations

$$x = x \qquad y = y \qquad z = g(x, y)$$

and so we have $\quad \mathbf{r}_x = \mathbf{i} + \left(\dfrac{\partial g}{\partial x}\right)\mathbf{k} \qquad \mathbf{r}_y = \mathbf{j} + \left(\dfrac{\partial g}{\partial y}\right)\mathbf{k}$

Thus

$$\boxed{3} \qquad \mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_y = -\frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} - \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$

and

$$|\mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_y| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)^2 + 1}$$

Therefore, in this case, Formula 2 becomes

$$\boxed{4} \qquad \iint_S f(x, y, z)\, dS = \iint_D f(x, y, g(x, y))\sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)^2 + 1}\; dA$$

Similar formulas apply when it is more convenient to project S onto the yz-plane or xz-plane. For instance, if S is a surface with equation $y = h(x, z)$ and D is its projection onto the xz-plane, then

$$\iint_S f(x, y, z)\, dS = \iint_D f(x, h(x, z), z)\sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)^2 + 1}\; dA$$

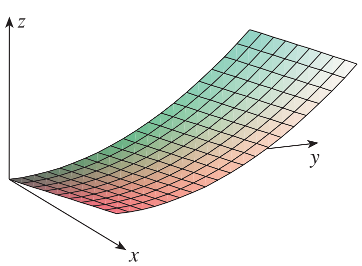


FIGURE 2

EXAMPLE 2 Evaluate $\iint_S y\, dS$, where S is the surface $z = x + y^2$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2$. (See Figure 2.)

SOLUTION Since

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = 1 \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 2y$$

Formula 4 gives

$$\begin{aligned}
\iint_S y\, dS &= \iint_D y\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)^2}\; dA \\
&= \int_0^1 \int_0^2 y\sqrt{1 + 1 + 4y^2}\; dy\, dx \\
&= \int_0^1 dx\, \sqrt{2}\int_0^2 y\sqrt{1 + 2y^2}\; dy \\
&= \sqrt{2}\left(\tfrac{1}{4}\right)\tfrac{2}{3}(1 + 2y^2)^{3/2}\Big]_0^2 = \frac{13\sqrt{2}}{3}
\end{aligned}$$

If S is a piecewise-smooth surface, that is, a finite union of smooth surfaces $S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_n$ that intersect only along their boundaries, then the surface integral of f over S is defined by

$$\iint_S f(x, y, z)\, dS = \iint_{S_1} f(x, y, z)\, dS + \cdots + \iint_{S_n} f(x, y, z)\, dS$$

EXAMPLE 3 Evaluate $\iint_S z\, dS$, where S is the surface whose sides S_1 are given by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, whose bottom S_2 is the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$ in the plane $z = 0$, and whose top S_3 is the part of the plane $z = 1 + x$ that lies above S_2.

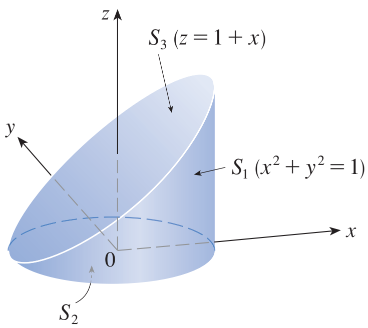


FIGURE 3

SOLUTION The surface S is shown in Figure 3. (We have changed the usual position of the axes to get a better look at S.) For S_1 we use θ and z as parameters (see Example 16.6.5) and write its parametric equations as

$$x = \cos\theta \qquad y = \sin\theta \qquad z = z$$

where

$$0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi \qquad \text{and} \qquad 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 1 + x = 1 + \cos\theta$$

Therefore

$$\mathbf{r}_\theta \times \mathbf{r}_z = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \cos\theta\,\mathbf{i} + \sin\theta\,\mathbf{j}$$

and
$$|\mathbf{r}_\theta \times \mathbf{r}_z| = \sqrt{\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta} = 1$$

Thus the surface integral over S_1 is

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_{S_1} z\,dS &= \iint_D z\,|\mathbf{r}_\theta \times \mathbf{r}_z|\,dA \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^{1+\cos\theta} z\,dz\,d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \tfrac{1}{2}(1+\cos\theta)^2\,d\theta \\ &= \tfrac{1}{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\left[1 + 2\cos\theta + \tfrac{1}{2}(1+\cos 2\theta)\right]d\theta \\ &= \tfrac{1}{2}\left[\tfrac{3}{2}\theta + 2\sin\theta + \tfrac{1}{4}\sin 2\theta\right]_0^{2\pi} = \frac{3\pi}{2}\end{aligned}$$

Since S_2 lies in the plane $z = 0$, we have

$$\iint_{S_2} z\,dS = \iint_{S_2} 0\,dS = 0$$

The top surface S_3 lies above the unit disk D and is part of the plane $z = 1 + x$. So, taking $g(x, y) = 1 + x$ in Formula 4 and converting to polar coordinates, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_{S_3} z\,dS &= \iint_D (1+x)\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)^2}\,dA \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^1 (1 + r\cos\theta)\sqrt{1+1+0}\;r\,dr\,d\theta \\ &= \sqrt{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^1 (r + r^2\cos\theta)\,dr\,d\theta = \sqrt{2}\int_0^{2\pi}\left(\tfrac{1}{2} + \tfrac{1}{3}\cos\theta\right)d\theta \\ &= \sqrt{2}\left[\frac{\theta}{2} + \frac{\sin\theta}{3}\right]_0^{2\pi} = \sqrt{2}\,\pi\end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S z\,dS &= \iint_{S_1} z\,dS + \iint_{S_2} z\,dS + \iint_{S_3} z\,dS \\ &= \frac{3\pi}{2} + 0 + \sqrt{2}\,\pi = \left(\tfrac{3}{2} + \sqrt{2}\right)\pi\end{aligned}$$ ■

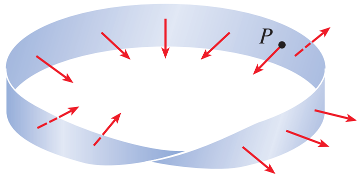


FIGURE 4
A Möbius strip

Oriented Surfaces

To define surface integrals of vector fields, we need to rule out nonorientable surfaces such as the Möbius strip shown in Figure 4. [It is named after the German geometer August Möbius (1790–1868).] You can construct one for yourself by taking a long rectangular strip of paper, giving it a half-twist, and taping the short edges together as in Figure 5. If an ant were to crawl along the Möbius strip starting at a point P, it would end up on the "other side" of the strip (that is, with its upper side pointing in the opposite direction). Then, if the ant continued to crawl in the same direction, it would end up back at the same point P without ever having crossed an edge. (If you have constructed a Möbius strip, try drawing a pencil line down the middle.) Therefore a Möbius strip really has only one side. You can graph the Möbius strip using the parametric equations in Exercise 16.6.32.

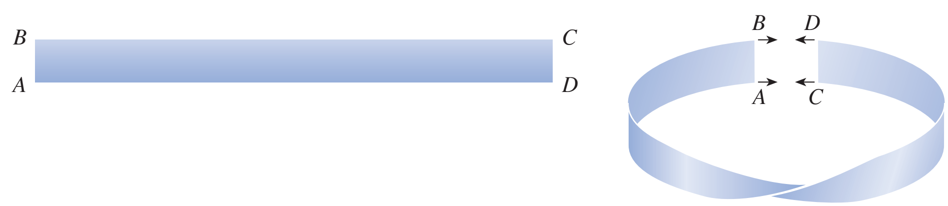


FIGURE 5
Constructing a Möbius strip

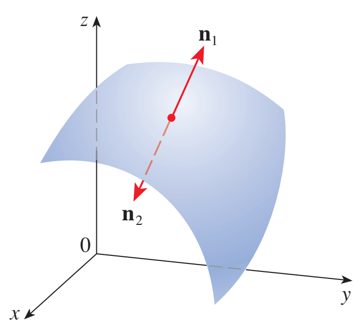


FIGURE 6

From now on we consider only orientable (two-sided) surfaces. We start with a surface S that has a tangent plane at every point (x, y, z) on S (except at any boundary point). There are two unit normal vectors $\mathbf{n}_1$ and $\mathbf{n}_2 = -\mathbf{n}_1$ at (x, y, z). (See Figure 6.)

If it is possible to choose a unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}$ at every such point (x, y, z) so that $\mathbf{n}$ varies continuously over S, then S is called an **oriented surface** and the given choice of $\mathbf{n}$ provides S with an **orientation**. For any orientable surface, there are two possible orientations (see Figure 7).

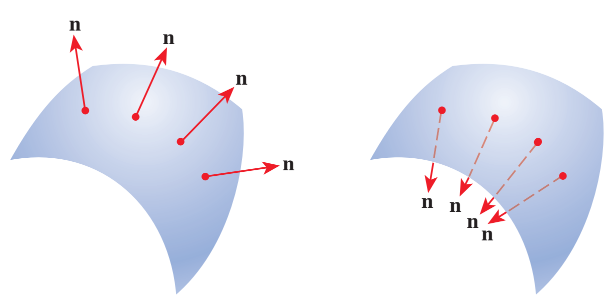


FIGURE 7
The two orientations of an orientable surface

For a surface $z = g(x, y)$ given as the graph of g, we use Equation 3 to associate with the surface a natural orientation given by the unit normal vector

$$\boxed{5} \qquad \mathbf{n} = \frac{-\dfrac{\partial g}{\partial x}\,\mathbf{i} - \dfrac{\partial g}{\partial y}\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\dfrac{\partial g}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\dfrac{\partial g}{\partial y}\right)^2}}$$

Since the $\mathbf{k}$-component is positive, this gives the *upward* orientation of the surface.

If S is a smooth orientable surface given in parametric form by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$, then it is automatically supplied with the orientation of the unit normal vector

$$\boxed{6} \qquad \mathbf{n} = \frac{\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v}{|\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|}$$

and the opposite orientation is given by $-\mathbf{n}$. For instance, in Example 16.6.4 we found the parametric representation

$$\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta) = a \sin\phi \cos\theta \,\mathbf{i} + a \sin\phi \sin\theta \,\mathbf{j} + a \cos\phi \,\mathbf{k}$$

for the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$. Then in Example 16.6.10 we found that

$$\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta = a^2 \sin^2\phi \cos\theta \,\mathbf{i} + a^2 \sin^2\phi \sin\theta \,\mathbf{j} + a^2 \sin\phi \cos\phi \,\mathbf{k}$$

and $$|\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta| = a^2 \sin\phi$$

So the orientation induced by $\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta)$ is defined by the unit normal vector

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta}{|\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta|} = \sin\phi \cos\theta \,\mathbf{i} + \sin\phi \sin\theta \,\mathbf{j} + \cos\phi \,\mathbf{k} = \frac{1}{a}\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta)$$

Observe that $\mathbf{n}$ points in the same direction as the position vector, that is, outward from the sphere (see Figure 8). The opposite (inward) orientation would have been obtained (see Figure 9) if we had reversed the order of the parameters because $\mathbf{r}_\theta \times \mathbf{r}_\phi = -\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta$.

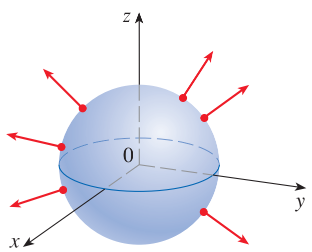


FIGURE 8
Positive orientation

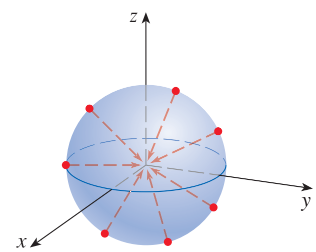


FIGURE 9
Negative orientation

For a **closed surface**, that is, a surface that is the boundary of a solid region E, the convention is that the **positive orientation** is the one for which the normal vectors point *outward* from E, and inward-pointing normals give the negative orientation (see Figures 8 and 9).

Surface Integrals of Vector Fields; Flux

Suppose that S is an oriented surface with unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}$, and imagine a fluid with density $\rho(x, y, z)$ and velocity field $\mathbf{v}(x, y, z)$ flowing through S. (Think of S as an imaginary surface that doesn't impede the fluid flow, like a fishing net across a stream.) Then the rate of flow (mass per unit time) per unit area is given by the vector field $\rho\mathbf{v}$. (See Figure 10.)

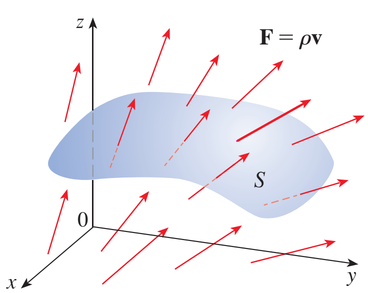


FIGURE 10

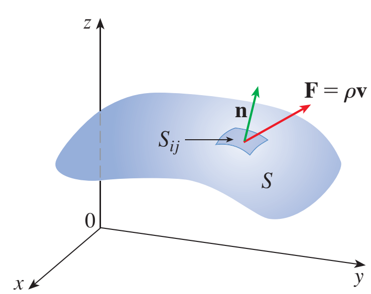


FIGURE 11

If we divide S into small patches S_{ij}, as in Figure 11 (compare with Figure 1), then S_{ij} is nearly planar and so we can approximate the mass of fluid per unit time crossing S_{ij} in the direction of the normal $\mathbf{n}$ by the quantity

$$(\rho\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n})A(S_{ij})$$

where ρ, $\mathbf{v}$, and $\mathbf{n}$ are evaluated at some point on S_{ij}. (Recall that the component of the vector $\rho\mathbf{v}$ in the direction of the unit vector $\mathbf{n}$ is $\rho\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}$.) By summing these quantities and taking the limit we get, according to Definition 1, the surface integral of the function $\rho\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ over S:

7 $$\iint_S \rho\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS = \iint_S \rho(x, y, z)\mathbf{v}(x, y, z) \cdot \mathbf{n}(x, y, z)\, dS$$

and this is interpreted physically as the rate of flow through S.

If we write $\mathbf{F} = \rho\mathbf{v}$, then $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ and the integral given in Equation 7 becomes

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS$$

A surface integral of this form occurs frequently in physics, even when $\mathbf{F}$ is not $\rho\mathbf{v}$, and is called the *surface integral* (or *flux integral*) of $\mathbf{F}$ over S.

8 Definitio If $\mathbf{F}$ is a continuous vector field defined on an oriented surface S with unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}$, then the **surface integral of $\mathbf{F}$ over S** is

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS$$

This integral is also called the **flux** of $\mathbf{F}$ across S.

In words, Definition 8 says that the surface integral of a vector field over S is equal to the surface integral of its normal component over S (as previously defined).

If S is given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$, then $\mathbf{n}$ is given by Equation 6, and from Definition 8 and Equation 2 we have

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v}{|\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|}\, dS$$

$$= \iint_D \left[\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(u, v)) \cdot \frac{\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v}{|\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|}\right] |\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v|\, dA$$

Compare Equation 9 to the similar expression for evaluating line integrals of vector fields in Definition 16.2.13:

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_a^b \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t)\, dt$$

where D is the parameter domain. Thus we have

9 $$\boxed{\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_D \mathbf{F} \cdot (\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v)\, dA}$$

Formula 9 assumes the orientation of S induced by $\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v$, as in Equation 6. For the opposite orientation, we multiply by -1.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the flux of the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + x\,\mathbf{k}$ across the unit sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$.

Figure 12 shows the vector field $\mathbf{F}$ in Example 4 at points on the unit sphere.

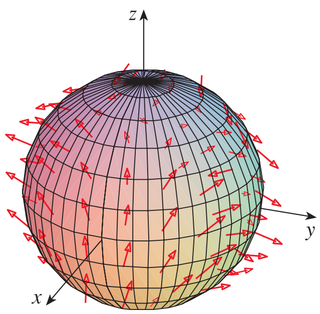


FIGURE 12

SOLUTION As in Example 1, we use the parametric representation

$$\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta) = \sin\phi\,\cos\theta\,\mathbf{i} + \sin\phi\,\sin\theta\,\mathbf{j} + \cos\phi\,\mathbf{k} \qquad 0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi \qquad 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$$

Then $$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta)) = \cos\phi\,\mathbf{i} + \sin\phi\,\sin\theta\,\mathbf{j} + \sin\phi\,\cos\theta\,\mathbf{k}$$

and, from Example 16.6.10,

$$\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta = \sin^2\phi\,\cos\theta\,\mathbf{i} + \sin^2\phi\,\sin\theta\,\mathbf{j} + \sin\phi\,\cos\phi\,\mathbf{k}$$

(You can check that these vectors correspond to the outward orientation of the sphere.) Therefore

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(\phi, \theta)) \cdot (\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta) = \cos\phi\,\sin^2\phi\,\cos\theta + \sin^3\phi\,\sin^2\theta + \sin^2\phi\,\cos\phi\,\cos\theta$$

and, by Formula 9, the flux is

$$\begin{aligned}
\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \iint_D \mathbf{F} \cdot (\mathbf{r}_\phi \times \mathbf{r}_\theta)\, dA \\
&= \int_0^{2\pi}\!\int_0^{\pi} (2\sin^2\phi\,\cos\phi\,\cos\theta + \sin^3\phi\,\sin^2\theta)\, d\phi\, d\theta \\
&= 2\int_0^{\pi} \sin^2\phi\,\cos\phi\, d\phi \int_0^{2\pi} \cos\theta\, d\theta + \int_0^{\pi} \sin^3\phi\, d\phi \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2\theta\, d\theta \\
&= 0 + \int_0^{\pi} \sin^3\phi\, d\phi \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2\theta\, d\theta \qquad \left(\text{since } \int_0^{2\pi} \cos\theta\, d\theta = 0\right) \\
&= \frac{4\pi}{3}
\end{aligned}$$

by the same calculation as in Example 1. ■

If, for instance, the vector field in Example 4 is a velocity field describing the flow of a fluid with density 1, then the answer, $4\pi/3$, represents the rate of flow through the unit sphere in units of mass per unit time.

In the case of a surface S given by a graph $z = g(x, y)$, we can think of x and y as parameters and use Equation 3 to write

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot (\mathbf{r}_x \times \mathbf{r}_y) = (P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}) \cdot \left(-\frac{\partial g}{\partial x}\,\mathbf{i} - \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}\right)$$

Thus Formula 9 becomes

10 $$\boxed{\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_D \left(-P\frac{\partial g}{\partial x} - Q\frac{\partial g}{\partial y} + R\right) dA}$$

This formula assumes the upward orientation of S; for a downward orientation we multiply by -1. Similar formulas can be worked out if S is given by $y = h(x, z)$ or $x = k(y, z)$. (See Exercises 37 and 38.)

EXAMPLE 5 Evaluate $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$ and S is the boundary of the solid region E enclosed by the paraboloid $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$ and the plane $z = 0$.

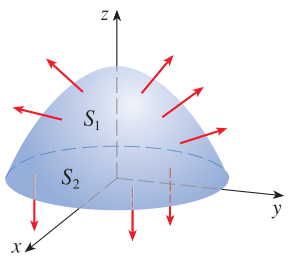


FIGURE 13

SOLUTION S consists of a parabolic top surface S_1 and a circular bottom surface S_2. (See Figure 13.) Since S is a closed surface, we use the convention of positive (outward) orientation. This means that S_1 is oriented upward and we can use Equation 10 with D being the projection of S_1 onto the xy-plane, namely, the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$. Since

$$P(x, y, z) = y \qquad Q(x, y, z) = x \qquad R(x, y, z) = z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$$

on S_1 and

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial x} = -2x \qquad \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} = -2y$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \iint_D \left(-P\frac{\partial g}{\partial x} - Q\frac{\partial g}{\partial y} + R\right) dA \\
&= \iint_D [-y(-2x) - x(-2y) + 1 - x^2 - y^2]\, dA \\
&= \iint_D (1 + 4xy - x^2 - y^2)\, dA \\
&= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^1 (1 + 4r^2\cos\theta\,\sin\theta - r^2)\, r\,dr\,d\theta \\
&= \int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^1 (r - r^3 + 4r^3\cos\theta\,\sin\theta)\, dr\,d\theta \\
&= \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\tfrac{1}{4} + \cos\theta\,\sin\theta\right) d\theta = \tfrac{1}{4}(2\pi) + 0 = \frac{\pi}{2}
\end{aligned}$$

The disk S_2 is oriented downward, so its unit normal vector is $\mathbf{n} = -\mathbf{k}$ and we have

$$\iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot (-\mathbf{k})\, dS = \iint_D (-z)\, dA = \iint_D 0\, dA = 0$$

since $z = 0$ on S_2. Finally, we compute, by definition, $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$ as the sum of the surface integrals of $\mathbf{F}$ over the pieces S_1 and S_2:

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} + \iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \frac{\pi}{2} + 0 = \frac{\pi}{2}$$ ■

Although we motivated the surface integral of a vector field using the example of fluid flow, this concept also arises in other physical situations. For instance, if $\mathbf{E}$ is an electric field (see Example 16.1.5), then the surface integral

$$\iint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

is called the **electric flux** of $\mathbf{E}$ through the surface S. One of the important laws of electrostatics is **Gauss's Law**, which says that the net charge enclosed by a closed surface S is

11 $$Q = \varepsilon_0 \iint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

where ε_0 is a constant (called the permittivity of free space) that depends on the units used. (In the SI system, $\varepsilon_0 \approx 8.8542 \times 10^{-12}\ \mathrm{C^2/N \cdot m^2}$.) Therefore, if the vector field **F** in Example 4 represents an electric field, we can conclude that the charge enclosed by S is $Q = \frac{4}{3}\pi\varepsilon_0$.

Another application of surface integrals occurs in the study of heat flow. Suppose the temperature at a point (x, y, z) in a body is $u(x, y, z)$. Then the **heat flow** is defined as the vector field

$$\mathbf{F} = -K\,\nabla u$$

where K is an experimentally determined constant called the **conductivity** of the substance. The rate of heat flow across the surface S in the body is then given by the surface integral

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = -K \iint_S \nabla u \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

EXAMPLE 6 The temperature u in a metal ball is proportional to the square of the distance from the center of the ball. Find the rate of heat flow across a sphere S of radius a with center at the center of the ball.

SOLUTION Taking the center of the ball to be at the origin, we have

$$u(x, y, z) = C(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$$

where C is the proportionality constant. Then the heat flow is

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -K\,\nabla u = -KC(2x\,\mathbf{i} + 2y\,\mathbf{j} + 2z\,\mathbf{k})$$

where K is the conductivity of the metal. Instead of using the usual parametrization of the sphere as in Example 4, we observe that the outward unit normal to the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ at the point (x, y, z) is

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{1}{a}(x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k})$$

and so

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = -\frac{2KC}{a}(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$$

But on S we have $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$, so $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = -2aKC$. Therefore the rate of heat flow across S is

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} &= \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\,dS = -2aKC \iint_S dS \\ &= -2aKCA(S) = -2aKC(4\pi a^2) = -8KC\pi a^3\end{aligned}$$

■

16.7 Exercises

1. Let S be the surface of the box enclosed by the planes $x = \pm1$, $y = \pm1$, $z = \pm1$. Approximate $\iint_S \cos(x + 2y + 3z)\,dS$ by using a Riemann sum as in Definition 1, taking the patches S_{ij} to be the squares that are the faces of the box S and the points P_{ij}^* to be the centers of the squares.

2. A surface S consists of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, $-1 \leqslant z \leqslant 1$, together with its top and bottom disks. Suppose you know that f is a continuous function with

$$f(\pm1, 0, 0) = 2 \qquad f(0, \pm1, 0) = 3 \qquad f(0, 0, \pm1) = 4$$

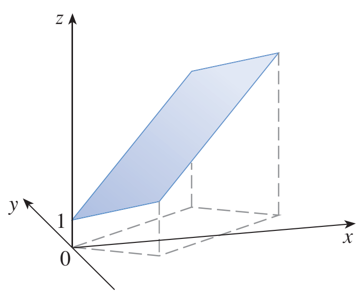
Estimate the value of $\iint_S f(x, y, z)\, dS$ by using a Riemann sum, taking the patches S_{ij} to be four quarter-cylinders and the top and bottom disks.

3. Let H be the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 50$, $z \geqslant 0$, and suppose f is a continuous function with $f(3, 4, 5) = 7$, $f(3, -4, 5) = 8$, $f(-3, 4, 5) = 9$, and $f(-3, -4, 5) = 12$. By dividing H into four patches, estimate the value of $\iint_H f(x, y, z)\, dS$.

4. Suppose that $f(x, y, z) = g\left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}\right)$, where g is a function of one variable such that $g(2) = -5$. Evaluate $\iint_S f(x, y, z)\, dS$, where S is the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$.

5–20 Evaluate the surface integral.

5. $\iint_S (x + y + z)\, dS$,
S is the parallelogram with parametric equations $x = u + v$, $y = u - v$, $z = 1 + 2u + v$, $0 \leqslant u \leqslant 2$, $0 \leqslant v \leqslant 1$



6. $\iint_S xyz\, dS$,
S is the cone with parametric equations $x = u \cos v$, $y = u \sin v$, $z = u$, $0 \leqslant u \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant v \leqslant \pi/2$

7. $\iint_S y\, dS$, S is the helicoid with vector equation $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle u \cos v, u \sin v, v \rangle$, $0 \leqslant u \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant v \leqslant \pi$

8. $\iint_S (x^2 + y^2)\, dS$,
S is the surface with vector equation $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = \langle 2uv, u^2 - v^2, u^2 + v^2 \rangle$, $u^2 + v^2 \leqslant 1$

9. $\iint_S x^2yz\, dS$, S is the part of the plane $z = 1 + 2x + 3y$ that lies above the rectangle $[0, 3] \times [0, 2]$

10. $\iint_S xz\, dS$, S is the part of the plane $2x + 2y + z = 4$ that lies in the first octant

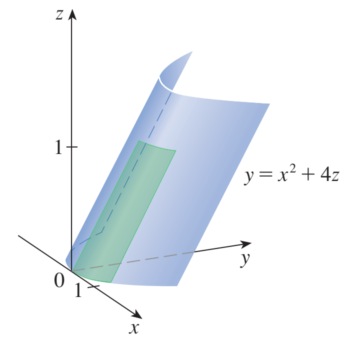
11. $\iint_S x\, dS$,
S is the triangular region with vertices $(1, 0, 0)$, $(0, -2, 0)$, and $(0, 0, 4)$

12. $\iint_S y\, dS$,
S is the surface $z = \frac{2}{3}(x^{3/2} + y^{3/2})$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$

13. $\iint_S z^2\, dS$,
S is the part of the paraboloid $x = y^2 + z^2$ given by $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$

14. $\iint_S y^2z^2\, dS$,
S is the part of the cone $y = \sqrt{x^2 + z^2}$ given by $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 5$

15. $\iint_S x\, dS$,
S is the surface $y = x^2 + 4z$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant z \leqslant 1$

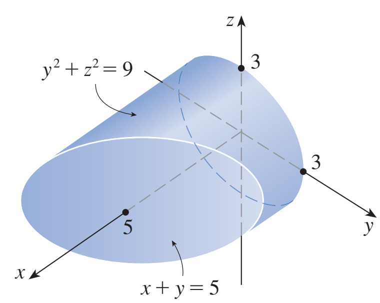


16. $\iint_S y^2\, dS$,
S is the part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ that lies above the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

17. $\iint_S (x^2z + y^2z)\, dS$,
S is the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$, $z \geqslant 0$

18. $\iint_S (x + y + z)\, dS$,
S is the part of the half-cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 1$, $z \geqslant 0$, that lies between the planes $y = 0$ and $y = 2$

19. $\iint_S xz\, dS$,
S is the boundary of the region enclosed by the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 9$ and the planes $x = 0$ and $x + y = 5$



20. $\iint_S (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\, dS$,
S is the part of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 9$ between the planes $z = 0$ and $z = 2$, together with its top and bottom disks

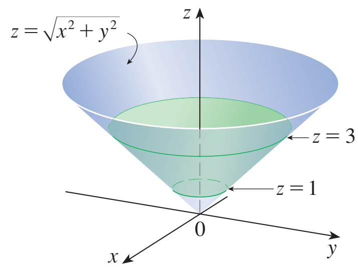
21–32 Evaluate the surface integral $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$ for the given vector field $\mathbf{F}$ and the oriented surface S. In other words, find the flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across S. For closed surfaces, use the positive (outward) orientation.

21. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = ze^{xy}\, \mathbf{i} - 3ze^{xy}\, \mathbf{j} + xy\, \mathbf{k}$,
S is the parallelogram of Exercise 5 with upward orientation

22. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z\, \mathbf{i} + y\, \mathbf{j} + x\, \mathbf{k}$,
S is the helicoid of Exercise 7 with upward orientation

23. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xy\, \mathbf{i} + yz\, \mathbf{j} + zx\, \mathbf{k}$, S is the part of the paraboloid $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$ that lies above the square $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$, and has upward orientation

24. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -x\,\mathbf{i} - y\,\mathbf{j} + z^3\,\mathbf{k}$, S is the part of the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ between the planes $z = 1$ and $z = 3$ with downward orientation



25. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z^2\,\mathbf{k}$, S is the sphere with radius 1 and center the origin

26. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y\,\mathbf{i} - x\,\mathbf{j} + 2z\,\mathbf{k}$, S is the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$, $z \geqslant 0$, oriented downward

27. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y\,\mathbf{j} - z\,\mathbf{k}$, S consists of the paraboloid $y = x^2 + z^2$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$, and the disk $x^2 + z^2 \leqslant 1$, $y = 1$

28. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = yz\,\mathbf{i} + zx\,\mathbf{j} + xy\,\mathbf{k}$, S is the surface $z = x \sin y$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant \pi$, with upward orientation

29. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\,\mathbf{i} + 2y\,\mathbf{j} + 3z\,\mathbf{k}$, S is the cube with vertices $(\pm 1, \pm 1, \pm 1)$

30. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + 5\,\mathbf{k}$, S is the boundary of the region enclosed by the cylinder $x^2 + z^2 = 1$ and the planes $y = 0$ and $x + y = 2$

31. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2\,\mathbf{i} + y^2\,\mathbf{j} + z^2\,\mathbf{k}$, S is the boundary of the solid half-cylinder $0 \leqslant z \leqslant \sqrt{1 - y^2}$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2$

32. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y\,\mathbf{i} + (z - y)\,\mathbf{j} + x\,\mathbf{k}$, S is the surface of the tetrahedron with vertices $(0, 0, 0)$, $(1, 0, 0)$, $(0, 1, 0)$, and $(0, 0, 1)$

T **33.** Use a computer algebra system to evaluate $\iint_S (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\, dS$ correct to four decimal places, where S is the surface $z = xe^y$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$.

T **34.** Use a computer algebra system to find the exact value of $\iint_S xyz\, dS$, where S is the surface $z = x^2y^2$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$, $0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2$.

T **35.** Use a computer algebra system to find the value of $\iint_S x^2y^2z^2\, dS$ correct to four decimal places, where S is the part of the paraboloid $z = 3 - 2x^2 - y^2$ that lies above the xy-plane.

T **36.** Use a computer algebra system to find the flux of

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \sin(xyz)\,\mathbf{i} + x^2y\,\mathbf{j} + z^2e^{x/5}\,\mathbf{k}$$

across the part of the cylinder $4y^2 + z^2 = 4$ that lies above the xy-plane and between the planes $x = -2$ and $x = 2$ with upward orientation. Illustrate by graphing the cylinder and the vector field on the same screen.

37. Find a formula for $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$ similar to Formula 10 for the case where S is given by $y = h(x, z)$ and $\mathbf{n}$ is the unit normal that points toward the left (when the axes are drawn in the usual way).

38. Find a formula for $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$ similar to Formula 10 for the case where S is given by $x = k(y, z)$ and $\mathbf{n}$ is the unit normal that points forward (that is, toward the viewer when the axes are drawn in the usual way).

39. Find the center of mass of the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$, $z \geqslant 0$, if it has constant density.

40. Find the mass of a thin funnel in the shape of a cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, $1 \leqslant z \leqslant 4$, if its density function is $\rho(x, y, z) = 10 - z$.

41. (a) Give an integral expression for the moment of inertia I_z about the z-axis of a thin sheet in the shape of a surface S if the density function is ρ.
(b) Find the moment of inertia about the z-axis of the funnel in Exercise 40.

42. Let S be the part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 25$ that lies above the plane $z = 4$. If S has constant density k, find (a) the center of mass and (b) the moment of inertia about the z-axis.

43. A fluid has density 870 kg/m^3 and flows with velocity $\mathbf{v} = z\,\mathbf{i} + y^2\,\mathbf{j} + x^2\,\mathbf{k}$, where x, y, and z are measured in meters and the components of $\mathbf{v}$ in meters per second. Find the rate of flow outward through the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$, $0 \leqslant z \leqslant 1$.

44. Seawater has density 1025 kg/m^3 and flows in a velocity field $\mathbf{v} = y\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j}$, where x, y, and z are measured in meters and the components of $\mathbf{v}$ in meters per second. Find the rate of flow outward through the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$, $z \geqslant 0$.

45. Use Gauss's Law to find the charge contained in the solid hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant a^2$, $z \geqslant 0$, if the electric field is

$$\mathbf{E}(x, y, z) = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + 2z\,\mathbf{k}$$

46. Use Gauss's Law to find the charge enclosed by the cube with vertices $(\pm 1, \pm 1, \pm 1)$ if the electric field is

$$\mathbf{E}(x, y, z) = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$$

47. The temperature at the point (x, y, z) in a substance with conductivity $K = 6.5$ is $u(x, y, z) = 2y^2 + 2z^2$. Find the rate of heat flow inward across the cylindrical surface $y^2 + z^2 = 6$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 4$.

48. The temperature at a point in a ball with conductivity K is inversely proportional to the distance from the center of the ball. Find the rate of heat flow across a sphere S of radius a with center at the center of the ball.

49. Let $\mathbf{F}$ be an inverse square field, that is, $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) = c\mathbf{r}/|\mathbf{r}|^3$ for some constant c, where $\mathbf{r} = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$. Show that the flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across a sphere S with center the origin is independent of the radius of S.

16.8 Stokes' Theorem

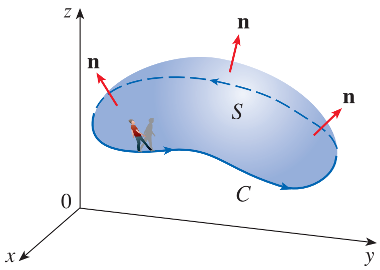


FIGURE 1

Stokes' Theorem can be regarded as a higher-dimensional version of Green's Theorem. Whereas Green's Theorem relates a double integral over a plane region D to a line integral around its plane boundary curve, Stokes' Theorem relates a surface integral over a surface S to a line integral around the boundary curve of S (which is a space curve). Figure 1 shows an oriented surface with unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}$. The orientation of S induces the **positive orientation of the boundary curve C** shown in the figure. This means that if you walk in the positive direction around C with your head pointing in the direction of $\mathbf{n}$, then the surface will always be on your left.

Stokes' Theorem Let S be an oriented piecewise-smooth surface that is bounded by a simple, closed, piecewise-smooth boundary curve C with positive orientation. Let $\mathbf{F}$ be a vector field whose components have continuous partial derivatives on an open region in $\mathbb{R}^3$ that contains S. Then

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

Since

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}\, ds \qquad \text{and} \qquad \iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS$$

Stokes' Theorem says that the line integral around the boundary curve of S of the tangential component of $\mathbf{F}$ is equal to the surface integral over S of the normal component of the curl of $\mathbf{F}$.

The positively oriented boundary curve of the oriented surface S is often written as ∂S, so Stokes' Theorem can be expressed as

1 $$\iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \int_{\partial S} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

There is an analogy among Stokes' Theorem, Green's Theorem, and the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. As before, there is an integral involving derivatives on the left side of Equation 1 (recall that curl $\mathbf{F}$ is a sort of derivative of $\mathbf{F}$) and the right side involves the values of $\mathbf{F}$ only on the *boundary* of S.

In fact, in the special case where the surface S is flat and lies in the xy-plane with upward orientation, the unit normal is $\mathbf{k}$, the surface integral becomes a double integral, and Stokes' Theorem becomes

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S (\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k}\, dA$$

This is precisely the vector form of Green's Theorem given in Equation 16.5.12. Thus we see that Green's Theorem is really a special case of Stokes' Theorem.

Although Stokes' Theorem is too difficult for us to prove in its full generality, we can give a proof when S is a graph and $\mathbf{F}$, S, and C are well behaved.

George Stokes

Stokes' Theorem is named after the Irish mathematical physicist Sir George Stokes (1819–1903). Stokes was a professor at Cambridge University (in fact he held the same position as Newton, Lucasian Professor of Mathematics) and was especially noted for his studies of fluid flow and light. What we call Stokes' Theorem was actually discovered by the Scottish physicist Sir William Thomson (1824–1907, known as Lord Kelvin). Stokes learned of this theorem in a letter from Thomson in 1850 and asked students to prove it on an examination at Cambridge University in 1854. We don't know if any of those students was able to do so.

PROOF OF A SPECIAL CASE OF STOKES' THEOREM We assume that the equation of S is $z = g(x, y)$, $(x, y) \in D$, where g has continuous second-order partial derivatives and D is a simple plane region whose boundary curve C_1 corresponds to C. If the orientation

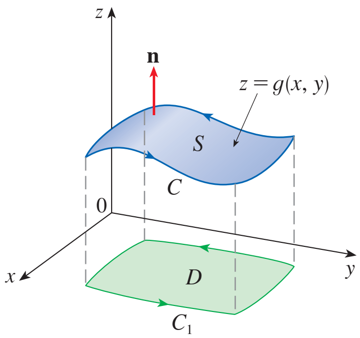


FIGURE 2

of S is upward, then the positive orientation of C corresponds to the positive orientation of C_1. (See Figure 2.) We are also given that $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}$, where the partial derivatives of P, Q, and R are continuous.

Since S is a graph of a function, we can apply Formula 16.7.10 with $\mathbf{F}$ replaced by curl $\mathbf{F}$. The result is

2 $$\iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$
$$= \iint_D \left[-\left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \right) \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} - \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} \right) \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} + \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) \right] dA$$

where the partial derivatives of P, Q, and R are evaluated at $(x, y, g(x, y))$. If

$$x = x(t) \qquad y = y(t) \qquad a \leqslant t \leqslant b$$

is a parametric representation of C_1, then a parametric representation of C is

$$x = x(t) \qquad y = y(t) \qquad z = g(x(t), y(t)) \qquad a \leqslant t \leqslant b$$

This allows us, with the aid of the Chain Rule, to evaluate the line integral as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} &= \int_a^b \left(P\frac{dx}{dt} + Q\frac{dy}{dt} + R\frac{dz}{dt} \right) dt \\
&= \int_a^b \left[P\frac{dx}{dt} + Q\frac{dy}{dt} + R\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt} \right) \right] dt \\
&= \int_a^b \left[\left(P + R\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right)\frac{dx}{dt} + \left(Q + R\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \right)\frac{dy}{dt} \right] dt \\
&= \int_{C_1} \left(P + R\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right) dx + \left(Q + R\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \right) dy \\
&= \iint_D \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(Q + R\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(P + R\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right) \right] dA
\end{aligned}$$

where we have used Green's Theorem in the last step. Then, using the Chain Rule again and remembering that P, Q, and R are functions of x, y, and z and that z is itself a function of x and y, we get

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_D \Bigg[&\left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z}\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial x}\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} + R\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x\,\partial y} \right) \\
&- \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial y}\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + R\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y\,\partial x} \right) \Bigg] dA
\end{aligned}$$

Four of the terms in this double integral cancel and the remaining six terms can be arranged to coincide with the right side of Equation 2. Therefore

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} \qquad \blacksquare$$

EXAMPLE 1 Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -y^2\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j} + z^2\,\mathbf{k}$ and C is the curve of intersection of the plane $y + z = 2$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. (Orient C to be counterclockwise when viewed from above.)

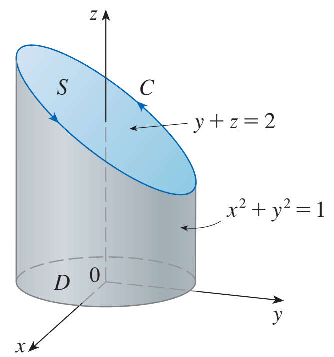


FIGURE 3

SOLUTION The curve C (an ellipse) is shown in Figure 3. Although $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ could be evaluated directly, it's easier to use Stokes' Theorem. We first compute

$$\text{curl}\,\mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \dfrac{\partial}{\partial x} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial y} & \dfrac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ -y^2 & x & z^2 \end{vmatrix} = (1 + 2y)\,\mathbf{k}$$

Stokes' Theorem allows us to choose any (oriented, piecewise-smooth) surface with boundary curve C. Among the many possible such surfaces, the most convenient choice is the elliptical region S in the plane $y + z = 2$ that is bounded by C. If we orient S upward, then C has the induced positive orientation. The projection D of S onto the xy-plane is the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$ and so using Equation 16.7.10 with $z = g(x, y) = 2 - y$, we have

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \text{curl}\,\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_D (1 + 2y)\,dA$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 (1 + 2r \sin\theta)\, r\,dr\,d\theta$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \left[\frac{r^2}{2} + 2\frac{r^3}{3}\sin\theta \right]_0^1 d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\tfrac{1}{2} + \tfrac{2}{3}\sin\theta\right) d\theta$$

$$= \tfrac{1}{2}(2\pi) + 0 = \pi$$ ■

NOTE Stokes' Theorem allows us to compute a surface integral simply by knowing the values of $\mathbf{F}$ on the boundary curve C. This means that if we have another oriented surface with the same boundary curve C, then we get exactly the same value for the surface integral. In general, if S_1 and S_2 are oriented surfaces with the same oriented boundary curve C and both satisfy the hypotheses of Stokes' Theorem, then

3 $$\iint_{S_1} \text{curl}\,\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_{S_2} \text{curl}\,\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

This fact is useful when it is difficult to integrate over one surface but easy to integrate over the other.

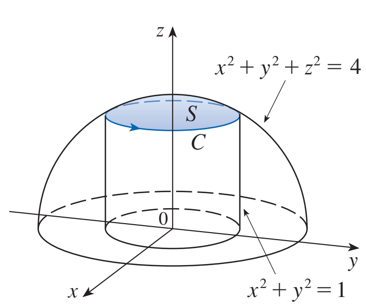


FIGURE 4

EXAMPLE 2 Use Stokes' Theorem to compute the integral $\iint_S \text{curl}\,\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xz\,\mathbf{i} + yz\,\mathbf{j} + xy\,\mathbf{k}$ and S is the part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and above the xy-plane. (See Figure 4.)

SOLUTION 1 To find the boundary curve C we solve the equations $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Subtracting, we get $z^2 = 3$ and so $z = \sqrt{3}$ (since $z > 0$). Thus C is the circle given by the equations $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, $z = \sqrt{3}$. A vector equation of C is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{3}\,\mathbf{k} \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

so $$\mathbf{r}'(t) = -\sin t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos t\,\mathbf{j}$$

Also, we have

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) = \sqrt{3}\cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sqrt{3}\sin t\,\mathbf{j} + \cos t\sin t\,\mathbf{k}$$

Therefore, by Stokes' Theorem,

$$\iint_S \operatorname{curl}\mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{S} = \int_C \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_0^{2\pi} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t))\cdot\mathbf{r}'(t)\,dt$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} \left(-\sqrt{3}\cos t\sin t + \sqrt{3}\sin t\cos t\right)dt = \sqrt{3}\int_0^{2\pi} 0\,dt = 0$$

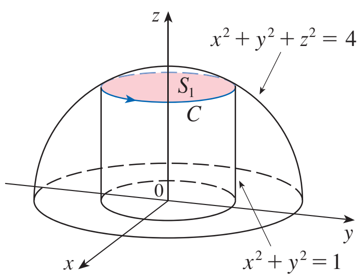


FIGURE 5

SOLUTION 2 Let S_1 be the disk in the plane $z = \sqrt{3}$ inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, as shown in Figure 5. Since S_1 and S have the same boundary curve C, it follows by Stokes' Theorem that

$$\iint_S \operatorname{curl}\mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{S_1} \operatorname{curl}\mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

Because S_1 is part of a horizontal plane, its upward normal is $\mathbf{k}$. We calculate that curl $\mathbf{F} = (x - y)\,\mathbf{i} + (x - y)\,\mathbf{j}$, so

$$\iint_S \operatorname{curl}\mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{S_1} \operatorname{curl}\mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{S_1} \operatorname{curl}\mathbf{F}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,dS$$

$$= \iint_{S_1} [(x - y)\,\mathbf{i} + (x - y)\,\mathbf{j}]\cdot\mathbf{k}\,dS = \iint_{S_1} 0\,dS = 0 \qquad \blacksquare$$

We now use Stokes' Theorem to shed some light on the meaning of the curl vector. Suppose that C is an oriented closed curve and $\mathbf{v}$ represents the velocity field in fluid flow. Consider the line integral

$$\int_C \mathbf{v}\cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C \mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{T}\,ds$$

and recall that $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{T}$ is the component of $\mathbf{v}$ in the direction of the unit tangent vector $\mathbf{T}$. This means that the closer the direction of $\mathbf{v}$ is to the direction of $\mathbf{T}$, the larger the value of $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{T}$. (Recall that if $\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{T}$ point in generally opposite directions, then $\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{T}$ is negative.) Thus $\int_C \mathbf{v}\cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is a measure of the tendency of the fluid to move around C in the same direction as the orientation of C, and is called the **circulation** of $\mathbf{v}$ around C. (See Figure 6.)

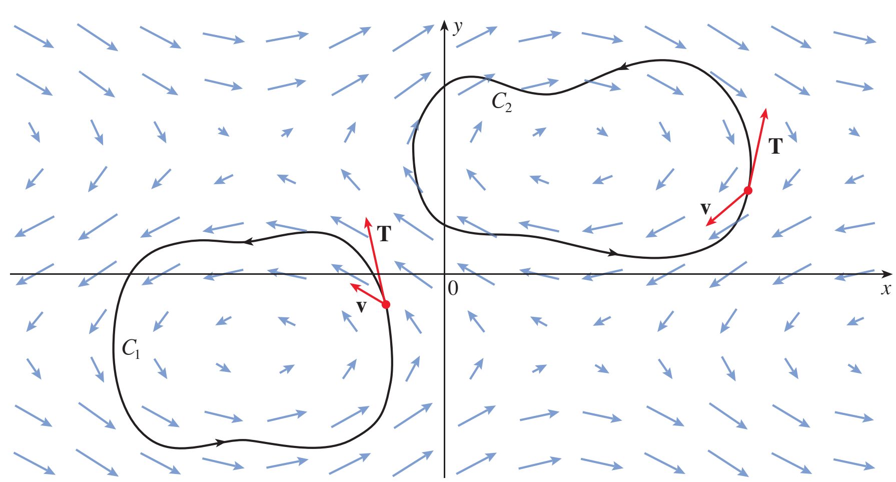


FIGURE 6

$\int_{C_1} \mathbf{v}\cdot d\mathbf{r} > 0$, positive circulation

$\int_{C_2} \mathbf{v}\cdot d\mathbf{r} < 0$, negative circulation

Now let $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ be a point in the fluid and let S_a be a small disk with radius a and center P_0. Then $(\text{curl }\mathbf{F})(P) \approx (\text{curl }\mathbf{F})(P_0)$ for all points P on S_a because curl $\mathbf{F}$ is continuous. Thus, by Stokes' Theorem, we get the following approximation to the circulation around the boundary circle C_a:

$$\int_{C_a} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_{S_a} \text{curl }\mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{S_a} \text{curl }\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS$$

$$\approx \iint_{S_a} \text{curl }\mathbf{v}(P_0) \cdot \mathbf{n}(P_0)\, dS = \text{curl }\mathbf{v}(P_0) \cdot \mathbf{n}(P_0)\pi a^2$$

Imagine a tiny paddle wheel placed in the fluid at a point P, as in Figure 7; the paddle wheel rotates fastest when its axis is parallel to curl $\mathbf{v}$.

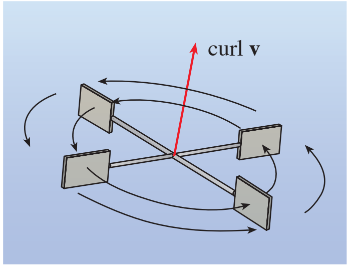


FIGURE 7

This approximation becomes better as $a \to 0$ and we have

$$\boxed{4} \qquad \text{curl }\mathbf{v}(P_0) \cdot \mathbf{n}(P_0) = \lim_{a \to 0} \frac{1}{\pi a^2} \int_{C_a} \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

Equation 4 gives the relationship between the curl and the circulation. It shows that curl $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ is a measure of the rotating effect of the fluid about the axis $\mathbf{n}$. The curling effect is greatest about the axis parallel to curl $\mathbf{v}$.

Finally, we mention that Stokes' Theorem can be used to prove Theorem 16.5.4 (which states that if curl $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$ on all of $\mathbb{R}^3$, then $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative). From our previous work (Theorems 16.3.3 and 16.3.4), we know that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative if $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ for every closed path C. Given C, suppose we can find an orientable surface S whose boundary is C. (This can be done, but the proof requires advanced techniques.) Then Stokes' Theorem gives

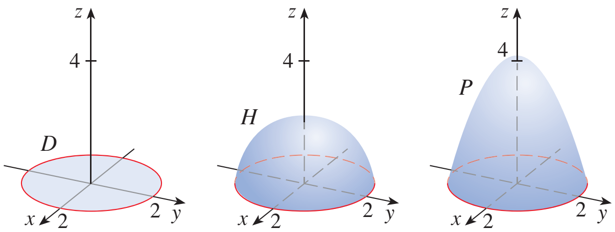
$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \text{curl }\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S \mathbf{0} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0$$

A curve that is not simple can be broken into a number of simple curves, and the integrals around these simple curves are all 0. Adding these integrals, we obtain $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ for any closed curve C.

16.8 Exercises

1. A disk D, a hemisphere H, and a portion P of a paraboloid are shown. Suppose $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$ whose components have continuous partial derivatives. Explain why this statement is true:

$$\iint_D \text{curl }\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_H \text{curl }\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_P \text{curl }\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$



2–6 Use Stokes' Theorem to evaluate $\iint_S \text{curl }\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$.

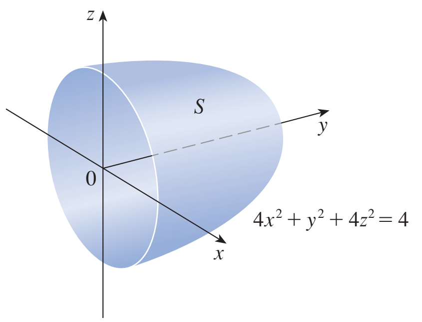
2. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2 \sin z\, \mathbf{i} + y^2\, \mathbf{j} + xy\, \mathbf{k}$,
S is the part of the paraboloid $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$ that lies above the xy-plane, oriented upward

3. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = ze^y\, \mathbf{i} + x \cos y\, \mathbf{j} + xz \sin y\, \mathbf{k}$,
S is the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 16$, $y \geqslant 0$, oriented in the direction of the positive y-axis

4. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \tan^{-1}(x^2yz^2)\, \mathbf{i} + x^2y\, \mathbf{j} + x^2z^2\, \mathbf{k}$,
S is the cone $x = \sqrt{y^2 + z^2}$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2$, oriented in the direction of the positive x-axis

5. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xyz\, \mathbf{i} + xy\, \mathbf{j} + x^2yz\, \mathbf{k}$,
S consists of the top and the four sides (but not the bottom) of the cube with vertices $(\pm1, \pm1, \pm1)$, oriented outward

6. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = e^{xy}\,\mathbf{i} + e^{xz}\,\mathbf{j} + x^2 z\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the half of the ellipsoid $4x^2 + y^2 + 4z^2 = 4$ that lies to the right of the xz-plane, oriented in the direction of the positive y-axis

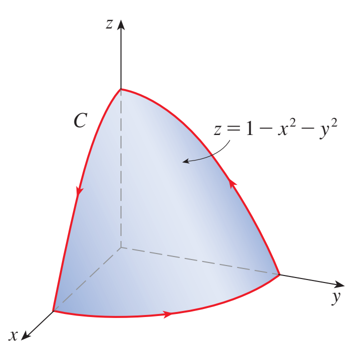


7–14 Use Stokes' Theorem to evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$. In each case C is oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above, unless otherwise stated.

7. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x + y^2)\,\mathbf{i} + (y + z^2)\,\mathbf{j} + (z + x^2)\,\mathbf{k}$,
C is the triangle with vertices (1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), and (0, 0, 1)

8. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \mathbf{i} + (x + yz)\,\mathbf{j} + \left(xy - \sqrt{z}\right)\mathbf{k}$,
C is the boundary of the part of the plane $3x + 2y + z = 1$ in the first octant

9. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xy\,\mathbf{i} + yz\,\mathbf{j} + zx\,\mathbf{k}$,
C is the boundary of the part of the paraboloid $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$ in the first octant

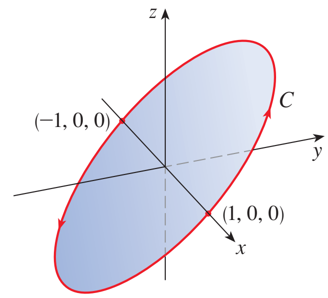


10. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = 2y\,\mathbf{i} + xz\,\mathbf{j} + (x + y)\,\mathbf{k}$,
C is the curve of intersection of the plane $z = y + 2$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

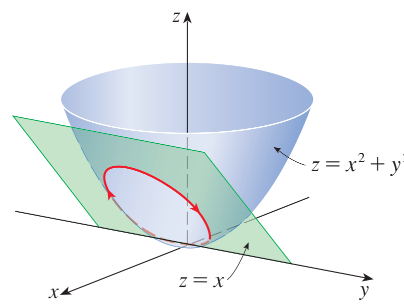
11. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \langle -yx^2, xy^2, e^{xy} \rangle$, C is the circle in the xy-plane of radius 2 centered at the origin

12. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = ze^x\,\mathbf{i} + (z - y^3)\,\mathbf{j} + (x - z^3)\,\mathbf{k}$,
C is the circle $y^2 + z^2 = 4$, $x = 3$, oriented clockwise as viewed from the origin

13. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2 y\,\mathbf{i} + x^3\,\mathbf{j} + e^z \tan^{-1} z\,\mathbf{k}$,
C is the curve with parametric equations $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t$, $z = \sin t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$



14. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \langle x^3 - z, xy, y + z^2 \rangle$, C is the curve of intersection of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and the plane $z = x$



15. (a) Use Stokes' Theorem to evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2 z\,\mathbf{i} + xy^2\,\mathbf{j} + z^2\,\mathbf{k}$$

and C is the curve of intersection of the plane $x + y + z = 1$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 9$, oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above.

(b) Graph both the plane and the cylinder with domains chosen so that you can see the curve C and the surface that you used in part (a).

(c) Find parametric equations for C and use them to graph C.

16. (a) Use Stokes' Theorem to evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2 y\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{3}x^3\,\mathbf{j} + xy\,\mathbf{k}$ and C is the curve of intersection of the hyperbolic paraboloid $z = y^2 - x^2$ and the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above.

(b) Graph both the hyperbolic paraboloid and the cylinder with domains chosen so that you can see the curve C and the surface that you used in part (a).

(c) Find parametric equations for C and use them to graph C.

17–19 Verify that Stokes' Theorem is true for the given vector field $\mathbf{F}$ and surface S.

17. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -y\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j} - 2\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the cone $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$, $0 \leqslant z \leqslant 4$, oriented downward

18. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -2yz\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + 3x\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the part of the paraboloid $z = 5 - x^2 - y^2$ that lies above the plane $z = 1$, oriented upward

19. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y\,\mathbf{i} + z\,\mathbf{j} + x\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the hemisphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$, $y \geqslant 0$, oriented in the direction of the positive y-axis

20. Let C be a simple closed smooth curve that lies in the plane $x + y + z = 1$. Show that the line integral

$$\int_C z\,dx - 2x\,dy + 3y\,dz$$

depends only on the area of the region enclosed by C and not on the shape of C or its location in the plane.

21. A particle moves along line segments from the origin to the points $(1, 0, 0)$, $(1, 2, 1)$, $(0, 2, 1)$, and back to the origin under the influence of the force field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z^2\,\mathbf{i} + 2xy\,\mathbf{j} + 4y^2\,\mathbf{k}$$

Find the work done.

22. Evaluate

$$\int_C (y + \sin x)\,dx + (z^2 + \cos y)\,dy + x^3\,dz$$

where C is the curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \sin t, \cos t, \sin 2t \rangle$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$. [*Hint:* Observe that C lies on the surface $z = 2xy$.]

23. If S is a sphere and $\mathbf{F}$ satisfies the hypotheses of Stokes' Theorem, show that $\iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0$.

24. Suppose S and C satisfy the hypotheses of Stokes' Theorem and f, g have continuous second-order partial derivatives. Use Exercises 26 and 28 in Section 16.5 to show the following.
(a) $\int_C (f\,\nabla g) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S (\nabla f \times \nabla g) \cdot d\mathbf{S}$
(b) $\int_C (f\,\nabla f) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$
(c) $\int_C (f\,\nabla g + g\,\nabla f) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$

16.9 The Divergence Theorem

In Section 16.5 we rewrote Green's Theorem in a vector version as

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\,ds = \iint_D \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x, y)\,dA$$

where C is the positively oriented boundary curve of the plane region D. If we were seeking to extend this theorem to vector fields on $\mathbb{R}^3$, we might make the guess that

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\,dS = \iiint_E \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x, y, z)\,dV$$

where S is the boundary surface of the solid region E. It turns out that Equation 1 is true, under appropriate hypotheses, and is called the Divergence Theorem. Notice its similarity to Green's Theorem and Stokes' Theorem in that it relates the integral of a derivative of a function ($\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}$ in this case) over a region to the integral of the original function $\mathbf{F}$ over the boundary of the region.

At this stage you may wish to review the various types of regions over which we were able to evaluate triple integrals in Section 15.6. We state and prove the Divergence Theorem for regions E that are simultaneously of types 1, 2, and 3 and we call such regions **simple solid regions**. (For instance, regions bounded by ellipsoids or rectangular boxes are simple solid regions.) The boundary of E is a closed surface, and we use the convention, introduced in Section 16.7, that the positive orientation is outward; that is, the unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}$ is directed outward from E.

The Divergence Theorem is sometimes called Gauss's Theorem after the great German mathematician Karl Friedrich Gauss (1777–1855), who discovered this theorem during his investigation of electrostatics. In Eastern Europe the Divergence Theorem is known as Ostrogradsky's Theorem after the Russian mathematician Mikhail Ostrogradsky (1801–1862), who published this result in 1826.

The Divergence Theorem Let E be a simple solid region and let S be the boundary surface of E, given with positive (outward) orientation. Let $\mathbf{F}$ be a vector field whose component functions have continuous partial derivatives on an open region that contains E. Then

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_E \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\,dV$$

Thus the Divergence Theorem states that, under the given conditions, the flux of **F** across the boundary surface of E is equal to the triple integral of the divergence of **F** over E.

PROOF Let $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}$. Then

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}$$

so
$$\iiint_E \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\, dV = \iiint_E \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}\, dV + \iiint_E \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y}\, dV + \iiint_E \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}\, dV$$

If **n** is the unit outward normal of S, then the surface integral on the left side of the Divergence Theorem is

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS = \iint_S (P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j} + R\,\mathbf{k}) \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS$$

$$= \iint_S P\,\mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS + \iint_S Q\,\mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS + \iint_S R\,\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS$$

Therefore, to prove the Divergence Theorem, it suffices to prove the following three equations:

2 $$\iint_S P\,\mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS = \iiint_E \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}\, dV$$

3 $$\iint_S Q\,\mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS = \iiint_E \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y}\, dV$$

4 $$\iint_S R\,\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS = \iiint_E \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}\, dV$$

To prove Equation 4 we use the fact that E is a type 1 region:

$$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid (x, y) \in D,\ u_1(x, y) \leqslant z \leqslant u_2(x, y)\}$$

where D is the projection of E onto the xy-plane. By Equation 15.6.6, we have

$$\iiint_E \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}\, dV = \iint_D \left[\int_{u_1(x,y)}^{u_2(x,y)} \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}(x, y, z)\, dz \right] dA$$

and therefore, by the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

5 $$\iiint_E \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}\, dV = \iint_D \big[R(x, y, u_2(x, y)) - R(x, y, u_1(x, y)) \big]\, dA$$

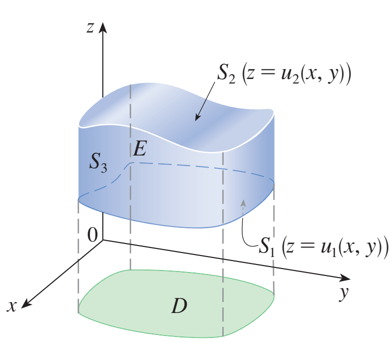


FIGURE 1

The boundary surface S consists of three pieces: the bottom surface S_1, the top surface S_2, and possibly a vertical surface S_3, which lies above the boundary curve of D. (See Figure 1. It might happen that S_3 doesn't appear, as in the case of a sphere.) Notice that on S_3 we have $\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$, because **k** is vertical and **n** is horizontal, and so

$$\iint_{S_3} R\,\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS = \iint_{S_3} 0\, dS = 0$$

Thus, regardless of whether there is a vertical surface, we can write

$$\boxed{6} \qquad \iint_S R\,\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,dS = \iint_{S_1} R\,\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,dS + \iint_{S_2} R\,\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,dS$$

The equation of S_2 is $z = u_2(x, y)$, $(x, y) \in D$, and the outward normal $\mathbf{n}$ points upward, so from Equation 16.7.10 (with $\mathbf{F}$ replaced by $R\,\mathbf{k}$) we have

$$\iint_{S_2} R\,\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,dS = \iint_D R(x, y, u_2(x, y))\,dA$$

On S_1 we have $z = u_1(x, y)$, but here the outward normal $\mathbf{n}$ points downward, so we multiply by -1:

$$\iint_{S_1} R\,\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,dS = -\iint_D R(x, y, u_1(x, y))\,dA$$

Therefore Equation 6 gives

$$\iint_S R\,\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,dS = \iint_D \left[R(x, y, u_2(x, y)) - R(x, y, u_1(x, y))\right] dA$$

Comparison with Equation 5 shows that

$$\iint_S R\,\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{n}\,dS = \iiint_E \frac{\partial R}{\partial z}\,dV$$

Notice that the method of proof of the Divergence Theorem is very similar to that of Green's Theorem.

Equations 2 and 3 are proved in a similar manner using the expressions for E as a type 2 or type 3 region, respectively. ■

EXAMPLE 1 Find the flux of the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + x\,\mathbf{k}$ over the unit sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$.

SOLUTION First we compute the divergence of $\mathbf{F}$:

$$\operatorname{div}\mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(z) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(x) = 1$$

The unit sphere S is the boundary of the unit ball B given by $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 1$. Thus the Divergence Theorem gives the flux as

The solution in Example 1 should be compared with the solution in Example 16.7.4.

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_B \operatorname{div}\mathbf{F}\,dV = \iiint_B 1\,dV = V(B) = \tfrac{4}{3}\pi(1)^3 = \frac{4\pi}{3}$$ ■

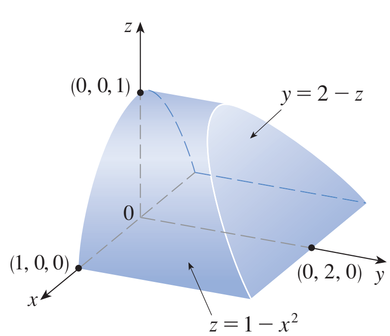


FIGURE 2

EXAMPLE 2 Evaluate $\iint_S \mathbf{F}\cdot d\mathbf{S}$, where

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xy\,\mathbf{i} + \left(y^2 + e^{xz^2}\right)\mathbf{j} + \sin(xy)\,\mathbf{k}$$

and S is the surface of the region E bounded by the parabolic cylinder $z = 1 - x^2$ and the planes $z = 0$, $y = 0$, and $y + z = 2$. (See Figure 2.)

SOLUTION It would be extremely difficult to evaluate the given surface integral directly. (We would have to evaluate four surface integrals corresponding to the four pieces of S.) Furthermore, the divergence of $\mathbf{F}$ is much less complicated than $\mathbf{F}$ itself:

$$\operatorname{div}\mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(xy) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(y^2 + e^{xz^2}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\sin xy) = y + 2y = 3y$$

Therefore we use the Divergence Theorem to transform the given surface integral into a triple integral. The easiest way to evaluate the triple integral is to express E as a type 3 region:

$$E = \{(x, y, z) \mid -1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1,\ 0 \leqslant z \leqslant 1 - x^2,\ 0 \leqslant y \leqslant 2 - z\}$$

Then we have

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_E \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\, dV = \iiint_E 3y\, dV$$

$$= 3 \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{0}^{1-x^2} \int_{0}^{2-z} y\, dy\, dz\, dx = 3 \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{0}^{1-x^2} \frac{(2-z)^2}{2}\, dz\, dx$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \left[-\frac{(2-z)^3}{3} \right]_0^{1-x^2} dx = -\tfrac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} [(x^2+1)^3 - 8]\, dx$$

$$= -\int_0^1 (x^6 + 3x^4 + 3x^2 - 7)\, dx = \frac{184}{35}$$ ■

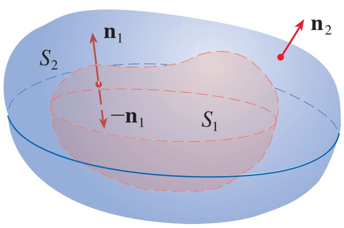


FIGURE 3

Although we have proved the Divergence Theorem only for simple solid regions, it can be proved for regions that are finite unions of simple solid regions. (The procedure is similar to the one we used in Section 16.4 to extend Green's Theorem.)

For example, let's consider the region E that lies between the closed surfaces S_1 and S_2, where S_1 lies inside S_2. Let $\mathbf{n}_1$ and $\mathbf{n}_2$ be outward normals of S_1 and S_2. Then the boundary surface of E is $S = S_1 \cup S_2$ and its normal $\mathbf{n}$ is given by $\mathbf{n} = -\mathbf{n}_1$ on S_1 and $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{n}_2$ on S_2. (See Figure 3.) Applying the Divergence Theorem to S, we get

$$\boxed{7} \qquad \iiint_E \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\, dV = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS$$

$$= \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot (-\mathbf{n}_1)\, dS + \iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}_2\, dS$$

$$= -\iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} + \iint_{S_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

EXAMPLE 3 In Example 16.1.5 we considered the electric field

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\varepsilon Q}{|\mathbf{x}|^3}\, \mathbf{x}$$

where the electric charge Q is located at the origin and $\mathbf{x} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$ is a position vector. Use the Divergence Theorem to show that the electric flux of $\mathbf{E}$ through any closed surface S that encloses the origin is

$$\iint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 4\pi\varepsilon Q$$

SOLUTION The difficulty is that we don't have an explicit equation for S because it is *any* closed surface enclosing the origin. Let S_1 be a sphere centered at the origin with radius a, where a is chosen to be small enough so that S_1 is contained within S. Let E be the region that lies between S_1 and S. Then Equation 7 gives

8
$$\iiint_E \operatorname{div} \mathbf{E}\, dV = -\iint_{S_1} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{S} + \iint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot dS$$

You can verify that div $\mathbf{E} = 0$. (See Exercise 25.) Therefore from (8) we have

$$\iint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

The point of this calculation is that we can compute the surface integral over S_1 because S_1 is a sphere. The normal vector at $\mathbf{x}$ is $\mathbf{x}/|\mathbf{x}|$. Therefore

$$\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \frac{\varepsilon Q}{|\mathbf{x}|^3}\mathbf{x} \cdot \left(\frac{\mathbf{x}}{|\mathbf{x}|}\right) = \frac{\varepsilon Q}{|\mathbf{x}|^4}\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \frac{\varepsilon Q}{|\mathbf{x}|^2} = \frac{\varepsilon Q}{a^2}$$

since the equation of S_1 is $|\mathbf{x}| = a$. Thus we have

$$\iint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS = \frac{\varepsilon Q}{a^2}\iint_{S_1} dS = \frac{\varepsilon Q}{a^2} A(S_1) = \frac{\varepsilon Q}{a^2} 4\pi a^2 = 4\pi\varepsilon Q$$

This shows that the electric flux of $\mathbf{E}$ is $4\pi\varepsilon Q$ through *any* closed surface S that contains the origin. [This is a special case of Gauss's Law (Equation 16.7.11) for a single charge. The relationship between ε and ε_0 is $\varepsilon = 1/(4\pi\varepsilon_0)$.] ■

Another application of the Divergence Theorem occurs in fluid flow. Let $\mathbf{v}(x, y, z)$ be the velocity field of a fluid with constant density ρ. Then $\mathbf{F} = \rho\mathbf{v}$ is the rate of flow per unit area. If $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ is a point in the fluid and B_a is a ball with center P_0 and very small radius a, then div $\mathbf{F}(P) \approx$ div $\mathbf{F}(P_0)$ for all points P in B_a since div $\mathbf{F}$ is continuous. We approximate the flux over the boundary sphere S_a as follows:

$$\iint_{S_a} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_{B_a} \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\, dV \approx \iiint_{B_a} \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(P_0)\, dV = \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(P_0) V(B_a)$$

This approximation becomes better as $a \to 0$ and suggests that

9
$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(P_0) = \lim_{a \to 0} \frac{1}{V(B_a)} \iint_{S_a} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

Equation 9 says that div $\mathbf{F}(P_0)$ is the net rate of outward flux per unit volume at P_0. (This is the reason for the name *divergence*.) If div $\mathbf{F}(P) > 0$, the net flow is outward near P and P is called a **source**. If div $\mathbf{F}(P) < 0$, the net flow is inward near P and P is called a **sink**.

For the vector field in Figure 4, it appears that the vectors that end near P_1 are shorter than the vectors that start near P_1. Thus the net flow is outward near P_1, so div $\mathbf{F}(P_1) > 0$ and P_1 is a source. Near P_2, on the other hand, the incoming arrows are longer than the outgoing arrows. Here the net flow is inward, so div $\mathbf{F}(P_2) < 0$ and P_2 is a sink. We can use the formula for $\mathbf{F}$ to confirm this impression. Since $\mathbf{F} = x^2\,\mathbf{i} + y^2\,\mathbf{j}$, we have div $\mathbf{F} = 2x + 2y$, which is positive when $y > -x$. So the points above the line $y = -x$ are sources and those below are sinks.

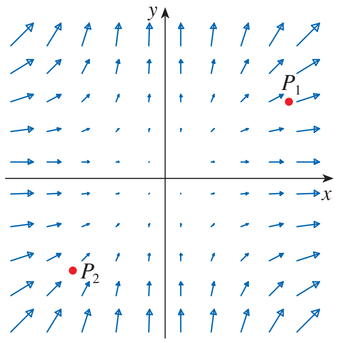


FIGURE 4
The vector field $\mathbf{F} = x^2\,\mathbf{i} + y^2\,\mathbf{j}$

16.9 Exercises

1–4 Verify that the Divergence Theorem is true for the vector field $\mathbf{F}$ on the region E.

1. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = 3x\,\mathbf{i} + xy\,\mathbf{j} + 2xz\,\mathbf{k}$,
E is the cube bounded by the planes $x = 0$, $x = 1$, $y = 0$, $y = 1$, $z = 0$, and $z = 1$

2. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = y^2z^3\,\mathbf{i} + 2yz\,\mathbf{j} + 4z^2\,\mathbf{k}$,
E is the solid enclosed by the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ and the plane $z = 9$

3. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \langle z, y, x\rangle$,
E is the solid ball $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 16$

4. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \langle x^2, -y, z\rangle$,
E is the solid cylinder $y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 9$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 2$

5–17 Use the Divergence Theorem to calculate the surface integral $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$; that is, calculate the flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across S.

5. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xye^z\,\mathbf{i} + xy^2z^3\,\mathbf{j} - ye^z\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the surface of the box bounded by the coordinate planes and the planes $x = 3$, $y = 2$, and $z = 1$

6. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2yz\,\mathbf{i} + xy^2z\,\mathbf{j} + xyz^2\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the surface of the box enclosed by the planes $x = 0$, $x = a$, $y = 0$, $y = b$, $z = 0$, and $z = c$, where a, b, and c are positive numbers

7. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = 3xy^2\,\mathbf{i} + xe^z\,\mathbf{j} + z^3\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the surface of the solid bounded by the cylinder $y^2 + z^2 = 1$ and the planes $x = -1$ and $x = 2$

8. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x^3 + y^3)\,\mathbf{i} + (y^3 + z^3)\,\mathbf{j} + (z^3 + x^3)\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the sphere with center the origin and radius 2

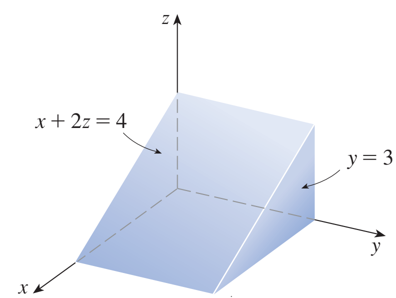
9. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xe^y\,\mathbf{i} + (z - e^y)\,\mathbf{j} - xy\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the ellipsoid $x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2 = 4$

10. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = e^y \tan z\,\mathbf{i} + x^2y\,\mathbf{j} + e^x \cos y\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the surface of the solid that lies above the xy-plane and below the surface $z = 2 - x - y^3$, $-1 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$, $-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 1$

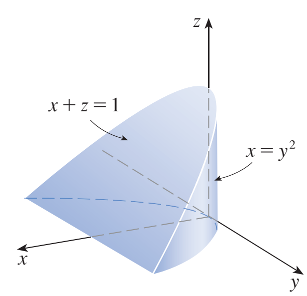
11. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (2x^3 + y^3)\,\mathbf{i} + (y^3 + z^3)\,\mathbf{j} + 3y^2z\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the surface of the solid bounded by the paraboloid $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$ and the xy-plane

12. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (xy + 2xz)\,\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + y^2)\,\mathbf{j} + (xy - z^2)\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the surface of the solid bounded by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and the planes $z = y - 2$ and $z = 0$

13. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2z\,\mathbf{i} + xz^3\,\mathbf{j} + y\ln(x + 1)\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the surface of the solid bounded by the planes $x + 2z = 4$, $y = 3$, $x = 0$, $y = 0$, and $z = 0$



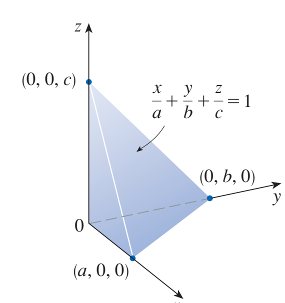
14. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (xy - z^2)\,\mathbf{i} + x^3\sqrt{z}\,\mathbf{j} + (xy + z^2)\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the surface of the solid bounded by the cylinder $x = y^2$ and the planes $x + z = 1$ and $z = 0$



15. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + zx\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the surface of the tetrahedron enclosed by the coordinate planes and the plane

$$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{z}{c} = 1$$

where a, b, and c are positive numbers



16. $\mathbf{F} = |\mathbf{r}|^2\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{r} = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$,
S is the sphere with radius R and center the origin

17. $\mathbf{F} = |\mathbf{r}|\,\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{r} = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$,
S consists of the hemisphere $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$ and the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$ in the xy-plane

T **18.** Plot the vector field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \sin x \cos^2 y\,\mathbf{i} + \sin^3 y \cos^4 z\,\mathbf{j} + \sin^5 z \cos^6 x\,\mathbf{k}$$

in the cube cut from the first octant by the planes $x = \pi/2$, $y = \pi/2$, and $z = \pi/2$. Then use a computer algebra system to compute the flux across the surface of the cube.

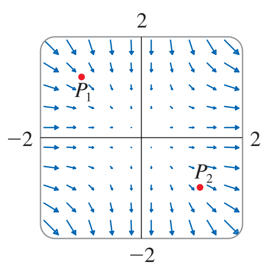
19. Use the Divergence Theorem to evaluate $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$, where

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z^2 x\,\mathbf{i} + \left(\tfrac{1}{3}y^3 + \tan^{-1}z\right)\mathbf{j} + (x^2 z + y^2)\,\mathbf{k}$$

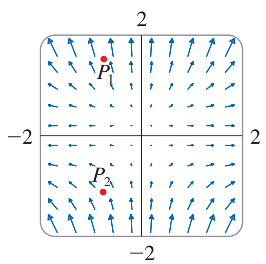
and S is the top half of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$. [*Hint:* Note that S is not a closed surface. First compute integrals over S_1 and S_2, where S_1 is the disk $x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1$, oriented downward, and $S_2 = S \cup S_1$.]

20. Let $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z \tan^{-1}(y^2)\,\mathbf{i} + z^3 \ln(x^2 + 1)\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$. Find the flux of $\mathbf{F}$ across the part of the paraboloid $x^2 + y^2 + z = 2$ that lies above the plane $z = 1$ and is oriented upward.

21. A vector field $\mathbf{F}$ is shown. Use the interpretation of divergence derived in this section to determine whether the points P_1 and P_2 are sources or sinks.



22. (a) Are the points P_1 and P_2 sources or sinks for the vector field $\mathbf{F}$ shown in the figure? Give an explanation based solely on the picture.
(b) Given that $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle x, y^2 \rangle$, use the definition of divergence to verify your answer to part (a).



23–24 Plot the vector field and guess where div $\mathbf{F} > 0$ and where div $\mathbf{F} < 0$. Then calculate div $\mathbf{F}$ to check your guess.

23. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle xy, x + y^2 \rangle$ **24.** $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \langle x^2, y^2 \rangle$

25. Verify that div $\mathbf{E} = 0$ for the electric field $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{x}) = \dfrac{\varepsilon Q}{|\mathbf{x}|^3}\,\mathbf{x}$.

26. Use the Divergence Theorem to evaluate

$$\iint_S (2x + 2y + z^2)\, dS$$

where S is the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$.

27–32 Prove each identity, assuming that S and E satisfy the conditions of the Divergence Theorem and the scalar functions and components of the vector fields have continuous second-order partial derivatives.

27. $\displaystyle\iint_S \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS = 0$, where $\mathbf{a}$ is a constant vector

28. $\displaystyle V(E) = \tfrac{1}{3}\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$

29. $\displaystyle\iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0$ **30.** $\displaystyle\iint_S D_{\mathbf{n}} f\, dS = \iiint_E \nabla^2 f\, dV$

31. $\displaystyle\iint_S (f \nabla g) \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS = \iiint_E (f \nabla^2 g + \nabla f \cdot \nabla g)\, dV$

32. $\displaystyle\iint_S (f \nabla g - g \nabla f) \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS = \iiint_E (f \nabla^2 g - g \nabla^2 f)\, dV$

33. Suppose S and E satisfy the conditions of the Divergence Theorem and f is a scalar function with continuous partial derivatives. Prove that

$$\iint_S f\mathbf{n}\, dS = \iiint_E \nabla f\, dV$$

These surface and triple integrals of vector functions are vectors defined by integrating each component function. [*Hint:* Start by applying the Divergence Theorem to $\mathbf{F} = f\mathbf{c}$, where $\mathbf{c}$ is an arbitrary constant vector.]

34. A solid occupies a region E with surface S and is immersed in a liquid with constant density ρ. We set up a coordinate system so that the xy-plane coincides with the surface of the liquid, and positive values of z are measured downward into the liquid. Then the pressure at depth z is $p = \rho g z$, where g is the acceleration due to gravity (see Section 8.3). The total buoyant force on the solid due to the pressure distribution is given by the surface integral

$$\mathbf{F} = -\iint_S p\mathbf{n}\, dS$$

where $\mathbf{n}$ is the outer unit normal. Use the result of Exercise 33 to show that $\mathbf{F} = -W\mathbf{k}$, where W is the weight of the liquid displaced by the solid. (Note that $\mathbf{F}$ is directed upward because z is directed downward.) The result is *Archimedes' Principle:* the buoyant force on an object equals the weight of the displaced liquid.

16.10 Summary

The main results of this chapter are all higher-dimensional versions of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. To help you remember them, we collect them together here (without hypotheses) so that you can see more easily their essential similarity. Notice that in each case we have an integral of a "derivative" over a region on the left side, and the right side involves the values of the original function only on the *boundary* of the region.

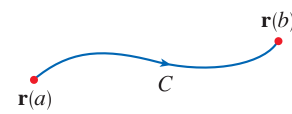
Curves and their boundaries (endpoints)

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

$$\int_a^b F'(x)\,dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

Fundamental Theorem for Line Integrals

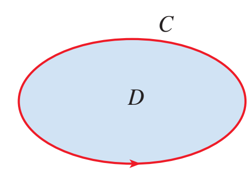
$$\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(\mathbf{r}(b)) - f(\mathbf{r}(a))$$



Surfaces and their boundaries

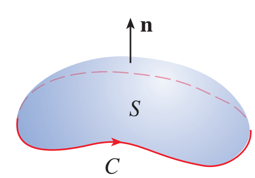
Green's Theorem

$$\iint_D \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}\right) dA = \int_C P\,dx + Q\,dy$$



Stokes' Theorem

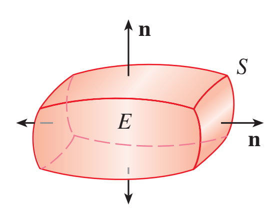
$$\iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$



Solids and their boundaries

Divergence Theorem

$$\iiint_E \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}\,dV = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$



16 REVIEW

CONCEPT CHECK

Answers to the Concept Check are available at StewartCalculus.com.

1. What is a vector field? Give three examples that have physical meaning.

2. (a) What is a conservative vector field?
(b) What is a potential function?

3. (a) Write the definition of the line integral of a scalar function f along a smooth curve C with respect to arc length.
(b) How do you evaluate such a line integral?
(c) Write expressions for the mass and center of mass of a thin wire shaped like a curve C if the wire has linear density function $\rho(x, y)$.
(d) Write the definitions of the line integrals along C of a scalar function f with respect to x, y, and z.
(e) How do you evaluate these line integrals?

4. (a) Define the line integral of a vector field $\mathbf{F}$ along a smooth curve C given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$.
(b) If $\mathbf{F}$ is a force field, what does this line integral represent?
(c) If $\mathbf{F} = \langle P, Q, R\rangle$, what is the connection between the line integral of $\mathbf{F}$ and the line integrals of the component functions P, Q, and R?

5. State the Fundamental Theorem for Line Integrals.

6. (a) What does it mean to say that $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is independent of path?
(b) If you know that $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ is independent of path, what can you say about $\mathbf{F}$?

7. State Green's Theorem.

8. Write expressions for the area enclosed by a curve C in terms of line integrals around C.

9. Suppose $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$.
(a) Define curl $\mathbf{F}$. (b) Define div $\mathbf{F}$.
(c) If $\mathbf{F}$ is a velocity field in fluid flow, what are the physical interpretations of curl $\mathbf{F}$ and div $\mathbf{F}$?

10. If $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j}$, how do you determine whether $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative? What if $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^3$?

11. (a) What is a parametric surface? What are its grid curves?
(b) Write an expression for the area of a parametric surface.
(c) What is the area of a surface given by an equation $z = g(x, y)$?

12. (a) Write the definition of the surface integral of a scalar function f over a surface S.
(b) How do you evaluate such an integral if S is a parametric surface given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$?
(c) What if S is given by an equation $z = g(x, y)$?
(d) If a thin sheet has the shape of a surface S, and the density at (x, y, z) is $\rho(x, y, z)$, write expressions for the mass and center of mass of the sheet.

13. (a) What is an oriented surface? Give an example of a non-orientable surface.
(b) Define the surface integral (or flux) of a vector field $\mathbf{F}$ over an oriented surface S with unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}$.
(c) How do you evaluate such an integral if S is a parametric surface given by a vector function $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$?
(d) What if S is given by an equation $z = g(x, y)$?

14. State Stokes' Theorem.

15. State the Divergence Theorem.

16. In what ways are the Fundamental Theorem for Line Integrals, Green's Theorem, Stokes' Theorem, and the Divergence Theorem similar?

TRUE-FALSE QUIZ

Determine whether the statement is true or false. If it is true, explain why. If it is false, explain why or give an example that disproves the statement.

1. If $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field, then div $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field.

2. If $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field, then curl $\mathbf{F}$ is a vector field.

3. If f has continuous partial derivatives of all orders on $\mathbb{R}^3$, then $\operatorname{div}(\operatorname{curl} \nabla f) = 0$.

4. If f has continuous partial derivatives on $\mathbb{R}^3$ and C is any circle, then $\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$.

5. If $\mathbf{F} = P\,\mathbf{i} + Q\,\mathbf{j}$ and $P_y = Q_x$ in an open region D, then $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative.

6. $\int_{-C} f(x, y)\, ds = -\int_C f(x, y)\, ds$

7. If $\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{G}$ are vector fields and $\operatorname{div}\mathbf{F} = \operatorname{div}\mathbf{G}$, then $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{G}$.

8. The work done by a conservative force field in moving a particle around a closed path is zero.

9. If $\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{G}$ are vector fields, then

$$\operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{F} + \mathbf{G}) = \operatorname{curl}\mathbf{F} + \operatorname{curl}\mathbf{G}$$

10. If $\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{G}$ are vector fields, then

$$\operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{G}) = \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{G}$$

11. If S is a sphere and $\mathbf{F}$ is a constant vector field, then $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0$.

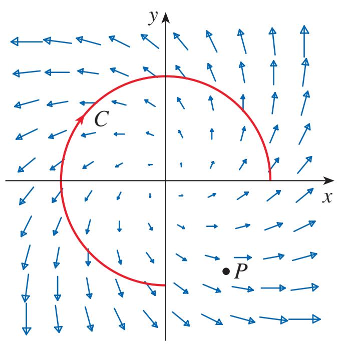
12. There is a vector field $\mathbf{F}$ such that

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$$

13. The area of the region bounded by the positively oriented, piecewise smooth, simple closed curve C is $A = \oint_C y\,dx$.

EXERCISES

1. A vector field $\mathbf{F}$, a curve C, and a point P are shown.
(a) Is $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ positive, negative, or zero? Explain.
(b) Is $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(P)$ positive, negative, or zero? Explain.



2–9 Evaluate the line integral.

2. $\int_C x\,ds$,
C is the arc of the parabola $y = x^2$ from $(0, 0)$ to $(1, 1)$

3. $\int_C yz \cos x\,ds$,
C: $x = t,\ \ y = 3\cos t,\ \ z = 3\sin t,\ \ 0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$

4. $\int_C y\,dx + (x + y^2)\,dy$, C is the ellipse $4x^2 + 9y^2 = 36$ with counterclockwise orientation

5. $\int_C y^3\,dx + x^2\,dy$, C is the arc of the parabola $x = 1 - y^2$ from $(0, -1)$ to $(0, 1)$

6. $\int_C \sqrt{xy}\,dx + e^y\,dy + xz\,dz$,
C is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^4\,\mathbf{i} + t^2\,\mathbf{j} + t^3\,\mathbf{k}$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

7. $\int_C xy\,dx + y^2\,dy + yz\,dz$,
C is the line segment from $(1, 0, -1)$, to $(3, 4, 2)$

8. $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = xy\,\mathbf{i} + x^2\,\mathbf{j}$ and C is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t\,\mathbf{i} + (1 + t)\,\mathbf{j}$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant \pi$

9. $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = e^z\,\mathbf{i} + xz\,\mathbf{j} + (x + y)\,\mathbf{k}$ and C is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\,\mathbf{i} + t^3\,\mathbf{j} - t\,\mathbf{k}$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

10. Find the work done by the force field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = z\,\mathbf{i} + x\,\mathbf{j} + y\,\mathbf{k}$$

in moving a particle from the point $(3, 0, 0)$ to the point $(0, \pi/2, 3)$ along each path.
(a) A straight line
(b) The helix $x = 3\cos t,\ \ y = t,\ \ z = 3\sin t$

11–12 Show that $\mathbf{F}$ is a conservative vector field. Then find a function f such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$.

11. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (1 + xy)e^{xy}\,\mathbf{i} + (e^y + x^2 e^{xy})\,\mathbf{j}$

12. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \sin y\,\mathbf{i} + x\cos y\,\mathbf{j} - \sin z\,\mathbf{k}$

13–14 Show that $\mathbf{F}$ is conservative and use this fact to evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ along the given curve.

13. $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (4x^3y^2 - 2xy^3)\,\mathbf{i} + (2x^4y - 3x^2y^2 + 4y^3)\,\mathbf{j}$,
C: $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t + \sin \pi t)\,\mathbf{i} + (2t + \cos \pi t)\,\mathbf{j}$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

14. $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = e^y\,\mathbf{i} + (xe^y + e^z)\,\mathbf{j} + ye^z\,\mathbf{k}$,
C is the line segment from $(0, 2, 0)$ to $(4, 0, 3)$

15. Verify that Green's Theorem is true for the line integral $\int_C xy^2\,dx - x^2y\,dy$, where C consists of the parabola $y = x^2$ from $(-1, 1)$ to $(1, 1)$ and the line segment from $(1, 1)$ to $(-1, 1)$.

16. Use Green's Theorem to evaluate

$$\int_C \sqrt{1 + x^3}\,dx + 2xy\,dy$$

where C is the triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(1, 3)$.

17. Use Green's Theorem to evaluate $\int_C x^2y\,dx - xy^2\,dy$, where C is the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ with counterclockwise orientation.

18. Find $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$ and $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}$ if

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = e^{-x}\sin y\,\mathbf{i} + e^{-y}\sin z\,\mathbf{j} + e^{-z}\sin x\,\mathbf{k}$$

19. Show that there is no vector field $\mathbf{G}$ such that

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{G} = 2x\,\mathbf{i} + 3yz\,\mathbf{j} - xz^2\,\mathbf{k}$$

20. If $\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{G}$ are vector fields whose component functions have continuous first partial derivatives, show that

$$\operatorname{curl}(\mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{G}) = \mathbf{F}\operatorname{div}\mathbf{G} - \mathbf{G}\operatorname{div}\mathbf{F} + (\mathbf{G} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{F} - (\mathbf{F} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{G}$$

21. If C is any piecewise-smooth simple closed plane curve and f and g are differentiable functions, show that $\int_C f(x)\,dx + g(y)\,dy = 0$.

22. If f and g are twice differentiable functions, show that

$$\nabla^2(fg) = f\nabla^2 g + g\nabla^2 f + 2\nabla f \cdot \nabla g$$

23. If f is a harmonic function, that is, $\nabla^2 f = 0$, show that the line integral $\int f_y\,dx - f_x\,dy$ is independent of path in any simple region D.

24. (a) Sketch the curve C with parametric equations

$$x = \cos t \qquad y = \sin t \qquad z = \sin t \qquad 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$$

(b) Find $\int_C 2xe^{2y}\,dx + (2x^2e^{2y} + 2y\cot z)\,dy - y^2\csc^2 z\,dz$.

25. Find the area of the part of the surface $z = x^2 + 2y$ that lies above the triangle with vertices (0, 0), (1, 0), and (1, 2).

26. (a) Find an equation of the tangent plane at the point $(4, -2, 1)$ to the parametric surface S given by

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = v^2\,\mathbf{i} - uv\,\mathbf{j} + u^2\,\mathbf{k}$$
$$0 \leqslant u \leqslant 3, \; -3 \leqslant v \leqslant 3$$

(b) Graph the surface S and the tangent plane found in part (a).

(c) Set up, but do not evaluate, an integral for the surface area of S.

(d) If

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \frac{z^2}{1 + x^2}\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{x^2}{1 + y^2}\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{y^2}{1 + z^2}\,\mathbf{k}$$

use a computer algebra system to find $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$ correct to four decimal places.

27–30 Evaluate the surface integral.

27. $\iint_S z\,dS$, where S is the part of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ that lies under the plane $z = 4$

28. $\iint_S (x^2z + y^2z)\,dS$, where S is the part of the plane $z = 4 + x + y$ that lies inside the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

29. $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xz\,\mathbf{i} - 2y\,\mathbf{j} + 3x\,\mathbf{k}$ and S is the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ with outward orientation

30. $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2\,\mathbf{i} + xy\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$ and S is the part of the paraboloid $z = x^2 + y^2$ below the plane $z = 1$ with upward orientation

---

31. Verify that Stokes' Theorem is true for the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2\,\mathbf{i} + y^2\,\mathbf{j} + z^2\,\mathbf{k}$, where S is the part of the paraboloid $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$ that lies above the xy-plane and S has upward orientation.

32. Use Stokes' Theorem to evaluate $\iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2yz\,\mathbf{i} + yz^2\,\mathbf{j} + z^3e^{xy}\,\mathbf{k}$, S is the part of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 5$ that lies above the plane $z = 1$, and S is oriented upward.

33. Use Stokes' Theorem to evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = xy\,\mathbf{i} + yz\,\mathbf{j} + zx\,\mathbf{k}$ and C is the triangle with vertices (1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), and (0, 0, 1), oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above.

34. Use the Divergence Theorem to calculate the surface integral $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^3\,\mathbf{i} + y^3\,\mathbf{j} + z^3\,\mathbf{k}$ and S is the surface of the solid bounded by the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the planes $z = 0$ and $z = 2$.

35. Verify that the Divergence Theorem is true for the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$, where E is the unit ball $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 1$.

36. Compute the outward flux of

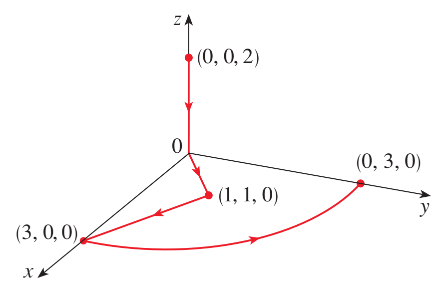
$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \frac{x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}$$

through the ellipsoid $4x^2 + 9y^2 + 6z^2 = 36$.

37. Let

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (3x^2yz - 3y)\,\mathbf{i} + (x^3z - 3x)\,\mathbf{j} + (x^3y + 2z)\,\mathbf{k}$$

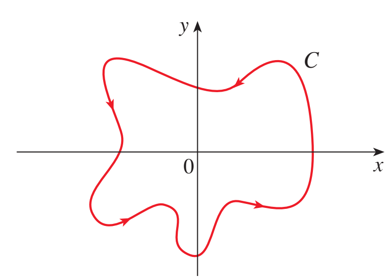
Evaluate $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where C is the curve with initial point (0, 0, 2) and terminal point (0, 3, 0) shown in the figure.



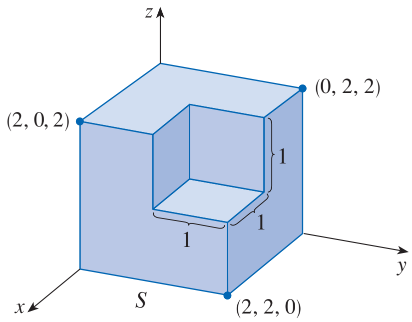
38. Let

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \frac{(2x^3 + 2xy^2 - 2y)\,\mathbf{i} + (2y^3 + 2x^2y + 2x)\,\mathbf{j}}{x^2 + y^2}$$

Evaluate $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where C is shown in the figure.



39. Find $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}\, dS$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$ and S is the outwardly oriented surface shown in the figure (the boundary surface of a cube with a unit corner cube removed).



40. If the components of $\mathbf{F}$ have continuous second partial derivatives and S is the boundary surface of a simple solid region, show that $\iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0$.

41. If $\mathbf{a}$ is a constant vector, $\mathbf{r} = x\,\mathbf{i} + y\,\mathbf{j} + z\,\mathbf{k}$, and S is an oriented, smooth surface with a simple, closed, smooth, positively oriented boundary curve C, show that

$$\iint_S 2\mathbf{a} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \int_C (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

Problems Plus

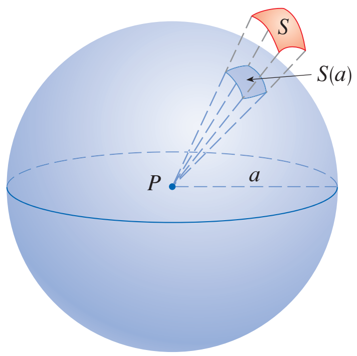


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 1

1. Let S be a smooth parametric surface and let P be a point such that each line that starts at P intersects S at most once. The **solid angle** $\Omega(S)$ subtended by S at P is the set of lines starting at P and passing through S. Let $S(a)$ be the intersection of $\Omega(S)$ with the surface of the sphere with center P and radius a. Then the measure of the solid angle (in *steradians*) is defined to be

$$|\Omega(S)| = \frac{\text{area of } S(a)}{a^2}$$

Apply the Divergence Theorem to the part of $\Omega(S)$ between $S(a)$ and S to show that

$$|\Omega(S)| = \iint_S \frac{\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{n}}{r^3}\, dS$$

where $\mathbf{r}$ is the radius vector from P to any point on S, $r = |\mathbf{r}|$, and the unit normal vector $\mathbf{n}$ is directed away from P.

This shows that the definition of the measure of a solid angle is independent of the radius a of the sphere. Thus the measure of the solid angle is equal to the area subtended on a *unit* sphere. (Note the analogy with the definition of radian measure.) The total solid angle subtended by a sphere at its center is thus 4π steradians.

2. Find the positively oriented simple closed curve C for which the value of the line integral

$$\int_C (y^3 - y)\, dx - 2x^3\, dy$$

is a maximum.

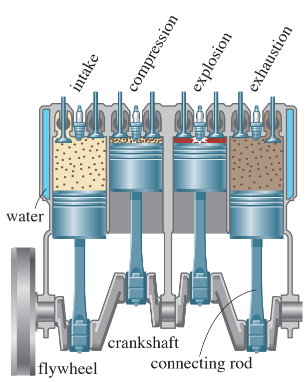
3. Let C be a simple closed piecewise-smooth space curve that lies in a plane with unit normal vector $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ and has positive orientation with respect to $\mathbf{n}$. Show that the plane area enclosed by C is

$$\frac{1}{2}\int_C (bz - cy)\, dx + (cx - az)\, dy + (ay - bx)\, dz$$

4. Investigate the shape of the surface with parametric equations $x = \sin u$, $y = \sin v$, $z = \sin(u + v)$. Start by graphing the surface from several points of view. Explain the appearance of the graphs by determining the traces in the horizontal planes $z = 0$, $z = \pm 1$, and $z = \pm \frac{1}{2}$.

5. Prove the following identity:

$$\nabla(\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{G}) = (\mathbf{F} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{G} + (\mathbf{G} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{F} + \mathbf{F} \times \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{G} + \mathbf{G} \times \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$$



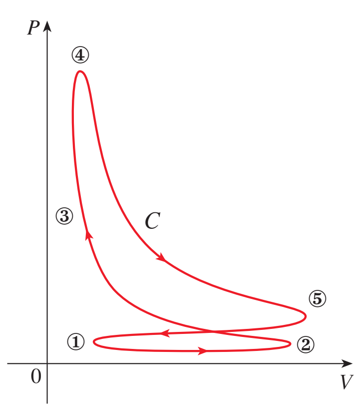


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 6

6. The figure depicts the sequence of events in each cylinder of a four-cylinder internal combustion engine. Each piston moves up and down and is connected by a pivoted arm to a rotating crankshaft. Let $P(t)$ and $V(t)$ be the pressure and volume within a cylinder at time t, where $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$ gives the time required for a complete cycle. The graph shows how P and V vary through one cycle of a four-stroke engine.

During the intake stroke (from ① to ②) a mixture of air and gasoline at atmospheric pressure is drawn into a cylinder through the intake valve as the piston moves downward. Then the piston rapidly compresses the mix with the valves closed in the compression stroke (from ② to ③) during which the pressure rises and the volume decreases. At ③ the sparkplug ignites the fuel, raising the temperature and pressure at almost constant volume to ④. Then, with valves closed, the rapid expansion forces the piston downward during the power stroke (from ④ to ⑤). The exhaust valve opens, temperature and pressure drop, and mechanical energy stored in a rotating flywheel pushes the piston upward, forcing the waste products out of the exhaust valve in the exhaust stroke. The exhaust valve closes and the intake valve opens. We're now back at ① and the cycle starts again.

(a) Show that the work done on the piston during one cycle of a four-stroke engine is $W = \int_C P\,dV$, where C is the curve in the PV-plane shown in the figure.

[*Hint:* Let $x(t)$ be the distance from the piston to the top of the cylinder and note that the force on the piston is $\mathbf{F} = AP(t)\,\mathbf{i}$, where A is the area of the top of the piston. Then $W = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where C_1 is given by $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\,\mathbf{i}$, $a \leqslant t \leqslant b$. An alternative approach is to work directly with Riemann sums.]

(b) Use Formula 16.4.5 to show that the work is the difference of the areas enclosed by the two loops of C.

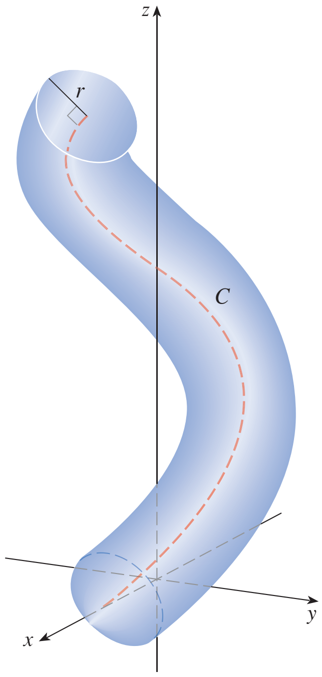


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 7

7. The set of all points within a perpendicular distance r from a smooth simple curve C in $\mathbb{R}^3$ form a "tube," which we denote by Tube(C, r); see the figure at the left. (We assume that r is small enough that the tube does not intersect itself.) It may seem that the volume of such a tube would depend on the twists and turns of C, but in this problem you will find a formula for the volume of Tube(C, r) which, perhaps surprisingly, depends only on r and the length of C. We assume that C is parameterized with respect to arc length s as $\mathbf{r}(s)$, where $a \leqslant s \leqslant b$, so the arc length of C is $L = b - a$.

(a) Show that the surface of Tube(C, q) is parameterized by

$$\mathbf{X}(u, v) = \mathbf{r}(u) + q\cos v\,\mathbf{N}(u) + q\sin v\,\mathbf{B}(u) \qquad a \leqslant u \leqslant b,\ 0 \leqslant v \leqslant 2\pi$$

where $\mathbf{N}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ are the unit normal and binormal vectors for C.

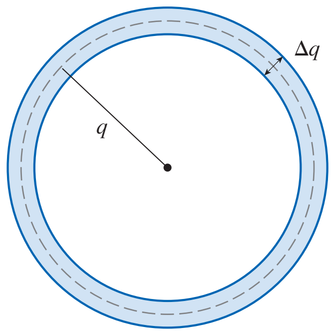
(b) Use the Frenet-Serret Formulas (Exercises 13.3.71–72) and the Pythagorean Theorem for vectors (Exercise 12.3.66) to show that

$$|\mathbf{X}_u(u, v) \times \mathbf{X}_v(u, v)| = q[1 - \kappa(u)\,q\cos v]$$

and so the surface area of Tube(C, q) is

$$S(q) = \int_a^b \int_0^{2\pi} |\mathbf{X}_u(u, v) \times \mathbf{X}_v(u, v)|\,dv\,du = 2\pi q L$$

(c) Consider a thin tubular shell of radius q and thickness Δq along C, a cross-section of which is shown in the figure.



Observe that the volume of the shell is approximately $\Delta q\,S(q)$ and conclude that the volume of Tube(C, r) is

$$\int_0^r S(q)\,dq = \pi r^2 L$$

(d) Find the volume of a tube of radius $r = 0.2$ around the helix $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \cos t, \sin t, t \rangle$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 4\pi$.

(e) Find the volume of the torus in Example 8.3.7.

Source: Adapted from A. Gray, *Tubes*, 2nd ed. (Basel; Boston: Birkhäuser, 2004).

Appendixes

F Proofs of Theorems

In this appendix we present proofs of several theorems that are stated in the main body of the text. The sections in which they occur are indicated in the margin.

Section 11.1

7 Theorem If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ and the function f is continuous at L, then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} f(a_n) = f(L)$$

PROOF Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since f is continuous at L, we have $\lim_{x\to L} f(x) = f(L)$. Thus there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \text{if} \quad 0 < |x - L| < \delta \quad \text{then} \quad |f(x) - f(L)| < \varepsilon$$

Now, since $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ and δ is a positive number, there exists an integer N such that

$$\boxed{2} \qquad \text{if} \quad n > N \quad \text{then} \quad |a_n - L| < \delta$$

Combining (1) and (2), we have

$$\text{if} \quad n > N \quad \text{then} \quad |f(a_n) - f(L)| < \varepsilon$$

so by Definition 11.1.2, $\lim_{n\to\infty} f(a_n) = f(L)$. ■

Section 11.8

In order to prove Theorem 11.8.4, we first need the following results.

Theorem

1. If a power series $\Sigma c_n x^n$ converges when $x = b$ (where $b \neq 0$), then it converges whenever $|x| < |b|$.
2. If a power series $\Sigma c_n x^n$ diverges when $x = d$ (where $d \neq 0$), then it diverges whenever $|x| > |d|$.

PROOF OF 1 Suppose that $\Sigma c_n b^n$ converges. Then, by Theorem 11.2.6, we have $\lim_{n\to\infty} c_n b^n = 0$. According to Definition 11.1.2 with $\varepsilon = 1$, there is a positive integer N such that $|c_n b^n| < 1$ whenever $n \geqslant N$. Thus, for $n \geqslant N$, we have

$$|c_n x^n| = \left|\frac{c_n b^n x^n}{b^n}\right| = |c_n b^n| \left|\frac{x}{b}\right|^n < \left|\frac{x}{b}\right|^n$$

If $|x| < |b|$, then $|x/b| < 1$, so $\Sigma |x/b|^n$ is a convergent geometric series. Therefore, by the Direct Comparison Test, the series $\Sigma_{n=N}^{\infty} |c_n x^n|$ is convergent. Thus the series $\Sigma c_n x^n$ is absolutely convergent and therefore convergent. ■

PROOF OF 2 Suppose that $\Sigma c_n d^n$ diverges. If x is any number such that $|x| > |d|$, then $\Sigma c_n x^n$ cannot converge because, by part 1, the convergence of $\Sigma c_n x^n$ would imply the convergence of $\Sigma c_n d^n$. Therefore $\Sigma c_n x^n$ diverges whenever $|x| > |d|$. ■

Theorem For a power series $\Sigma c_n x^n$ there are only three possibilities:

(i) The series converges only when $x = 0$.

(ii) The series converges for all x.

(iii) There is a positive number R such that the series converges if $|x| < R$ and diverges if $|x| > R$.

PROOF Suppose that neither case (i) nor case (ii) is true. Then there are nonzero numbers b and d such that $\Sigma c_n x^n$ converges for $x = b$ and diverges for $x = d$. Therefore the set $S = \{x \mid \Sigma c_n x^n \text{ converges}\}$ is not empty. By the preceding theorem, the series diverges if $|x| > |d|$, so $|x| \leqslant |d|$ for all $x \in S$. This says that $|d|$ is an upper bound for the set S. Thus, by the Completeness Axiom (see Section 11.1), S has a least upper bound R. If $|x| > R$, then $x \notin S$, so $\Sigma c_n x^n$ diverges. If $|x| < R$, then $|x|$ is not an upper bound for S and so there exists $b \in S$ such that $b > |x|$. Since $b \in S$, $\Sigma c_n x^n$ converges, so by the preceding theorem $\Sigma c_n x^n$ converges. ■

We are now ready to prove Theorem 11.8.4.

$\boxed{4}$ **Theorem** For a power series $\Sigma\, c_n(x - a)^n$ there are only three possibilities:

(i) The series converges only when $x = a$.

(ii) The series converges for all x.

(iii) There is a positive number R such that the series converges if $|x - a| < R$ and diverges if $|x - a| > R$.

PROOF If we make the change of variable $u = x - a$, then the power series becomes $\Sigma c_n u^n$ and we can apply the preceding theorem to this series. In case (iii) we have convergence for $|u| < R$ and divergence for $|u| > R$. Thus we have convergence for $|x - a| < R$ and divergence for $|x - a| > R$. ■

Section 14.3

Clairaut's Theorem Suppose f is defined on a disk D that contains the point (a, b). If the functions f_{xy} and f_{yx} are both continuous on D, then $f_{xy}(a, b) = f_{yx}(a, b)$.

PROOF For small values of h, $h \neq 0$, consider the difference

$$\Delta(h) = [f(a + h, b + h) - f(a + h, b)] - [f(a, b + h) - f(a, b)]$$

Notice that if we let $g(x) = f(x, b + h) - f(x, b)$, then

$$\Delta(h) = g(a + h) - g(a)$$

By the Mean Value Theorem, there is a number c between a and $a + h$ such that

$$g(a + h) - g(a) = g'(c)h = h[f_x(c, b + h) - f_x(c, b)]$$

Applying the Mean Value Theorem again, this time to f_x, we get a number d between b and $b + h$ such that

$$f_x(c, b + h) - f_x(c, b) = f_{xy}(c, d)h$$

Combining these equations, we obtain

$$\Delta(h) = h^2 f_{xy}(c, d)$$

If $h \to 0$, then $(c, d) \to (a, b)$, so the continuity of f_{xy} at (a, b) gives

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\Delta(h)}{h^2} = \lim_{(c, d) \to (a, b)} f_{xy}(c, d) = f_{xy}(a, b)$$

Similarly, by writing

$$\Delta(h) = [f(a + h, b + h) - f(a, b + h)] - [f(a + h, b) - f(a, b)]$$

and using the Mean Value Theorem twice and the continuity of f_{yx} at (a, b), we obtain

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\Delta(h)}{h^2} = f_{yx}(a, b)$$

It follows that $f_{xy}(a, b) = f_{yx}(a, b)$. ■

Section 14.4

> **8 Theorem** If the partial derivatives f_x and f_y exist near (a, b) and are continuous at (a, b), then f is differentiable at (a, b).

PROOF Let

$$\Delta z = f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) - f(a, b)$$

According to Definition 14.4.7, to prove that f is differentiable at (a, b) we have to show that we can write Δz in the form

$$\Delta z = f_x(a, b)\,\Delta x + f_y(a, b)\,\Delta y + \varepsilon_1\,\Delta x + \varepsilon_2\,\Delta y$$

where ε_1 and $\varepsilon_2 \to 0$ as $(\Delta x, \Delta y) \to (0, 0)$.

Referring to Figure 4, we write

$$\boxed{1} \quad \Delta z = [f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) - f(a, b + \Delta y)] + [f(a, b + \Delta y) - f(a, b)]$$

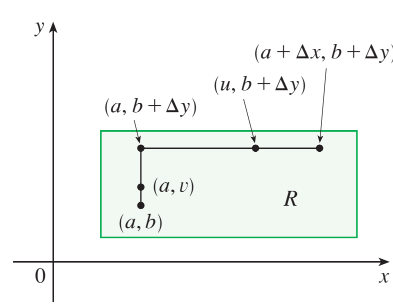


FIGURE 4

Observe that the function of a single variable

$$g(x) = f(x, b + \Delta y)$$

is defined on the interval $[a, a + \Delta x]$ and $g'(x) = f_x(x, b + \Delta y)$. If we apply the Mean Value Theorem to g, we get

$$g(a + \Delta x) - g(a) = g'(u)\,\Delta x$$

where u is some number between a and $a + \Delta x$. In terms of f, this equation becomes

$$f(a + \Delta x, b + \Delta y) - f(a, b + \Delta y) = f_x(u, b + \Delta y)\,\Delta x$$

This gives us an expression for the first part of the right side of Equation 1. For the second part we let $h(y) = f(a, y)$. Then h is a function of a single variable defined on the interval $[b, b + \Delta y]$ and $h'(y) = f_y(a, y)$. A second application of the Mean Value Theorem then gives

$$h(b + \Delta y) - h(b) = h'(v)\,\Delta y$$

where v is some number between b and $b + \Delta y$. In terms of f, this becomes

$$f(a, b + \Delta y) - f(a, b) = f_y(a, v)\,\Delta y$$

We now substitute these expressions into Equation 1 and obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta z &= f_x(u, b + \Delta y)\,\Delta x + f_y(a, v)\,\Delta y \\
&= f_x(a, b)\,\Delta x + [f_x(u, b + \Delta y) - f_x(a, b)]\,\Delta x + f_y(a, b)\,\Delta y \\
&\qquad + [f_y(a, v) - f_y(a, b)]\,\Delta y \\
&= f_x(a, b)\,\Delta x + f_y(a, b)\,\Delta y + \varepsilon_1\,\Delta x + \varepsilon_2\,\Delta y
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
\varepsilon_1 &= f_x(u, b + \Delta y) - f_x(a, b) \\
\varepsilon_2 &= f_y(a, v) - f_y(a, b)
\end{aligned}$$

Since $(u, b + \Delta y) \to (a, b)$ and $(a, v) \to (a, b)$ as $(\Delta x,\ \Delta y) \to (0, 0)$ and since f_x and f_y are continuous at (a, b), we see that $\varepsilon_1 \to 0$ and $\varepsilon_2 \to 0$ as $(\Delta x,\ \Delta y) \to (0, 0)$.

Therefore f is differentiable at (a, b). ■

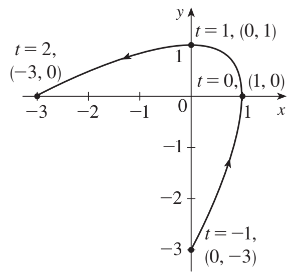
G | Answers to Odd-Numbered Exercises

CHAPTER 10

EXERCISES 10.1 ■ PAGE 668

1. $\left(2, \frac{1}{3}\right)$, $(0, 1)$, $(0, 3)$, $(2, 9)$, $(6, 27)$

3.



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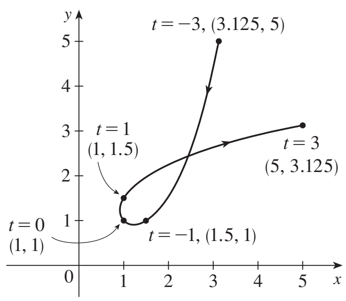
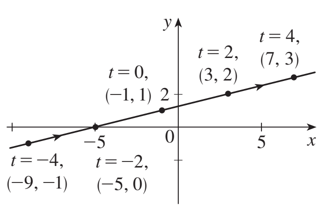
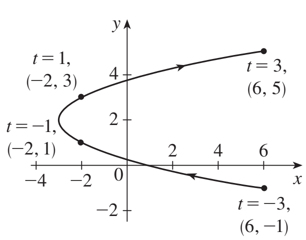


7. (a)



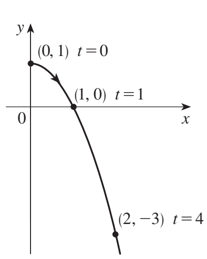
(b) $y = \frac{1}{4}x + \frac{5}{4}$

9. (a)



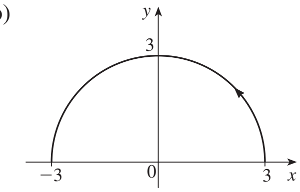
(b) $x = y^2 - 4y + 1$, $-1 \leqslant y \leqslant 5$

11. (a)

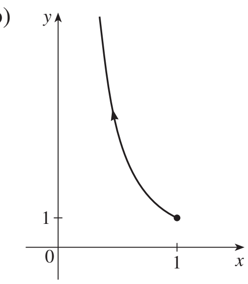


(b) $y = 1 - x^2$, $x \geqslant 0$

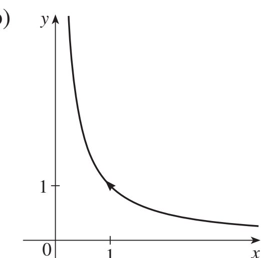
13. (a) $x^2 + y^2 = 9$, $y \geqslant 0$ (b)



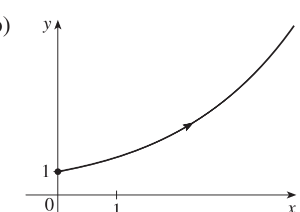
15. (a) $y = 1/x^2$, $0 < x \leqslant 1$ (b)



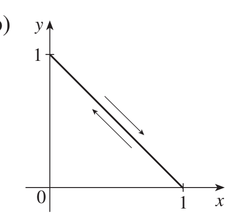
17. (a) $y = 1/x$, $x > 0$ (b)



19. (a) $y = e^{x/2}$, $x \geqslant 0$ (b)



21. (a) $x + y = 1$, $0 \leqslant x \leqslant 1$ (b)



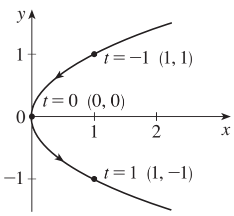
23. 2π seconds; clockwise

25. Moves counterclockwise along the circle $(x - 5)^2 + (y - 3)^2 = 4$ from $(3, 3)$ to $(7, 3)$

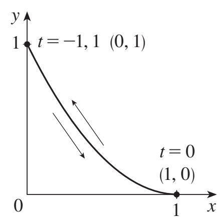
27. Moves 3 times clockwise around the ellipse $(x^2/25) + (y^2/4) = 1$, starting and ending at $(0, -2)$

29. It is contained in the rectangle described by $1 \leqslant x \leqslant 4$ and $2 \leqslant y \leqslant 3$.

31.



33.



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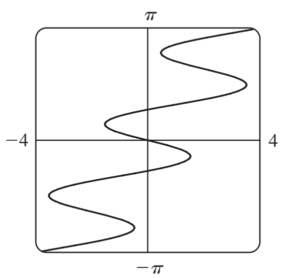
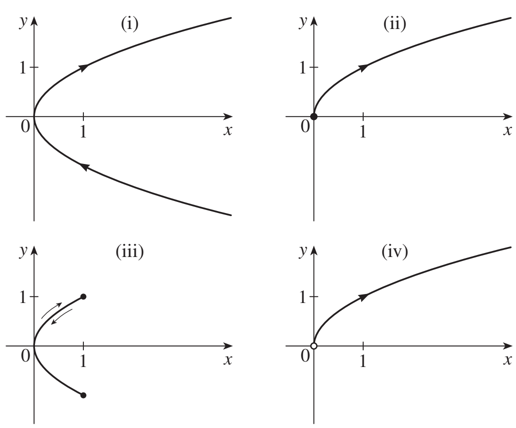


37. (b) $x = -2 + 5t$, $y = 7 - 8t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

39. One option: $x = 5 \sin(t/2)$, $y = 5 \cos(t/2)$ where t is time in seconds

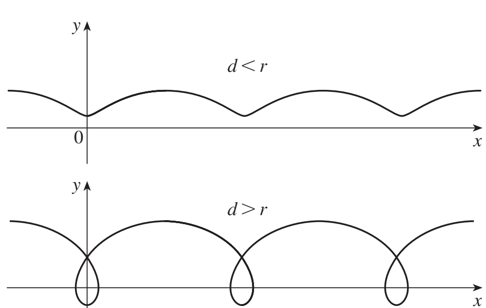
41. (a) $x = 2 \cos t$, $y = 1 - 2 \sin t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$
(b) $x = 2 \cos t$, $y = 1 + 2 \sin t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 6\pi$
(c) $x = 2 \cos t$, $y = 1 + 2 \sin t$, $\pi/2 \leqslant t \leqslant 3\pi/2$

45. (b)



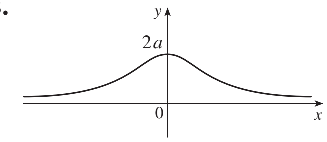
47. The curve $y = x^{2/3}$ is generated in (a). In (b), only the portion with $x \geqslant 0$ is generated, and in (c) we get only the portion with $x > 0$.

49.



51. $x = a \cos \theta$, $y = b \sin \theta$; $(x^2/a^2) + (y^2/b^2) = 1$, ellipse

53.

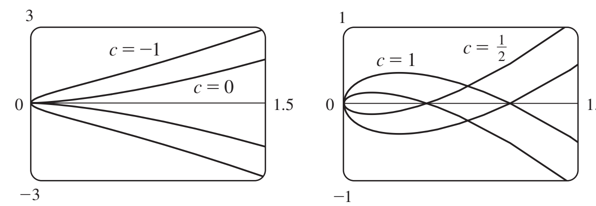


55. (a) No (b) Yes; (6, 11) when $t = 1$

57. (a) (0, 0); $t = 1$, $t = -1$

(b) $(-1, -1)$; $t = \dfrac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$, $t = \dfrac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}$

59. For $c = 0$, there is a cusp; for $c > 0$, there is a loop whose size increases as c increases.



61. The curves roughly follow the line $y = x$ and start having loops when a is between 1.4 and 1.6 (more precisely, when $a > \sqrt{2}$); the loops increase in size as a increases.

63. As n increases, the number of oscillations increases; a and b determine the width and height.

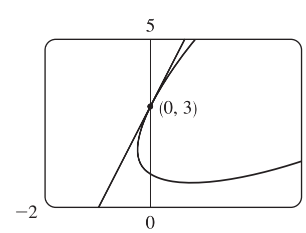
EXERCISES 10.2 ■ PAGE 679

1. $6t^2 + 3$, $4 - 10t$, $\dfrac{4 - 10t}{6t^2 + 3}$

3. $e^t(t + 1)$, $1 + \cos t$, $\dfrac{1 + \cos t}{e^t(t + 1)}$ **5.** $\ln 2 - \frac{1}{4}$

7. $y = -x$ **9.** $y = \frac{1}{2}x + \frac{3}{2}$ **11.** $y = -x + \frac{5}{4}$

13. $y = 3x + 3$



15. $\dfrac{2t + 1}{2t}$, $-\dfrac{1}{4t^3}$, $t < 0$

17. $e^{-2t}(1 - t)$, $e^{-3t}(2t - 3)$, $t > \frac{3}{2}$

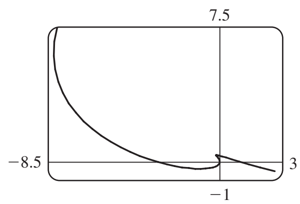
19. $\dfrac{t + 1}{t - 1}$, $\dfrac{-2t}{(t - 1)^3}$, $0 < t < 1$

21. Horizontal at $(0, -3)$, vertical at $(\pm 2, -2)$

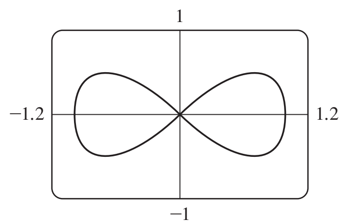
23. Horizontal at $\left(\frac{1}{2}, -1\right)$ and $\left(-\frac{1}{2}, 1\right)$, no vertical

25. $(0.6, 2)$; $\left(5 \cdot 6^{-6/5}, e^{6^{-1/5}}\right)$

27.



29. $y = x, y = -x$



31. (a) $d \sin\theta/(r - d\cos\theta)$ **33.** $(4, 0)$ **35.** $\frac{24}{5}$

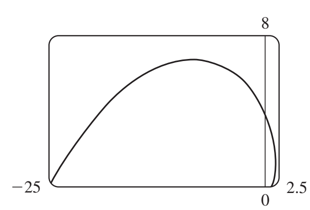
37. $\frac{4}{3}$ **39.** πab **41.** $2\pi r^2 + \pi d^2$

43. $\int_{-1}^{3} \sqrt{(6t - 3t^2)^2 + (2t - 2)^2}\, dt \approx 15.2092$

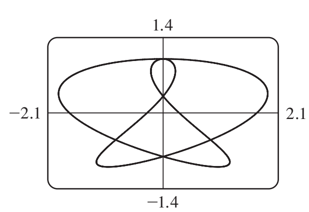
45. $\int_0^{4\pi} \sqrt{5 - 4\cos t}\, dt \approx 26.7298$ **47.** $\frac{2}{3}\left(10\sqrt{10} - 1\right)$

49. $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2} + \frac{1}{2}\ln\left(1 + \sqrt{2}\right)$

51. $\sqrt{2}\,(e^{\pi} - 1)$



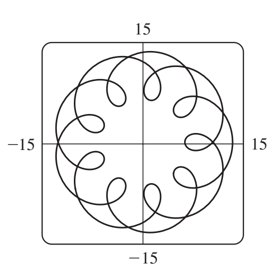
53. 16.7102



55. $6\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}$ **57.** $\sqrt{293} \approx 17.12$ m/s

59. $\sqrt{5}\,e \approx 6.08$ m/s **61.** (a) v_0 m/s (b) $v_0 \cos\alpha$ m/s

63. (a) $t \in [0, 4\pi]$



(b) 294

65. $\frac{3}{8}\pi a^2$ **67.** $\int_0^{\pi/2} 2\pi t \cos t \sqrt{t^2 + 1}\, dt \approx 4.7394$

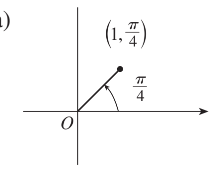
69. $\int_0^1 2\pi e^{-t}\sqrt{1 + 2e^t + e^{2t} + e^{-2t}}\, dt \approx 10.6705$

71. $\frac{2}{1215}\pi\left(247\sqrt{13} + 64\right)$ **73.** $\frac{6}{5}\pi a^2$

75. $\frac{24}{5}\pi\left(949\sqrt{26} + 1\right)$ **81.** $\frac{1}{4}$

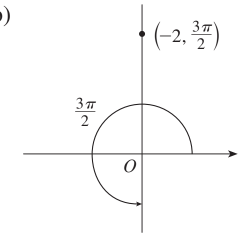
EXERCISES 10.3 ■ PAGE 692

1. (a)



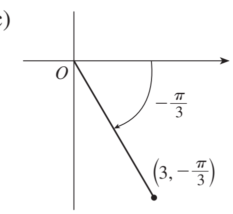
$(1, 9\pi/4), (-1, 5\pi/4)$

(b)



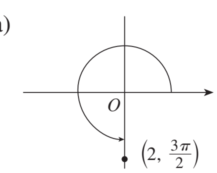
$(2, \pi/2), (-2, 7\pi/2)$

(c)



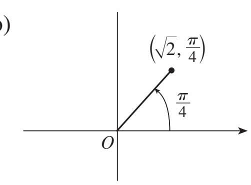
$(3, 5\pi/3), (-3, 2\pi/3)$

3. (a)



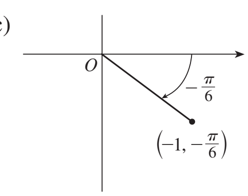
$(0, -2)$

(b)



$(1, 1)$

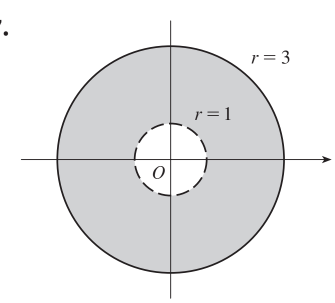
(c)



$\left(-\sqrt{3}/2, 1/2\right)$

5. (a) (i) $\left(4\sqrt{2}, 3\pi/4\right)$ (ii) $\left(-4\sqrt{2}, 7\pi/4\right)$
(b) (i) $(6, \pi/3)$ (ii) $(-6, 4\pi/3)$

7.



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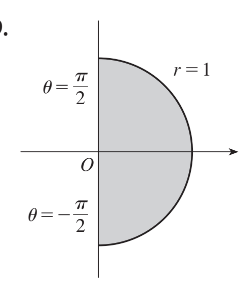
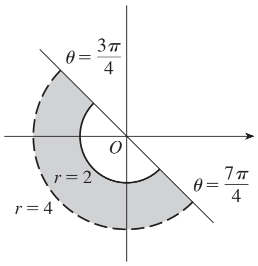
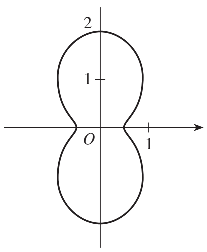


11.



13. $2\sqrt{7}$ **15.** $x^2 + y^2 = 5$; circle, center O, radius $\sqrt{5}$
17. $x^2 + y^2 = 5x$; circle, center $(5/2, 0)$, radius $5/2$
19. $x^2 - y^2 = 1$; hyperbola, center O, foci on x-axis
21. $r = \sqrt{7}$ **23.** $\theta = \pi/3$ **25.** $r = 4 \sin \theta$
27. (a) $\theta = \pi/6$ (b) $x = 3$

29.



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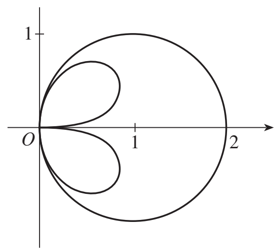

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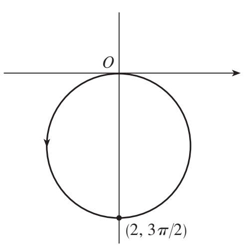

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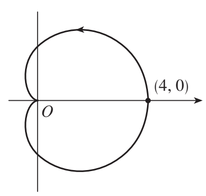

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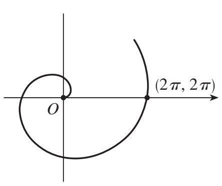

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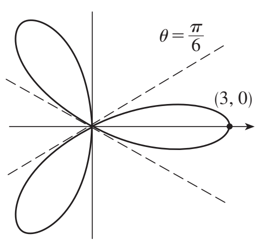

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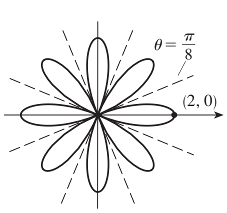

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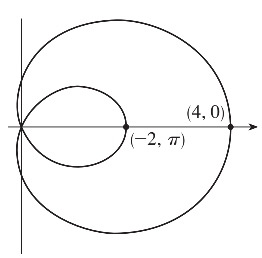

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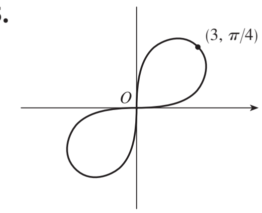

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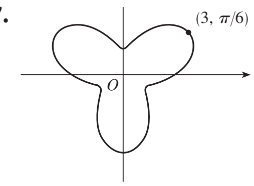

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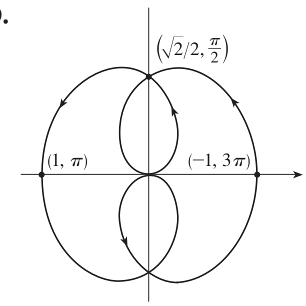

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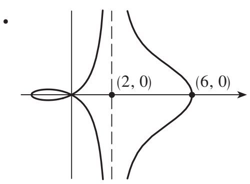

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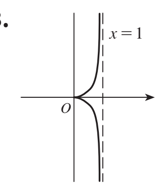
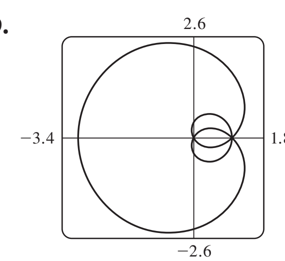
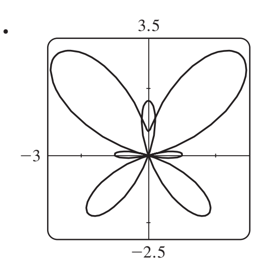


55. (a) For $c < -1$, the inner loop begins at $\theta = \sin^{-1}(-1/c)$ and ends at $\theta = \pi - \sin^{-1}(-1/c)$; for $c > 1$, it begins at $\theta = \pi + \sin^{-1}(1/c)$ and ends at $\theta = 2\pi - \sin^{-1}(1/c)$.
57. Center $(b/2, a/2)$, radius $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}/2$

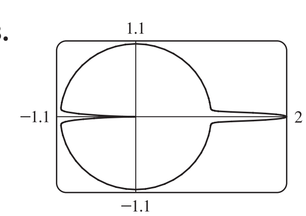
59.



61.



63.

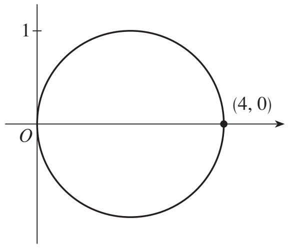


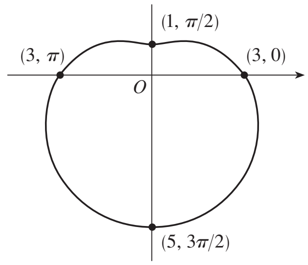
65. By counterclockwise rotation through angle $\pi/6$, $\pi/3$, or α about the origin
67. For $c = 0$, the curve is a circle. As c increases, the left side gets flatter, then has a dimple for $0.5 < c < 1$, a cusp for $c = 1$, and a loop for $c > 1$.

EXERCISES 10.4 ■ PAGE 699

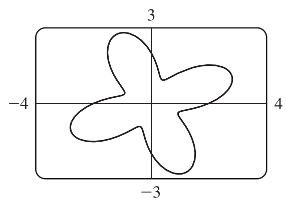
1. $\pi^2/8$ **3.** $\pi/2$ **5.** $\frac{1}{2}$ **7.** $\frac{41}{4}\pi$

9. 4π **11.** 11π

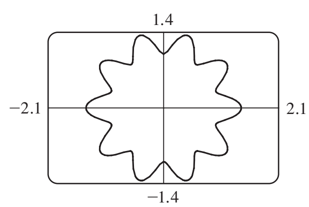




13. $\frac{9}{2}\pi$



15. $\frac{3}{2}\pi$



17. $\frac{4}{3}\pi$ **19.** $\frac{1}{16}\pi$ **21.** $\pi - \frac{3}{2}\sqrt{3}$ **23.** $\frac{4}{3}\pi + 2\sqrt{3}$

25. $4\sqrt{3} - \frac{4}{3}\pi$ **27.** π **29.** $\frac{9}{8}\pi - \frac{9}{4}$ **31.** $\frac{1}{2}\pi - 1$

33. $-\sqrt{3} + 2 + \frac{1}{3}\pi$ **35.** $\frac{1}{4}(\pi + 3\sqrt{3})$

37. $(\frac{1}{2}, \pi/6)$, $(\frac{1}{2}, 5\pi/6)$, and the pole

39. $(1, \theta)$ where $\theta = \pi/12, 5\pi/12, 13\pi/12, 17\pi/12$ and $(-1, \theta)$ where $\theta = 7\pi/12, 11\pi/12, 19\pi/12, 23\pi/12$

41. $(1, \pi/6)$, $(1, 5\pi/6)$, $(1, 7\pi/6)$, $(1, 11\pi/6)$

43. $21\pi/2$ **45.** $\pi/8$

47. Intersection at $\theta \approx 0.89, 2.25$; area ≈ 3.46

49. 2π **51.** $\frac{8}{3}[(\pi^2 + 1)^{3/2} - 1]$ **53.** $6\sqrt{2} + 12$

55. $\frac{16}{3}$ **57.** $\int_{\pi}^{4\pi} \sqrt{\cos^2(\theta/5) + \frac{1}{25}\sin^2(\theta/5)}\, d\theta$

59. 2.4221 **61.** 8.0091 **63.** $1/\sqrt{3}$

65. $-\pi$ **67.** 1

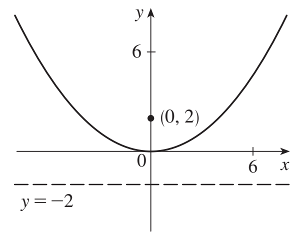
69. Horizontal at $(0, 0)$ [the pole], $(1, \pi/2)$; vertical at $(1/\sqrt{2}, \pi/4)$, $(1/\sqrt{2}, 3\pi/4)$

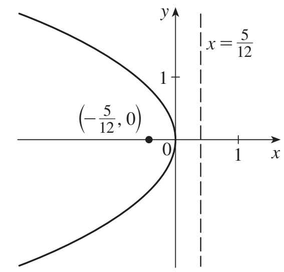
71. Horizontal at $(\frac{3}{2}, \pi/3)$, $(0, \pi)$ [the pole], and $(\frac{3}{2}, 5\pi/3)$; vertical at $(2, 0)$, $(\frac{1}{2}, 2\pi/3)$, $(\frac{1}{2}, 4\pi/3)$

75. (b) $2\pi(2 - \sqrt{2})$

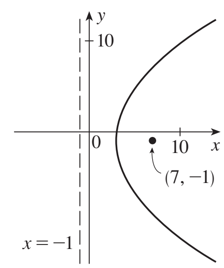
EXERCISES 10.5 ■ PAGE 708

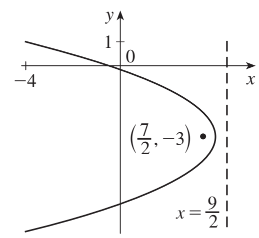
1. $(0, 0)$, $(0, 2)$, $y = -2$ **3.** $(0, 0)$, $(-\frac{5}{12}, 0)$, $x = \frac{5}{12}$





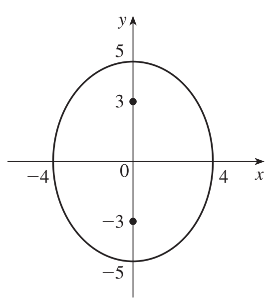
5. $(3, -1)$, $(7, -1)$, $x = -1$ **7.** $(4, -3)$, $(\frac{7}{2}, -3)$, $x = \frac{9}{2}$

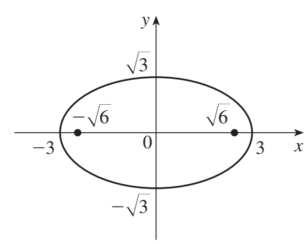




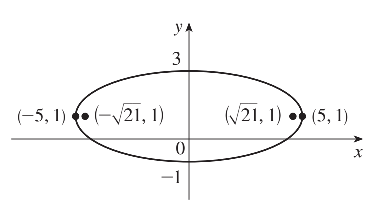
9. $x = -y^2$, focus $(-\frac{1}{4}, 0)$, directrix $x = \frac{1}{4}$

11. $(0, \pm 5)$, $(0, \pm 3)$ **13.** $(\pm 3, 0)$, $(\pm\sqrt{6}, 0)$

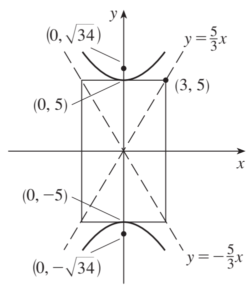




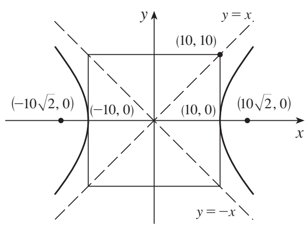
15. $(\pm 5, 1)$, $(\pm\sqrt{21}, 1)$ **17.** $\dfrac{x^2}{4} + \dfrac{y^2}{9} = 1$, foci $(0, \pm\sqrt{5})$



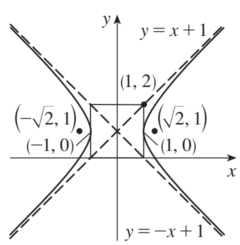
19. $(0, \pm 5)$, $(0, \pm\sqrt{34})$, $y = \pm\frac{5}{3}x$



21. $(\pm 10, 0)$, $(\pm 10\sqrt{2}, 0)$, $y = \pm x$



23. $(\pm 1, 1)$, $(\pm\sqrt{2}, 1)$, $y - 1 = \pm x$



25. $\dfrac{x^2}{9} - \dfrac{y^2}{9} = 1$; $(\pm 3\sqrt{2}, 0)$, $y = \pm x$

27. Hyperbola, $(\pm 1, 0)$, $(\pm\sqrt{5}, 0)$

29. Ellipse, $(\pm\sqrt{2}, 1)$, $(\pm 1, 1)$

31. Parabola, $(1, -2)$, $\left(1, -\frac{11}{6}\right)$

33. $y^2 = 4x$ **35.** $y^2 = -12(x + 1)$

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

39. $\dfrac{x^2}{25} + \dfrac{y^2}{21} = 1$ **41.** $\dfrac{x^2}{12} + \dfrac{(y - 4)^2}{16} = 1$

43. $\dfrac{(x + 1)^2}{12} + \dfrac{(y - 4)^2}{16} = 1$ **45.** $\dfrac{x^2}{9} - \dfrac{y^2}{16} = 1$

47. $\dfrac{(y - 1)^2}{25} - \dfrac{(x + 3)^2}{39} = 1$ **49.** $\dfrac{x^2}{9} - \dfrac{y^2}{36} = 1$

51. $\dfrac{x^2}{3{,}763{,}600} + \dfrac{y^2}{3{,}753{,}196} = 1$

53. (a) $\dfrac{1.30x^2}{10{,}000} + \dfrac{5.83y^2}{100{,}000} = 1$ (b) ≈ 399 km

57. (a) Ellipse (b) Hyperbola (c) No curve

61. 15.9

63. $\dfrac{b^2c}{a} + ab\ln\left(\dfrac{a}{b + c}\right)$ where $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$

65. $(0, 4/\pi)$ **69.** $\dfrac{x^2}{16} + \dfrac{y^2}{15} = 1$

EXERCISES 10.6 ■ PAGE 717

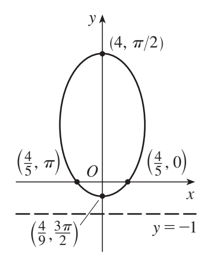
1. $r = \dfrac{2}{1 + \cos\theta}$ **3.** $r = \dfrac{8}{1 - 2\sin\theta}$

5. $r = \dfrac{10}{3 - 2\cos\theta}$ **7.** $r = \dfrac{6}{1 + \sin\theta}$

9. VI **11.** II **13.** IV

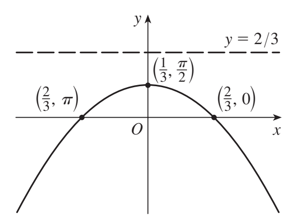
15. (a) $\frac{4}{5}$ (b) Ellipse (c) $y = -1$

(d)



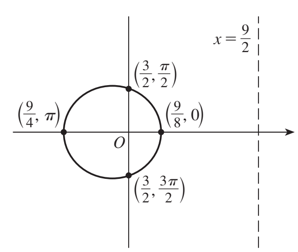
17. (a) 1 (b) Parabola (c) $y = \frac{2}{3}$

(d)



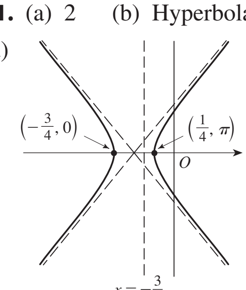
19. (a) $\frac{1}{3}$ (b) Ellipse (c) $x = \frac{9}{2}$

(d)

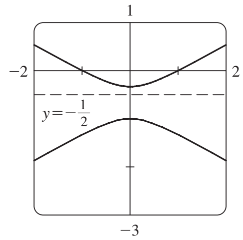


21. (a) 2 (b) Hyperbola (c) $x = -\frac{3}{8}$

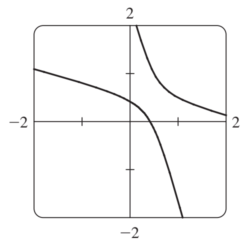
(d)



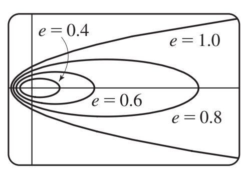
23. (a) $2, y = -\frac{1}{2}$



(b) $r = \dfrac{1}{1 - 2\sin(\theta - 3\pi/4)}$



25. The ellipse is nearly circular when e is close to 0 and becomes more elongated as $e \to 1^-$. At $e = 1$, the curve becomes a parabola.



31. $r = \dfrac{2.26 \times 10^8}{1 + 0.093\cos\theta}$ **33.** $r = \dfrac{1.07}{1 + 0.97\cos\theta}$; 35.64 AU

35. 7.0×10^7 km **37.** 3.6×10^8 km

CHAPTER 10 REVIEW ■ PAGE 719

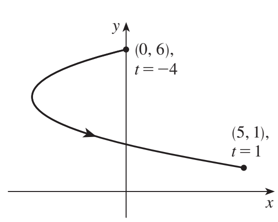
True-False Quiz

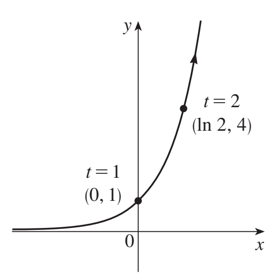
1. False **3.** False **5.** False **7.** True **9.** True

11. True

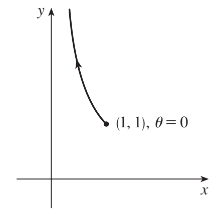
Exercises

1. $x = y^2 - 8y + 12,\ 1 \leqslant y \leqslant 6$ **3.** $y = e^{2x}$



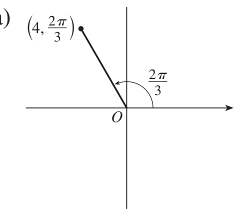


5. $y = 1/x,\ 0 < x \leqslant 1$



7. $x = t, y = \sqrt{t}$; $x = t^4, y = t^2$; $x = \tan^2 t, y = \tan t, 0 \leqslant t < \pi/2$

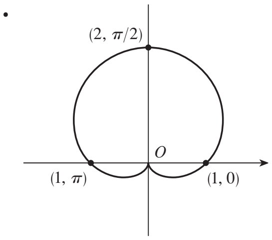
9. (a)



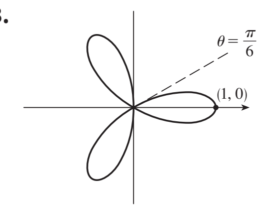
$\left(-2, 2\sqrt{3}\right)$

(b) $\left(3\sqrt{2}, 3\pi/4\right), \left(-3\sqrt{2}, 7\pi/4\right)$

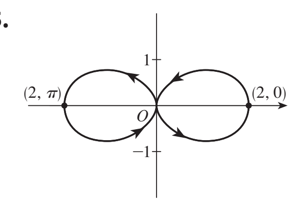
11.



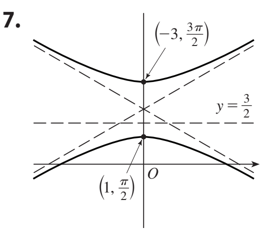
13.



15.

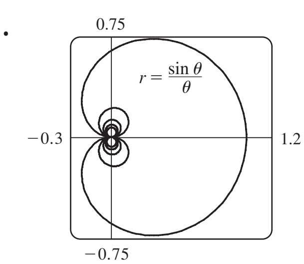


17.



19. $r = \dfrac{2}{\cos\theta + \sin\theta}$

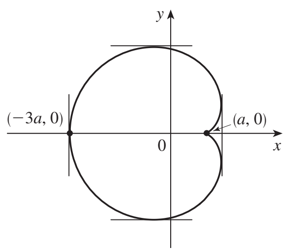
21.



23. 2 **25.** -1 **27.** $\dfrac{1 + \sin t}{1 + \cos t}, \dfrac{1 + \cos t + \sin t}{(1 + \cos t)^3}$

29. $\left(\frac{11}{8}, \frac{3}{4}\right)$

31. Vertical tangent at $\left(\frac{3}{2}a, \pm\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}\,a\right), (-3a, 0)$; horizontal tangent at $(a, 0), \left(-\frac{1}{2}a, \pm\frac{3}{2}\sqrt{3}\,a\right)$



33. 18 **35.** $(2, \pm\pi/3)$ **37.** $\frac{1}{2}(\pi - 1)$

39. $2\left(5\sqrt{5} - 1\right)$

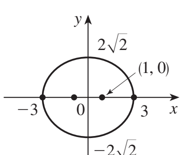
41. $\dfrac{2\sqrt{\pi^2 + 1} - \sqrt{4\pi^2 + 1}}{2\pi} + \ln\left(\dfrac{2\pi + \sqrt{4\pi^2 + 1}}{\pi + \sqrt{\pi^2 + 1}}\right)$

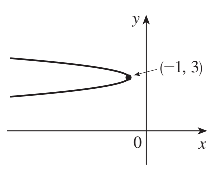
43. (a) $\sqrt{90} \approx 9.49$ m/s (b) $\frac{1}{24}\left(65\sqrt{65} - 1\right) \approx 21.79$ m/s

45. $471{,}295\pi/1024$

47. All curves have the vertical asymptote $x = 1$. For $c < -1$, the curve bulges to the right; at $c = -1$, the curve is the line $x = 1$; and for $-1 < c < 0$, it bulges to the left. At $c = 0$ there is a cusp at $(0, 0)$ and for $c > 0$, there is a loop.

49. $(\pm 1, 0), (\pm 3, 0)$ **51.** $\left(-\frac{25}{24}, 3\right), (-1, 3)$





53. $\dfrac{x^2}{25} + \dfrac{y^2}{9} = 1$ **55.** $\dfrac{y^2}{72/5} - \dfrac{x^2}{8/5} = 1$

57. $\dfrac{x^2}{25} + \dfrac{(8y - 399)^2}{160{,}801} = 1$ **59.** $r = \dfrac{4}{3 + \cos\theta}$

PROBLEMS PLUS ■ PAGE 722

1. $\frac{2}{3}\pi + 2 - 2\sqrt{3}$ **3.** $\left[-\frac{3}{4}\sqrt{3}, \frac{3}{4}\sqrt{3}\right] \times [-1, 2]$

CHAPTER 11

EXERCISES 11.1 ■ PAGE 735

Abbreviations: C, convergent; D, divergent

1. (a) A sequence is an ordered list of numbers. It can also be defined as a function whose domain is the set of positive integers.
(b) The terms a_n approach 8 as n becomes large.
(c) The terms a_n become large as n becomes large.

3. 0, 7, 26, 63, 124 **5.** 6, 11, 20, 37, 70 **7.** $1, -\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{9}, -\frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{25}$.

9. $-1, 1, -1, 1, -1$ **11.** $-1, \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{15}, -\frac{2}{45}$

13. 1, 3, 7, 15, 31 **15.** $2, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{5}, \frac{2}{7}, \frac{2}{9}$ **17.** $a_n = 1/(2n)$

19. $a_n = -3\left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)^{n-1}$ **21.** $a_n = (-1)^{n+1}\dfrac{n^2}{n + 1}$

23. 0.4286, 0.4615, 0.4737, 0.4800, 0.4839, 0.4865, 0.4884, 0.4898, 0.4909, 0.4918; yes; $\frac{1}{2}$

25. 0.5000, 1.2500, 0.8750, 1.0625, 0.9688, 1.0156, 0.9922, 1.0039, 0.9980, 1.0010; yes; 1 **27.** 0 **29.** 2

31. D **33.** 0 **35.** 1 **37.** 2 **39.** D

41. 0 **43.** 0 **45.** D **47.** 0 **49.** 0

51. 1 **53.** e^2 **55.** ln 2 **57.** $\pi/2$ **59.** D

61. D **63.** D **65.** $\pi/4$ **67.** D **69.** 0

71. (a) 1060, 1123.60, 1191.02, 1262.48, 1338.23 (b) D

73. (b) 5734 **75.** $-1 < r < 1$

77. Convergent by the Monotonic Sequence Theorem; $5 \leqslant L < 8$

79. Decreasing; yes **81.** Not monotonic; no

83. Increasing; yes

85. 2 **87.** $\frac{1}{2}\left(3 + \sqrt{5}\right)$ **89.** (b) $\frac{1}{2}\left(1 + \sqrt{5}\right)$

91. (a) 0 (b) 9, 11

EXERCISES 11.2 ■ PAGE 747

1. (a) A sequence is an ordered list of numbers whereas a series is the *sum* of a list of numbers.
(b) A series is convergent if the sequence of partial sums is a convergent sequence. A series is divergent if it is not convergent.

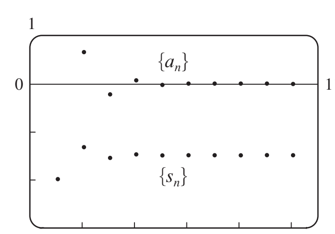
3. 2

5. 1, 1.125, 1.1620, 1.1777, 1.1857, 1.1903, 1.1932, 1.1952; C

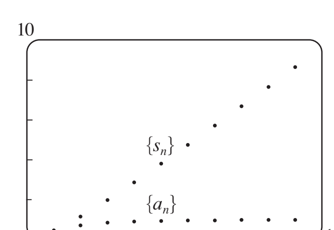
7. 0.8415, 1.7508, 1.8919, 1.1351, 0.1762, -0.1033, 0.5537, 1.5431; D

9. 0.5, 0.55, 0.5611, 0.5648, 0.5663, 0.5671, 0.5675, 0.5677; C

11. -2, -1.33333, -1.55556, -1.48148, -1.50617, -1.49794, -1.50069, -1.49977, -1.50008, -1.49997; convergent, sum $= -1.5$



13. 0.44721, 1.15432, 1.98637, 2.88080, 3.80927, 4.75796, 5.71948, 6.68962, 7.66581, 8.64639; divergent



15. (a) Yes (b) No **17.** $-\frac{3}{2}$ **19.** $\frac{11}{6}$

21. $e - 1$ **23.** D **25.** $\frac{25}{3}$ **27.** $\frac{400}{9}$ **29.** $\frac{1}{7}$

31. D **33.** D **35.** $\frac{2}{3}$ **37.** D **39.** 9

41. D **43.** $\dfrac{\sin 100}{1 - \sin 100} \approx -0.336$ **45.** D

47. D **49.** $e/(e - 1)$

51. (b) 1 (c) 2 (d) All rational numbers with a terminating decimal representation, except 0

53. $\frac{8}{9}$ **55.** $\frac{838}{333}$ **57.** 45,679/37,000

59. $-\dfrac{1}{5} < x < \dfrac{1}{5}$; $\dfrac{-5x}{1 + 5x}$

61. $-1 < x < 5$; $\dfrac{3}{5 - x}$

63. $x > 2$ or $x < -2$; $\dfrac{x}{x - 2}$ **65.** $x < 0$; $\dfrac{1}{1 - e^x}$

67. 1 **69.** $a_1 = 0$, $a_n = \dfrac{2}{n(n + 1)}$ for $n > 1$, sum $= 1$

71. (a) 125 mg; 131.25 mg
(b) $Q_{n+1} = 100 + 0.25Q_n$ (c) $133.\overline{3}$ mg

73. (a) 157.875 mg; $\frac{3000}{19}(1 - 0.05^n)$ (b) $\frac{3000}{19} \approx 157.895$ mg

75. (a) $S_n = \dfrac{D(1 - c^n)}{1 - c}$ (b) 5 **77.** $\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{3} - 1)$

83. $\dfrac{1}{n(n + 1)}$ **85.** The series is divergent.

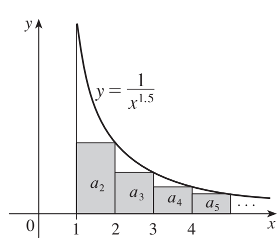
91. $\{s_n\}$ is bounded and increasing.

93. (a) $0, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{2}{9}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{7}{9}, \frac{8}{9}, 1$

95. (a) $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{5}{6}, \frac{23}{24}, \frac{119}{120}$; $\dfrac{(n + 1)! - 1}{(n + 1)!}$ (c) 1

EXERCISES 11.3 ■ PAGE 758

1. C



3. C **5.** D **7.** D **9.** C **11.** C **13.** C
15. D **17.** C **19.** C **21.** D **23.** D **25.** C
27. C **29.** f is neither positive nor decreasing.
31. $p > 1$ **33.** $p < -1$ **35.** $(1, \infty)$

37. (a) $\frac{9}{10}\pi^4$ (b) $\frac{1}{90}\pi^4 - \frac{17}{16}$
39. (a) 1.54977, error $\leqslant 0.1$ (b) 1.64522, error $\leqslant 0.005$
(c) 1.64522 compared to 1.64493 (d) $n > 1000$
41. 0.00145 **47.** $b < 1/e$

EXERCISES 11.4 ■ PAGE 764

1. (a) Nothing (b) C **5.** (c) **7.** C **9.** D
11. C **13.** D **15.** C **17.** C **19.** D
21. D **23.** C **25.** D **27.** C **29.** D
31. C **33.** C **35.** C **37.** D **39.** C
41. 0.1993, error $< 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$
43. 0.0739, error $< 6.4 \times 10^{-8}$
53. Yes **55.** (a) False (b) False (c) True

EXERCISES 11.5 ■ PAGE 772

Abbreviations: AC, absolutely convergent;
CC, conditionally convergent

1. (a) A series whose terms are alternately positive and negative (b) $0 < b_{n+1} \leqslant b_n$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = 0$, where $b_n = |a_n|$ (c) $|R_n| \leqslant b_{n+1}$

3. D **5.** C **7.** D **9.** C **11.** C **13.** D
15. C **17.** C **19.** C
21. (a) The series Σa_n is absolutely convergent if $\Sigma|a_n|$ converges. (b) The series Σa_n is conditionally convergent if Σa_n converges but $\Sigma|a_n|$ diverges. (c) It converges absolutely.
23. CC **25.** CC **27.** AC **29.** AC **31.** CC
33. CC **35.** -0.5507 **37.** 5 **39.** 5
41. -0.4597 **43.** -0.1050
45. An underestimate **47.** p is not a negative integer.

49. $\{b_n\}$ is not decreasing. **53.** (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n \ln n}$; $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n}$

EXERCISES 11.6 ■ PAGE 778

1. (a) D (b) C (c) May converge or diverge
3. AC **5.** D **7.** AC **9.** AC **11.** D
13. AC **15.** AC **17.** AC **19.** D **21.** AC
23. AC **25.** D **27.** CC **29.** AC **31.** D
33. AC **35.** D **37.** AC **39.** (a) and (d)

43. (a) $\frac{661}{960} \approx 0.68854$, error < 0.00521
(b) $n \geqslant 11$, 0.693109

EXERCISES 11.7 ■ PAGE 781

1. (a) C (b) C **3.** (a) C (b) D
5. (a) D (b) C **7.** (a) C (b) D
9. D **11.** CC **13.** D **15.** D **17.** C **19.** C
21. C **23.** C **25.** C **27.** C **29.** D **31.** D
33. D **35.** C **37.** C **39.** C **41.** D
43. C **45.** D **47.** C

EXERCISES 11.8 ■ PAGE 786

1. A series of the form $\Sigma_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x - a)^n$, where x is a variable and a and the c_n's are constants
3. 1, $[-1, 1)$ **5.** 1, $(-1, 1)$ **7.** 5, $(-5, 5)$

9. $3, [-3, 3)$ **11.** $1, [-1, 1)$ **13.** $\infty, (-\infty, \infty)$

15. $4, [-4, 4]$ **17.** $\frac{1}{4}, \left(-\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}\right]$ **19.** $2, [-2, 2)$

21. $1, [1, 3]$ **23.** $2, [-4, 0)$ **25.** $\infty, (-\infty, \infty)$

27. $1, [-1, 1)$ **29.** $b, (a - b, a + b)$ **31.** $0, \{\frac{1}{2}\}$

33. $\frac{1}{5}, \left[\frac{3}{5}, 1\right]$ **35.** $\infty, (-\infty, \infty)$ **37.** (a) Yes (b) No

39. k^k **41.** No **45.** 2

EXERCISES 11.9 ■ PAGE 793

1. 10 **3.** $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^n, (-1, 1)$ **5.** $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{2n}, (-1, 1)$

7. $2\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^{n+1}} x^n, (-3, 3)$ **9.** $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{4n+2}}{2^{4n+4}}, (-2, 2)$

11. $-\frac{1}{2} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 3x^n}{2^{n+1}}, (-2, 2)$

13. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-1 - \frac{1}{3^{n+1}}\right) x^n, (-1, 1)$

15. (a) $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n (n + 1)x^n, R = 1$

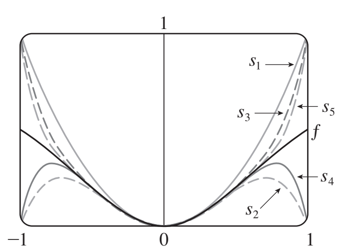
(b) $\frac{1}{2}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n (n + 2)(n + 1)x^n, R = 1$

(c) $\frac{1}{2}\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (-1)^n n(n - 1)x^n, R = 1$

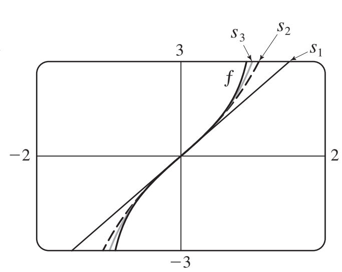
17. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n 4^n (n + 1)x^{n+1}, R = \frac{1}{4}$

19. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (2n + 1)x^n, R = 1$ **21.** $\ln 5 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n5^n}, R = 5$

23. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{2n+2}, R = 1$



25. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2x^{2n+1}}{2n + 1}, R = 1$



27. $C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^{8n+2}}{8n + 2}, R = 1$

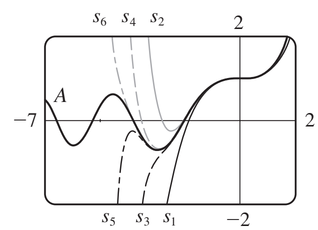
29. $C + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^{n+3}}{n(n + 3)}, R = 1$

31. 0.044522 **33.** 0.000395 **35.** 0.19740

39. (b) 0.920

41. (a) $(-\infty, \infty)$

(b), (c)



43. $(-1, 1), f(x) = (1 + 2x)/(1 - x^2)$

45. $[-1, 1], [-1, 1), (-1, 1)$ **47.** $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2 x^n, R = 1$

EXERCISES 11.10 ■ PAGE 808

1. $b_8 = f^{(8)}(5)/8!$ **3.** $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n + 1)x^n, R = 1$

5. $x + x^2 + \frac{1}{2}x^3 + \frac{1}{6}x^4$

7. $2 + \frac{1}{12}(x - 8) - \frac{1}{288}(x - 8)^2 + \frac{5}{20{,}736}(x - 8)^3$

9. $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{6}\right) - \frac{1}{4}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{6}\right)^2 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{12}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{6}\right)^3$

11. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n + 1)x^n, R = 1$ **13.** $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}, R = \infty$

15. $3 - 3x^2 + 2x^4, R = \infty$ **17.** $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\ln 2)^n}{n!} x^n, R = \infty$

19. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n + 1)!}, R = \infty$

21. $50 + 105(x - 2) + 92(x - 2)^2 + 42(x - 2)^3 + 10(x - 2)^4 + (x - 2)^5, R = \infty$

23. $\ln 2 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n2^n}(x - 2)^n, R = 2$

25. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^n e^6}{n!}(x - 3)^n, R = \infty$

27. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{(2n + 1)!}(x - \pi)^{2n+1}, R = \infty$

29. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{2^{2n+1}}{(2n + 1)!}(x - \pi)^{2n+1}, R = \infty$

35. $1 - \frac{1}{4}x - \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{3 \cdot 7 \cdot \cdots \cdot (4n - 5)}{4^n \cdot n!} x^n, R = 1$

37. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{(n + 1)(n + 2)}{2^{n+4}} x^n, R = 2$

39. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{2n + 1} x^{4n+2}, R = 1$

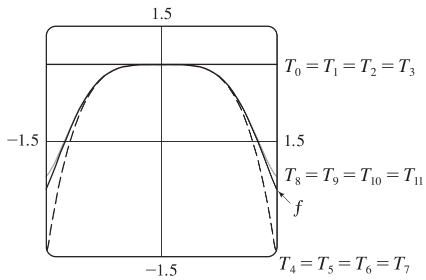
41. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{2^{2n}}{(2n)!} x^{2n+1}, R = \infty$

43. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{2^{2n}(2n)!} x^{4n+1}$, $R = \infty$

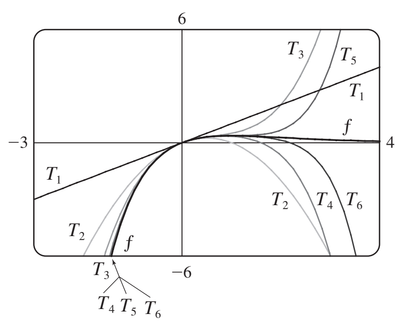
45. $\displaystyle\frac{1}{2}x + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n-1)}{n!\, 2^{3n+1}} x^{2n+1}$, $R = 2$

47. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{2^{2n-1}}{(2n)!} x^{2n}$, $R = \infty$

51. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{(2n)!} x^{4n}$, $R = \infty$



53. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} x^n$, $R = \infty$



55. 0.99619

57. (a) $\displaystyle 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n-1)}{2^n n!} x^{2n}$

(b) $\displaystyle x + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n-1)}{(2n+1)2^n n!} x^{2n+1}$

59. $\displaystyle C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{\frac{1}{2}}{n} \frac{x^{3n+1}}{3n+1}$, $R = 1$

61. $\displaystyle C + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{2n(2n)!} x^{2n}$, $R = \infty$

63. 0.0059 **65.** 0.40102 **67.** $\frac{1}{2}$ **69.** $\frac{1}{120}$ **71.** $\frac{3}{5}$

73. $1 - \frac{3}{2}x^2 + \frac{25}{24}x^4$ **75.** $1 + \frac{1}{6}x^2 + \frac{7}{360}x^4$

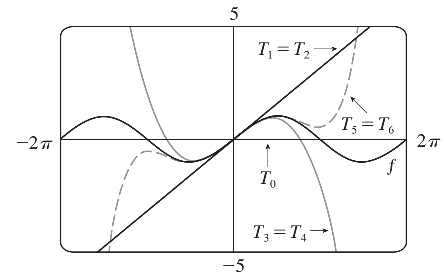
77. $x - \frac{2}{3}x^4 + \frac{23}{45}x^6$ **79.** e^{-x^4} **81.** $\tan^{-1}(x/2)$

83. $1/e$ **85.** $\ln \frac{8}{5}$ **87.** $1/\sqrt{2}$ **89.** $e^3 - 1$

93. $\dfrac{203!}{101!}$

EXERCISES 11.11 ■ PAGE 818

1. (a) $T_0(x) = 0$, $T_1(x) = T_2(x) = x$, $T_3(x) = T_4(x) = x - \frac{1}{6}x^3$, $T_5(x) = x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{120}x^5$

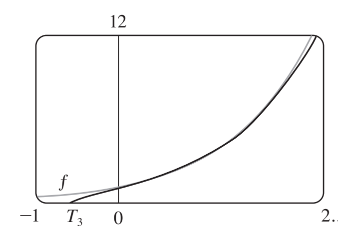


(b)

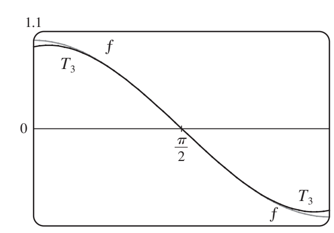
x	f	T_0	$T_1 = T_2$	$T_3 = T_4$	T_5
$\pi/4$	0.7071	0	0.7854	0.7047	0.7071
$\pi/2$	1	0	1.5708	0.9248	1.0045
π	0	0	3.1416	−2.0261	0.5240

(c) As n increases, $T_n(x)$ is a good approximation to $f(x)$ on a larger and larger interval.

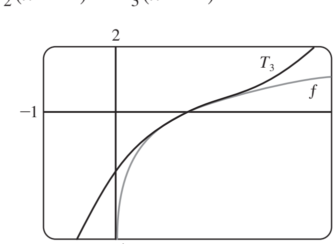
3. $e + e(x-1) + \frac{1}{2}e(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{6}e(x-1)^3$



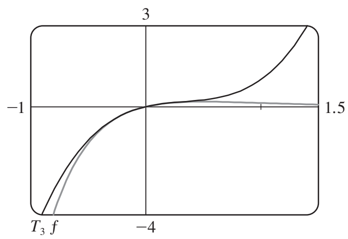
5. $\displaystyle -\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{6}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^3$



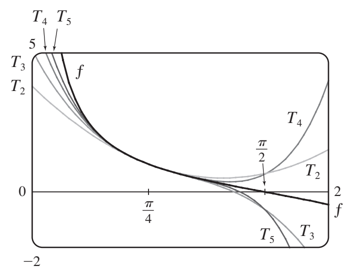
7. $(x-1) - \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{3}(x-1)^3$



9. $x - 2x^2 + 2x^3$



11. $T_5(x) = 1 - 2\left(x - \dfrac{\pi}{4}\right) + 2\left(x - \dfrac{\pi}{4}\right)^2 - \dfrac{8}{3}\left(x - \dfrac{\pi}{4}\right)^3 + \dfrac{10}{3}\left(x - \dfrac{\pi}{4}\right)^4 - \dfrac{64}{15}\left(x - \dfrac{\pi}{4}\right)^5$



13. (a) $1 - (x - 1) + (x - 1)^2$ (b) 0.112 453

15. (a) $1 + \frac{2}{3}(x - 1) - \frac{1}{9}(x - 1)^2 + \frac{4}{81}(x - 1)^3$
(b) 0.000 097

17. (a) $1 + \frac{1}{2}x^2$ (b) 0.001 447

19. (a) $1 + x^2$ (b) 0.000 053

21. (a) $x^2 - \frac{1}{6}x^4$ (b) 0.041 667

23. 0.17365 **25.** Four **27.** $-1.037 < x < 1.037$

29. $-0.86 < x < 0.86$ **31.** 21 m, no

37. (c) Corrections differ by about 8×10^{-9} km.

CHAPTER 11 REVIEW ■ PAGE 822

True-False Quiz

1. False **3.** True **5.** False **7.** False **9.** False
11. True **13.** True **15.** False **17.** True
19. True **21.** True

Exercises

1. $\frac{1}{2}$ **3.** D **5.** 0 **7.** e^{12} **9.** 2 **11.** C
13. C **15.** D **17.** C **19.** C **21.** C **23.** CC
25. AC **27.** $\frac{1}{11}$ **29.** $\pi/4$ **31.** e^{-e} **35.** 0.9721
37. 0.189 762 24, error $< 6.4 \times 10^{-7}$
41. 4, $[-6, 2)$ **43.** 0.5, $[2.5, 3.5)$

45. $\dfrac{1}{2}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^n\left[\dfrac{1}{(2n)!}\left(x - \dfrac{\pi}{6}\right)^{2n} + \dfrac{\sqrt{3}}{(2n+1)!}\left(x - \dfrac{\pi}{6}\right)^{2n+1}\right]$

47. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^n x^{n+2}$, $R = 1$ **49.** $\ln 4 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\dfrac{x^n}{n4^n}$, $R = 4$

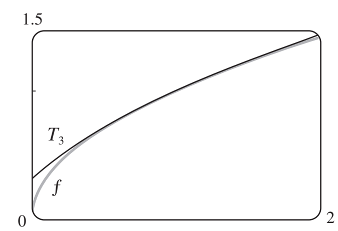
51. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^n\dfrac{x^{8n+4}}{(2n+1)!}$, $R = \infty$

53. $\dfrac{1}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\dfrac{1 \cdot 5 \cdot 9 \cdot \cdots \cdot (4n-3)}{n!\,2^{6n+1}}x^n$, $R = 16$

55. $C + \ln|x| + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\dfrac{x^n}{n \cdot n!}$

57. (a) $1 + \frac{1}{2}(x - 1) - \frac{1}{8}(x - 1)^2 + \frac{1}{16}(x - 1)^3$

(b)



(c) 0.000 006

59. $-\frac{1}{6}$

PROBLEMS PLUS ■ PAGE 825

1. (b) 0 if $x = 0$, $(1/x) - \cot x$ if $x \neq k\pi$, k an integer

3. (a) $s_n = 3 \cdot 4^n$, $l_n = 1/3^n$, $p_n = 4^n/3^{n-1}$ (c) $\frac{2}{5}\sqrt{3}$

7. $\dfrac{3\pi}{4}$ **9.** $(-1, 1)$, $\dfrac{x^3 + 4x^2 + x}{(1 - x)^4}$ **11.** $\ln\frac{1}{2}$

15. (a) $\frac{250}{101}\pi(e^{-(n-1)\pi/5} - e^{-n\pi/5})$ (b) $\frac{250}{101}\pi$

17. $\dfrac{\pi}{2\sqrt{3}} - 1$

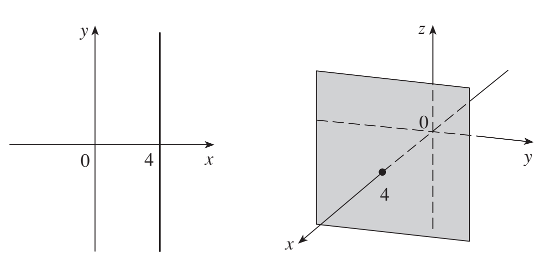
19. $-\left(\dfrac{\pi}{2} - \pi k\right)^2$, where k is a positive integer

CHAPTER 12

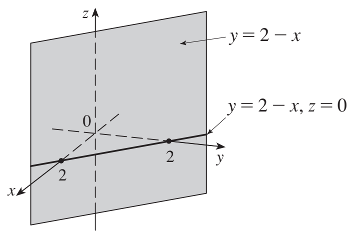
EXERCISES 12.1 ■ PAGE 835

1. $(4, 0, -3)$ **3.** C; A

5. A line parallel to the y-axis and 4 units to the right of it; a vertical plane parallel to the yz-plane and 4 units in front of it.



7. A vertical plane that intersects the xy-plane in the line $y = 2 - x$, $z = 0$



9. 6

11. $|PQ| = 6$, $|QR| = 2\sqrt{10}$, $|RP| = 6$; isosceles triangle

13. (a) No (b) Yes

15. $(x + 3)^2 + (y - 2)^2 + (z - 5)^2 = 16$; $(y - 2)^2 + (z - 5)^2 = 7$, $x = 0$ (a circle)

17. $(x - 3)^2 + (y - 8)^2 + (z - 1)^2 = 30$

19. $(-4, 0, 1)$, 5 **21.** $\left(\frac{1}{2}, -1, 0\right)$, $\sqrt{3}/2$

25. (a) $(x + 1)^2 + (y - 4)^2 + (z - 5)^2 = 25$
(b) $(x + 1)^2 + (y - 4)^2 + (z - 5)^2 = 1$
(c) $(x + 1)^2 + (y - 4)^2 + (z - 5)^2 = 16$

27. A horizontal plane 2 units below the xy-plane

29. A half-space consisting of all points on or to the right of the plane $y = 1$

31. All points on or between the vertical planes $x = -1$ and $x = 2$

33. All points on a circle with radius 2 and center on the z-axis that is contained in the plane $z = -1$

35. All points on or inside a circular cylinder of radius 5 with axis the x-axis

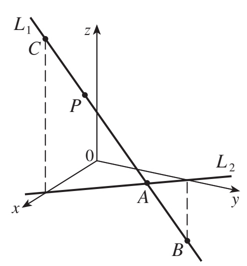
37. All points on a sphere with radius 2 and center (0, 0, 0)

39. All points on or between spheres with radii 1 and $\sqrt{5}$ and centers (0, 0, 0)

41. All points on or inside a cube with edges along the coordinate axes and opposite vertices at the origin and (3, 3, 3)

43. $0 < x < 5$ **45.** $r^2 < x^2 + y^2 + z^2 < R^2$

47. (a) (2, 1, 4) (b)



49. $14x - 6y - 10z = 9$; a plane perpendicular to AB

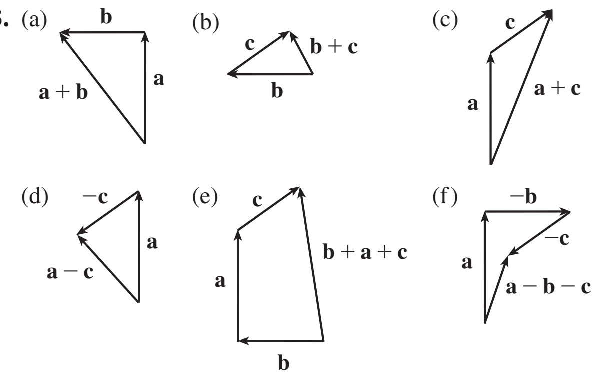
51. $2\sqrt{3} - 3$

EXERCISES 12.2 ■ PAGE 843

1. (a) Scalar (b) Vector (c) Vector (d) Scalar

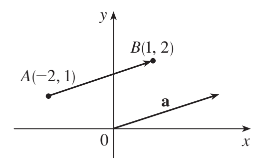
3. $\overrightarrow{AB} = \overrightarrow{DC}$, $\overrightarrow{DA} = \overrightarrow{CB}$, $\overrightarrow{DE} = \overrightarrow{EB}$, $\overrightarrow{EA} = \overrightarrow{CE}$

5.

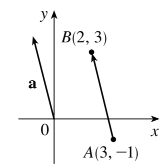


7. $\mathbf{c} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{b}$, $\mathbf{d} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{b} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}$

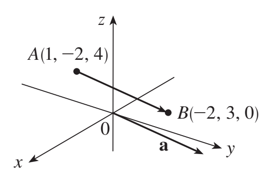
9. $\mathbf{a} = \langle 3, 1 \rangle$



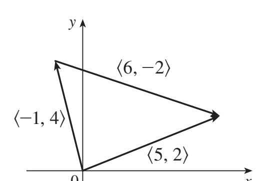
11. $\mathbf{a} = \langle -1, 4 \rangle$



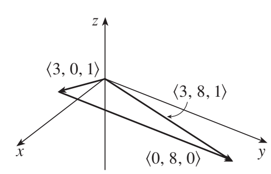
13. $\mathbf{a} = \langle -3, 5, -4 \rangle$



15. $\langle 5, 2 \rangle$



17. $\langle 3, 8, 1 \rangle$



19. $\langle 6, 3 \rangle$, $\langle 6, 14 \rangle$, 5, 13

21. $6\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$, $20\mathbf{i} - 12\mathbf{j}$, $\sqrt{29}$, 7

23. $\left\langle \dfrac{3}{\sqrt{10}}, -\dfrac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \right\rangle$ **25.** $\frac{8}{9}\mathbf{i} - \frac{1}{9}\mathbf{j} + \frac{4}{9}\mathbf{k}$ **27.** 60°

29. $\left\langle -2\sqrt{3}, 2 \right\rangle$ **31.** ≈ 15.32 m/s, ≈ 12.86 m/s

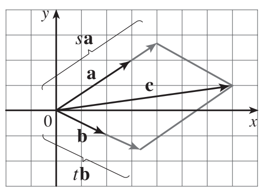
33. $100\sqrt{7} \approx 264.6$ N, $\approx 139.1°$

35. $\approx -177.39\,\mathbf{i} + 211.41\,\mathbf{j}$, $\approx 177.39\,\mathbf{i} + 138.59\,\mathbf{j}$; ≈ 275.97 N, ≈ 225.11 N

37. ≈ 26.1 N **39.** $\approx$ N 41.6° W, ≈ 237.3 km/h

41. $\pm(\mathbf{i} + 4\,\mathbf{j})/\sqrt{17}$ **43.** $\mathbf{0}$

45. (a), (b)



(d) $s = \frac{9}{7}, t = \frac{11}{7}$

47. A sphere with radius 1, centered at (x_0, y_0, z_0)

EXERCISES 12.3 ■ PAGE 852

1. (b), (c), (d) are meaningful **3.** -3.6 **5.** 19 **7.** 1
9. $14\sqrt{3}$ **11.** $\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{2}, \mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{w} = -\frac{1}{2}$
15. $\cos^{-1}\left(\dfrac{17}{13\sqrt{2}}\right) \approx 22°$ **17.** $\cos^{-1}\left(-\frac{5}{6}\right) \approx 146°$
19. $\cos^{-1}\left(\dfrac{-2}{3\sqrt{70}}\right) \approx 95°$ **21.** 48°, 75°, 57°
23. (a) Orthogonal (b) Neither
(c) Parallel (d) Orthogonal
25. Yes **27.** $(\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k})/\sqrt{3}$ $\left[\text{or } (-\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})/\sqrt{3}\right]$
29. $\approx 36.9°$ **31.** 0° at (0, 0), $\approx 8.1°$ at (1, 1)
33. $\frac{4}{9}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{8}{9}$; 63.6°, 83.6°, 27.3°
35. $3/\sqrt{14}, -1/\sqrt{14}, -2/\sqrt{14}$; 36.7°, 105.5°, 122.3°
37. $1/\sqrt{3}, 1/\sqrt{3}, 1/\sqrt{3}$; 54.7°, 54.7°, 54.7° **39.** 4, $\left\langle -\frac{20}{13}, \frac{48}{13} \right\rangle$
41. $\frac{1}{9}, \left\langle \frac{4}{81}, \frac{7}{81}, -\frac{4}{81} \right\rangle$ **43.** $-7/\sqrt{19}, -\frac{21}{19}\mathbf{i} + \frac{21}{19}\mathbf{j} - \frac{7}{19}\mathbf{k}$
47. $\langle 0, 0, -2\sqrt{10} \rangle$ or any vector of the form
$\langle s, t, 3s - 2\sqrt{10} \rangle$, $s, t \in \mathbb{R}$
49. 144 J **51.** $2400\cos(40°) \approx 1839$ J
53. $\frac{13}{5}$ **55.** $\approx 54.7°$

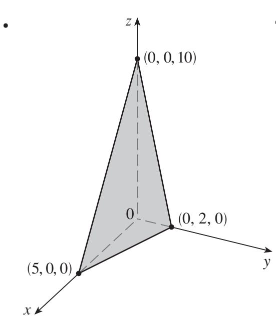
EXERCISES 12.4 ■ PAGE 861

1. $15\,\mathbf{i} - 10\,\mathbf{j} - 3\,\mathbf{k}$ **3.** $14\,\mathbf{i} + 4\,\mathbf{j} + 2\,\mathbf{k}$
5. $-\frac{3}{2}\mathbf{i} + \frac{7}{4}\mathbf{j} + \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{k}$
7. $(3t^3 - 2t^2)\,\mathbf{i} + (t^2 - 3t^4)\,\mathbf{j} + (2t^4 - t^3)\,\mathbf{k}$
9. $\mathbf{0}$ **11.** $\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$
13. (a) Scalar (b) Meaningless (c) Vector
(d) Meaningless (e) Meaningless (f) Scalar
15. 6; into the page **17.** $\langle -7, 10, 8 \rangle, \langle 7, -10, -8 \rangle$
19. $\left\langle -\dfrac{1}{3\sqrt{3}}, -\dfrac{1}{3\sqrt{3}}, \dfrac{5}{3\sqrt{3}} \right\rangle, \left\langle \dfrac{1}{3\sqrt{3}}, \dfrac{1}{3\sqrt{3}}, -\dfrac{5}{3\sqrt{3}} \right\rangle$
27. 20 **29.** (a) $\langle -10, 11, 3 \rangle$ (b) $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{230}$
31. (a) $\langle 12, -1, 17 \rangle$ (b) $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{434}$
33. 9 **35.** 16 **39.** $10.8\sin 80° \approx 10.6$ N·m
41. ≈ 417 N **43.** 60°
45. (b) $\sqrt{97/3}$ **53.** (a) No (b) No (c) Yes

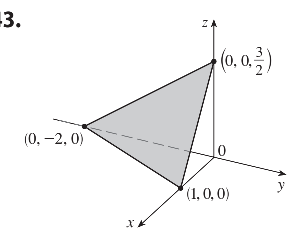
EXERCISES 12.5 ■ PAGE 872

1. (a) True (b) False (c) True (d) False
(e) False (f) True (g) False (h) True (i) True
(j) False (k) True
3. $\mathbf{r} = (-\mathbf{i} + 8\,\mathbf{j} + 7\,\mathbf{k}) + t\left(\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{4}\mathbf{k}\right)$;
$x = -1 + \frac{1}{2}t, y = 8 + \frac{1}{3}t, z = 7 + \frac{1}{4}t$
5. $\mathbf{r} = (5\,\mathbf{i} + 7\,\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}) + t(3\,\mathbf{i} - 2\,\mathbf{j} + 2\,\mathbf{k})$;
$x = 5 + 3t, y = 7 - 2t, z = 1 + 2t$
7. $x = 8t, y = -t, z = 3t; x/8 = -y = z/3$
9. $x = 12 - 19t, y = 9, z = -13 + 24t$;
$(x - 12)/(-19) = (z + 13)/24, y = 9$
11. $x = -6 + 2t, y = 2 + 3t, z = 3 + t$;
$(x + 6)/2 = (y - 2)/3 = z - 3$
13. Yes
15. (a) $(x - 1)/(-1) = (y + 5)/2 = (z - 6)/(-3)$
(b) $(-1, -1, 0), \left(-\frac{3}{2}, 0, -\frac{3}{2}\right), (0, -3, 3)$
17. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (6\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 9\mathbf{k}) + t(\mathbf{i} + 7\mathbf{j} - 9\mathbf{k}), 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$
19. Skew **21.** $(4, -1, -5)$ **23.** $5x + 4y + 6z = 29$
25. $-x + 2y + 3z = 3$
27. $4x - y + 5z = -4$
29. $2x - y + 3z = -0.2$ or $10x - 5y + 15z = -1$
31. $x + y + z = 2$ **33.** $5x - 3y - 8z = -9$
35. $8x + y - 2z = 31$ **37.** $x - 2y - z = -3$
39. $3x - 8y - z = -38$

41.



43.



45. $(-2, 6, 3)$ **47.** $\left(\frac{2}{5}, 4, 0\right)$ **49.** 1, 0, −1
51. Perpendicular **53.** Neither, $\cos^{-1}\left(-\dfrac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\right) \approx 114.1°$
55. Parallel
57. (a) $x = 1, y = -t, z = t$ (b) $\cos^{-1}\left(\dfrac{5}{3\sqrt{3}}\right) \approx 15.8°$
59. $x = 1, y - 2 = -z$ **61.** $x + 2y + z = 5$
63. $(x/a) + (y/b) + (z/c) = 1$
65. $x = 3t, y = 1 - t, z = 2 - 2t$
67. P_2 and P_3 are parallel, P_1 and P_4 are identical
69. $\sqrt{61/14}$ **71.** $\frac{18}{7}$ **73.** $5/\left(2\sqrt{14}\right)$

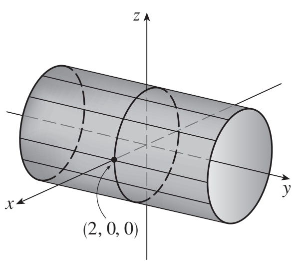
77. $1/\sqrt{6}$ **79.** $13/\sqrt{69}$

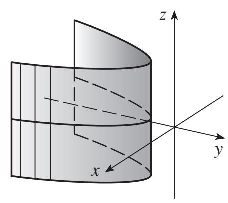
81. (a) $x = 325 + 440t$, $y = 810 - 135t$, $z = 561 + 38t$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$ (b) No

EXERCISES 12.6 ■ PAGE 881

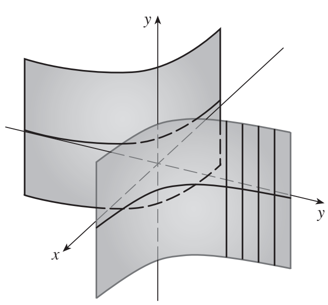
1. (a) Parabola
(b) Parabolic cylinder with rulings parallel to the z-axis
(c) Parabolic cylinder with rulings parallel to the x-axis

3. Circular cylinder of radius 2 **5.** Parabolic cylinder





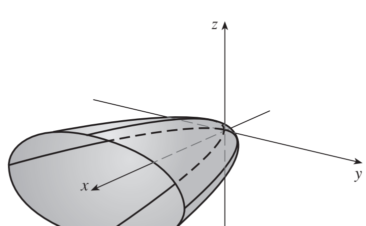
7. Hyperbolic cylinder



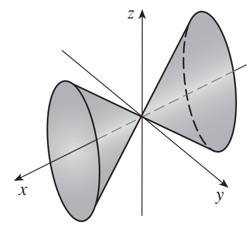
9. $z = \cos x$

11. (a) $x = k$, $y^2 - z^2 = 1 - k^2$, hyperbola ($k \neq \pm 1$);
$y = k$, $x^2 - z^2 = 1 - k^2$, hyperbola ($k \neq \pm 1$);
$z = k$, $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + k^2$, circle
(b) The hyperboloid is rotated so that its axis is the y-axis.
(c) The hyperboloid is shifted one unit in the negative y-direction.

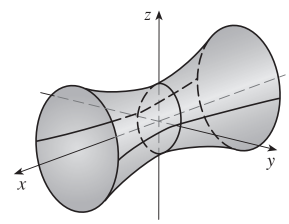
13. Elliptic paraboloid with axis the x-axis



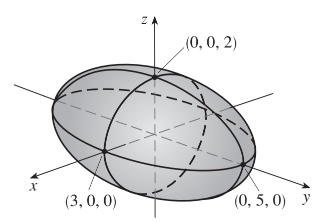
15. Elliptic cone with axis the x-axis



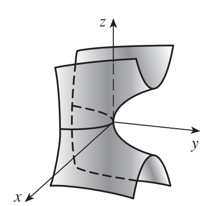
17. Hyperboloid of one sheet with axis the x-axis



19. Ellipsoid

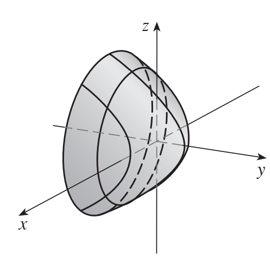


21. Hyperbolic paraboloid



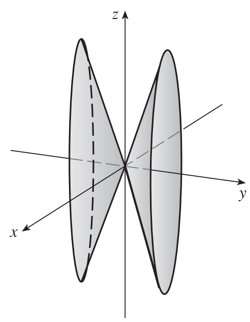
23. VII **25.** II **27.** VI **29.** VIII

31. Circular paraboloid



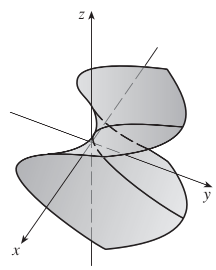
33. $y^2 = x^2 + \dfrac{z^2}{9}$

Elliptic cone with axis the y-axis



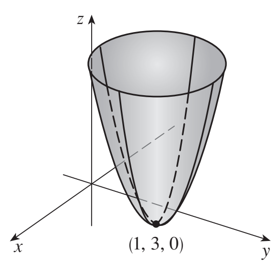
35. $y = z^2 - \dfrac{x^2}{2}$

Hyperbolic paraboloid



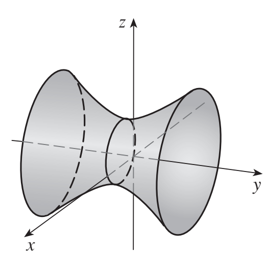
37. $z = (x - 1)^2 + (y - 3)^2$

Circular paraboloid with vertex $(1, 3, 0)$ and axis the vertical line $x = 1$, $y = 3$



39. $\dfrac{(x-2)^2}{5} - \dfrac{y^2}{5} + \dfrac{(z-1)^2}{5} = 1$

Hyperboloid of one sheet with center $(2, 0, 1)$ and axis the horizontal line $x = 2$, $z = 1$



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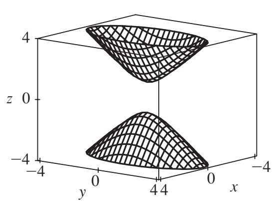

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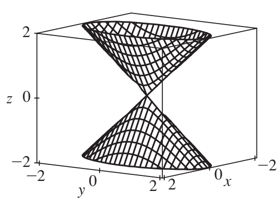

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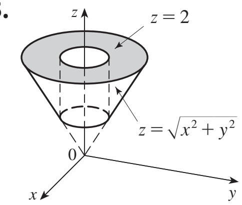
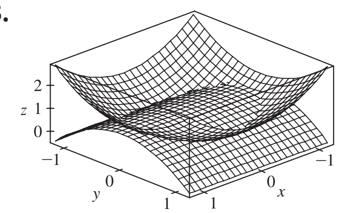


47. $x = y^2 + z^2$ **49.** $-4x = y^2 + z^2$, paraboloid

51. (a) $\dfrac{x^2}{(6378.137)^2} + \dfrac{y^2}{(6378.137)^2} + \dfrac{z^2}{(6356.523)^2} = 1$

(b) Circle (c) Ellipse

55.



CHAPTER 12 REVIEW ■ PAGE 884

True-False Quiz

1. False **3.** False **5.** True **7.** True **9.** True
11. True **13.** True **15.** False **17.** False
19. False **21.** True

Exercises

1. (a) $(x + 1)^2 + (y - 2)^2 + (z - 1)^2 = 69$
(b) $(y - 2)^2 + (z - 1)^2 = 68$, $x = 0$
(c) Center $(4, -1, -3)$, radius 5

3. $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 3\sqrt{2}$; $|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}| = 3\sqrt{2}$; out of the page

5. $-2, -4$ **7.** (a) 2 (b) -2 (c) -2 (d) 0

9. $\cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \approx 71°$ **11.** (a) $\langle 4, -3, 4 \rangle$ (b) $\sqrt{41}/2$

13. ≈ 166 N, ≈ 114 N

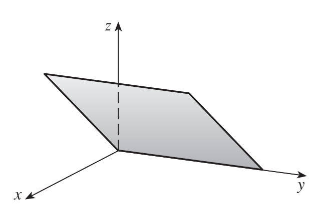
15. $x = 4 - 3t$, $y = -1 + 2t$, $z = 2 + 3t$

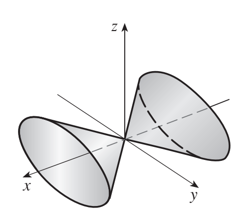
17. $x = -2 + 2t$, $y = 2 - t$, $z = 4 + 5t$

19. $-4x + 3y + z = -14$ **21.** $(1, 4, 4)$ **23.** Skew

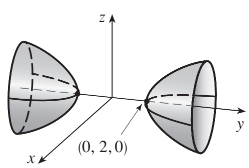
25. $x + y + z = 4$ **27.** $22/\sqrt{26}$

29. Plane **31.** Cone

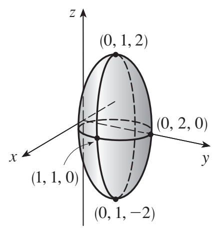




33. Hyperboloid of two sheets



35. Ellipsoid



37. $4x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 16$

PROBLEMS PLUS ■ PAGE 887

1. $\left(\sqrt{3} - \frac{3}{2}\right)$ m

3. (a) $(x + 1)/(-2c) = (y - c)/(c^2 - 1) = (z - c)/(c^2 + 1)$
(b) $x^2 + y^2 = t^2 + 1, z = t$ (c) $4\pi/3$

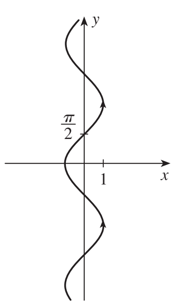
5. 20

CHAPTER 13

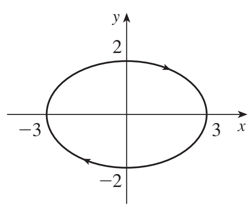
EXERCISES 13.1 ■ PAGE 895

1. $(-1, 3)$ **3.** $\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ **5.** $\langle -1, \pi/2, 0 \rangle$

7.



9.



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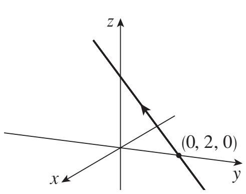

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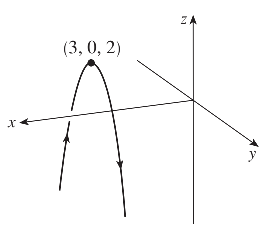

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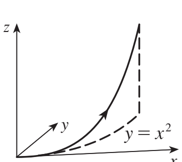

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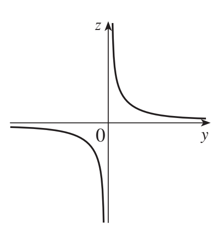

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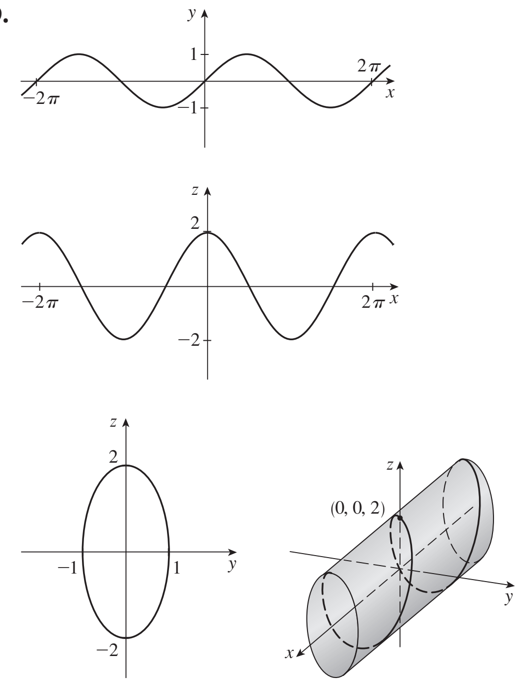
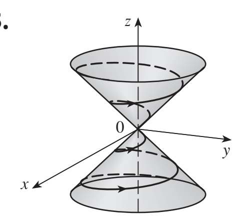


21. $\langle -2 + 7t, 1 + t, -3t \rangle, 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$;
$x = -2 + 7t, y = 1 + t, z = -3t, 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

23. $\langle 3.5 - 1.7t, -1.4 + 1.7t, 2.1 \rangle, 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$;
$x = 3.5 - 1.7t, y = -1.4 + 1.7t, z = 2.1, 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$

25. II **27.** V **29.** IV **31.** $y = 4$ **33.** $z = -y$

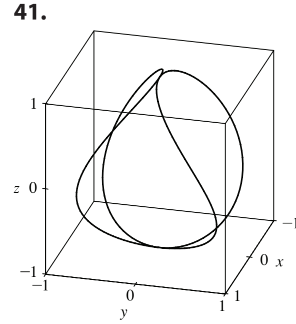
35.



37. $y = e^{x/2}, z = e^x, z = y^2$

39. $(0, 0, 0), (1, 0, 1)$

41.



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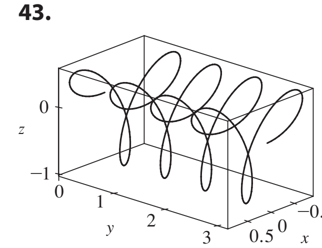

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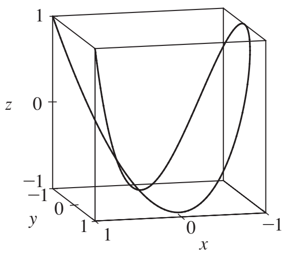
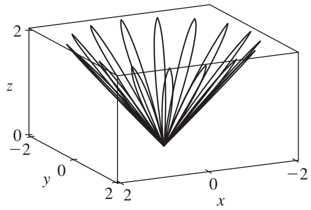


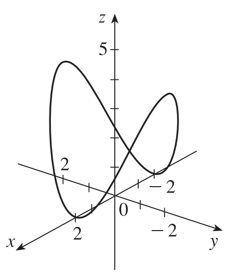
47.



51. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{2}(t^2 - 1)\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{2}(t^2 + 1)\,\mathbf{k}$

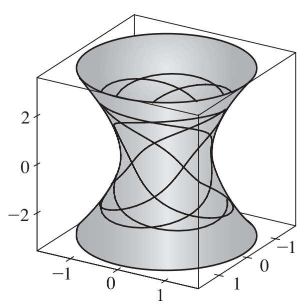
53. $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\,\mathbf{i} + \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + \cos 2t\,\mathbf{k},\ 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$

55. $x = 2\cos t,\ y = 2\sin t,\ z = 4\cos^2 t,\ 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$



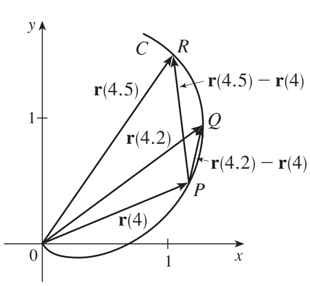
57. Yes

59. (a)

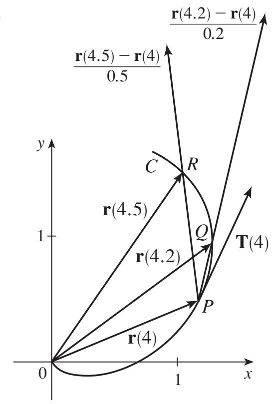


EXERCISES 13.2 ■ PAGE 902

1. (a)

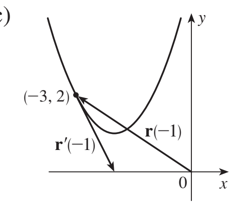


(b), (d)



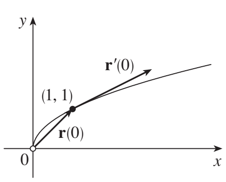
(c) $\mathbf{r}'(4) = \lim_{h \to 0} \dfrac{\mathbf{r}(4 + h) - \mathbf{r}(4)}{h}$; $\mathbf{T}(4) = \dfrac{\mathbf{r}'(4)}{|\mathbf{r}'(4)|}$

3. (a), (c)



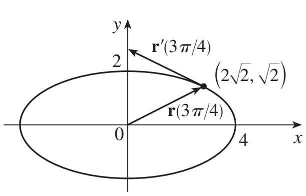
(b) $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle 1, 2t \rangle$

5. (a), (c)



(b) $\mathbf{r}'(t) = 2e^{2t}\,\mathbf{i} + e^t\,\mathbf{j}$

7. (a), (c)



(b) $\mathbf{r}'(t) = 4\cos t\,\mathbf{i} + 2\sin t\,\mathbf{j}$

9. $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \left\langle \dfrac{1}{2\sqrt{t-2}}, 0, -\dfrac{2}{t^3} \right\rangle$

11. $\mathbf{r}'(t) = 2t\,\mathbf{i} - 2t\sin(t^2)\,\mathbf{j} + 2\sin t\cos t\,\mathbf{k}$

13. $\mathbf{r}'(t) = (t\cos t + \sin t)\,\mathbf{i} + e^t(\cos t - \sin t)\,\mathbf{j} + (\cos^2 t - \sin^2 t)\,\mathbf{k}$

15. $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{b} + 2t\,\mathbf{c}$ **17.** $\left\langle \frac{2}{7}, \frac{3}{7}, \frac{6}{7} \right\rangle$ **19.** $\frac{3}{5}\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{4}{5}\,\mathbf{k}$

21. $\langle 3/\sqrt{34}, 3/\sqrt{34}, -4/\sqrt{34} \rangle$

23. $\langle 4t^3, 1, 2t \rangle$, $\langle 4/\sqrt{21}, 1/\sqrt{21}, 2/\sqrt{21} \rangle$, $\langle 12t^2, 0, 2 \rangle$, $\langle 2, 16t^3, -12t^2 \rangle$

25. $x = 2 + 2t,\ y = 4 + 2t,\ z = 1 + t$
27. $x = 1 - t,\ y = t,\ z = 1 - t$
29. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (3 - 4t)\,\mathbf{i} + (4 + 3t)\,\mathbf{j} + (2 - 6t)\,\mathbf{k}$
31. $x = t,\ y = 1 - t,\ z = 2t$
33. $x = -\pi - t,\ y = \pi + t,\ z = -\pi t$
35. $66°$ **37.** $2\,\mathbf{i} - 4\,\mathbf{j} + 32\,\mathbf{k}$
39. $(\ln 2)\,\mathbf{i} + (\pi/4)\,\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{2}\ln 2\,\mathbf{k}$
41. $\tan^{-1} t\,\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{2}e^{t^2}\mathbf{j} + \frac{2}{3}t^{3/2}\,\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C}$
43. $t^2\mathbf{i} + t^3\mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{2}{3}t^{3/2} - \frac{2}{3}\right)\mathbf{k}$
49. $2t\cos t + 2\sin t - 2\cos t\sin t$ **51.** 35

EXERCISES 13.3 ■ PAGE 913

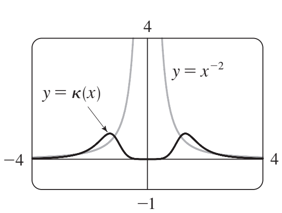
1. (a) $2\sqrt{21}$ **3.** $10\sqrt{10}$ **5.** $e - e^{-1}$ **7.** $\frac{1}{27}(13^{3/2} - 8)$
9. 18.6833 **11.** 10.3311 **13.** 42
15. (a) $s(t) = \sqrt{26}\,(t - 1)$;

$$\mathbf{r}(t(s)) = \left(4 - \frac{s}{\sqrt{26}}\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\frac{4s}{\sqrt{26}} + 1\right)\mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{3s}{\sqrt{26}} + 3\right)\mathbf{k}$$

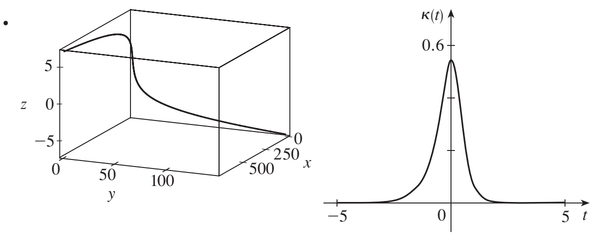
(b) $\left(4 - \frac{4}{\sqrt{26}}, \frac{16}{\sqrt{26}} + 1, \frac{12}{\sqrt{26}} + 3\right)$

17. $(3\sin 1, 4, 3\cos 1)$
19. (a) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\langle 2, \sin t, \cos t\rangle, \langle 0, \cos t, -\sin t\rangle$ (b) $1/(5t)$
21. (a) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + 4t^2}}\langle 1, 2t, 0\rangle, \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + 4t^2}}\langle -2t, 1, 0\rangle$
(b) $2/(1 + 4t^2)^{3/2}$

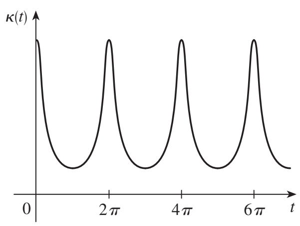
23. (a) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + 5t^2}}\langle 1, t, 2t\rangle, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5 + 25t^2}}\langle -5t, 1, 2\rangle$
(b) $\sqrt{5}/(1 + 5t^2)^{3/2}$
25. $6t^2/(9t^4 + 4t^2)^{3/2}$ **27.** $\frac{\sqrt{6}}{2(3t^2 + 1)^2}$
29. $\frac{1}{7}\sqrt{19/14}$ **31.** $12x^2/(1 + 16x^6)^{3/2}$
33. $e^x|x + 2|/[1 + (xe^x + e^x)^2]^{3/2}$
35. $\left(-\frac{1}{2}\ln 2, 1/\sqrt{2}\right)$; approaches 0 **37.** (a) P (b) 1.3, 0.7
39.



41.

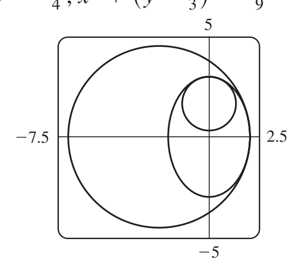


43. a is $y = f(x)$, b is $y = \kappa(x)$
45. $\kappa(t) = \dfrac{6\sqrt{4\cos^2 t - 12\cos t + 13}}{(17 - 12\cos t)^{3/2}}$



largest at integer multiples of 2π

47. $6t^2/(4t^2 + 9t^4)^{3/2}$
49. $1/\left(\sqrt{2}e^t\right)$ **51.** $\left\langle \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right\rangle, \left\langle -\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, -\frac{2}{3}\right\rangle, \left\langle -\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right\rangle$
53. $x - 2z = -4\pi,\ 2x + z = 2\pi$
55. $\left(x + \frac{5}{2}\right)^2 + y^2 = \frac{81}{4},\ x^2 + \left(y - \frac{5}{3}\right)^2 = \frac{16}{9}$

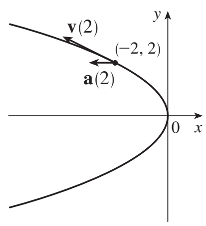


57. $(-1, -3, 1)$
59. $2x + y + 4z = 7,\ 6x - 8y - z = -3$ **67.** 0
69. $-2/(e^{2t} + e^{-2t} + 4),\ -\frac{1}{3}$
75. (b) $\mathbf{r}_e(t) = -\cos t\,\mathbf{i} - \sin t\,\mathbf{j} + t\,\mathbf{k}$
(c) $\mathbf{r}_e(t) = -4t^3\,\mathbf{i} + \left(3t^2 + \frac{1}{2}\right)\mathbf{j}$ or $y_e = \frac{1}{2} + 3(x/4)^{2/3}$
77. 2.07×10^{10} Å ≈ 2 m

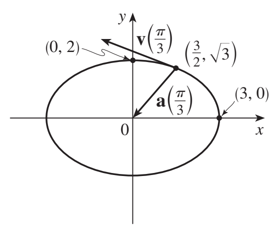
EXERCISES 13.4 ■ PAGE 923

1. (a) $1.8\mathbf{i} - 3.8\mathbf{j} - 0.7\mathbf{k},\ 2.0\mathbf{i} - 2.4\mathbf{j} - 0.6\mathbf{k},$
$2.8\mathbf{i} + 1.8\mathbf{j} - 0.3\mathbf{k},\ 2.8\mathbf{i} + 0.8\mathbf{j} - 0.4\mathbf{k}$
(b) $2.4\mathbf{i} - 0.8\mathbf{j} - 0.5\mathbf{k},\ 2.58$

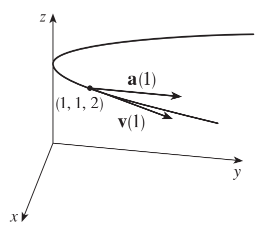
3. $\mathbf{v}(t) = \langle -t, 1 \rangle$
$\mathbf{a}(t) = \langle -1, 0 \rangle$
$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{t^2 + 1}$



5. $\mathbf{v}(t) = -3 \sin t\, \mathbf{i} + 2 \cos t\, \mathbf{j}$
$\mathbf{a}(t) = -3 \cos t\, \mathbf{i} - 2 \sin t\, \mathbf{j}$
$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{5 \sin^2 t + 4}$



7. $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{i} + 2t\, \mathbf{j}$
$\mathbf{a}(t) = 2\, \mathbf{j}$
$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{1 + 4t^2}$



9. $\langle 2t + 1, 2t - 1, 3t^2 \rangle$, $\langle 2, 2, 6t \rangle$, $\sqrt{9t^4 + 8t^2 + 2}$

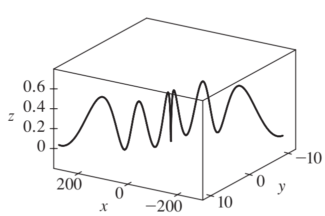
11. $\sqrt{2}\, \mathbf{i} + e^t\, \mathbf{j} - e^{-t}\, \mathbf{k}$, $e^t\, \mathbf{j} + e^{-t}\, \mathbf{k}$, $e^t + e^{-t}$

13. $e^t[(\cos t - \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t + \cos t)\mathbf{j} + (t + 1)\mathbf{k}]$,
$e^t[-2 \sin t\, \mathbf{i} + 2 \cos t\, \mathbf{j} + (t + 2)\mathbf{k}]$, $e^t\sqrt{t^2 + 2t + 3}$

15. $\mathbf{v}(t) = (2t + 3)\, \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + t^2\, \mathbf{k}$,
$\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^2 + 3t)\, \mathbf{i} + (1 - t)\, \mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{1}{3}t^3 + 1\right) \mathbf{k}$

17. (a) $\mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\frac{1}{3}t^3 + t\right) \mathbf{i} + (t - \sin t + 1)\, \mathbf{j} + \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \cos 2t\right) \mathbf{k}$

(b)



19. $t = 4$

21. $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\, \mathbf{i} - t\, \mathbf{j} + \frac{5}{2}t^2\, \mathbf{k}$, $|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{25t^2 + 2}$

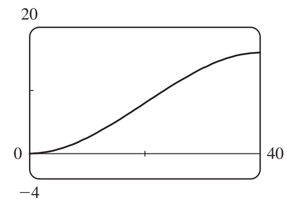
23. (a) ≈ 3535 m (b) ≈ 1531 m (c) 200 m/s

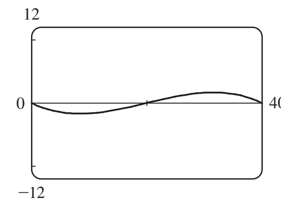
25. ≈ 30 m/s **27.** ≈ 198 m/s

29. $13.0° < \theta < 36.0°$, $55.4° < \theta < 85.5°$

31. $(250, -50, 0)$; $10\sqrt{93} \approx 96.4$ m/s

33. (a) 16 m (b) $\approx 23.6°$ upstream





35. The path is contained in a circle that lies in a plane perpendicular to **c** with center on a line through the origin in the direction of **c**.

37. $\dfrac{4 + 18t^2}{\sqrt{4 + 9t^2}}, \dfrac{6t}{\sqrt{4 + 9t^2}}$ **39.** 0, 1

41. $\dfrac{7}{\sqrt{30}}, \sqrt{\dfrac{131}{30}}$

43. 4.5 cm/s², 9.0 cm/s² **45.** $t = 1$

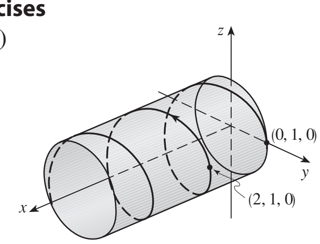
CHAPTER 13 REVIEW ■ PAGE 927

True-False Quiz

1. True **3.** False **5.** False **7.** False
9. True **11.** False **13.** True **15.** True

Exercises

1. (a)



(b) $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{i} - \pi \sin \pi t\, \mathbf{j} + \pi \cos \pi t\, \mathbf{k}$,
$\mathbf{r}''(t) = -\pi^2 \cos \pi t\, \mathbf{j} - \pi^2 \sin \pi t\, \mathbf{k}$

3. $\mathbf{r}(t) = 4 \cos t\, \mathbf{i} + 4 \sin t\, \mathbf{j} + (5 - 4 \cos t)\mathbf{k}$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$

5. $\frac{1}{3}\mathbf{i} - (2/\pi^2)\mathbf{j} + (2/\pi)\mathbf{k}$ **7.** 86.631 **9.** 90°

11. (a) $\dfrac{1}{\sqrt{13}} \langle 3 \sin t, -3 \cos t, 2 \rangle$ (b) $\langle \cos t, \sin t, 0 \rangle$

(c) $\dfrac{1}{\sqrt{13}} \langle -2 \sin t, 2 \cos t, 3 \rangle$

(d) $\dfrac{3}{13 \sin t \cos t}$ or $\dfrac{3}{13} \sec t \csc t$

(e) $\dfrac{2}{13 \sin t \cos t}$ or $\dfrac{2}{13} \sec t \csc t$

13. $12/17^{3/2}$ **15.** $x - 2y + 2\pi = 0$

17. $\mathbf{v}(t) = (1 + \ln t)\, \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - e^{-t}\, \mathbf{k}$,
$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{2 + 2 \ln t + (\ln t)^2 + e^{-2t}}$, $\mathbf{a}(t) = (1/t)\, \mathbf{i} + e^{-t}\, \mathbf{k}$

19. $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^3 + t)\,\mathbf{i} + (t^4 - t)\,\mathbf{j} + (3t - t^3)\,\mathbf{k}$
21. $\approx 37.3°$, ≈ 157.4 m
23. (c) $-2e^{-t}\,\mathbf{v}_d + e^{-t}\,\mathbf{R}$

PROBLEMS PLUS ■ PAGE 930

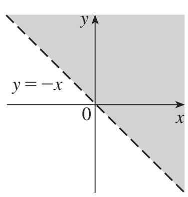
1. (a) $\mathbf{v} = \omega R(-\sin \omega t\,\mathbf{i} + \cos \omega t\,\mathbf{j})$ (c) $\mathbf{a} = -\omega^2 \mathbf{r}$
3. (a) $90°$, $v_0^2/(2g)$
5. (a) ≈ 0.25 m to the right of the table's edge, ≈ 4.9 m/s
(b) $\approx 5.9°$ (c) ≈ 0.56 m to the right of the table's edge
7. $56°$
9. $(a_2b_3 - a_3b_2)(x - c_1) + (a_3b_1 - a_1b_3)(y - c_2) + (a_1b_2 - a_2b_1)(z - c_3) = 0$

CHAPTER 14

EXERCISES 14.1 ■ PAGE 946

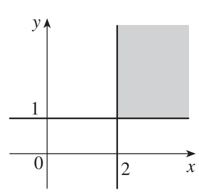
1. (a) $-\frac{3}{7}$ (b) $\frac{4}{5}$ (c) $\dfrac{(x + h)^2 y}{2(x + h) - y^2}$ (d) $\dfrac{x^2}{2 - x}$

3. (a) $9 \ln 4$ (b) $\{(x, y) \mid y > -x\}$

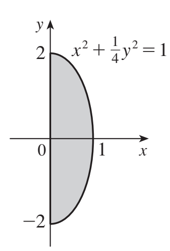


(c) $\mathbb{R}$
5. (a) 1 (b) $\{(x, y, z) \mid z \leqslant x/2, y \leqslant 0\}$, the points on or below the plane $z = x/2$ that are to the right of the xz-plane

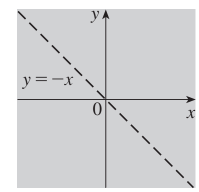
7. $\{(x, y) \mid x \geqslant 2, y \geqslant 1\}$



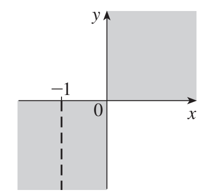
9. $\left\{(x, y) \mid x^2 + \frac{1}{4}y^2 \leqslant 1, x \geqslant 0\right\}$



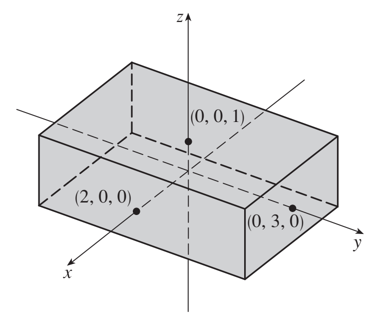
11. $\{(x, y) \mid y \neq -x\}$



13. $\{(x, y) \mid xy \geqslant 0, x \neq -1\}$



15. $\{(x, y, z) \mid -2 \leqslant x \leqslant 2, -3 \leqslant y \leqslant 3, -1 \leqslant z \leqslant 1\}$

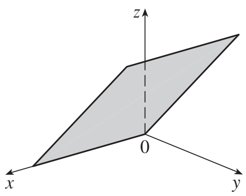


17. (a) ≈ 1.90 m^2; the surface area of a person 178 cm tall who weighs 73 kg is approximately 1.90 square meters.

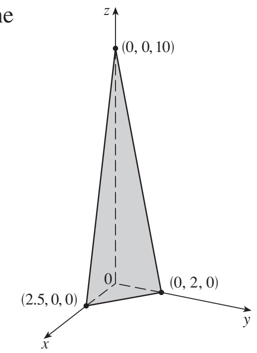
19. (a) -27; a temperature of $-15°$C with wind blowing at 40 km/h feels equivalent to about $-27°$C without wind.
(b) When the temperature is $-20°$C, what wind speed gives a wind chill of $-30°$C? 20 km/h
(c) With a wind speed of 20 km/h, what temperature gives a wind chill of $-49°$C? $-35°$C
(d) A function of wind speed that gives wind-chill values when the temperature is $-5°$C
(e) A function of temperature that gives wind-chill values when the wind speed is 50 km/h

21. (a) 2.4; a 40 km/h wind blowing in the open sea for 15 h will create waves about 2.4 m high.
(b) $f(30, t)$ is a function of t giving the wave heights produced by 30 km/h winds blowing for t hours.
(c) $f(v, 30)$ is a function of v giving the wave heights produced by winds of speed v blowing for 30 hours.

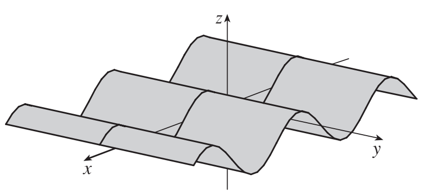
23. $z = y$, plane through the x-axis



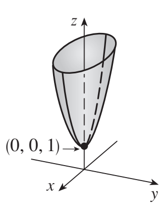
25. $4x + 5y + z = 10$, plane



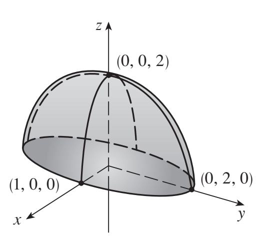
27. $z = \sin x$, cylinder



29. $z = x^2 + 4y^2 + 1$, elliptic paraboloid

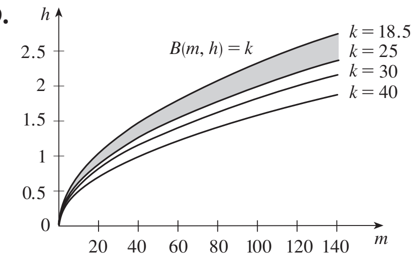


31. $z = \sqrt{4 - 4x^2 - y^2}$, top half of ellipsoid



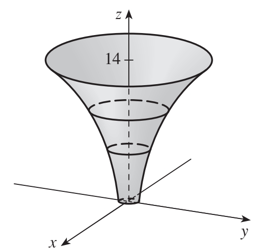
33. $\approx 56, \approx 35$ **35.** 11°C, 19.5°C **37.** Steep; nearly flat

39.



No

41.



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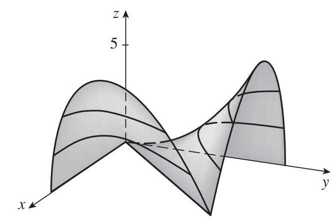
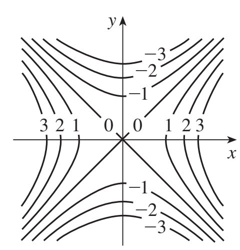
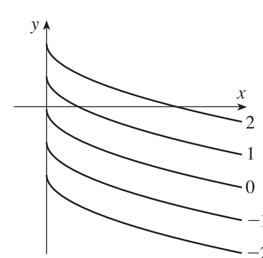


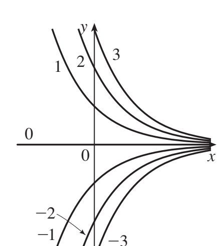
45. $x^2 - y^2 = k$



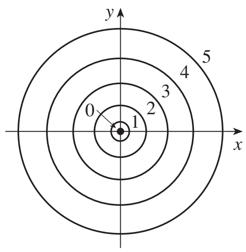
47. $y = -\sqrt{x} + k$



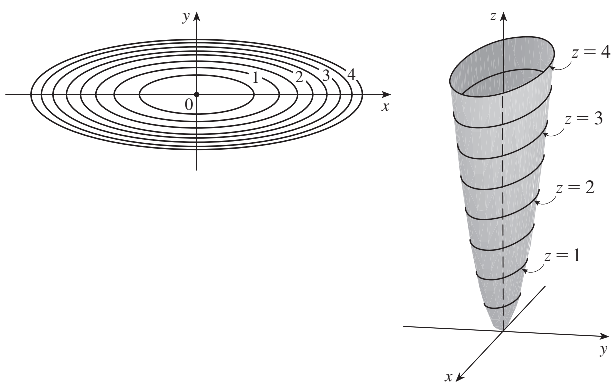
49. $y = ke^{-x}$



51. $x^2 + y^2 = k^3 \ (k \geqslant 0)$



53. $x^2 + 9y^2 = k$



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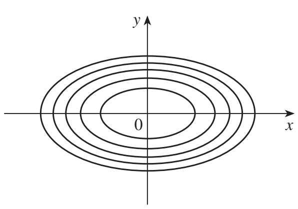

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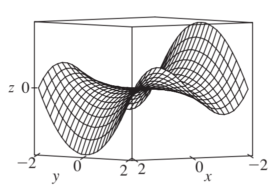

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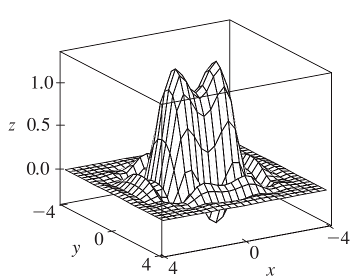
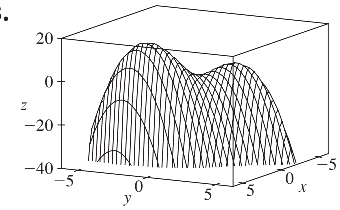


61. (a) C (b) II **63.** (a) F (b) I
65. (a) B (b) VI **67.** Family of parallel planes

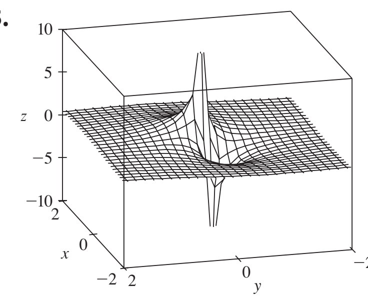
69. $k = 0$: cone with axis the z-axis;
$k > 0$: family of hyperboloids of one sheet with axis the z-axis;
$k < 0$: family of hyperboloids of two sheets with axis the z-axis
71. (a) Shift the graph of f upward 2 units
(b) Stretch the graph of f vertically by a factor of 2
(c) Reflect the graph of f about the xy-plane
(d) Reflect the graph of f about the xy-plane and then shift it upward 2 units

73.



f appears to have a maximum value of about 15. There are two local maximum points but no local minimum point.

75.



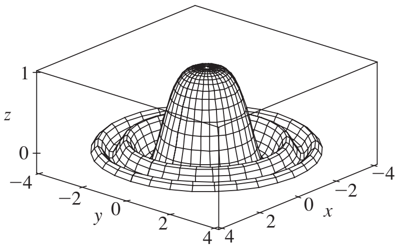
The function values approach 0 as x, y become large; as (x, y) approaches the origin, f approaches $\pm\infty$ or 0, depending on the direction of approach.
77. If $c = 0$, the graph is a cylindrical surface. For $c > 0$, the level curves are ellipses. The graph curves upward as we leave the origin, and the steepness increases as c increases. For $c < 0$, the level curves are hyperbolas. The graph curves upward in the y-direction and downward, approaching the xy-plane, in the x-direction giving a saddle-shaped appearance near (0, 0, 1).
79. $c = -2, 0, 2$ **81.** (b) $y = 0.75x + 0.01$

EXERCISES 14.2 ■ PAGE 960

1. Nothing; if f is continuous, then $f(3, 1) = 6$ **3.** $-\frac{5}{2}$
5. 56 **7.** -6 **9.** $\pi/2$ **11.** $-\frac{1}{2}$ **19.** 125
21. 0 **23.** Does not exist **25.** 2 **27.** -2
29. Does not exist **31.** 0 **33.** 0
35. The graph shows that the function approaches different numbers along different lines.
37. $h(x, y) = (2x + 3y - 6)^2 + \sqrt{2x + 3y - 6}$; $\{(x, y) \mid 2x + 3y \geqslant 6\}$
39. Along the line $y = x$ **41.** $\mathbb{R}^2$
43. $\{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \neq 1\}$ **45.** $\{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 1, x \geqslant 0\}$
47. $\{(x, y, z) \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leqslant 1\}$

49. $\{(x, y) \mid (x, y) \neq (0, 0)\}$ **51.** 0 **53.** -1

55.



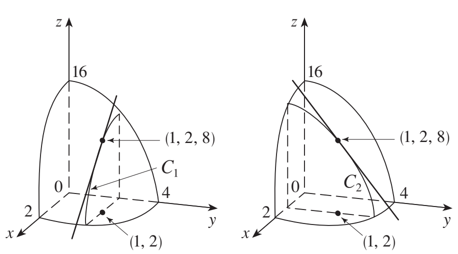
EXERCISES 14.3 ■ PAGE 969

1. $f_T(34, 75) \approx 2°\text{C}$; for a temperature of 34°C and relative humidity of 60%, the apparent temperature rises by 2°C for each degree the actual temperature increases. $f_H(34, 75) \approx 0.3°\text{C}$; for a temperature of 34°C and relative humidity of 60%, the apparent temperature rises by 0.3°C for each percent that the relative humidity increases.

3. (a) The rate of change of temperature as longitude varies, with latitude and time fixed; the rate of change as only latitude varies; the rate of change as only time varies
(b) Positive, negative, positive

5. (a) Negative (b) Negative

7. $f_x(1, 2) = -8 =$ slope of C_1, $f_y(1, 2) = -4 =$ slope of C_2



9. $f_x(x, y) = 4x^3 + 5y^3$, $f_y(x, y) = 15xy^2$

11. $g_x(x, y) = 3x^2 \sin y$, $g_y(x, y) = x^3 \cos y$

13. $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \dfrac{1}{x + t^2}$, $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \dfrac{2t}{x + t^2}$

15. $f_x(x, y) = y^2 e^{xy}$, $f_y(x, y) = e^{xy} + xye^{xy}$

17. $g_x(x, y) = 5y(1 + 2xy)(x + x^2y)^4$,
$g_y(x, y) = 5x^2y(x + x^2y)^4 + (x + x^2y)^5$

19. $f_x(x, y) = \dfrac{(ad - bc)y}{(cx + dy)^2}$, $f_y(x, y) = \dfrac{(bc - ad)x}{(cx + dy)^2}$

21. $g_u(u, v) = 10uv(u^2v - v^3)^4$,
$g_v(u, v) = 5(u^2 - 3v^2)(u^2v - v^3)^4$

23. $R_p(p, q) = \dfrac{q^2}{1 + p^2q^4}$, $R_q(p, q) = \dfrac{2pq}{1 + p^2q^4}$

25. $F_x(x, y) = \cos(e^x)$, $F_y(x, y) = -\cos(e^y)$

27. $f_x = 3x^2yz^2$, $f_y = x^3z^2 + 2z$, $f_z = 2x^3yz + 2y$

29. $\partial w/\partial x = 1/(x + 2y + 3z)$, $\partial w/\partial y = 2/(x + 2y + 3z)$,
$\partial w/\partial z = 3/(x + 2y + 3z)$

31. $\partial p/\partial t = 2t^3/\sqrt{t^4 + u^2\cos v}$,
$\partial p/\partial u = u\cos v/\sqrt{t^4 + u^2\cos v}$,
$\partial p/\partial v = -u^2\sin v/\left(2\sqrt{t^4 + u^2\cos v}\right)$

33. $h_x = 2xy\cos(z/t)$, $h_y = x^2\cos(z/t)$,
$h_z = (-x^2y/t)\sin(z/t)$, $h_t = (x^2yz/t^2)\sin(z/t)$

35. $\partial u/\partial x_i = x_i/\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}$

37. 1 **39.** $\frac{1}{6}$ **41.** $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -\dfrac{x}{3z}$, $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial y} = -\dfrac{2y}{3z}$

43. $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \dfrac{yz}{e^z - xy}$, $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial y} = \dfrac{xz}{e^z - xy}$

45. (a) $f'(x), g'(y)$ (b) $f'(x + y), f'(x + y)$

47. $f_{xx} = 12x^2y - 12xy^2$, $f_{xy} = 4x^3 - 12x^2y = f_{yx}$, $f_{yy} = -4x^3$

49. $z_{xx} = \dfrac{8y}{(2x + 3y)^3}$, $z_{xy} = \dfrac{6y - 4x}{(2x + 3y)^3} = z_{yx}$,
$z_{yy} = -\dfrac{12x}{(2x + 3y)^3}$

51. $v_{ss} = 2\cos(s^2 - t^2) - 4s^2\sin(s^2 - t^2)$,
$v_{st} = 4st\sin(s^2 - t^2) = v_{ts}$,
$v_{tt} = -2\cos(s^2 - t^2) - 4t^2\sin(s^2 - t^2)$

57. $24xy^2 - 6y$, $24x^2y - 6x$

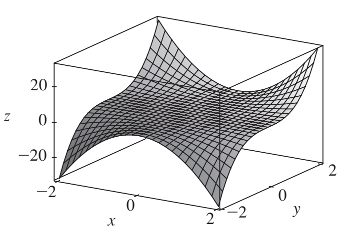
59. $(2x^2y^2z^5 + 6xyz^3 + 2z)e^{xyz^2}$

61. $\frac{3}{4}v(u + v^2)^{-5/2}$ **63.** $4/(y + 2z)^3, 0$

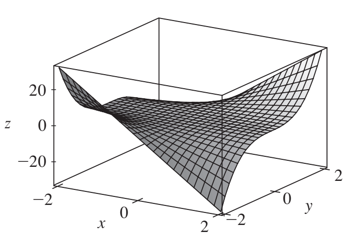
65. $f_x(x, y) = y^2 - 3x^2y$, $f_y(x, y) = 2xy - x^3$

67. $6yz^2$ **69.** $c = f, b = f_x, a = f_y$

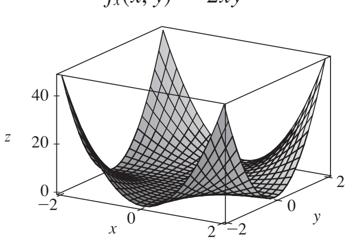
71.



$f(x, y) = x^2y^3$



$f_x(x, y) = 2xy^3$



$f_y(x, y) = 3x^2y^2$

73. $\approx 12.2, \approx 16.8, \approx 23.25$ **83.** R^2/R_1^2

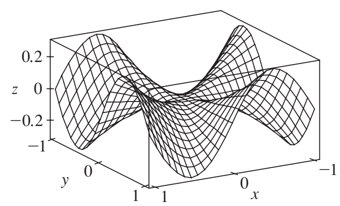
85. $\dfrac{\partial T}{\partial P} = \dfrac{V - nb}{nR}, \dfrac{\partial P}{\partial V} = \dfrac{2n^2 a}{V^3} - \dfrac{nRT}{(V - nb)^2}$

87. (a) ≈ 0.0035; for a person 178 cm tall who weighs 73 kg, an increase in weight causes the surface area to increase at a rate of about $0.0035 \text{ m}^2/\text{kg}$. (b) ≈ 0.0145; for a person 178 cm tall who weighs 73 kg, an increase in height (with no change in weight) causes the surface area to increase at a rate of about $0.0145 \text{ m}^2/\text{kg}$ of height.

89. $\partial P/\partial v = 3Av^2 - \dfrac{B(mg/x)^2}{v^2}$ is the rate of change of the power needed during flapping mode with respect to the bird's velocity when the mass and fraction of flapping time remain constant; $\partial P/\partial x = -\dfrac{2Bm^2 g^2}{x^3 v}$ is the rate at which the power changes when only the fraction of time spent in flapping mode varies; $\partial P/\partial m = \dfrac{2Bmg^2}{x^2 v}$ is the rate of change of the power when only the mass varies.

93. $x = 1 + t, y = 2, z = 2 - 2t$ **95.** No **99.** -2

101. (a)



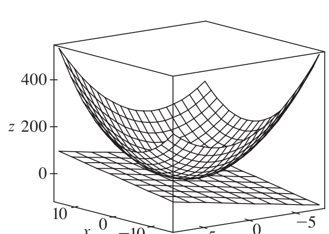
(b) $f_x(x, y) = \dfrac{x^4 y + 4x^2 y^3 - y^5}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}, f_y(x, y) = \dfrac{x^5 - 4x^3 y^2 - xy^4}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}$

(c) 0, 0 (e) No, because f_{xy} and f_{yx} are not continuous.

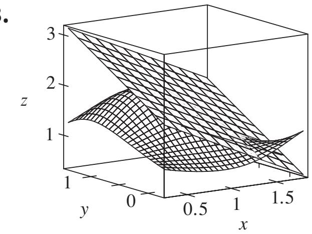
EXERCISES 14.4 ■ PAGE 981

1. $z = -4x - 4y + 24$ **3.** $z = 4x - y - 6$
5. $z = x - y + 1$ **7.** $z = -2x - y - 3$
9. $x + y + z = 0$

11.



13.



15. $12x - 16y + 32$ **17.** $6x + 4y - 23$
19. $2x + y - 1$ **21.** $2x + 2y + \pi - 4$ **25.** 6.3
27. $\frac{3}{7}x + \frac{2}{7}y + \frac{6}{7}z$; 6.9914 **29.** $2T + 0.3H - 40.5$; 44.4°C
31. $dm = 5p^4 q^3\, dp + 3p^5 q^2\, dq$
33. $dz = -2e^{-2x} \cos 2\pi t\, dx - 2\pi e^{-2x} \sin 2\pi t\, dt$
35. $dH = 2xy^4\, dx + (4x^2 y^3 + 3y^2 z^5)\, dy + 5y^3 z^4\, dz$
37. $dR = \beta^2 \cos \gamma\, d\alpha + 2\alpha\beta \cos \gamma\, d\beta - \alpha\beta^2 \sin \gamma\, d\gamma$
39. $\Delta z = 0.9225, dz = 0.9$ **41.** 5.4 cm^2 **43.** 16 cm^3
45. (a) $5.89\pi\varepsilon \text{ m}^3$ (b) $\approx 0.0015 \text{ m} \approx 0.15 \text{ cm}$
47. $\approx -0.0165mg$; decrease **49.** $\frac{1}{17} \approx 0.059\ \Omega$
51. (a) $0.8264m - 34.56h + 38.02$ (b) 18.801

EXERCISES 14.5 ■ PAGE 991

1. $36t^3 + 15t^4$ **3.** $2t(y^3 - 2xy + 3xy^2 - x^2)$

5. $\dfrac{1}{2\sqrt{t}} \cos x \cos y + \dfrac{1}{t^2} \sin x \sin y$

7. $e^{y/z}[2t - (x/z) - (2xy/z^2)]$

9. $\partial z/\partial s = 10s + 14t, \partial z/\partial t = 14s + 20t$

11. $\partial z/\partial s = 5(x - y)^4(2st - t^2), \partial z/\partial t = 5(x - y)^4(s^2 - 2st)$

13. $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial s} = \dfrac{3 \sin t - 2t \sin s}{3x + 2y}, \dfrac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \dfrac{3s \cos t + 2 \cos s}{3x + 2y}$

15. $\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial s} = -\dfrac{t \sin \theta}{r^2} + \dfrac{2s \cos \theta}{r}, \dfrac{\partial z}{\partial t} = -\dfrac{s \sin \theta}{r^2} + \dfrac{2t \cos \theta}{r}$

17. 42 **19.** 7, 2

21. $\dfrac{\partial u}{\partial r} = \dfrac{\partial u}{\partial x}\dfrac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \dfrac{\partial u}{\partial y}\dfrac{\partial y}{\partial r}, \dfrac{\partial u}{\partial s} = \dfrac{\partial u}{\partial x}\dfrac{\partial x}{\partial s} + \dfrac{\partial u}{\partial y}\dfrac{\partial y}{\partial s},$
$\dfrac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \dfrac{\partial u}{\partial x}\dfrac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \dfrac{\partial u}{\partial y}\dfrac{\partial y}{\partial t}$

23. $\dfrac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial p}\dfrac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial q}\dfrac{\partial q}{\partial x} + \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial r}\dfrac{\partial r}{\partial x},$
$\dfrac{\partial T}{\partial y} = \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial p}\dfrac{\partial p}{\partial y} + \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial q}\dfrac{\partial q}{\partial y} + \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial r}\dfrac{\partial r}{\partial y},$
$\dfrac{\partial T}{\partial z} = \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial p}\dfrac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial q}\dfrac{\partial q}{\partial z} + \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial r}\dfrac{\partial r}{\partial z}$

25. 1582, 3164, -700 **27.** 2π, -2π

29. $\frac{5}{144}, -\frac{5}{96}, \frac{5}{144}$ **31.** $\dfrac{2x + y\sin x}{\cos x - 2y}$

33. $\dfrac{1 + x^4y^2 + y^2 + x^4y^4 - 2xy}{x^2 - 2xy - 2x^5y^3}$

35. $-\dfrac{x}{3z}, -\dfrac{2y}{3z}$ **37.** $\dfrac{yz}{e^z - xy}, \dfrac{xz}{e^z - xy}$

39. 2°C/s **41.** ≈ -0.33 m/s per minute

43. (a) 6 m^3/s (b) 10 m^2/s (c) 0 m/s

45. ≈ -0.27 L/s **47.** $-1/(12\sqrt{3})$ rad/s

49. (a) $\partial z/\partial r = (\partial z/\partial x)\cos\theta + (\partial z/\partial y)\sin\theta$, $\partial z/\partial\theta = -(\partial z/\partial x)\, r\sin\theta + (\partial z/\partial y)\, r\cos\theta$

53. $4rs\dfrac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} + (4r^2 + 4s^2)\dfrac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x\,\partial y} + 4rs\dfrac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2} + 2\dfrac{\partial z}{\partial y}$

EXERCISES 14.6 ■ PAGE 1005

1. ≈ -0.08 mb/km **3.** ≈ 0.778 **5.** $\sqrt{2}/2$

7. $5\sqrt{2}/74$ **9.** (a) $\nabla f(x, y) = (1/y)\mathbf{i} - (x/y^2)\mathbf{j}$
(b) $\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j}$ (c) -1

11. (a) $\langle 2xyz - yz^3, x^2z - xz^3, x^2y - 3xyz^2\rangle$
(b) $\langle -3, 2, 2\rangle$ (c) $\frac{2}{5}$

13. $\dfrac{4 - 3\sqrt{3}}{10}$ **15.** $7/(2\sqrt{5})$ **17.** 1 **19.** $\frac{23}{42}$

21. $-\frac{56}{5}$ **23.** $\frac{2}{5}$ **25.** $-\frac{18}{7}$ **27.** $20\sqrt{10}, \langle 20, -60\rangle$

29. $1, \langle 0, 1\rangle$ **31.** $\frac{3}{4}, \langle 1, -2, -2\rangle$

33. (b) $\langle -12, 92\rangle, -4\sqrt{538}$

35. All points on the line $y = x + 1$ **37.** (a) $-40/(3\sqrt{3})$

39. (a) $32/\sqrt{3}$ (b) $\langle 38, 6, 12\rangle$ (c) $2\sqrt{406}$

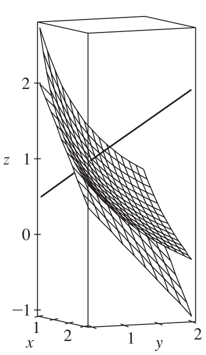
41. $\frac{327}{13}$ **45.** $\frac{774}{25}$

47. (a) $x + y + z = 11$ (b) $x - 3 = y - 3 = z - 5$

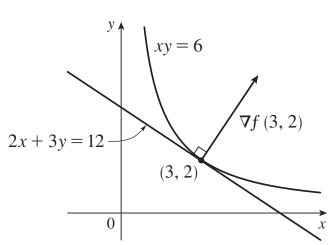
49. (a) $x + 2y + 6z = 12$ (b) $x - 2 = \dfrac{y - 2}{2} = \dfrac{z - 1}{6}$

51. (a) $x + y + z = 1$ (b) $x = y = z - 1$

53.



55. $\langle 2, 3\rangle$, $2x + 3y = 12$



61. No **65.** $\left(-\frac{5}{4}, -\frac{5}{4}, \frac{25}{8}\right)$

69. $x = -1 - 10t$, $y = 1 - 16t$, $z = 2 - 12t$

71. $(-1, 0, 1)$; $\approx 7.8°$

75. If $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b\rangle$ and $\mathbf{v} = \langle c, d\rangle$, then $af_x + bf_y$ and $cf_x + df_y$ are known, so we solve linear equations for f_x and f_y.

EXERCISES 14.7 ■ PAGE 1016

1. (a) f has a local minimum at (1, 1).
(b) f has a saddle point at (1, 1).

3. Local minimum at (1, 1), saddle point at (0, 0)

5. Minimum $f\left(\frac{1}{3}, -\frac{2}{3}\right) = -\frac{1}{3}$

7. Minima $f(-2, -1) = -3$, $f(8, 4) = -128$, saddle point at (0, 0)

9. Saddle points at (1, 1), $(-1, -1)$

11. Maximum $f(1, 4) = 14$

13. Maximum $f(-1, 0) = 2$, minimum $f(1, 0) = -2$, saddle points at $(0, \pm 1)$

15. Maximum $f(0, -1) = 2$, minima $f(\pm 1, 1) = -3$, saddle points at (0, 1), $(\pm 1, -1)$

17. Maximum $f\left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right) = \frac{1}{27}$, saddle points at (0, 0), (1, 0), (0, 1)

19. None

21. Minima $f(0, 1) = f(\pi, -1) = f(2\pi, 1) = -1$, saddle points at $(\pi/2, 0)$, $(3\pi/2, 0)$

25. Minima $f(1, \pm 1) = f(-1, \pm 1) = 3$

27. Maximum $f(\pi/3, \pi/3) = 3\sqrt{3}/2$, minimum $f(5\pi/3, 5\pi/3) = -3\sqrt{3}/2$, saddle point at (π, π)

29. Minima $f(0, -0.794) \approx -1.191$, $f(\pm 1.592, 1.267) \approx -1.310$, saddle points $(\pm 0.720, 0.259)$, lowest points $(\pm 1.592, 1.267, -1.310)$

31. Maximum $f(0.170, -1.215) \approx 3.197$, minima $f(-1.301, 0.549) \approx -3.145$, $f(1.131, 0.549) \approx -0.701$, saddle points $(-1.301, -1.215)$, $(0.170, 0.549)$, $(1.131, -1.215)$, no highest or lowest point

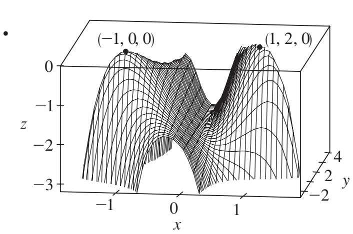
33. Maximum $f(0, \pm 2) = 4$, minimum $f(1, 0) = -1$

35. Maximum $f(\pm 1, 1) = 7$, minimum $f(0, 0) = 4$

37. Maximum $f(0, 3) = f(2, 3) = 7$, minimum $f(1, 1) = -2$

39. Maximum $f(1, 0) = 2$, minimum $f(-1, 0) = -2$

41.



43. $2/\sqrt{3}$ **45.** $(2, 1, \sqrt{5}), (2, 1, -\sqrt{5})$ **47.** $\frac{100}{3}, \frac{100}{3}, \frac{100}{3}$

49. $8r^3/(3\sqrt{3})$ **51.** $\frac{4}{3}$ **53.** Cube, edge length $c/12$

55. Square base of side 40 cm, height 20 cm **57.** $L^3/(3\sqrt{3})$

59. (a) $H = -p_1\ln p_1 - p_2\ln p_2 - (1 - p_1 - p_2)\ln(1 - p_1 - p_2)$
(b) $\{(p_1, p_2) \mid 0 < p_1 < 1, p_2 < 1 - p_1\}$
(c) $\ln 3$; $p_1 = p_2 = p_3 = \frac{1}{3}$

EXERCISES 14.8 ■ PAGE 1026

1. $\approx 59, 30$

3. Maximum $f(\pm 1, 0) = 1$, minimum $f(0, \pm 1) = -1$

5. Maximum $f(1, 2) = f(-1, -2) = 2$, minimum $f(1, -2) = f(-1, 2) = -2$

7. Maximum $f(1/\sqrt{2}, \pm 1/\sqrt{2}) = f(-1/\sqrt{2}, \pm 1/\sqrt{2}) = 4$, minimum $f(\pm 1, 0) = 2$
9. Maximum $f(2, 2, 1) = 9$, minimum $f(-2, -2, -1) = -9$
11. Maximum $f(1, \pm\sqrt{2}, 1) = f(-1, \pm\sqrt{2}, -1) = 2$, minimum $f(1, \pm\sqrt{2}, -1) = f(-1, \pm\sqrt{2}, 1) = -2$
13. Maximum $\sqrt{3}$, minimum 1
15. Maximum $f(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}) = 2$, minimum $f(-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}) = -2$
17. 10, 10
19. 25 m by 25 m
21. $(-\frac{6}{5}, \frac{3}{5})$
23. Minimum $f(1, 1) = f(-1, -1) = 2$
25. Maximum $f(2, 2) = e^4$
27. Maximum $f(3/\sqrt{2}, -3/\sqrt{2}) = 9 + 12\sqrt{2}$, minimum $f(-2, 2) = -8$
29. Maximum $f(\pm 1/\sqrt{2}, \mp 1/(2\sqrt{2})) = e^{1/4}$, minimum $f(\pm 1/\sqrt{2}, \pm 1/(2\sqrt{2})) = e^{-1/4}$
31. Maximum $f(0, 1, \sqrt{2}) = 1 + \sqrt{2}$, minimum $f(0, 1, -\sqrt{2}) = 1 - \sqrt{2}$
33. Maximum $\frac{3}{2}$, minimum $\frac{1}{2}$
41–53. See Exercises 43–57 in Section 14.7.
57. Nearest $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$, farthest $(-1, -1, 2)$
59. Maximum ≈ 9.7938, minimum ≈ -5.3506
61. Maximum $f(\pm\sqrt{3}, 3) = 18$, minimum $f(0, 0) = 0$
63. (a) c/n (b) When $x_1 = x_2 = \cdots = x_n$

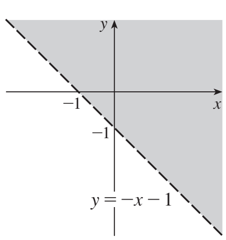
CHAPTER 14 REVIEW ■ PAGE 1031

True-False Quiz

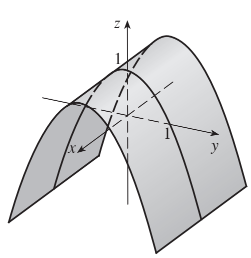
1. True **3.** False **5.** False **7.** True **9.** False
11. True

Exercises

1. $\{(x, y) \mid y > -x - 1\}$



3.



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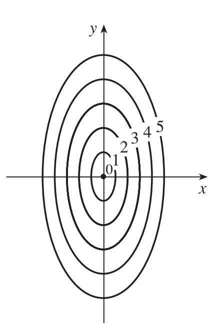
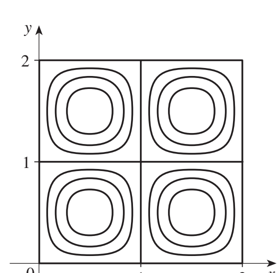


7.



9. $\frac{2}{3}$
11. (a) $\approx 3.5°\text{C/m}, -3.0°\text{C/m}$
(b) $\approx 0.35°\text{C/m}$ by Equation 14.6.9 (Definition 14.6.2 gives $\approx 1.1°\text{C/m}$.)
(c) -0.25
13. $f_x = 32xy(5y^3 + 2x^2y)^7$, $f_y = (16x^2 + 120y^2)(5y^3 + 2x^2y)^7$
15. $F_\alpha = \dfrac{2\alpha^3}{\alpha^2 + \beta^2} + 2\alpha \ln(\alpha^2 + \beta^2)$, $F_\beta = \dfrac{2\alpha^2\beta}{\alpha^2 + \beta^2}$
17. $S_u = \arctan(v\sqrt{w})$, $S_v = \dfrac{u\sqrt{w}}{1 + v^2w}$, $S_w = \dfrac{uv}{2\sqrt{w}(1 + v^2w)}$
19. $f_{xx} = 24x$, $f_{xy} = -2y = f_{yx}$, $f_{yy} = -2x$
21. $f_{xx} = k(k-1)x^{k-2}y^lz^m$, $f_{xy} = klx^{k-1}y^{l-1}z^m = f_{yx}$, $f_{xz} = kmx^{k-1}y^lz^{m-1} = f_{zx}$, $f_{yy} = l(l-1)x^ky^{l-2}z^m$, $f_{yz} = lmx^ky^{l-1}z^{m-1} = f_{zy}$, $f_{zz} = m(m-1)x^ky^lz^{m-2}$
25. (a) $z = 8x + 4y + 1$
(b) $x = 1 + 8t$, $y = -2 + 4t$, $z = 1 - t$
27. (a) $2x - 2y - 3z = 3$
(b) $x = 2 + 4t$, $y = -1 - 4t$, $z = 1 - 6t$
29. (a) $x + 2y + 5z = 0$
(b) $x = 2 + t$, $y = -1 + 2t$, $z = 5t$
31. $(2, \frac{1}{2}, -1)$, $(-2, -\frac{1}{2}, 1)$
33. $60x + \frac{24}{5}y + \frac{32}{5}z - 120$; 38.656
35. $2xy^3(1 + 6p) + 3x^2y^2(pe^p + e^p) + 4z^3(p\cos p + \sin p)$
37. $-47, 108$
43. $\langle 2xe^{yz^2}, x^2z^2e^{yz^2}, 2x^2yze^{yz^2}\rangle$ **45.** $-\frac{4}{5}$
47. $\sqrt{145}/2$, $\langle 4, \frac{9}{2}\rangle$ **49.** ≈ 0.72 km/h
51. Minimum $f(-4, 1) = -11$
53. Maximum $f(1, 1) = 1$; saddle points at (0, 0), (0, 3), (3, 0)
55. Maximum $f(1, 2) = 4$, minimum $f(2, 4) = -64$
57. Maximum $f(-1, 0) = 2$, minima $f(1, \pm 1) = -3$, saddle points at $(-1, \pm 1)$, $(1, 0)$
59. Maximum $f(\pm\sqrt{2/3}, 1/\sqrt{3}) = 2/(3\sqrt{3})$, minimum $f(\pm\sqrt{2/3}, -1/\sqrt{3}) = -2/(3\sqrt{3})$
61. Maximum 1, minimum -1
63. $(\pm 3^{-1/4}, 3^{-1/4}\sqrt{2}, \pm 3^{1/4})$, $(\pm 3^{-1/4}, -3^{-1/4}\sqrt{2}, \pm 3^{1/4})$
65. $P(2 - \sqrt{3})$, $P(3 - \sqrt{3})/6$, $P(2\sqrt{3} - 3)/3$

PROBLEMS PLUS ■ PAGE 1035

1. $L^2W^2, \frac{1}{4}L^2W^2$ **3.** (a) $x = w/3$, base $= w/3$ (b) Yes
7. $\sqrt{3}/2, 3/\sqrt{2}$

CHAPTER 15

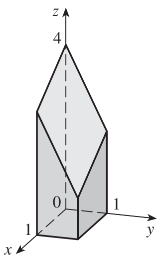
EXERCISES 15.1 ■ PAGE 1049

1. (a) 288 (b) 144 **3.** (a) 0.990 (b) 1.151
5. $U < V < L$ **7.** (a) ≈ 248 (b) ≈ 15.5
9. $24\sqrt{2}$ **11.** 3 **13.** $2 + 8y^2, 3x + 27x^2$
15. 222 **17.** $\frac{5}{2} - e^{-1}$ **19.** 18
21. $\frac{15}{2}\ln 2 + \frac{3}{2}\ln 4$ or $\frac{21}{2}\ln 2$ **23.** 6

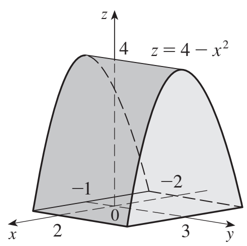
25. $\frac{31}{30}$ **27.** 2 **29.** $9 \ln 2$

31. $\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{3} - 1) - \frac{1}{12}\pi$ **33.** $\frac{1}{2}e^{-6} + \frac{5}{2}$

35.



37.

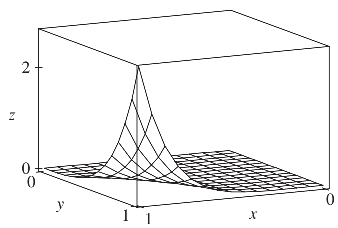


39. (a) $\int_0^2 \int_0^2 xy \, dx \, dy$ (b) 4

41. (a) $\int_1^2 \int_0^1 (1 + ye^{xy}) \, dx \, dy$ (b) $e^2 - e$

43. 51 **45.** $\frac{166}{27}$ **47.** $\frac{8}{3}$ **49.** $\frac{64}{3}$

51. $21e - 57$



53. $\frac{5}{6}$ **55.** 0

57. Fubini's Theorem does not apply. The integrand has an infinite discontinuity at the origin.

EXERCISES 15.2 ■ PAGE 1059

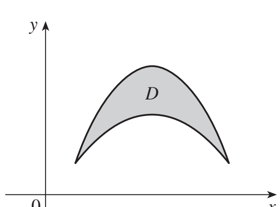
1. $\frac{868}{3}$ **3.** $\frac{1}{6}(e - 1)$ **5.** $\frac{1}{3}\sin 1$

7. (a) $\int_0^2 \int_x^{3x - x^2} 2y \, dy \, dx$ (b) $\frac{56}{15}$

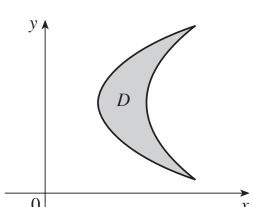
9. (a) $\int_0^2 \int_{y^2}^{y+2} xy \, dx \, dy$ (b) 6

11. $\frac{1}{4}\ln 17$ **13.** $\frac{1}{2}(1 - e^{-9})$

15. (a)



(b)



17. Type I: $D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \le x \le 1, 0 \le y \le x\}$, type II: $D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \le y \le 1, y \le x \le 1\}$; $\frac{1}{3}$

19. $\int_0^1 \int_{-\sqrt{x}}^{\sqrt{x}} y \, dy \, dx + \int_1^4 \int_{x-2}^{\sqrt{x}} y \, dy \, dx = \int_{-1}^2 \int_{y^2}^{y+2} y \, dx \, dy = \frac{9}{4}$

21. $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\cos^{-1} y} \sin^2 x \, dx \, dy = \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\cos x} \sin^2 x \, dy \, dx = \frac{1}{3}$

23. $\frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 1)$ **25.** $\frac{11}{3}$ **27.** 0

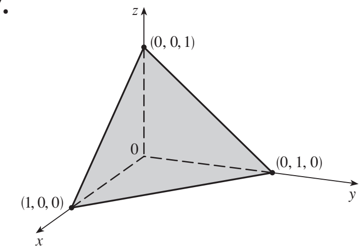
29. (a) $\int_0^1 \int_0^y (1 + xy) \, dx \, dy$ (b) $\frac{5}{8}$ **31.** $\frac{3}{4}$

33. $\frac{31}{8}$ **35.** $\frac{16}{3}$ **37.** $\frac{128}{15}$ **39.** $\frac{1}{3}$

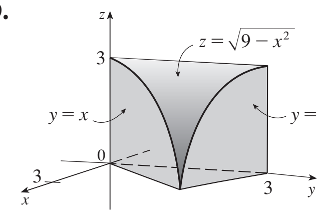
41. 0, 1.213; 0.713 **43.** $\frac{64}{3}$

45. $\dfrac{10}{3\sqrt{2}}$ or $\dfrac{5\sqrt{2}}{3}$

47.

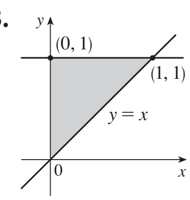


49.



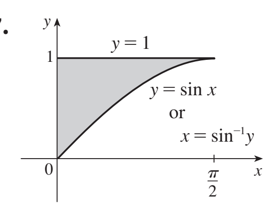
51. 13,984,735,616/14,549,535 **53.** $\pi/2$

55.



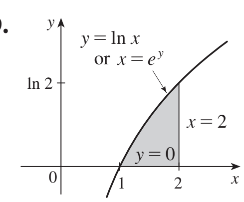
$\int_0^1 \int_x^1 f(x, y) \, dy \, dx$

57.



$\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sin^{-1} y} f(x, y) \, dx \, dy$

59.



$\int_0^{\ln 2} \int_{e^y}^2 f(x, y) \, dx \, dy$

61. $\frac{1}{6}(e^9 - 1)$ **63.** $\frac{2}{9}(2\sqrt{2} - 1)$

65. $\frac{1}{3}(2\sqrt{2} - 1)$ **67.** 1

69. $\dfrac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\pi \le \iint_S \sqrt{4 - x^2 y^2} \, dA \le \pi$

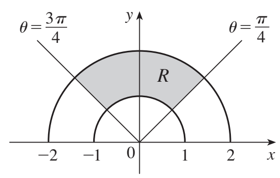
71. $\frac{3}{4}$ **75.** 9π **77.** $a^2 b + \frac{3}{2}ab^2$ **79.** $\pi a^2 b$

EXERCISES 15.3 ■ PAGE 1067

1. $\int_0^{3\pi/2} \int_0^4 f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)\, r\, dr\, d\theta$

3. $\int_0^{\pi} \int_1^3 f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)\, r\, dr\, d\theta$

5. $\int_0^1 \int_{2y-2}^{2-2y} f(x, y)\, dx\, dy$

7. 

$3\pi/4$

9. $\frac{1250}{3}$ **11.** $(\pi/4)(\cos 1 - \cos 9)$

13. $(\pi/2)(1 - e^{-4})$ **15.** $\frac{3}{64}\pi^2$

17. $\dfrac{3\pi}{2} - 4$ **19.** $\dfrac{3\pi}{8} + \dfrac{1}{4}$ **21.** $\pi/12$

23. (a) $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^2 (r + r^3 \cos\theta \sin\theta)\, dr\, d\theta$ (b) $\pi + 2$

25. (a) $\int_0^{3\pi/2} \int_0^3 r^2 \sin\theta\, dr\, d\theta$ (b) 9

27. (a) $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\sin\theta} r^2 \cos\theta\, dr\, d\theta$ (b) $\frac{1}{12}$

29. $\frac{625}{2}\pi$ **31.** 4π **33.** $\frac{4}{3}\pi a^3$

35. $(\pi/3)(2 - \sqrt{2})$ **37.** $(8\pi/3)(64 - 24\sqrt{3})$

39. $(\pi/4)(1 - e^{-4})$ **41.** $\frac{1}{120}$ **43.** 4.5951

45. 38π m^3 **47.** $2/(a + b)$ **49.** $\frac{15}{16}$

51. (a) $\sqrt{\pi}/4$ (b) $\sqrt{\pi}/2$

EXERCISES 15.4 ■ PAGE 1078

1. 285 C **3.** $\left(\frac{3}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ **5.** $42k$, $\left(2, \frac{85}{28}\right)$ **7.** 6, $\left(\frac{3}{4}, \frac{3}{2}\right)$

9. $\frac{8}{15}k$, $\left(0, \frac{4}{7}\right)$ **11.** $\frac{1}{8}(1 - 3e^{-2})$, $\left(\dfrac{e^2 - 5}{e^2 - 3}, \dfrac{8(e^3 - 4)}{27(e^3 - 3e)}\right)$

13. $\left(\frac{3}{8}, 3\pi/16\right)$ **15.** $(0, 45/(14\pi))$

17. $(2a/5, 2a/5)$ if vertex is $(0, 0)$ and sides are along positive axes

19. $409.2k$, $182k$, $591.2k$

21. $7ka^6/180$, $7ka^6/180$, $7ka^6/90$ if vertex is $(0, 0)$ and sides are along positive axes

23. $\rho bh^3/3$, $\rho b^3h/3$; $b/\sqrt{3}$, $h/\sqrt{3}$

25. $\rho a^4\pi/16$, $\rho a^4\pi/16$; $a/2$, $a/2$

27. $m = 3\pi/64$, $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \left(\dfrac{16384\sqrt{2}}{10395\pi}, 0\right)$,

$I_x = \dfrac{5\pi}{384} - \dfrac{4}{105}$, $I_y = \dfrac{5\pi}{384} + \dfrac{4}{105}$, $I_0 = \dfrac{5\pi}{192}$

29. (a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) 0.375 (c) $\frac{5}{48} \approx 0.1042$

31. (b) (i) $e^{-0.2} \approx 0.8187$
(ii) $1 + e^{-1.8} - e^{-0.8} - e^{-1} \approx 0.3481$ (c) 2, 5

33. (a) ≈ 0.500 (b) ≈ 0.632

35. (a) $\iint_D k\left[1 - \frac{1}{20}\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}\right] dA$, where D is the disk with radius 10 km centered at the center of the city
(b) $200\pi k/3 \approx 209k$, $200\left(\pi/2 - \frac{8}{9}\right)k \approx 136k$; on the edge

EXERCISES 15.5 ■ PAGE 1081

1. $\frac{13}{3}\sqrt{2}$ **3.** $12\sqrt{35}$ **5.** $3\sqrt{14}$

7. $(\pi/6)(13\sqrt{13} - 1)$ **9.** $(\pi/6)(17\sqrt{17} - 5\sqrt{5})$

11. $(2\pi/3)(2\sqrt{2} - 1)$ **13.** $a^2(\pi - 2)$ **15.** 3.6258

17. (a) ≈ 1.83 (b) ≈ 1.8616

19. $\frac{45}{8}\sqrt{14} + \frac{15}{16}\ln\left[\left(11\sqrt{5} + 3\sqrt{70}\right)/\left(3\sqrt{5} + \sqrt{70}\right)\right]$

21. 3.3213 **25.** $(\pi/6)\left(101\sqrt{101} - 1\right)$

EXERCISES 15.6 ■ PAGE 1092

1. $\frac{27}{4}$ **3.** $\frac{16}{15}$ **5.** $\frac{5}{3}$ **7.** $3\ln 3 + 3$

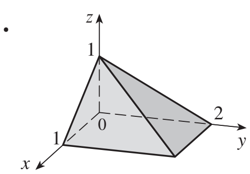
9. (a) $\int_{-1}^1 \int_0^{1-x^2} \int_0^{2-z} x\, dy\, dz\, dx$ (b) 0

11. (a) $\int_0^2 \int_0^{2-x} \int_0^{x^2} (x + y)\, dy\, dz\, dx$ (b) $\frac{8}{3}$

13. $\frac{27}{2}$ **15.** $\pi/8 - \frac{1}{3}$ **17.** $\frac{65}{28}$

19. $\frac{8}{15}$ **21.** $16\pi/3$ **23.** $\frac{16}{3}$ **25.** $\frac{8}{15}$

27. (a) $\int_0^1 \int_0^x \int_0^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} dz\, dy\, dx$ (b) $\frac{1}{4}\pi - \frac{1}{3}$

29. ≈ 0.985 **31.** 

33. $\int_{-2}^2 \int_0^{4-x^2} \int_{-\sqrt{4-x^2-y}/2}^{\sqrt{4-x^2-y}/2} f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dy\, dx$
$= \int_0^4 \int_{-\sqrt{4-y}}^{\sqrt{4-y}} \int_{-\sqrt{4-x^2-y}/2}^{\sqrt{4-x^2-y}/2} f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dx\, dy$
$= \int_{-1}^1 \int_0^{4-4z^2} \int_{-\sqrt{4-y-4z^2}}^{\sqrt{4-y-4z^2}} f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dy\, dz$
$= \int_0^4 \int_{-\sqrt{4-y}/2}^{\sqrt{4-y}/2} \int_{-\sqrt{4-y-4z^2}}^{\sqrt{4-y-4z^2}} f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dz\, dy$
$= \int_{-2}^2 \int_{-\sqrt{4-x^2}/2}^{\sqrt{4-x^2}/2} \int_0^{4-x^2-4z^2} f(x, y, z)\, dy\, dz\, dx$
$= \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-\sqrt{4-4z^2}}^{\sqrt{4-4z^2}} \int_0^{4-x^2-4z^2} f(x, y, z)\, dy\, dx\, dz$

35. $\int_{-2}^2 \int_{x^2}^4 \int_0^{2-y/2} f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dy\, dx$
$= \int_0^4 \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} \int_0^{2-y/2} f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dx\, dy$
$= \int_0^2 \int_0^{4-2z} \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dy\, dz$
$= \int_0^4 \int_0^{2-y/2} \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dz\, dy$
$= \int_{-2}^2 \int_0^{2-x^2/2} \int_{x^2}^{4-2z} f(x, y, z)\, dy\, dz\, dx$
$= \int_0^2 \int_{-\sqrt{4-2z}}^{\sqrt{4-2z}} \int_{x^2}^{4-2z} f(x, y, z)\, dy\, dx\, dz$

37. $\int_0^1 \int_{\sqrt{x}}^1 \int_0^{1-y} f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dy\, dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^{y^2} \int_0^{1-y} f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dx\, dy$
$= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-z} \int_0^{y^2} f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dy\, dz = \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-y} \int_0^{y^2} f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dz\, dy$
$= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-\sqrt{x}} \int_{\sqrt{x}}^{1-z} f(x, y, z)\, dy\, dz\, dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^{(1-z)^2} \int_{\sqrt{x}}^{1-z} f(x, y, z)\, dy\, dx\, dz$

39. $\int_0^1 \int_y^1 \int_0^y f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dx\, dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^x \int_0^y f(x, y, z)\, dz\, dy\, dx$
$= \int_0^1 \int_z^1 \int_y^1 f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dy\, dz = \int_0^1 \int_0^y \int_y^1 f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dz\, dy$
$= \int_0^1 \int_0^x \int_z^x f(x, y, z)\, dy\, dz\, dx = \int_0^1 \int_z^1 \int_z^x f(x, y, z)\, dy\, dx\, dz$

41. 64π **43.** $\frac{3}{2}\pi$, $\left(0, 0, \frac{1}{3}\right)$

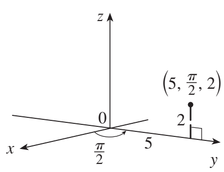
45. a^5, $(7a/12, 7a/12, 7a/12)$

47. $I_x = I_y = I_z = \frac{2}{3}kL^5$ **49.** $\frac{1}{2}\pi kha^4$

51. (a) $m = \int_{-1}^{1}\int_{x^2}^{1}\int_{0}^{1-y} \sqrt{x^2+y^2}\,dz\,dy\,dx$
(b) $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$, where
$\bar{x} = (1/m)\int_{-1}^{1}\int_{x^2}^{1}\int_{0}^{1-y} x\sqrt{x^2+y^2}\,dz\,dy\,dx$,
$\bar{y} = (1/m)\int_{-1}^{1}\int_{x^2}^{1}\int_{0}^{1-y} y\sqrt{x^2+y^2}\,dz\,dy\,dx$,
and $\bar{z} = (1/m)\int_{-1}^{1}\int_{x^2}^{1}\int_{0}^{1-y} z\sqrt{x^2+y^2}\,dz\,dy\,dx$
(c) $\int_{-1}^{1}\int_{x^2}^{1}\int_{0}^{1-y} (x^2+y^2)^{3/2}\,dz\,dy\,dx$
53. (a) $\frac{3}{32}\pi + \frac{11}{24}$
(b) $\left(\dfrac{28}{9\pi+44}, \dfrac{30\pi+128}{45\pi+220}, \dfrac{45\pi+208}{135\pi+660}\right)$
(c) $\frac{1}{240}(68 + 15\pi)$
55. (a) $\frac{1}{8}$ (b) $\frac{1}{64}$ (c) $\frac{1}{5760}$ **57.** $L^3/8$
59. (a) The region bounded by the ellipsoid $x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2 = 1$
(b) $4\sqrt{6}\pi/45$

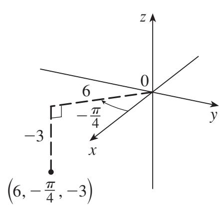
EXERCISES 15.7 ■ PAGE 1100

1. (a)



$(0, 5, 2)$

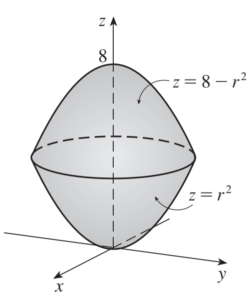
(b)



$(3\sqrt{2}, -3\sqrt{2}, -3)$

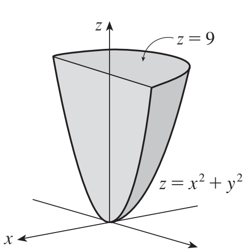
3. (a) $(4\sqrt{2}, \pi/4, -3)$ (b) $(10, -\pi/6, \sqrt{3})$
5. Circular cylinder with radius 2 and axis the z-axis
7. Sphere, radius 2, centered at the origin
9. (a) $z^2 = 1 + r\cos\theta - r^2$ (b) $z = r^2\cos 2\theta$

11.



13. Cylindrical coordinates: $6 \leqslant r \leqslant 7$, $0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$, $0 \leqslant z \leqslant 20$
15. (a) $\int_0^{\pi}\int_0^{1}\int_0^{2-r^2} r^3\,dz\,dr\,d\theta$ (b) $\pi/3$

17.

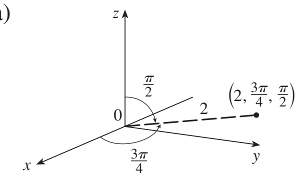


$\frac{81}{4}\pi$

19. 384π **21.** $\frac{8}{3}\pi + \frac{128}{15}$ **23.** $2\pi/5$ **25.** $\frac{4}{3}\pi(\sqrt{2} - 1)$
27. (a) $\frac{512}{3}\pi$ (b) $(0, 0, \frac{23}{2})$
29. $\pi K a^2/8$, $(0, 0, 2a/3)$ **31.** 0
33. (a) $\iiint_C h(P)g(P)\,dV$, where C is the cone
(b) $\approx 4.4 \times 10^{18}$ J

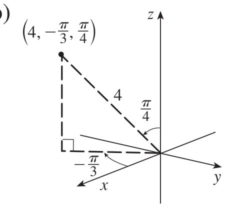
EXERCISES 15.8 ■ PAGE 1106

1. (a)



$(-\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}, 0)$

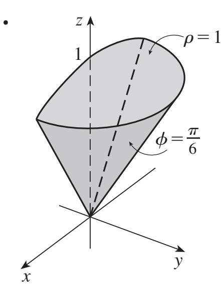
(b)



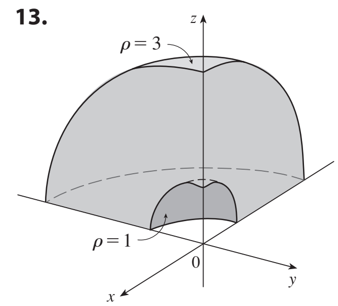
$(\sqrt{2}, -\sqrt{6}, 2\sqrt{2})$

3. (a) $(3\sqrt{2}, \pi/4, \pi/2)$ (b) $(4, -\pi/3, \pi/6)$
5. Bottom half of a cone **7.** Horizontal plane
9. (a) $\rho = 3$ (b) $\rho^2(\sin^2\phi\cos 2\theta - \cos^2\phi) = 1$

11.

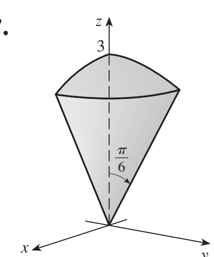


13.



15. $\pi/4 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi/2$, $0 \leqslant \rho \leqslant 4\cos\phi$

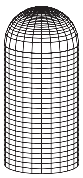
17.



$(9\pi/4)(2 - \sqrt{3})$

19. $\int_0^{\pi/2}\int_0^{3}\int_0^{2} f(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta, z)\,r\,dz\,dr\,d\theta$
21. (a) $\int_{\pi/2}^{\pi}\int_{\pi/2}^{3\pi/2}\int_{2}^{3} \rho^3\sin\phi\,d\rho\,d\theta\,d\phi$ (b) $\frac{65}{4}\pi$
23. $312{,}500\pi/7$ **25.** $1688\pi/15$ **27.** $\pi/8$
29. $(\sqrt{3} - 1)\pi a^3/3$ **31.** (a) 10π (b) $(0, 0, 2.1)$
33. (a) $(0, 0, \frac{7}{12})$ (b) $11K\pi/960$
35. (a) $(0, 0, \frac{3}{8}a)$ (b) $4K\pi a^5/15$ (K is the density)
37. $\frac{1}{3}\pi(2 - \sqrt{2})$, $(0, 0, 3/[8(2 - \sqrt{2})])$
39. (a) $\pi K a^4 h/2$ (K is the density) (b) $\pi K a^2 h(3a^2 + 4h^2)/12$
41. $5\pi/6$ **43.** $(4\sqrt{2} - 5)/15$ **45.** $4096\pi/21$

47.



49. $136\pi/99$

EXERCISES 15.9 ■ PAGE 1116

1. (a) VI (b) I (c) IV (d) V (e) III (f) II

3. The parallelogram with vertices (0, 0), (6, 3), (12, 1), (6, −2)

5. The region bounded by the line $y = 1$, the y-axis, and $y = \sqrt{x}$

7. $x = \frac{1}{3}(v - u)$, $y = \frac{1}{3}(u + 2v)$ is one possible transformation, where $S = \{(u, v) \mid -1 \leqslant u \leqslant 1, 1 \leqslant v \leqslant 3\}$

9. $x = u \cos v$, $y = u \sin v$ is one possible transformation, where $S = \left\{(u, v) \mid 1 \leqslant u \leqslant \sqrt{2}, 0 \leqslant v \leqslant \pi/2\right\}$

11. -6 **13.** s **15.** $2uvw$

17. -3 **19.** 6π **21.** $2 \ln 3$

23. (a) $\frac{4}{3}\pi abc$ (b) $1.083 \times 10^{12}\ \text{km}^3$

(c) $\frac{4}{15}\pi(a^2 + b^2)abck$

25. $\frac{8}{5} \ln 8$ **27** $\frac{3}{2} \sin 1$ **29.** $e - e^{-1}$

CHAPTER 15 REVIEW ■ PAGE 1118

True-False Quiz

1. True **3.** True **5.** True **7.** True **9.** False

Exercises

1. ≈ 64.0 **3.** $4e^2 - 4e + 3$ **5.** $\frac{1}{2} \sin 1$ **7.** $\frac{2}{3}$

9. $\int_0^{\pi} \int_2^4 f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)\, r\, dr\, d\theta$

11. $(\sqrt{3}, 3, 2)$, $(4, \pi/3, \pi/3)$

13. $(2\sqrt{2}, 2\sqrt{2}, 4\sqrt{3})$, $(4, \pi/4, 4\sqrt{3})$

15. (a) $r^2 + z^2 = 4$, $\rho = 2$ (b) $r = 2$, $\rho \sin \phi = 2$

17. The region inside the loop of the four-leaved rose $r = \sin 2\theta$ in the first quadrant

19. $\frac{1}{2} \sin 1$ **21.** $\frac{1}{2}e^6 - \frac{7}{2}$ **23.** $\frac{1}{4} \ln 2$ **25.** 8

27. $81\pi/5$ **29.** $\frac{81}{2}$ **31.** $\pi/96$ **33.** $\frac{64}{15}$

35. 176 **37.** $\frac{2}{3}$ **39.** $2ma^3/9$

41. (a) $\frac{1}{4}$ (b) $\left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{8}{15}\right)$

(c) $I_x = \frac{1}{12}$, $I_y = \frac{1}{24}$; $\bar{\bar{y}} = 1/\sqrt{3}$, $\bar{\bar{x}} = 1/\sqrt{6}$

43. (a) $(0, 0, h/4)$ (b) $\pi a^5 h/15$

45. $\ln(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}) + \sqrt{2}/3$ **47.** $\frac{486}{5}$ **49.** 0.0512

51. (a) $\frac{1}{15}$ (b) $\frac{1}{3}$ (c) $\frac{1}{45}$

53. $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-z} \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} f(x, y, z)\, dx\, dy\, dz$ **55.** $-\ln 2$ **57.** 0

PROBLEMS PLUS ■ PAGE 1121

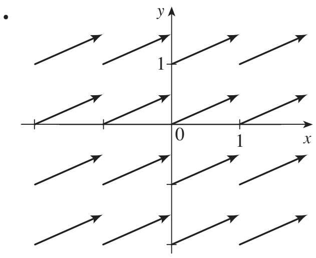
1. 30 **3.** $\frac{1}{2} \sin 1$ **7.** (b) 0.90

13. $abc\pi\left(\dfrac{2}{3} - \dfrac{8}{9\sqrt{3}}\right)$

CHAPTER 16

EXERCISES 16.1 ■ PAGE 1129

1.



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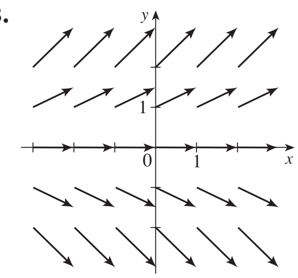

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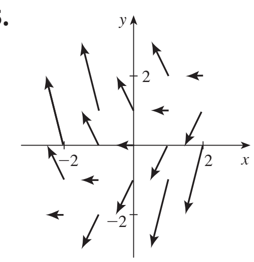

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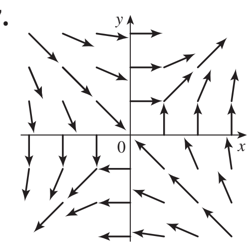

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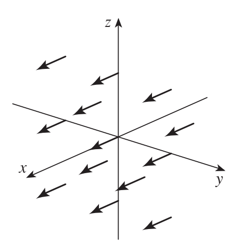
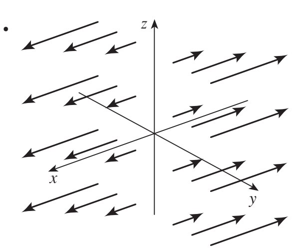
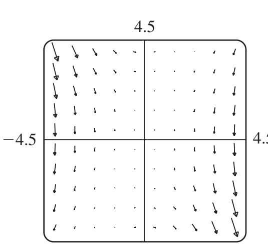


11.



13. IV **15.** I **17.** III **19.** IV **21.** III

23.

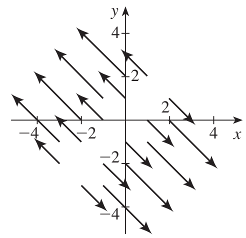


The line $y = 2x$

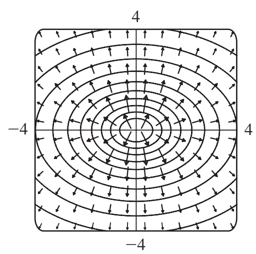
25. $\nabla f(x, y) = y^2 \cos(xy)\, \mathbf{i} + [xy \cos(xy) + \sin(xy)]\, \mathbf{j}$

27. $\nabla f(x, y, z) = \dfrac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}\,\mathbf{i} + \dfrac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}\,\mathbf{j} + \dfrac{z}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}\,\mathbf{k}$

29. $\nabla f(x, y) = (x - y)\,\mathbf{i} + (y - x)\,\mathbf{j}$

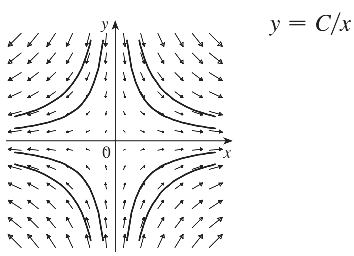


31. III **33.** II **35.**



37. (2.04, 1.03)

39. (a)



(b) $y = 1/x$, $x > 0$

EXERCISES 16.2 ■ PAGE 1141

1. $\frac{4}{3}(10^{3/2} - 1)$ **3.** 1638.4 **5.** $\frac{1}{3}\pi^6 + 2\pi$ **7.** $\frac{5}{2}$

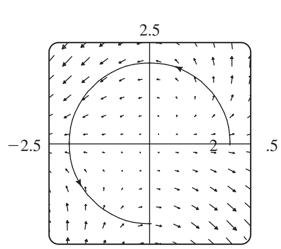
9. $\sqrt{2}/3$ **11.** $\frac{1}{12}\sqrt{14}(e^6 - 1)$ **13.** $\frac{2}{5}(e - 1)$

15. $\pi/2 - \frac{1}{6}\sqrt{2}$ **17.** $\frac{35}{3}$

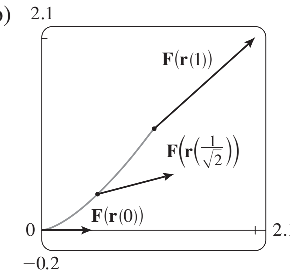
19. (a) Positive (b) Negative **21.** $\frac{1}{20}$

23. $\frac{6}{5} - \cos 1 - \sin 1$ **25.** 0.5424 **27.** 94.8231

29. $3\pi + \frac{2}{3}$



31. (a) $\frac{11}{8} - 1/e$ (b)



33. $\frac{172,704}{5,632,705}\sqrt{2}(1 - e^{-14\pi})$ **35.** $2\pi k$, $(4/\pi, 0)$

37. (a) $\bar{x} = (1/m)\int_C x\rho(x, y, z)\,ds$,
$\bar{y} = (1/m)\int_C y\rho(x, y, z)\,ds$,
$\bar{z} = (1/m)\int_C z\rho(x, y, z)\,ds$, where $m = \int_C \rho(x, y, z)\,ds$
(b) $(0, 0, 3\pi)$

39. $I_x = k\left(\frac{1}{2}\pi - \frac{4}{3}\right)$, $I_y = k\left(\frac{1}{2}\pi - \frac{2}{3}\right)$ **41.** $2\pi^2$ **43.** $\frac{7}{3}$

45. (a) $2ma\,\mathbf{i} + 6mbt\,\mathbf{j}$, $0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1$ (b) $2ma^2 + \frac{9}{2}mb^2$

47. $\approx 2.26 \times 10^4$ J **49.** (b) Yes **53.** ≈ 22 J

EXERCISES 16.3 ■ PAGE 1151

1. 40 **3.** Not conservative

5. $f(x, y) = ye^{xy} + K$ **7.** $f(x, y) = ye^x + x\sin y + K$

9. $f(x, y) = y^2\sin x + x\cos y + K$

11. (b) 16 **13.** (a) 16 (b) $f(x, y) = x^3 + xy^2 + K$

15. (a) $f(x, y) = e^{xy} + K$ (b) $e^2 - 1$

17. (a) $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2y^2$ (b) -21

19. (a) $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{3}x^3y^3$ (b) -9

21. (a) $f(x, y, z) = x^2y + y^2z$ (b) 30

23. (a) $f(x, y, z) = ye^{xz}$ (b) 4 **25.** $4/e$

27. It doesn't matter which curve is chosen.

29. $\frac{31}{4}$ **31.** No **33.** Conservative

37. (a) Yes (b) Yes (c) Yes

39. (a) No (b) Yes (c) Yes

EXERCISES 16.4 ■ PAGE 1159

1. 120 **3.** $\frac{2}{3}$ **5.** $4(e^3 - 1)$ **7.** $-\frac{9}{5}$ **9.** $\frac{1}{3}$

11. -24π **13.** 14 **15.** $-\frac{16}{3}$ **17.** 4π

19. $\frac{1}{15}\pi^4 - \frac{4144}{1125}\pi^2 + \frac{7,578,368}{253,125} \approx 0.0779$

21. $-\frac{1}{12}$ **23.** 3π **25.** (c) $\frac{9}{2}$

27. $(4a/3\pi, 4a/3\pi)$ if the region is the portion of the disk $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ in the first quadrant

31. 0

EXERCISES 16.5 ■ PAGE 1168

1. (a) $\mathbf{0}$ (b) $y^2z^2 + x^2z^2 + x^2y^2$

3. (a) $ze^x\,\mathbf{i} + (xye^z - yze^x)\,\mathbf{j} - xe^z\,\mathbf{k}$ (b) $y(e^z + e^x)$

5. (a) $-\dfrac{\sqrt{z}}{(1 + y)^2}\,\mathbf{i} - \dfrac{\sqrt{x}}{(1 + z)^2}\,\mathbf{j} - \dfrac{\sqrt{y}}{(1 + x)^2}\,\mathbf{k}$

(b) $\dfrac{1}{2\sqrt{x}\,(1 + z)} + \dfrac{1}{2\sqrt{y}\,(1 + x)} + \dfrac{1}{2\sqrt{z}\,(1 + y)}$

7. (a) $\langle -e^y \cos z, -e^z \cos x, -e^x \cos y \rangle$
(b) $e^x \sin y + e^y \sin z + e^z \sin x$

9. (a) Negative (b) curl $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$

11. (a) Zero (b) curl $\mathbf{F}$ points in the negative z-direction.

15. $f(x, y, z) = x^2y^3z^2 + K$

17. $f(x, y, z) = x \ln y + y \ln z + K$

19. Not conservative **21.** No

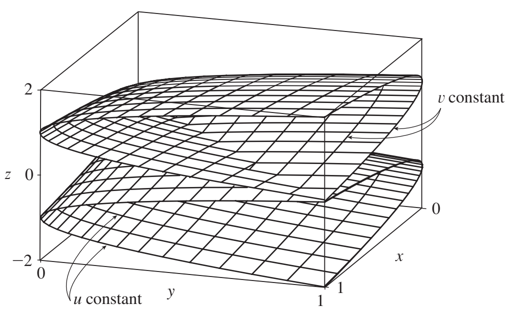
EXERCISES 16.6 ■ PAGE 1180

1. P: yes; Q: no

3. Plane through (0, 3, 1) containing vectors $\langle 1, 0, 4\rangle$, $\langle 1, -1, 5\rangle$

5. Circular cone with axis the z-axis

7.



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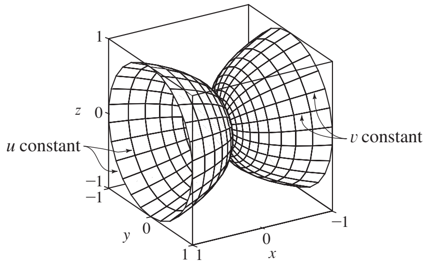

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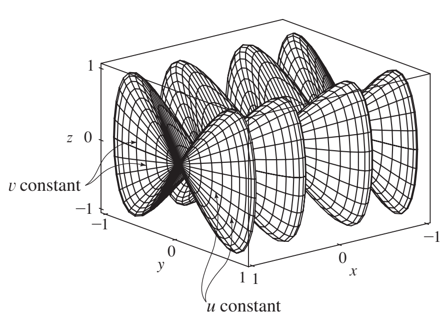


13. IV **15.** I **17.** III

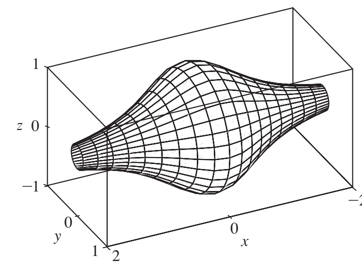
19. $x = u, y = v - u, z = -v$

21. $y = y, z = z, x = \sqrt{1 + y^2 + \frac{1}{4}z^2}$

23. $x = 2 \sin \phi \cos \theta, y = 2 \sin \phi \sin \theta,$
$z = 2 \cos \phi, 0 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi/4, 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$
$\left[\text{or } x = x, y = y, z = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}, x^2 + y^2 \leqslant 2\right]$

25. $x = 6 \sin \phi \cos \theta, y = 6 \sin \phi \sin \theta, z = 6 \cos \phi,$
$\pi/6 \leqslant \phi \leqslant \pi/2, 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$

29. $x = x, y = \dfrac{1}{1 + x^2} \cos \theta, y = \dfrac{1}{1 + x^2} \sin \theta,$
$-2 \leqslant x \leqslant 2, 0 \leqslant \theta \leqslant 2\pi$



31. (a) Direction reverses (b) Number of coils doubles

33. $3x - y + 3z = 3$ **35.** $\dfrac{\sqrt{3}}{2}x - \dfrac{1}{2}y + z = \dfrac{\pi}{3}$

37. $-x + 2z = 1$ **39.** $3\sqrt{14}$ **41.** $\sqrt{14}\,\pi$

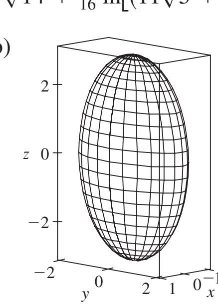
43. $\frac{4}{15}(3^{5/2} - 2^{7/2} + 1)$ **45.** $(2\pi/3)(2\sqrt{2} - 1)$

47. $(\pi/6)(65^{3/2} - 1)$ **49.** 4 **51.** $\pi R^2 \leqslant A(S) \leqslant \sqrt{3}\,\pi R^2$

53. 3.5618 **55.** (a) ≈ 24.2055 (b) 24.2476

57. $\frac{45}{8}\sqrt{14} + \frac{15}{16} \ln\left[\left(11\sqrt{5} + 3\sqrt{70}\right)/\left(3\sqrt{5} + \sqrt{70}\right)\right]$

59. (b)



(c) $\int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^{\pi} \sqrt{36 \sin^4 u \cos^2 v + 9 \sin^4 u \sin^2 v + 4 \cos^2 u \sin^2 u}\; du\, dv$

61. 4π **63.** $2a^2(\pi - 2)$

EXERCISES 16.7 ■ PAGE 1192

1. ≈ -6.93 **3.** 900π **5.** $11\sqrt{14}$ **7.** $\frac{2}{3}\left(2\sqrt{2} - 1\right)$

9. $171\sqrt{14}$ **11.** $\sqrt{21}/3$ **13.** $(\pi/120)\left(25\sqrt{5} + 1\right)$

15. $\frac{7}{4}\sqrt{21} - \frac{17}{12}\sqrt{17}$ **17.** 16π **19.** 0 **21.** 4

23. $\frac{713}{180}$ **25.** $\frac{8}{3}\pi$ **27.** 0 **29.** 48 **31.** $2\pi + \frac{8}{3}$

33. 4.5822 **35.** 3.4895

37. $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_D [P(\partial h/\partial x) - Q + R(\partial h/\partial z)]\, dA$,
where D = projection of S onto xz-plane

39. $(0, 0, a/2)$

41. (a) $I_z = \iint_S (x^2 + y^2)\rho(x, y, z)\, dS$ (b) $4329\sqrt{2}\,\pi/5$

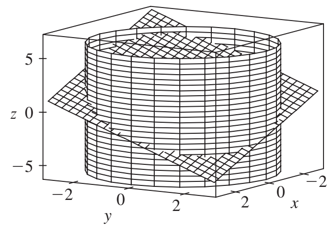
43. 0 kg/s **45.** $\frac{8}{3}\pi a^3 \varepsilon_0$ **47.** 1248π

EXERCISES 16.8 ■ PAGE 1199

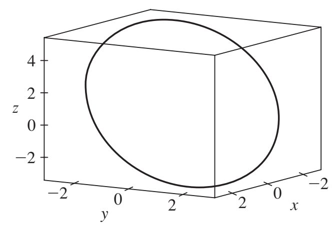
3. 16π **5.** 0 **7.** -1 **9.** $-\frac{17}{20}$

11. 8π **13.** $\pi/2$

15. (a) $81\pi/2$ (b)



(c) $x = 3\cos t$, $y = 3\sin t$,
$z = 1 - 3(\cos t + \sin t)$,
$0 \leqslant t \leqslant 2\pi$



17. -32π **19.** $-\pi$ **21.** 3

EXERCISES 16.9 ■ PAGE 1206

1. $\frac{9}{2}$ **3.** $256\pi/3$ **5.** $\frac{9}{2}$ **7.** $9\pi/2$ **9.** 0

11. π **13.** 16 **15.** $\frac{1}{24}abc(a + 4)$ **17.** 2π

19. $13\pi/20$ **21.** Negative at P_1, positive at P_2

23. div $\mathbf{F} > 0$ in quadrants I, II; div $\mathbf{F} < 0$ in quadrants III, IV

CHAPTER 16 REVIEW ■ PAGE 1209

True-False Quiz

1. False **3.** True **5.** False **7.** False

9. True **11.** True **13.** False

Exercises

1. (a) Negative (b) Positive **3.** $6\sqrt{10}$ **5.** $\frac{4}{15}$

7. $\frac{110}{3}$ **9.** $\frac{11}{12} - 4/e$ **11.** $f(x, y) = e^y + xe^{xy} + K$

13. 0 **15.** 0 **17.** -8π **25.** $\frac{1}{6}\left(27 - 5\sqrt{5}\right)$

27. $(\pi/60)\left(391\sqrt{17} + 1\right)$ **29.** $-64\pi/3$ **31.** 0

33. $-\frac{1}{2}$ **35.** 4π **37.** -4 **39.** 21

PROBLEMS PLUS ■ PAGE 1213

7. (d) $\dfrac{4\sqrt{2}\pi^2}{25}$ (e) $2\pi^2 r^2 R$

Index

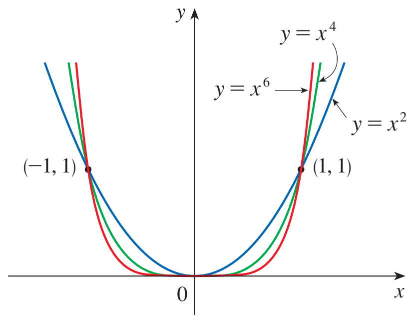
RP denotes Reference Page numbers at the back of the book.

Cut here and keep for reference

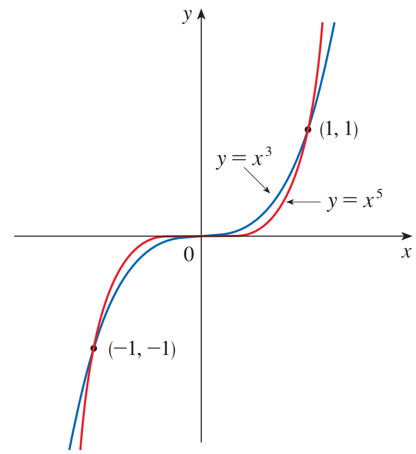
SPECIAL FUNCTIONS

Power Functions $f(x) = x^a$

(i) $f(x) = x^n$, n a positive integer

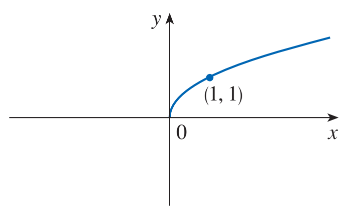


n even

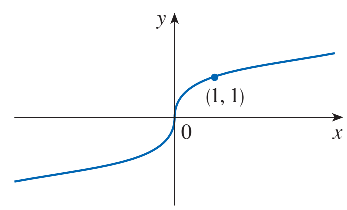


n odd

(ii) $f(x) = x^{1/n} = \sqrt[n]{x}$, n a positive integer

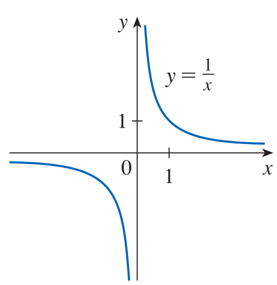


$f(x) = \sqrt{x}$



$f(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$

(iii) $f(x) = x^{-1} = \dfrac{1}{x}$

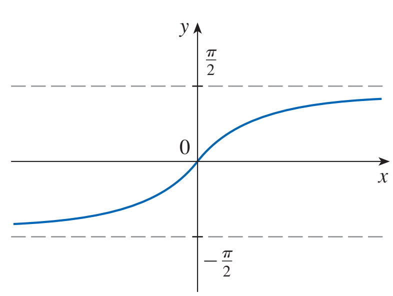


Inverse Trigonometric Functions

$$\arcsin x = \sin^{-1}x = y \iff \sin y = x \quad \text{and} \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} \leqslant y \leqslant \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\arccos x = \cos^{-1}x = y \iff \cos y = x \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leqslant y \leqslant \pi$$

$$\arctan x = \tan^{-1}x = y \iff \tan y = x \quad \text{and} \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} < y < \frac{\pi}{2}$$



$y = \tan^{-1}x = \arctan x$

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} \tan^{-1}x = -\frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \tan^{-1}x = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

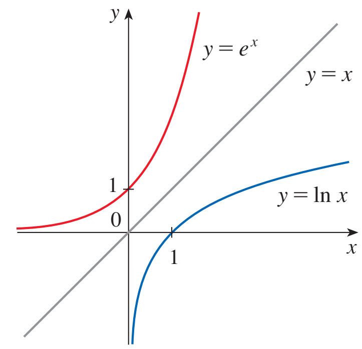
SPECIAL FUNCTIONS

Exponential and Logarithmic Functions

$\log_b x = y \iff b^y = x$

$\ln x = \log_e x, \quad \text{where} \quad \ln e = 1$

$\ln x = y \iff e^y = x$



$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} e^x = 0 \qquad \lim_{x \to \infty} e^x = \infty$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \ln x = -\infty \qquad \lim_{x \to \infty} \ln x = \infty$$

Cancellation Equations

$\log_b(b^x) = x \qquad b^{\log_b x} = x$

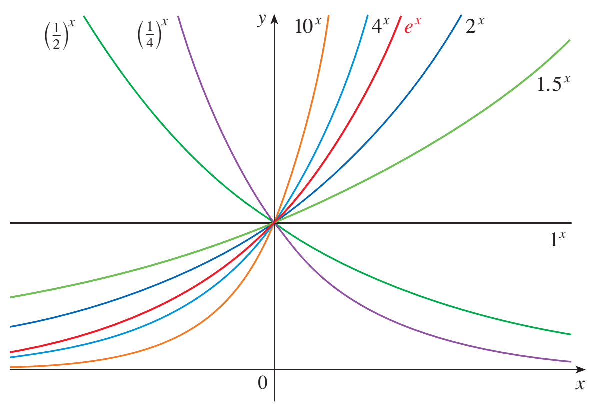
$\ln(e^x) = x \qquad e^{\ln x} = x$

Laws of Logarithms

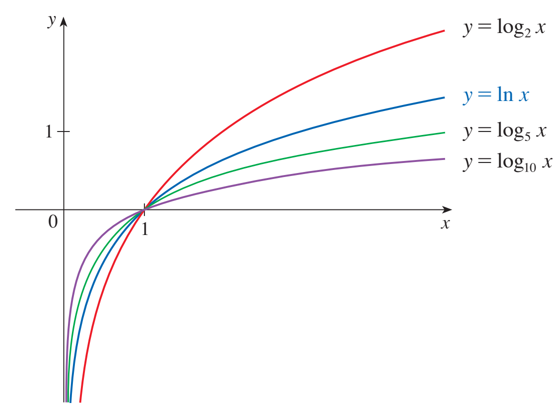
1. $\log_b(xy) = \log_b x + \log_b y$

2. $\log_b\left(\dfrac{x}{y}\right) = \log_b x - \log_b y$

3. $\log_b(x^r) = r \log_b x$



Exponential functions



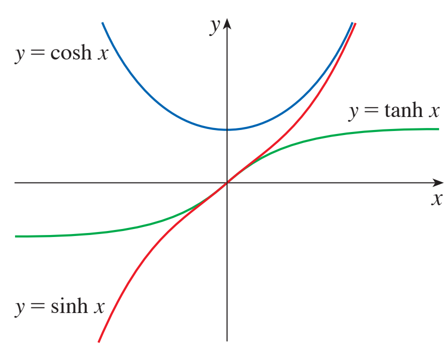
Logarithmic functions

Hyperbolic Functions

$\sinh x = \dfrac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \qquad \operatorname{csch} x = \dfrac{1}{\sinh x}$

$\cosh x = \dfrac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \qquad \operatorname{sech} x = \dfrac{1}{\cosh x}$

$\tanh x = \dfrac{\sinh x}{\cosh x} \qquad \coth x = \dfrac{\cosh x}{\sinh x}$



Inverse Hyperbolic Functions

$y = \sinh^{-1}x \iff \sinh y = x$

$y = \cosh^{-1}x \iff \cosh y = x \quad \text{and} \quad y \geqslant 0$

$y = \tanh^{-1}x \iff \tanh y = x$

$\sinh^{-1}x = \ln\left(x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}\right)$

$\cosh^{-1}x = \ln\left(x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}\right)$

$\tanh^{-1}x = \frac{1}{2}\ln\left(\dfrac{1 + x}{1 - x}\right)$

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REFERENCE page 5

DIFFERENTIATION RULES

General Formulas

1. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(c) = 0$

2. $\dfrac{d}{dx}[cf(x)] = cf'(x)$

3. $\dfrac{d}{dx}[f(x) + g(x)] = f'(x) + g'(x)$

4. $\dfrac{d}{dx}[f(x) - g(x)] = f'(x) - g'(x)$

5. $\dfrac{d}{dx}[f(x)g(x)] = f(x)g'(x) + g(x)f'(x)$ (Product Rule)

6. $\dfrac{d}{dx}\left[\dfrac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right] = \dfrac{g(x)f'(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{[g(x)]^2}$ (Quotient Rule)

7. $\dfrac{d}{dx} f(g(x)) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$ (Chain Rule)

8. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$ (Power Rule)

Exponential and Logarithmic Functions

9. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$

10. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(b^x) = b^x \ln b$

11. $\dfrac{d}{dx} \ln|x| = \dfrac{1}{x}$

12. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\log_b x) = \dfrac{1}{x \ln b}$

Trigonometric Functions

13. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$

14. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x$

15. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x$

16. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\csc x) = -\csc x \cot x$

17. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\sec x) = \sec x \tan x$

18. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\cot x) = -\csc^2 x$

Inverse Trigonometric Functions

19. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1}x) = \dfrac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$

20. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\cos^{-1}x) = -\dfrac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$

21. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1}x) = \dfrac{1}{1 + x^2}$

22. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\csc^{-1}x) = -\dfrac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}$

23. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\sec^{-1}x) = \dfrac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}$

24. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\cot^{-1}x) = -\dfrac{1}{1 + x^2}$

Hyperbolic Functions

25. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\sinh x) = \cosh x$

26. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\cosh x) = \sinh x$

27. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\tanh x) = \operatorname{sech}^2 x$

28. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{csch} x) = -\operatorname{csch} x \coth x$

29. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{sech} x) = -\operatorname{sech} x \tanh x$

30. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\coth x) = -\operatorname{csch}^2 x$

Inverse Hyperbolic Functions

31. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\sinh^{-1}x) = \dfrac{1}{\sqrt{1 + x^2}}$

32. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\cosh^{-1}x) = \dfrac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}$

33. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\tanh^{-1}x) = \dfrac{1}{1 - x^2}$

34. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{csch}^{-1}x) = -\dfrac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}$

35. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{sech}^{-1}x) = -\dfrac{1}{x\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$

36. $\dfrac{d}{dx}(\coth^{-1}x) = \dfrac{1}{1 - x^2}$

TABLE OF INTEGRALS

Basic Forms

1. $\int u\,dv = uv - \int v\,du$

2. $\int u^n\,du = \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} + C, \quad n \neq -1$

3. $\int \frac{du}{u} = \ln|u| + C$

4. $\int e^u\,du = e^u + C$

5. $\int b^u\,du = \frac{b^u}{\ln b} + C$

6. $\int \sin u\,du = -\cos u + C$

7. $\int \cos u\,du = \sin u + C$

8. $\int \sec^2 u\,du = \tan u + C$

9. $\int \csc^2 u\,du = -\cot u + C$

10. $\int \sec u\,\tan u\,du = \sec u + C$

11. $\int \csc u\,\cot u\,du = -\csc u + C$

12. $\int \tan u\,du = \ln|\sec u| + C$

13. $\int \cot u\,du = \ln|\sin u| + C$

14. $\int \sec u\,du = \ln|\sec u + \tan u| + C$

15. $\int \csc u\,du = \ln|\csc u - \cot u| + C$

16. $\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = \sin^{-1}\frac{u}{a} + C, \quad a > 0$

17. $\int \frac{du}{a^2 + u^2} = \frac{1}{a}\tan^{-1}\frac{u}{a} + C$

18. $\int \frac{du}{u\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}} = \frac{1}{a}\sec^{-1}\frac{u}{a} + C$

19. $\int \frac{du}{a^2 - u^2} = \frac{1}{2a}\ln\left|\frac{u + a}{u - a}\right| + C$

20. $\int \frac{du}{u^2 - a^2} = \frac{1}{2a}\ln\left|\frac{u - a}{u + a}\right| + C$

Forms Involving $\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}$, $a > 0$

21. $\int \sqrt{a^2 + u^2}\,du = \frac{u}{2}\sqrt{a^2 + u^2} + \frac{a^2}{2}\ln\left(u + \sqrt{a^2 + u^2}\right) + C$

22. $\int u^2\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}\,du = \frac{u}{8}(a^2 + 2u^2)\sqrt{a^2 + u^2} - \frac{a^4}{8}\ln\left(u + \sqrt{a^2 + u^2}\right) + C$

23. $\int \frac{\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}}{u}\,du = \sqrt{a^2 + u^2} - a\ln\left|\frac{a + \sqrt{a^2 + u^2}}{u}\right| + C$

24. $\int \frac{\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}}{u^2}\,du = -\frac{\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}}{u} + \ln\left(u + \sqrt{a^2 + u^2}\right) + C$

25. $\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}} = \ln\left(u + \sqrt{a^2 + u^2}\right) + C$

26. $\int \frac{u^2\,du}{\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}} = \frac{u}{2}\sqrt{a^2 + u^2} - \frac{a^2}{2}\ln\left(u + \sqrt{a^2 + u^2}\right) + C$

27. $\int \frac{du}{u\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}} = -\frac{1}{a}\ln\left|\frac{\sqrt{a^2 + u^2} + a}{u}\right| + C$

28. $\int \frac{du}{u^2\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}} = -\frac{\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}}{a^2 u} + C$

29. $\int \frac{du}{(a^2 + u^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{u}{a^2\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}} + C$

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TABLE OF INTEGRALS

Forms Involving $\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}$, $a > 0$

30. $\displaystyle \int \sqrt{a^2 - u^2}\, du = \frac{u}{2}\sqrt{a^2 - u^2} + \frac{a^2}{2}\sin^{-1}\frac{u}{a} + C$

31. $\displaystyle \int u^2\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}\, du = \frac{u}{8}(2u^2 - a^2)\sqrt{a^2 - u^2} + \frac{a^4}{8}\sin^{-1}\frac{u}{a} + C$

32. $\displaystyle \int \frac{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}{u}\, du = \sqrt{a^2 - u^2} - a\ln\left|\frac{a + \sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}{u}\right| + C$

33. $\displaystyle \int \frac{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}{u^2}\, du = -\frac{1}{u}\sqrt{a^2 - u^2} - \sin^{-1}\frac{u}{a} + C$

34. $\displaystyle \int \frac{u^2\, du}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = -\frac{u}{2}\sqrt{a^2 - u^2} + \frac{a^2}{2}\sin^{-1}\frac{u}{a} + C$

35. $\displaystyle \int \frac{du}{u\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = -\frac{1}{a}\ln\left|\frac{a + \sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}{u}\right| + C$

36. $\displaystyle \int \frac{du}{u^2\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = -\frac{1}{a^2 u}\sqrt{a^2 - u^2} + C$

37. $\displaystyle \int (a^2 - u^2)^{3/2}\, du = -\frac{u}{8}(2u^2 - 5a^2)\sqrt{a^2 - u^2} + \frac{3a^4}{8}\sin^{-1}\frac{u}{a} + C$

38. $\displaystyle \int \frac{du}{(a^2 - u^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{u}{a^2\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} + C$

Forms Involving $\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}$, $a > 0$

39. $\displaystyle \int \sqrt{u^2 - a^2}\, du = \frac{u}{2}\sqrt{u^2 - a^2} - \frac{a^2}{2}\ln\left|u + \sqrt{u^2 - a^2}\right| + C$

40. $\displaystyle \int u^2\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}\, du = \frac{u}{8}(2u^2 - a^2)\sqrt{u^2 - a^2} - \frac{a^4}{8}\ln\left|u + \sqrt{u^2 - a^2}\right| + C$

41. $\displaystyle \int \frac{\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}}{u}\, du = \sqrt{u^2 - a^2} - a\cos^{-1}\frac{a}{|u|} + C$

42. $\displaystyle \int \frac{\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}}{u^2}\, du = -\frac{\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}}{u} + \ln\left|u + \sqrt{u^2 - a^2}\right| + C$

43. $\displaystyle \int \frac{du}{\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}} = \ln\left|u + \sqrt{u^2 - a^2}\right| + C$

44. $\displaystyle \int \frac{u^2\, du}{\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}} = \frac{u}{2}\sqrt{u^2 - a^2} + \frac{a^2}{2}\ln\left|u + \sqrt{u^2 - a^2}\right| + C$

45. $\displaystyle \int \frac{du}{u^2\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}}{a^2 u} + C$

46. $\displaystyle \int \frac{du}{(u^2 - a^2)^{3/2}} = -\frac{u}{a^2\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}} + C$

(continued)

TABLE OF INTEGRALS

Forms Involving $a + bu$

47. $\displaystyle\int \frac{u\,du}{a+bu} = \frac{1}{b^2}\left(a + bu - a\ln|a+bu|\right) + C$

48. $\displaystyle\int \frac{u^2\,du}{a+bu} = \frac{1}{2b^3}\left[(a+bu)^2 - 4a(a+bu) + 2a^2\ln|a+bu|\right] + C$

49. $\displaystyle\int \frac{du}{u(a+bu)} = \frac{1}{a}\ln\left|\frac{u}{a+bu}\right| + C$

50. $\displaystyle\int \frac{du}{u^2(a+bu)} = -\frac{1}{au} + \frac{b}{a^2}\ln\left|\frac{a+bu}{u}\right| + C$

51. $\displaystyle\int \frac{u\,du}{(a+bu)^2} = \frac{a}{b^2(a+bu)} + \frac{1}{b^2}\ln|a+bu| + C$

52. $\displaystyle\int \frac{du}{u(a+bu)^2} = \frac{1}{a(a+bu)} - \frac{1}{a^2}\ln\left|\frac{a+bu}{u}\right| + C$

53. $\displaystyle\int \frac{u^2\,du}{(a+bu)^2} = \frac{1}{b^3}\left(a + bu - \frac{a^2}{a+bu} - 2a\ln|a+bu|\right) + C$

54. $\displaystyle\int u\sqrt{a+bu}\,du = \frac{2}{15b^2}(3bu - 2a)(a+bu)^{3/2} + C$

55. $\displaystyle\int \frac{u\,du}{\sqrt{a+bu}} = \frac{2}{3b^2}(bu - 2a)\sqrt{a+bu} + C$

56. $\displaystyle\int \frac{u^2\,du}{\sqrt{a+bu}} = \frac{2}{15b^3}(8a^2 + 3b^2u^2 - 4abu)\sqrt{a+bu} + C$

57. $\displaystyle\int \frac{du}{u\sqrt{a+bu}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}\ln\left|\frac{\sqrt{a+bu}-\sqrt{a}}{\sqrt{a+bu}+\sqrt{a}}\right| + C, \quad \text{if } a > 0$

$\displaystyle\qquad = \frac{2}{\sqrt{-a}}\tan^{-1}\sqrt{\frac{a+bu}{-a}} + C, \qquad \text{if } a < 0$

58. $\displaystyle\int \frac{\sqrt{a+bu}}{u}\,du = 2\sqrt{a+bu} + a\int \frac{du}{u\sqrt{a+bu}}$

59. $\displaystyle\int \frac{\sqrt{a+bu}}{u^2}\,du = -\frac{\sqrt{a+bu}}{u} + \frac{b}{2}\int \frac{du}{u\sqrt{a+bu}}$

60. $\displaystyle\int u^n\sqrt{a+bu}\,du = \frac{2}{b(2n+3)}\left[u^n(a+bu)^{3/2} - na\int u^{n-1}\sqrt{a+bu}\,du\right]$

61. $\displaystyle\int \frac{u^n\,du}{\sqrt{a+bu}} = \frac{2u^n\sqrt{a+bu}}{b(2n+1)} - \frac{2na}{b(2n+1)}\int \frac{u^{n-1}\,du}{\sqrt{a+bu}}$

62. $\displaystyle\int \frac{du}{u^n\sqrt{a+bu}} = -\frac{\sqrt{a+bu}}{a(n-1)u^{n-1}} - \frac{b(2n-3)}{2a(n-1)}\int \frac{du}{u^{n-1}\sqrt{a+bu}}$

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TABLE OF INTEGRALS

Trigonometric Forms

63. $\displaystyle\int \sin^2 u\, du = \tfrac{1}{2}u - \tfrac{1}{4}\sin 2u + C$

64. $\displaystyle\int \cos^2 u\, du = \tfrac{1}{2}u + \tfrac{1}{4}\sin 2u + C$

65. $\displaystyle\int \tan^2 u\, du = \tan u - u + C$

66. $\displaystyle\int \cot^2 u\, du = -\cot u - u + C$

67. $\displaystyle\int \sin^3 u\, du = -\tfrac{1}{3}(2 + \sin^2 u)\cos u + C$

68. $\displaystyle\int \cos^3 u\, du = \tfrac{1}{3}(2 + \cos^2 u)\sin u + C$

69. $\displaystyle\int \tan^3 u\, du = \tfrac{1}{2}\tan^2 u + \ln|\cos u| + C$

70. $\displaystyle\int \cot^3 u\, du = -\tfrac{1}{2}\cot^2 u - \ln|\sin u| + C$

71. $\displaystyle\int \sec^3 u\, du = \tfrac{1}{2}\sec u\tan u + \tfrac{1}{2}\ln|\sec u + \tan u| + C$

72. $\displaystyle\int \csc^3 u\, du = -\tfrac{1}{2}\csc u\cot u + \tfrac{1}{2}\ln|\csc u - \cot u| + C$

73. $\displaystyle\int \sin^n u\, du = -\frac{1}{n}\sin^{n-1}u\cos u + \frac{n-1}{n}\int \sin^{n-2}u\, du$

74. $\displaystyle\int \cos^n u\, du = \frac{1}{n}\cos^{n-1}u\sin u + \frac{n-1}{n}\int \cos^{n-2}u\, du$

75. $\displaystyle\int \tan^n u\, du = \frac{1}{n-1}\tan^{n-1}u - \int \tan^{n-2}u\, du$

76. $\displaystyle\int \cot^n u\, du = \frac{-1}{n-1}\cot^{n-1}u - \int \cot^{n-2}u\, du$

77. $\displaystyle\int \sec^n u\, du = \frac{1}{n-1}\tan u\sec^{n-2}u + \frac{n-2}{n-1}\int \sec^{n-2}u\, du$

78. $\displaystyle\int \csc^n u\, du = \frac{-1}{n-1}\cot u\csc^{n-2}u + \frac{n-2}{n-1}\int \csc^{n-2}u\, du$

79. $\displaystyle\int \sin au\sin bu\, du = \frac{\sin(a-b)u}{2(a-b)} - \frac{\sin(a+b)u}{2(a+b)} + C$

80. $\displaystyle\int \cos au\cos bu\, du = \frac{\sin(a-b)u}{2(a-b)} + \frac{\sin(a+b)u}{2(a+b)} + C$

81. $\displaystyle\int \sin au\cos bu\, du = -\frac{\cos(a-b)u}{2(a-b)} - \frac{\cos(a+b)u}{2(a+b)} + C$

82. $\displaystyle\int u\sin u\, du = \sin u - u\cos u + C$

83. $\displaystyle\int u\cos u\, du = \cos u + u\sin u + C$

84. $\displaystyle\int u^n\sin u\, du = -u^n\cos u + n\int u^{n-1}\cos u\, du$

85. $\displaystyle\int u^n\cos u\, du = u^n\sin u - n\int u^{n-1}\sin u\, du$

86. $\displaystyle\int \sin^n u\cos^m u\, du = -\frac{\sin^{n-1}u\cos^{m+1}u}{n+m} + \frac{n-1}{n+m}\int \sin^{n-2}u\cos^m u\, du$

$\displaystyle\qquad = \frac{\sin^{n+1}u\cos^{m-1}u}{n+m} + \frac{m-1}{n+m}\int \sin^n u\cos^{m-2}u\, du$

Inverse Trigonometric Forms

87. $\displaystyle\int \sin^{-1}u\, du = u\sin^{-1}u + \sqrt{1-u^2} + C$

88. $\displaystyle\int \cos^{-1}u\, du = u\cos^{-1}u - \sqrt{1-u^2} + C$

89. $\displaystyle\int \tan^{-1}u\, du = u\tan^{-1}u - \tfrac{1}{2}\ln(1+u^2) + C$

90. $\displaystyle\int u\sin^{-1}u\, du = \frac{2u^2-1}{4}\sin^{-1}u + \frac{u\sqrt{1-u^2}}{4} + C$

91. $\displaystyle\int u\cos^{-1}u\, du = \frac{2u^2-1}{4}\cos^{-1}u - \frac{u\sqrt{1-u^2}}{4} + C$

92. $\displaystyle\int u\tan^{-1}u\, du = \frac{u^2+1}{2}\tan^{-1}u - \frac{u}{2} + C$

93. $\displaystyle\int u^n\sin^{-1}u\, du = \frac{1}{n+1}\left[u^{n+1}\sin^{-1}u - \int \frac{u^{n+1}\, du}{\sqrt{1-u^2}}\right], \quad n \neq -1$

94. $\displaystyle\int u^n\cos^{-1}u\, du = \frac{1}{n+1}\left[u^{n+1}\cos^{-1}u + \int \frac{u^{n+1}\, du}{\sqrt{1-u^2}}\right], \quad n \neq -1$

95. $\displaystyle\int u^n\tan^{-1}u\, du = \frac{1}{n+1}\left[u^{n+1}\tan^{-1}u - \int \frac{u^{n+1}\, du}{1+u^2}\right], \quad n \neq -1$

(continued)

TABLE OF INTEGRALS

Exponential and Logarithmic Forms

96. $\displaystyle\int ue^{au}\,du = \frac{1}{a^2}(au - 1)e^{au} + C$

97. $\displaystyle\int u^n e^{au}\,du = \frac{1}{a}u^n e^{au} - \frac{n}{a}\int u^{n-1}e^{au}\,du$

98. $\displaystyle\int e^{au}\sin bu\,du = \frac{e^{au}}{a^2 + b^2}(a\sin bu - b\cos bu) + C$

99. $\displaystyle\int e^{au}\cos bu\,du = \frac{e^{au}}{a^2 + b^2}(a\cos bu + b\sin bu) + C$

100. $\displaystyle\int \ln u\,du = u\ln u - u + C$

101. $\displaystyle\int u^n \ln u\,du = \frac{u^{n+1}}{(n+1)^2}[(n+1)\ln u - 1] + C$

102. $\displaystyle\int \frac{1}{u\ln u}\,du = \ln|\ln u| + C$

Hyperbolic Forms

103. $\displaystyle\int \sinh u\,du = \cosh u + C$

104. $\displaystyle\int \cosh u\,du = \sinh u + C$

105. $\displaystyle\int \tanh u\,du = \ln\cosh u + C$

106. $\displaystyle\int \coth u\,du = \ln|\sinh u| + C$

107. $\displaystyle\int \operatorname{sech} u\,du = \tan^{-1}|\sinh u| + C$

108. $\displaystyle\int \operatorname{csch} u\,du = \ln\left|\tanh\tfrac{1}{2}u\right| + C$

109. $\displaystyle\int \operatorname{sech}^2 u\,du = \tanh u + C$

110. $\displaystyle\int \operatorname{csch}^2 u\,du = -\coth u + C$

111. $\displaystyle\int \operatorname{sech} u\tanh u\,du = -\operatorname{sech} u + C$

112. $\displaystyle\int \operatorname{csch} u\coth u\,du = -\operatorname{csch} u + C$

Forms Involving $\sqrt{2au - u^2}$, $a > 0$

113. $\displaystyle\int \sqrt{2au - u^2}\,du = \frac{u-a}{2}\sqrt{2au - u^2} + \frac{a^2}{2}\cos^{-1}\left(\frac{a-u}{a}\right) + C$

114. $\displaystyle\int u\sqrt{2au - u^2}\,du = \frac{2u^2 - au - 3a^2}{6}\sqrt{2au - u^2} + \frac{a^3}{2}\cos^{-1}\left(\frac{a-u}{a}\right) + C$

115. $\displaystyle\int \frac{\sqrt{2au - u^2}}{u}\,du = \sqrt{2au - u^2} + a\cos^{-1}\left(\frac{a-u}{a}\right) + C$

116. $\displaystyle\int \frac{\sqrt{2au - u^2}}{u^2}\,du = -\frac{2\sqrt{2au - u^2}}{u} - \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{a-u}{a}\right) + C$

117. $\displaystyle\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{2au - u^2}} = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{a-u}{a}\right) + C$

118. $\displaystyle\int \frac{u\,du}{\sqrt{2au - u^2}} = -\sqrt{2au - u^2} + a\cos^{-1}\left(\frac{a-u}{a}\right) + C$

119. $\displaystyle\int \frac{u^2\,du}{\sqrt{2au - u^2}} = -\frac{(u + 3a)}{2}\sqrt{2au - u^2} + \frac{3a^2}{2}\cos^{-1}\left(\frac{a-u}{a}\right) + C$

120. $\displaystyle\int \frac{du}{u\sqrt{2au - u^2}} = -\frac{\sqrt{2au - u^2}}{au} + C$