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| 18MMU101 | CALCULUS | 4 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 1 |

Course Objective

The objective of the course represents the understanding of essentials of concavity, inflection points and its geometrical applications, the higher order derivatives and its applications in business, economics and life sciences.

Course Outcomes

On successful completion of this course, the students will be able to

- Understand the concepts of Linear, quadratic, power, polynomial, algebraic, rational, trigonometric, exponential, hyperbolic and logarithmic functions.
- Explore the concept of reduction formula and calculate limits in indeterminate forms by a repeated use of L'Hospital rule.
- Use single and multiple integration to calculate the arc length, area and volume.
- Understand the techniques of sketching conics and properties of conics.
- Acquire the knowledge on application of vector functions.

UNIT I

Hyperbolic functions, higher order derivatives, Leibniz rule and its applications to problems of type $e^{ax+b}sinx$, $e^{ax+b}cosx$, $(ax+b)^nsinx$, $(ax+b)^ncosx$.

UNIT II

Reduction formulae, derivations and illustrations of reduction formulae of the type $\int \sin nx \, dx$, $\int \cos nx \, dx$, $\int \tan nx \, dx$, $\int \sec nx \, dx$, $\int \log x^n \, dx$, $\int \sin^n x \sin^m x \, dx$. Curve tracing in Cartesian coordinates, tracing in polar coordinates of standard curves, L'Hospital's rule, applications in business, economics and life sciences.

UNIT III

Volumes by slicing, disks and washers methods, volumes by cylindrical shells, parametric equations, parameterizing a curve, arc length, arc length of parametric curves, area of surface of revolution.

UNIT IV

Concavity and Inflection points, asymptotes. Techniques of sketching conics, reflection properties of conics, rotation of axes and second degree equations, classification into conics using the discriminant, polar equations of conics.

UNIT V

Introduction to vector functions, operations with vector-valued functions, limits and continuity of vector functions, differentiation and integration of vector functions, tangent and normal components of acceleration, modeling ballistics and planetary motion, Kepler's second law.

SUGGESTED READINGS

TEXT BOOKS

- 1. Thomas G.B., and Finney R.L., (2008). Calculus, Ninth Edition, Pearson Education, Delhi. (Unit I & V)
- Anton H., Bivens I., and Davis S.,(2017). Calculus, Tenth Edition, John Wiley and Sons (Asia) P. Ltd., Singapore. (Unit II, III & IV)

REFERENCES

- 1. Strauss M.J., Bradley G.L., and Smith K. J., (2007). Calculus, Third Edition, Dorling Kindersley (India) Pvt. Ltd. (Pearson Education), Delhi.
- 2. Courant R., and John F., (2000). Introduction to Calculus and Analysis (Volumes I & II), Springer- Verlag, New York.



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LECTURE PLAN DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS

STAFF NAME: A.HENNA SHENOFER SUBJECT NAME: CALCULUS SEMESTER: I

SUB.CODE:18MMU101 CLASS: I B.SC MATHEMATICS

| S.No | Lecture | Topic to be covered | Support Material | | | |
|----------------|--|---|---------------------|--|--|--|
| | Duration | | | | | |
| | | Unit – I | | | | |
| 1. | 1 | Introduction to Hyperbolic function | R1:Ch 7;Pg:350-353 | | | |
| 2. | 1 | Inverse hyperbolic function | R1:Ch 7;Pg:353-356 | | | |
| 3. | 1 | Higher order derivatives | R3:Ch 4;Pg:156-159 | | | |
| 4. | 1 | Leibiniz rule and its applications | R3:Ch 4;Pg:169-177 | | | |
| 5. | 1 | Problems on type $e^{ax+b} \sin x$, $e^{ax+b} \cos x$, $(ax+b)^n \sin x$, $(ax+b)^n \cos x$ | R3:Ch 4;Pg:178-180 | | | |
| 6. | 1 | Finding concavity | T1:Ch 3;Pg:228-230 | | | |
| 7. | 1 | Finding Inflection point | R1:Ch 4;Pg:124-129 | | | |
| 8. | 1 | Curve Sketching with Asymptotes | R3:Ch12;Pg:389-409 | | | |
| 9. | 1 | Recapitulation and discussion of possible question | | | | |
| Total N | No. of Lectu | re hours planned – 9 hours | | | | |
| | | Unit – II | | | | |
| 1. | 1 | Curve tracing in Cartesian Coordinates | T2:Ch 11;Pg:767-770 | | | |
| 2. | 1 | Tracing in polar coordinate for standard curves | R2:Ch 1;Pg:101-103 | | | |
| 3. | 1 | Theorm on L'Hospital's Rule | R1:Ch 4;Pg:148-150 | | | |
| 4. | 1 | Problems based on L'Hospital's Rule | R1:Ch 4;Pg:151-155 | | | |
| 5. | 1 | Application in business, economics and life sciences. | R1:Ch 6;Pg:287-294 | | | |
| 6. | 1 | Reduction formula – derivation and illustration | T2:Ch 7;Pg:497-498 | | | |
| 7. | 1 | Problems based on reduction formula | T2:Ch 7;Pg:500-503 | | | |
| 8. | 1 | Continuation of problems on reduction formula | T2:Ch 7;Pg:503-506 | | | |
| 9. | 1 | Recapitulation and discussion of possible question | | | | |
| Total N | Total No. of Lecture hours planned – 9 hours | | | | | |
| | | Unit – III | | | | |
| 1. | 1 | Volume by slicing | T2:Ch 6;Pg:421-424 | | | |
| 2. | 1 | Volume by Disks methods | T1:Ch 5;Pg:397-399 | | | |
| 3. | 1 | Volume by washers methods | T1:Ch 5;Pg:400-403 | | | |

| 4. | 1 | Volumes by cylindrical shells | T2:Ch 6;Pg:432-436 |
|---------|--------------|---|---------------------|
| 5. | 1 | Area of a surface of revolution | T2:Ch 6;Pg:444-447 |
| 6. | 1 | Parametric Equations | T2:Ch 10;Pg:692-695 |
| 7. | 1 | Tangent Lines to Parametric Curves | T2:Ch 10;Pg:695-697 |
| 8. | 1 | Arc Length of Parametric Curves | T2:Ch 10;Pg:697-700 |
| 9. | 1 | Recapitulation and discussion of possible question | |
| Total N | lo. of Lectu | re hours planned – 9 hours | |
| | | Unit – IV | |
| 1. | 1 | Introduction to conic section | T2:Ch 10;Pg:730-732 |
| 2. | 1 | Techniques of sketching conics | T1:Ch 9;Pg:727-730 |
| 3. | 1 | Equations of conics in standard position | T2:Ch 10;Pg:732-740 |
| 4. | 1 | Translated conics | T2:Ch 10;Pg:740-742 |
| 5. | 1 | Reflection properties of the conic sections | T2:Ch 10;Pg:742-744 |
| 6. | 1 | Rotation of axes with examples | T2:Ch 10;Pg:748-752 |
| 7. | 1 | Classification of conics using discriminant | T1:Ch 9;Pg:748-750 |
| 8. | 1 | Polar equation in conics | T2:Ch 10;Pg:755-759 |
| 9. | 1 | Recapitulation and discussion of possible question | |
| Total N | lo. of Lectu | ire hours planned – 9 hours | |
| | | Unit – V | |
| 1. | 1 | The Triple product | T1:Ch 10;Pg:824-835 |
| 2. | 1 | Introduction to Vector functions | R1:Ch 10;Pg:494-496 |
| 3. | 1 | Operation with Vector-valued functions | R1:Ch 10;Pg:496-497 |
| 4. | 1 | Limits and continuity of vector functions | R1:Ch 10;Pg:498-500 |
| 5. | 1 | Differentiation and integration of vector functions | R1:Ch 10;Pg:502-511 |
| 6. | 1 | Tangent and normal components of acceleration | R1:Ch 10;Pg:522-525 |
| 7. | 1 | Modeling ballistics and planetary motion | R1:Ch 10;Pg:512-516 |
| 8. | 1 | Kepler's second law | R1:Ch 10;Pg:516-519 |
| 9. | 1 | Recapitulation and discussion of possible question | |
| 10. | 1 | Discussion of pervious ESE question papers | |
| 11. | 1 | Discussion of pervious ESE question papers | |
| 12. | 1 | Discussion of pervious ESE question papers | |
| Total N | lo. of Lectu | ire hours planned -12 hours | |
| Total N | lo. of hours | s allotted – 48 hours | |

Text Books

T1: G.B.Thomas and R.L.Finney., (2005). Calculus, 9th edition, Pearson Edition, Delhi.

T2: H.Anton., I. Bivens ., and S.Davis., (2002). Calculus , 7th edition , John Wiley and sons (Asia) Pvt Ltd, Singapore.

Reference Books

R1: M.J.Strauss., G.L.Bradley and K.J.Smith.,(2007). Calculus, third edition , dorling

Kindersley(India) Pvt Ltd. (Pearson Edition), Delhi.

- **R2:** R.Courant and F.John., (2000). Introduction to Calculus and Analysis (Volume I & II), Springer verlag, NewYork.
- **R3:** S.Balachandra Rao and C.K.Shantha, (2001). Differential Calculus, NewAge International (P) Ltd, India.



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CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions) BATCH-2018-2021

<u>UNIT-I</u> SYLLABUS

The Hyperbolic functions, higher order derivatives, Leibniz rule and its applications to problems of type $e^{ax+b} \sin x$, $e^{ax+b} \cos x$, $(ax+b)^n \sin x$, $(ax+b)^n \cos x$.

Hyperbolic functions

1. Introduction

The three hyperolic functions $f(x) = \sinh x$, $f(x) = \cosh x$ and $f(x) = \tanh x$. We shall look at the graphs of these functions, investigate some of their properties.

2. Defining $f(x) = \cosh x$

The hyperbolic functions $\cosh x$ and $\sinh x$ are defined using the exponential function e^x . We shall start with $\cosh x$. This is defined by the formula

$$\cosh x = \frac{\mathrm{e}^x + \mathrm{e}^{-x}}{2}.$$

We can use our knowledge of the graphs of e^x and e^{-x} to sketch the graph of $\cosh x$. First, let us calculate the value of $\cosh 0$. When x = 0, $e^x = 1$ and $e^{-x} = 1$. So

$$\cosh 0 = \frac{e^0 + e^{-0}}{2} = \frac{1+1}{2} = 1.$$

Next, let us see what happens as x gets large. We shall rewrite $\cosh x$ as

$$\cosh x = \frac{\mathrm{e}^x}{2} + \frac{\mathrm{e}^{-x}}{2}.$$

¹To see how this behaves as x gets large, recall the graphs of the two exponential functions.



As x gets larger, e^x increases quickly, but e^{-x} decreases quickly. So the second part of the sum $e^x/2 + e^{-x}/2$ gets very small as x gets large. Therefore, as x gets larger, $\cosh x$ gets closer and closer to $e^x/2$. We write this as

$$\cosh x \approx \frac{\mathrm{e}^x}{2}$$
 for large x .

But the graph of $\cosh x$ will always stay above the graph of $e^x/2$. This is because, even though $e^{-x}/2$ (the second part of the sum) gets very small, it is always greater than zero. As x gets larger and larger the difference between the two graphs gets smaller and smaller.

3. Defining $f(x) = \sinh x$

We shall now look at the hyperbolic function $\sinh x$. In speech, this function is pronounced as 'shine', or sometimes as 'sinch'. The function is defined by the formula

$$\sinh x = \frac{\mathrm{e}^x - \mathrm{e}^{-x}}{2} \,.$$

4. Defining $f(x) = \tanh x$

We shall now look at the hyperbolic function $\tanh x$. In speech, this function is pronounced as 'tansh', or sometimes as 'than'. The function is defined by the formula

$$\tanh x = \frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x}$$
.

We can work out $\tanh x$ out in terms of exponential functions. We know how $\sinh x$ and $\cosh x$ are defined, so we can write $\tanh x$ as

$$\tanh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \div \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}.$$

5. Identities for hyperbolic functions

Hyperbolic functions have identities which are similar to, but not the same as, the identities for trigonometric functions. In this section we shall prove two of these identities, and list some others.

The first identity is

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$$
.

To prove this, we start by substituting the definitions for $\sinh x$ and $\cosh x$:

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = \left(\frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}\right)^2.$$

If we expand the two squares in the numerators, we obtain

$$(e^{x} + e^{-x})^{2} = e^{2x} + 2(e^{x})(e^{-x}) + e^{-2x}$$

= $e^{2x} + 2 + e^{-2x}$

and

$$(e^{x} - e^{-x})^{2} = e^{2x} - 2(e^{x})(e^{-x}) + e^{-2x}$$

= $e^{2x} - 2 + e^{-2x}$,

where in each case we use the fact that $(e^x)(e^{-x}) = e^{x+(-x)} = e^0 = 1$. Using these expansions in our formula, we obtain

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = \frac{e^{2x} + 2 + e^{-2x}}{4} - \frac{e^{2x} - 2 + e^{-2x}}{4}.$$

Now we can move the factor of $\frac{1}{4}$ out to the front, so that

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = \frac{1}{4} \left((e^{2x} + 2 + e^{-2x}) - (e^{2x} - 2 + e^{-2x}) \right).$$

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = \frac{1}{4} (e^{2x} + 2 + e^{-2x} - e^{2x} + 2 - e^{-2x})$$
$$= \frac{1}{4} \times 4$$
$$= 1,$$

Here is another identity involving hyperbolic functions:

$$\sinh 2x = 2 \sinh x \cosh x$$
.

On the left-hand side we have $\sinh 2x$ so, from the definition,

$$\sinh 2x = \frac{e^{2x} - e^{-2x}}{2}$$

We want to manipulate the right-hand side to achieve this. So we shall start by substituting the definitions of $\sinh x$ and $\cosh x$ into the right-hand side:

$$2\sinh x \cosh x = 2\left(\frac{\mathrm{e}^x - \mathrm{e}^{-x}}{2}\right)\left(\frac{\mathrm{e}^x + \mathrm{e}^{-x}}{2}\right).$$

We can cancel the 2 at the start with one of the 2's in the denominator, and then we can take the remaining factor of $\frac{1}{2}$ out to the front. We get

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

Now we can multiply the two brackets together. This gives us

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

Cancelling the ones finally gives us

$$2\sinh x \cosh x = \frac{1}{2}(e^{2x} - e^{-2x}) = \sinh 2x,$$

which is what we wanted to achieve.

There are several more identities involving hyperbolic functions:

$$\cosh 2x = (\cosh x)^2 + (\sinh x)^2$$
$$\sinh(x+y) = \sinh x \cosh y + \sinh y \cosh x$$
$$\cosh(x+y) = \cosh x \cosh y + \sinh x \sinh y$$
$$\cosh^2 \frac{x}{2} = \frac{1 + \cosh x}{2}$$
$$\sinh^2 \frac{x}{2} = \frac{\cosh x - 1}{2}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)BATCH-2018-2021

Remark: The word 'hyperbolic' stems from the fact that $x = a \cosh t$, $y = b \sinh t$ are the general co-ordinates of any point on the hyperbola $\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$, inasmuch as

$$\frac{(a\cosh t)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(b\cosh t)^2}{b^2} = \left(\frac{e^t + e^{-t}}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{e^t - e^{-t}}{2}\right)^2 = 1.$$

Just as we have standard trigonometric identities $\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x = 1$ etc., there are identities involving hyperbolic functions sinh x, cosh x etc. For instance,

 $\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$ $\operatorname{sech}^2 x = 1 - \tanh^2 x$ $\operatorname{cosech}^2 x = \operatorname{coth}^2 x - 1$

All the above identities can be verified easily by substituting the values of the functions in terms of the exponential function. Similarly, you may verify the following relations :

$$\sinh (x + y) = \sinh x \cosh y + \cosh x \sinh y$$

$$\sinh (x - y) = \sinh x \cosh y - \cosh x \sinh y$$

$$\cosh (x + y) = \cosh x \cosh y + \sinh x \sinh y$$

$$\cosh (x - y) = \cosh x \cosh y + \sinh x \sinh y$$

$$\tanh (x + y) = \frac{\tanh x + \tanh y}{1 + \tanh x + \tanh y}$$

$$\tanh (x - y) = \frac{\tanh x + \tanh y}{1 - \tanh x + \tanh y}$$

Graphs of these hyperbolic functions are given in next page (Figure 14) :

Since the six hyperbolic functions are defined in terms of e^x , and $\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$ therefore it is very easy to write down the derivatives of sinh x, tanh x, coth x, sech x, cosech x etc.

We have,

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sinh x) = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{\check{e} - e^{-x}}{2}\right)$$
$$= \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} = \cosh x$$



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Page 5/29

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions) BATCH-2018-2021 $= \operatorname{cosech} x$ $y = \coth x$ $y = \operatorname{sech} x$ ż 1 Figure 14 $\frac{d}{dx}(\cosh x) = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}\right)$ Similarly, $=\frac{e^{-x}-e^{-x}}{2}=\sinh x$ $\frac{d}{dx}(\tanh x) = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{\check{e} - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}\right)$ Also, $= \frac{(e^{-x} + e^{-x})(e^{x} + e^{-x}) - (e^{x} - e^{-x})(e^{x} - e^{-x})}{(e^{x} + e^{-x})^{2}}$ $= \frac{(e^{x} + e^{-x}) - (e^{x} - e^{-x})^{2}}{(e^{x} + e^{x})^{2}}$ $= 1 - \left[\frac{e^{x} - e^{-x}}{e^{x} + e^{-x}} \right]^{2}$ $= 1 - \tanh^2 x = \operatorname{sech}^2 x$

The derivative of coth x, sech x, and cosech x can be similarly obtained. The results are summarised in the following table.

| f(x) | f(x) |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| $\sinh x$ | $\cosh x$ |
| $\cosh x$ | $\sinh x$ |
| tanh x | $\operatorname{sech}^2 x$ |
| $\operatorname{coth} x$ | $-\operatorname{cosech}^2 x$ |
| sech x | $-\text{sech } x \tanh x$ |
| cosech x | -cosech x tanh x |

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)BATCH-2018-2021

Thus,

$$\operatorname{sirk}^{1} x = \log(x + \sqrt{1 + x^{2}}) x \in] - \infty, \infty[$$

Now, if we want to the derivative of $\sinh^{-1} x$, we must write the derivative of $\log(x + \sqrt{1 + x^2})$.

Let
$$y = \log(x + \sqrt{1 + x^2})$$
.

<u>dy</u> dx

 $\frac{d}{dx}(\sinh^{-1}x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}}$

 $=\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}}$

Then,

$$= \frac{1}{x + \sqrt{1 + x^2}} \cdot \left[1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} \right]$$

Hence,

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions) COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 BATCH-2018-2021

(ii) The Inverse Hyperbolic co.sine

The inverse of $\cosh x$ exists in [1, ∞ [. To obtain an expression for $\cosh^{-1} x$, we proceed as follows:

$$y = \cosh^{-1} x \Leftrightarrow x = \cosh y = \frac{e^{y} + e^{-y}}{2}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow e^{2Y} - 2x \ e^{y} + 1 = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow e^{y} = x + \sqrt{x^{2} - 1}$$
e value $x - \sqrt{x^{2} - 1}$ would render $e^{y} < 1$ and not possible.]

[Notice that the so y < 0, which is

Thus,

$$\cosh^{-1} x = \log\left[x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}\right], x \ge 1$$

Now to obtain the derivative of $\cosh^{-1} x$, we have to write



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions) BATCH-2018-2021 COURSE CODE: 18MMU101

the derivative of $\log \left[x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1} \right], x \ge 1$

We have,

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cosh^{-1}x) = \frac{d}{dx}\left[\log\left(x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}\right)\right], x \ge 1.$$
$$= \frac{1}{x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}} \cdot \left[1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2x}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}\right], x > 1$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}, x > 1$$

[Notice that although $\cosh^{-1} x$ is defined for x = 1, its derivative does not exist for x = 1.]

Hence,
$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cosh^{-1}x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}, x > 1$$

(iii) The Inverse Hyperbolic Tangent

The inverse hyperbolic tangent $\tanh^{-1} x$ exist for all $x \in [-1, 1]$. To obtain an expression for $\tanh^{-1} x$ ¹ x in terms of logarithms, we proceed as follows :

y = tanh⁻¹ x
$$\Leftrightarrow$$
 x = tanh y

$$= \frac{e^{y} - e^{-y}}{e^{y} + e^{-y}}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{1+x}{1-x} = \frac{2e^{y}}{2e^{-y}}$$

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

$$y = \frac{1}{2}\log\frac{1+x}{1-x}, |x| < 1.$$
us, tanh⁻¹ x = $\frac{1}{2}\log\frac{1+x}{1-x}, |x| < 1$

Thus,

⇔

⇔

To write down the derivative of $\tanh^{-1} x$, we must obtain the derivative of $\frac{1}{2}\log\frac{1+x}{1-x}|x|<1$.

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Figure 17

| KARPAG | AM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION |
|--|--|
| CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEM COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 | UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions) BATCH-2018-2021 |
| Let | $\tanh^{-1} x = \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1+x}{1-x}, x < 1$ |
| Then | $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{2} \log(1+x) - \frac{1}{2} \log(1-x) \right], x < 1$ |
| | $= \frac{1}{2(1+x)} - \frac{-1}{2(1-x)}$ |
| | $= \frac{1}{1-x^2}, x < 1$ |
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CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)BATCH-2018-2021

Hence,
$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tanh^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{1-x^2}, |x| < 1$$

(iv) The inverse hyperbolic cotangent

The inverse hyperbolic cotangent $\operatorname{coth}^{-1} x$ exist for all x such that |x| > 1. Now, $y = \operatorname{coth}^{-1} x$ \Leftrightarrow $x = \operatorname{coth} y = \frac{e^y + e^{-y}}{e^y - e^{-y}}$



Therefore, to write down the derivative of $\operatorname{coth}^{-1} x$, we must obtain the derivative of $\frac{1}{2} \log \frac{x+1}{x-1}$, |x| > 1.

We have,

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\coth^{-1}x) = \frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{1}{2}\left(\log\frac{x+1}{x-1}\right)\right]$$
$$= \frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{1}{2}\{\log(x+1) - \log(x-1)\}\right]$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{1}{x+1} - \frac{1}{x-1}\right]$$
$$= \frac{-1}{x^2 - 1}$$

Hence,

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\coth^{-1}x) = \frac{-1}{x^2 - 1}, |x| > 1$$



Figure 19

Thus,

Sech⁻¹
$$x = \log \left[\frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - x^2}}{x} \right], 0 < x \le 1$$

To write down the derivative sech⁻¹ x we must differentiate $\log\left[\frac{1+\sqrt{1-x^2}}{x}\right]$, $0 < x \le 1$.

We have,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left\{ \log\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{1-x^2}}{x}\right) \right\}$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \left(\log\left(1+\sqrt{1-x^2}\right) \right) - \frac{d}{dx} (\log x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+\sqrt{1-x^2}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot (-2x) (1-x^2)^{-1/2} - \frac{1}{x}$$

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

$$= -\left[\frac{x^2 + \sqrt{1-x^2} (1+\sqrt{1-x^2})}{x\sqrt{1-x^2} (1+\sqrt{1-x^2})} \right]$$

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Page 12/29



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)BATCH-2018-2021

$$= \frac{-1}{x\sqrt{1-x^2}}, \ 0 < x < 1$$

[Notice that although sech⁻¹ x is defined for x = 1, its derivative does not exist for x = 1.]

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(\sec h^{-1} x \right) = \frac{-1}{x \sqrt{1 - x^2}}, \ 0 < x < 1$$

Hence,



To write the derivative of cosech⁻¹ x we have to differentiate $\log \left[\frac{1}{x} + \frac{\sqrt{1+x^2}}{|x|}\right]$. It is easily varified

that

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{cosec} h^{-1}x) = -\frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{1+x^2}}, \ x \neq 0$$

The expression for the inverse hyperbolic functions in terms of logarithms and their derivatives are summarised in the following two tables :

| | $\sinh^{-1} x$ | $= \log\left[x + \sqrt{1 + x^2}\right], \forall x$ |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------|---|
| | cosh ⁻¹ x | $= \log\left[x + \sqrt{1 - x^2}\right], x \ge 1$ |
| | $\tanh^{-1} x$ | $= \log \frac{1+x}{1-x}, x < 1$ |
| | $\operatorname{coth}^{-1}x$ | $= \frac{1}{2}\log\frac{x+1}{x-1}, x > 1$ |
| | sech ⁻¹ x | $= \log \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - x^2}}{x}, 0 < x < 1$ |
| | $\operatorname{cosech}^{-1} x$ | $= \log\left[\frac{1}{x} + \frac{\sqrt{1+x^2}}{ x }\right], x \neq 0$ |
| <i>f</i> (<i>x</i>) | <i>f</i> '(x) | |
| Sinh ⁻¹ x | $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}}$ | |

| C | K CLASS: IB.Sc M OURSE CODE: 18MN | ARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATIONATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusIU101UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)BATCH-2018-2021 | |
|---|---|---|--|
| | cosh ⁻¹ x | $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}, x > 1$ | |
| | tanh ⁻¹ x | $\frac{1}{1-x^2}, x < 1$ | |
| | $\operatorname{coth}^{-1}x$ | $\frac{-1}{x^2 - 1}, x > 1$ | |
| | $\operatorname{Sech}^{-1}x$ | $\frac{-1}{x\sqrt{1-x^2}}, 0 < x < 1$ | |
| | cosech ⁻¹ x | $\frac{-1}{ x \sqrt{1+x^2}}, x \neq 0$ | |

Higher-Order Derivatives

Let f be a function that is differentiable at some points belonging to dom (f). Then f' is a function.

- If, in addition, f' is differentiable at some points belonging to dom (f'), then the derivative of f' exists and is denoted by f"; it is the function given by f"(x) = lim_{h→0} f'(x + h) f'(x)/h and is called the *second derivative* of f.
- If, in addition, f'' is differentiable at some points belonging to dom (f''), then the derivative of f'' is denoted by f''', called the *third derivative* of f.
- In general, the *n*-th derivative of f (where *n* is a positive integer), denoted by $f^{(n)}$, is defined to be the derivative of the (n-1)-th derivative of f (where the 0-th derivative of f means f). For n = 1, the first derivative of f is simply the derivative f' of f. For n > 1, $f^{(n)}$ is called a *higher-order derivative* of f.

Notation Similar to first order derivative, we have different notations for second order derivative of f.

$$y''$$
, f'' , $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$, D^2f , D^2y , $f''(x)$ and $\frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x)$

Readers may compare these with that on page 109. Similarly, we also have different notations for other higherorder derivatives.

Example Let $f(x) = 5x^3 - 2x^2 + 6x + 1$. Find the derivative and all the higher-order derivatives of f.

Explanation The question is to find for each positive integer *n*, the domain of the *n*-th derivative of *f* and a formula for $f^{(n)}(x)$. To find f'(x), we can apply differentiation term by term. To find f''(x), by definition, we have $f''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}f'(x)$ which can be simplified using the result for f'(x) and rules for differentiation.

| CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMA | ATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus |
|-----------------------|---|
| COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 | UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions) BATCH-2018-2021 |
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CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)BATCH-2018-2021

Solution
$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(5x^3 - 2x^2 + 6x + 1)$$

 $= 15x^2 - 4x + 6$ Derivative of Polynomial
 $f''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(15x^2 - 4x + 6)$
 $= 30x - 4$ Derivative of Polynomial
 $f'''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(30x - 4)$
 $= 30$ Derivative of Polynomial
 $f^{(4)}(x) = 0$ Derivative of Constant

From this we see that for $n \ge 4$, $f^{(n)}(x) = 0$. Moreover, for every positive integer *n*, the domain of $f^{(n)}$ is \mathbb{R} . \Box

Example Let
$$f(x) = \frac{x^3 - 1}{x}$$
. Find $f'(3)$ and $f''(-4)$.

Explanation

- To find f'(3), we find f'(x) first and then substitute x = 3. Although f(x) is written as a quotient of two functions, it is better to find f'(x) by expanding $(x^3 1)x^{-1}$.
- To find f''(-4), we find f''(x) first and then substitute x = -4. To find f''(x), we differentiate the result obtained for f'(x).

| Solution | f'(x) | = | $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left((x^3-1)x^{-1}\right)$ | |
|----------|-----------------------|---|--|---|
| | | = | $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left(x^2-x^{-1}\right)$ | |
| | | = | $2x - (-1)x^{-2}$ | Term by Term Differentiation & Power Rule |
| | | = | $2x + x^{-2}$ | |
| | f'(3) | = | $2\cdot(3)+3^{-2}$ | |
| | | = | $\frac{55}{9}$ | |
| | $f^{\prime\prime}(x)$ | = | $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left(2x+x^{-2}\right)$ | By result for $f'(x)$ |
| | | = | $2 + (-2)x^{-3}$ | Term by Term Differentiation & Power Rule |
| | | = | $2 - 2x^{-3}$ | |
| | f''(-4) | = | $2 - 2 \cdot (-4)^{-3}$ | |
| | | = | $\frac{65}{32}$ | |

Meaning of Second Derivative

• The graph of y = f(x) is a curve. Note that $f'(x) = \frac{dy}{dx}$ is the slope function; it is the rate of change of y with respect to x. Since $f''(x) = \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ is the derivative of the slope function, it is the rate of change

of slope and is related to a concept called *convexity* (*bending*) of a curve. More details can be found in Chapter 5.

• If x = t is time and if y = s(t) is the displacement function of a moving object, then $s'(t) = \frac{ds}{dt}$ is the velocity function. The derivative of velocity is s''(t) or $\frac{d^2s}{dt^2}$; it is the rate of change of the velocity (function), that is, the *acceleration* (function).

Example 1. Given

$$y = \frac{1}{x}$$
, Find $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$
Solution : Here
 $y = \frac{1}{x} = x^{-1}$
 $\therefore \qquad \frac{dy}{dx} = (-1)x^{-2}$

$$\frac{d^3 y}{dx^3} = (-1)(-2)(-3)x^{-4} = \frac{(-1)^3 3!}{x^4}$$

 $\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = (-1)(-2)x^{-3} = \frac{(-1)^2 2!}{x^3}$

Hence by induction,

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = (-1)(-2)(-3)....(-n)x^{-(n+1)}$$
$$= \frac{(-1)^n n!}{x^{(n+1)}}$$

We shall now obtain expression for the n^{th} derivative of some standard functions. 1. The n^{th} derivative f e^{ax} is $a^{n}e^{ax}$

 $\frac{d^{2y}}{dx^2} = a \cdot a e^{ax} = a^2 e^{ax}$

If

$$y = e^{ax}$$
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = ae^{ax}$$

and

By induction
$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = a^n e^{nx}$$
, where *n* is a positive integer.

| CLASS: IB.S | c MATHEMA | TICS | COURSE NAME: Calculus |
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| OURSE CODE: 18 | 8MMU101 | UNIT: I(Hyperbolic fun | ctions) BATCH-2018-2021 |
| 2. The <i>n</i> th derivation | ative of <i>a</i> ^{mx} | | |
| Let | ţ | $v = a^{\mathrm{mx}}, a > 0$ | |
| ÷. | <u>dy</u> dx | $= ma^{mx} \log a$ | $\left[\because \frac{d}{dx} \left(a^x \right) = a^x \log a \right]$ |
| | $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ | $= m^2 a^{\mathrm{mx}} (\log a)^2$ | |
| | $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3}$ | $= m^3 a^{\text{unx}} (\log a)^3$ | |
| | | | |
| ÷. | $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$ | $= m^n a^{nx} (\log a)^n$ | where $a > 0$. |
| Cor. : If $y = e^{n\pi}$, | then $a = e \Rightarrow \log a$ | $g a = \log e = 1$ | |
| | $\frac{d^n}{dx^n}(e^{mx})$ | $= m^n e^{n \kappa}$ | |
| 3. The <i>n</i> th deriva | tive of $(ax + b)$ | m | |
| Let | у | $= (ax + b)^m$ | |
| Then | <i>Y</i> ₁ | $= ma(ax+b)^{m-1}$ | |
| | <i>Y</i> ₂ | $= m(m-1) a^{2}(ax+b)^{m-2}$ | |
| | <i>Y</i> ₃ | $= m(m-1)(m-2)a^{3}(ax+b)^{m-1}$ | 3 |
| | | | |
| | <i>y</i> _n | = m(m-1)(m-2)(m-1) | $(\overline{n-1})a^n(ax+b)^{m-n}$ |
| | | = m(m-1)(m-2)(m-1) | $(n+1)a^n(ax+b)^{m-n}$ |
| | | $= \frac{m(m-1)(m-2)(m-n)}{(m-n)!}$ | $(m+1).(m-n)!a^{n}(ax+b)^{m-n}$ |
| Cor. I. In case m | is a postive inte | ger | |
| | у | $=\frac{m!}{(m-n)!}a^n(ax+b)^{m-n}$ | |

The m^{th} derivative of $(ax + b)^{\text{m}}$ can be obtained by putting n = m, we get

$$y_{m} = \frac{m!}{0!} a^{m} (ax + b)^{m-n}$$

= m! a^m (:: 0! = 1)

 m^{th} derivative of $(ax + b)^{\text{m}}$ is constant viz. $m! a^{m}$ and hence the $(m + 1)^{\text{th}}$ derivative of $(ax + b)^{\text{m}}$ is zero.

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 **UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)** BATCH-2018-2021 Cor. 2. For m = -1, we get $y = \frac{1}{ax+b}$ $y_{-} = (-1) (-2) (-3) \dots (-n) a^n (ax + b)^{-1-n}$ $=\frac{(-1)^{n}n!a^{n}}{(ax+b)^{n+1}}$ Cor. 3. Let $y = \log(ax + b)$, then $y_1 = \frac{a}{ax+b}$ $y_n = (n-1)^{\text{th}}$ derivative of y_1 or $\frac{a}{ax+b}$ 2 $\frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}} [\log(ax+b)] = a \cdot \frac{(-1)^{n-1}(n-1)!a^{n-1}}{(ax+b)^{n}} = \frac{(-1)^{n-1}(n-1)!a^{n}}{(ax+b)^{n}}$ 4. The n^{th} derivative of sin (ax + b) and cos (ax + b). Let $y = \cos(ax + b)$ $\frac{dy}{dx} = -a \sin(ax+b)$ л. $= a \cos\left(ax+b+\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ $\left[\because \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \theta\right) = -\sin\theta \right]$

 $= a \cos\left(ax + b + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \qquad \left[\because \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \theta\right) = \frac{1}{2}\right]$ $= -a^{2} \sin\left(ax + b + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ $= a^{2} \cos\left(ax + b + \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ $= a^{2} \cos\left(ax + b + \frac{2\pi}{2}\right)$ $\frac{d^{3}y}{dx^{3}} = -a^{3} \sin\left(ax + b + \frac{2\pi}{2}\right)$ $= a^{3} \cos\left(ax + b + \frac{3\pi}{2}\right) \text{etc.}$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)BATCH-2018-2021In general $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = a^n \cos\left(ax + b + \frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$ Similarly we can show that:

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 $\frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left[\sin(ax+b) \right] = a^n \cos\left(ax+b+\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$

6. The n^{th} derivative of $e^{ax} \sin bx$ and $e^{ax} \cos bx$.

Let

$$y_{1} = \frac{dy}{dx} = a e^{ax} \sin bx + e^{ax} b \cos bx$$
$$= e^{ax}(a \sin bx + b \cos bx)$$
$$a = r \cos \theta, b = r \sin \theta$$

Put

Ζ.

⇒

 $a^{2} + b^{2} = r^{2}, \quad \tan\theta = \frac{b}{a} \text{ or } \theta = \tan^{-1}\frac{b}{a}$ $y_{1} = e^{ax}[r\sin bx.\cos + r\sin \theta.\cos bx]$ $= r e^{ax}\sin (bx + \theta)$

 $v = e^{ax} \sin bx$

Thus we notice that y_1 can be obtained from y by multiplying it by the constant r and increasing bx by the constant angle θ

$$y_2 = \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = r^2 e^{ax} \sin(bx + 2\theta)$$

In general

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = r^n e^{ax} \sin(bx + n\theta)$$

$$= (a^2 + b^2)^{\frac{p}{2}} e^{ax} \sin\left(bx + n\tan^{-1}\frac{b}{a}\right)$$

$$\left[\because r^2 = a^2 + b^2 and \tan\theta = \frac{b}{a}i.e., r = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} and\theta = \tan^{-1}\frac{b}{a}\right]$$

Similarly if $y = e^{ax} \cos bx$

then

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = r^n e^{ax} \cos(bx + n\theta)$$

$$\left[Where r^2 = a^2 + b^2 \tan\theta = \frac{b}{a} i.e., r = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \text{ and } \theta = \tan^{-1}\frac{b}{a} \right]$$

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = e^{ax} (a^2 + b^2)^{n-2} \cos\left(bx + n\tan^{-1}\frac{b}{a}\right)$$

л.



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)BATCH-2018-2021

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = (-m)(-m-1)(x+a)^{-m-2}$$
$$\frac{d^3 y}{dx^3} = (-m)(-m-1)(-m-2)(x+a)^{-m-3}$$
....

By induction,

$$\frac{d^{n}y}{dx^{n}} = (-m)(-m-1)(-m-2)....(-m-n+1)(x+a)^{-m-n}$$

$$= (-1)^{n}.m(m+1)(m+2)...(m+n-1)(x+a)^{-m-n}$$

$$= \frac{(-1)!.2...(m-1)m(m+1)...(m+n-1)(x+a)^{-m-n}}{1.2...(m-1)}$$

$$=\frac{(-1)(m+n-1)!}{(m-1)!}(x+a)^{-m-n} = \frac{(-1)^n (M+n-1)!}{(m-1)!} \frac{1}{(x+a)^{m+n}}$$

Where $x \neq -a$

Cor.: If
$$m = 1$$
, we have $\frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left(\frac{1}{x+a}\right) = \frac{(-1)^n n! (x+a)^{-n-1}}{0!}$
$$= \frac{(-1)^n n!}{(x+a)^{n+1}}$$

Similarly we can show that

$$\frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}}\left((x-a)^{-m}\right) = \frac{\left(-1\right)^{n}\left(m+n-1\right)!}{\left(m-1\right)}\frac{1}{\left(x-a\right)^{m+n}}$$

8. Application of De Moivre's Therorem and Partial fraction in finding the nth derivative

In order to determine the nth derivative of rational functional, we resolve it into partial fractions and then use the standard results. Sometimes we can use trigonometric transformations or methods like the application of De Moivres theorem in finding the nth derivatives. The following examples will illustrate the procedure.

Example 4. Find the nth derivative of
$$y = \frac{1}{(x-1)^3(x-2)}$$

Solution : We resolve $y = \frac{1}{(x-1)^3(x-2)}$ into partial fractions

$$\frac{1}{(x-1)^{3}(x-2)} = \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{(x-1)^{2}} + \frac{c}{(x-1)^{3}} + \frac{D}{x-2}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)BATCH-2018-2021

$$1 = A(x - 1)^{2}(x - 2) + B(x - 1)(x - 2) + C(x - 2) + D(x - 1)^{3}$$
Putting $x = 1$, we get $1 = -C \Rightarrow C = -1$
Putting $x = 2$, we get $1 = D$ i.e., $D = 1$
Equating the coefficients of x^{3} , x^{2} on both sides we have
$$0 = A + D \Rightarrow A = -D = -1 \quad (\because D = 1)$$

$$0 = 4A + B - 3D \Rightarrow B = 4A + 3D$$

$$\therefore \qquad B = 4A + 3D = -4 + 3 = -1 \quad (\because A = -1, D = 1)$$

Hence

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

We have the standard resutls

(x

$$\frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}} \left[\frac{1}{x-a} \right] = \frac{(-1)^{n} n!}{(x-2)^{n+1}}, \text{ where } x \neq a$$

$$\frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}} \left[\frac{1}{(x-a)^{m}} \right] = \frac{(-1)^{n} (m+n-1)!}{(m-1)!(m-1)^{m+n}} \text{ where } x \neq a$$

$$\therefore \qquad \frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}} \left[\frac{1}{(x-1)^{3} (x-2)} \right] = \frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}} \left[\frac{-1}{x-1} \right] + \frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}} \left[\frac{-1}{(x-1)^{2}} \right] + \frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}} \left[\frac{-1}{(x-1)^{3}} \right] + \frac{d^{n}}{dx^{n}} \left[\frac{-1}{x-2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{(-1)^{n} n!}{(x-1)^{n+1}} - \frac{(-1)^{n} (n+1)!}{1!(x-1)^{n+2}}$$

$$= \frac{(-1)^{n} (n+2)!}{2!(x-1)^{n+3}} + \frac{(-1)^{n} n!}{(x-2)^{n+1}}$$

Hence we get

$$\frac{d^{n}y}{dx^{n}} = (-1)^{n+1} n! \left(\frac{1}{(x-1)^{n+1}} - \frac{1}{(x-2)^{n+1}} + \frac{n+1}{(x-1)^{n+2}} + \frac{(n+2)(n+1)}{2(x-1)^{n+3}} \right)$$

Example 5. If

$$y = \frac{1}{x^2 + a^2}$$
 find $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$

Solution : We have
$$y = \frac{1}{x^2 + a^2} = \frac{1}{(x + ai)(x - ai)}$$
 where $i = \sqrt{-1}$
$$= \frac{1}{2ai} \left(\frac{1}{x - ai} - \frac{1}{x + ai} \right)$$
$$\therefore \qquad \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = \frac{1}{2ai} \left[\frac{(-1)^n n!}{(x - ai)^{n+1}} - \frac{(-1)^n n!}{(x + ai)^{n+1}} \right]$$

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Page 25/29

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT

UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)

COURSE NAME: Calculus ctions) BATCH-2018-2021

$$= \frac{(-1)^{n} n!}{2ai} \left[\frac{1}{(x-ai)^{n+1}} - \frac{1}{(x+ai)^{n+1}} \right]$$

Now put $x = r \cos \theta$, $a = r \sin \theta$ so that

$$x - ai = r \left(\cos \theta - i \sin \theta \right)$$

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

Now by De Moivre's theorem we obtain.

$$\frac{1}{\left(x-ai\right)^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{\left[r\left(\cos\theta+i\sin\theta\right)\right]^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{r^{n+1}\left(\cos\theta+i\sin\theta\right)^{n+1}}$$
$$= r^{-(n+1)}\left(\cos\theta-i\sin\theta\right)^{-(n+1)}$$
$$= r^{-(n+1)}\left[\cos\left(n+1\right)\theta+i\sin\left(n+1\right)\theta\right]$$
Similarly
$$\frac{1}{\left(x+ai\right)^{n+1}} = r^{-(n+1)}\left(\cos\left(n+1\right)i\sin\left(n+1\right)\theta\right)$$

Substituting the values we get :

$$\frac{d^{n}y}{dx^{n}} = \frac{(-1)^{n}n!}{2ai}r^{-(n+1)}\left[\cos(n+1)\theta + i\sin(n+1)\theta\right]$$
$$r^{-(n+1)}\left[\cos(n+1)\theta - i\sin(n+1)\theta\right]$$
$$= \frac{(-1)^{n}n!}{r^{(n+1)}2ai}(2i\sin(n+1)\theta)$$
$$= \frac{(-1)^{n}n!}{r^{(n+1)}a}\sin(n+1)\theta$$

Also

$$a = r\sin\theta \Rightarrow \frac{1}{r} = \frac{\sin\theta}{a}$$

...

$$r^{n+1}$$

$$\frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = \frac{(-1)^n n! \sin(n+1) \theta \sin^{n+1} \theta}{a^{n+2}}$$

 a^{n+1}

where
$$\theta$$
 is given by $\tan \theta = \frac{a}{x}$ or $\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{a}{x}\right)$

Leibnitz Theorem : If y = uv where u and v are functions of x possessing derivatives of the nth order, then $D^n y = D^2 (uv) = (D^n u)v + nC_1 D^{n-1} uDv + {}^nC_2 D^{n-2} uD^2 v + \dots + {}^nC_r D^{n-r} uD^r v \dots + uD^n v$.

We notice that the coefficients on the R.H.S. are the same as in the expression of $(a + b)^n$ by Binomial Theorem, where *n* is a positive integer.

Proof : We shall prove the theorem by mathematical induction.

Step I. By direct differentiation it is easy to see that the theorem is true for n = 1, n = 2

$$D(uv) = (Du)v + u(Dv)$$
$$D^{2}(uv) = (D^{2}u)v + DuDv + DuDv + uD^{2}v$$
$$= (D^{2}u)v + {}^{2}C_{2}DuDv + {}^{2}C_{2}u D^{2}v$$

Step II. Let us assume that the Theorem is true for a particular value of n say n = m

i.e. $D^{m}(uv) = (D^{m}u)v + {}^{m}C_{1}D^{m-1}u.Dv + {}^{m}C_{2}D^{m-2}u.D^{2}v + \dots$

 $+ {}^{m}C_{r-1}D^{m-r+1}uD^{r-1}v + {}^{m}C_{r}D^{m-r}u.D^{r}v + \dots + uD^{m}v.$

Differentiating both sides w.r.t. x we have

From the theory of permutations and combinations we know that ${}^{m}C_{r-1} + {}^{m}C_{r} = {}^{m+1}C_{r}$

Also
$${}^{m}C_{n} = 1 + {}^{m}C_{1} = {}^{m}C_{0} + {}^{m}C_{1} = {}^{m+1}C_{1} \text{ and } {}^{m}C_{m} = {}^{m+1}C_{m+1}$$

$$D^{m+1}(uv) = (D^{m+1}u)v + {}^{m+1}C_{1}D^{m}u.Dv + {}^{m+2}C_{2}D^{m-1}u.D^{2}v + \dots$$

 $+ {}^{m+1}C_r D^{m+1-r} u D^r v + \dots + u D^{m+1} v.$

n.

Thus if the theorem is true for any value m of n, then it is also true for the next higher value (m + 1) of

In step I we have seen that the theorem is true for n = 1, n = 2, then it must be true for n = 2 + 1 = 3 and so n = 3 + 1 = 4 and so on. Thus by the principle of mathematical induction it follows that the Theorem is true for all positive integral values of n.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)BATCH-2018-2021

| Example 8. Find the <i>n</i> th Solution : We write <i>y</i> = | ^a derivative of $x^3 e^{ax}$. = $x^3 e^{ax}$ where $u = e^{ax}$. $v = x^3$ |
|---|---|
| We have | $D^n u = D^n (e^{ax}) = a^n e^{ex}$ |
| Using Leibnitz Rule, we | $Dv = 3x^2, D^2v = 6x, D^3v = 6, D^4v = 0, D^5v = 0$ |
| Using Leionitz Rule, we | gei |
| | $\frac{d^{n} y}{dx^{n}} = (D^{n} u)v + {}^{n}C_{1}D^{n-1}uDv + {}^{n}C_{2}D^{n-2}uD^{2}v + \dots + uD^{n}v$ |
| | $= x^{3}a^{n}e^{ax} + {}^{n}C_{1}a^{n-1}e^{ax}.3x^{2} + {}^{n}C_{2}a^{n-2}e^{ax}.6x + {}^{n}C_{3}a^{n-3}e^{ax}.6$ |
| | $= x^{3}a^{n}e^{ax} + 3n a^{n-1}x^{2}e^{ax} + 3n(n-1)a^{n-2}xe^{ax} + n(n-1)(n-2)a^{n-3}e^{ax}$ |
| | |

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus

COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 **UNIT: I(Hyperbolic functions)** BATCH-2018-2021

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

PART - A (20 x 1 = 20 Marks) (Ouestion Nos. 1 to 20 Online Examinations)

PART-B (5 x 2 =10 Marks)

Answer all the questions

- 1. Find the derivative of $f(x)=5x^3-2x^2+6x+1$.
- 2. Find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ when y=e^{3x}cosh4x
- 3. Find the third derivative of x^3-3x^2+4x-1 .
- 4. Prove that $\sinh 2x = 2\sinh x\cosh x$.
- 5. Find the inflection point for the function $f(x) = 3x^5 5x^3 + 2$.

PART-C $(5 \times 6 = 30 \text{ Marks})$

Answer all the questions

- 1. Prove that i) $\sinh(x + y) = \sinh x \cosh y + \cosh x \sinh y$ ii) $\cosh(x + y) = \cosh x \cosh y + \sinh x \sinh y$
- 2. Find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ for i) $y = \cosh^{-1}(\sec x)$ ii) $y = \tanh(x^2 + 1)$. 3. Show that i) $\tanh(x + y) = \frac{\tanh x + \tanh y}{1 + \tanh x \tanh y}$. ii) $\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$.
- 4. If $y = \sin(\sin x)$ prove that $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \tan x \frac{dy}{dx} + y \cos^2 x = 0$.
- 5. Evaluate i) $\int x \operatorname{sech}^2(x^2) dx$ ii) $\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$
- 6. If $y = \sin(msin^{-1}x)$, prove that $(1 x^2)y_2 xy_1 + m^2y = 0$ and hence show that $(1 + x^2)y_{n+2} (2n+1)xy_{n+1} + (m^2 n^2)y_n = 0$
- 7. Find the nth derivative of cosx cos2x cos3x.
- 8. Find the nth derivative for $\frac{1}{x^2+a^2}$
- 9. If $= e^{a \sin^{-1} x}$, prove that $(1 x^2)y_2 xy_1 a^2y = 0$ and hence show that $(1 - x^2)y_{n+2} - (2n + 1)xy_{n+1} - (n^2 + a^2)y_n = 0.$ 10. State and prove Leibniz Rule for nth derivative.
- 11. Evaluate i) $\int \sec^4 x \, dx$ ii) $\int \csc^7 x \, dx$
CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing)BATCH-2018-2021

<u>UNIT-II</u> SYLLABUS

The Reduction formulae, derivations and illustrations of reduction formulae of the type $\int \sin nx \, dx$, $\int \cos nx \, dx$, $\int \tan nx \, dx$, $\int \sec nx \, dx$, $\int \log x^n \, dx$, $\int \sin^n x \sin^m x \, dx$. Curve tracing in Cartesian coordinates, tracing in polar coordinates of standard curves, L'Hospital's rule, applications in business, economics and life sciences.

Reduction formula for $\int \sin^n x \, dx$

$$\int \sin^{n} x \, dx = \int \sin x \, \sin^{n-1} x \, dx$$

= $-\cos x \, \sin^{n-1} x - \int (-\cos x) \cdot (n-1) \sin^{n-2} x \cos x \, dx$
(integrating by parts)
= $-\cos x \, \sin^{n-1} x + (n-1) \int \sin^{n-2} x \cos^{2} x \, dx$
= $-\cos x \, \sin^{n-1} x + (n-1) \int \sin^{n-2} x (1 - \sin^{2} x) \, dx$
(since $\cos^{2} x = 1 - \sin^{2} x$)
= $-\cos x \, \sin^{n-1} x + (n-1) \int \sin^{n-2} x \, dx - (n-1) \int \sin^{n} x \, dx$. (1)

There is now a term in $\int \sin^n x \, dx$ on the right-hand side as well as on the left-hand side. Bringing these terms together on the left-hand side, (1) becomes

$$n \int \sin^{n} x \, dx = -\cos x \, \sin^{n-1} x + (n-1) \int \sin^{n-2} x \, dx$$

$$\therefore \int \sin^{n} x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n} \cos x \, \sin^{n-1} x + \frac{(n-1)}{n} \int \sin^{n-2} x \, dx.$$
(2)

The use of the reduction formula (2) to integrate a power of $\sin x$ is demonstrated in worked example no. 2.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

Reduction formula for $\int \cos^n x \, dx$ $\int \cos^n x \, dx = \int \cos x \cos^{n-1} x \, dx$ $= \sin x \cos^{n-1} x - \int (\sin x) \cdot (n-1) \cos^{n-2} x (-\sin x) \, dx$ (integrating by parts) $= \sin x \cos^{n-1} x + (n-1) \int \cos^{n-2} x (1 - \cos^2 x) \, dx$ (since $\sin^2 x = 1 - \cos^2 x$) $= \sin x \cos^{n-1} x + (n-1) \int \cos^{n-2} x \, dx - (n-1) \int \cos^n x \, dx$ $\therefore n \int \cos^n x \, dx = \sin x \cos^{n-1} x + (n-1) \int \cos^{n-2} x \, dx$ $\therefore \int \cos^n x \, dx = \frac{1}{n} \sin x \cos^{n-1} x + \frac{(n-1)}{n} \int \cos^{n-2} x \, dx.$ (3)

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

REDUCTION FORMULAS

Integration by parts can be used to derive *reduction formulas* for integrals. These are formulas that express an integral involving a power of a function in terms of an integral that involves a *lower* power of that function. For example, if *n* is a positive integer and $n \ge 2$, then integration by parts can be used to obtain the reduction formulas

$$\int \sin^n x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n} \sin^{n-1} x \cos x + \frac{n-1}{n} \int \sin^{n-2} x \, dx \tag{9}$$

$$\int \cos^n x \, dx = \frac{1}{n} \cos^{n-1} x \sin x + \frac{n-1}{n} \int \cos^{n-2} x \, dx \tag{10}$$

To illustrate how such formulas can be obtained, let us derive (10). We begin by writing $\cos^n x$ as $\cos^{n-1} x \cdot \cos x$ and letting

$$u = \cos^{n-1} x \qquad \qquad dv = \cos x \, dx$$
$$du = (n-1)\cos^{n-2} x (-\sin x) \, dx \qquad \qquad v = \sin x$$
$$= -(n-1)\cos^{n-2} x \sin x \, dx$$

so that

$$\int \cos^{n} x \, dx = \int \cos^{n-1} x \cos x \, dx = \int u \, dv = uv - \int v \, du$$
$$= \cos^{n-1} x \sin x + (n-1) \int \sin^{2} x \cos^{n-2} x \, dx$$
$$= \cos^{n-1} x \sin x + (n-1) \int (1 - \cos^{2} x) \cos^{n-2} x \, dx$$
$$= \cos^{n-1} x \sin x + (n-1) \int \cos^{n-2} x \, dx - (n-1) \int \cos^{n} x \, dx$$

Moving the last term on the right to the left side yields

$$n \int \cos^{n} x \, dx = \cos^{n-1} x \sin x + (n-1) \int \cos^{n-2} x \, dx$$

from which (10) follows. The derivation of reduction formula (9) is similar (Exercise 63).

Reduction formulas (9) and (10) reduce the exponent of sine (or cosine) by 2. Thus, if the formulas are applied repeatedly, the exponent can eventually be reduced to 0 if n is even or 1 if n is odd, at which point the integration can be completed. We will discuss this method in more detail in the next section, but for now, here is an example that illustrates how reduction formulas work.

Example 8 Evaluate
$$\int \cos^4 x \, dx$$
.
Solution. From (10) with $n = 4$
 $\int \cos^4 x \, dx = \frac{1}{4} \cos^3 x \sin x + \frac{3}{4} \int \cos^2 x \, dx$ Now apply (10) with $n = 2$.
 $= \frac{1}{4} \cos^3 x \sin x + \frac{3}{4} \left(\frac{1}{2} \cos x \sin x + \frac{1}{2} \int dx \right)$
 $= \frac{1}{4} \cos^3 x \sin x + \frac{3}{8} \cos x \sin x + \frac{3}{8} x + C$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing)BATCH-2018-2021

Polar Coordinates

Up until now we have been dealing with the coordinates x and y, which are known as **Cartesian coordinates** or **rectangular coordinates**. We can equally describe a plane using any pair of coordinates so that each position on the plane is uniquely described by the pair. In particular a useful set of coordinates are **polar coordinates**.

Defining Polar Coordinates

To define polar coordinates, we begin by fixing a point O, called the **origin** or **pole**. We then define a half-line (or ray) which begins at 0 and continues to infinity in a given direction, called the **polar axis**. This is shown in



Figure 5: Polar coordinates

Figure 5. The distance from the origin to the point P is called the radial coordinate, r, and the angle that the line |OP| makes with the polar axis is called the **angular coordinate**, θ , more commonly known as the **polar**

angle. It is important to notice that the polar angle returns to its original position when the angle is 2π . Therefore, any angle greater than or equal to 2π is equivalent to an angle in the range $(0 \le \theta \le 2\pi)$. In fact, more generally, the angles $\theta - 2\pi n$, θ and $\theta + 2\pi n$ are equivalent if n is an integer.

Relationship to Cartesian Coordinates

It is quite easy to make a link between polar coordinates and Cartesian coordinates. The trick is to make the polar axis coincide with the x-axis. Then, we can see from Figure 6 that the following relationship holds

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021



Figure 6: Polar coordinates in terms of Cartesian coordinates

$$x = r \cos \theta$$
, $y = r \sin \theta$, (10)

which can also be written in the form

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2, \quad \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}.$$
 (11)

Example: Change the Cartesian coordinates $(4, 4\sqrt{3})$ into polar coordinates.

Solution:

$$r^2 = 4^2 + (4\sqrt{3})^2 = 64 \Rightarrow r = 8$$
,

and

$$\tan \theta = \frac{4\sqrt{3}}{4} = \sqrt{3} \Rightarrow \theta = \frac{\pi}{3}.$$

The polar coordinates are therefore $(r, \theta) = (8, \pi/3)$.

Example: Change the polar coordinates $(3, 3\pi/4)$ into Cartesian coordinates.

Solution:

$$x = 3\cos\frac{3\pi}{4} = -\frac{3}{\sqrt{2}},$$

and

$$y = 3\sin\frac{3\pi}{4} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{2}}$$

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

The Cartesian coordinates are therefore $(x, y) = (-3/\sqrt{2}, 3/\sqrt{2}).$

If you are asked to graph an equation in polar coordinates, the easiest thing



Figure 7: Unit circle and the half-line $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$.

to do is to simply plot some points and see what happens. Later on, you may begin to recognise some of the graphs and be able to plot them from memory. For now, let's look at some simple examples. If we fix r, say to r = 1, we get a circle, see Figure 7. Note also that once we hit $\theta = 2\pi$, the graph repeats, and so we do not need to continue. Also in the same figure we see the plot of $\theta = \pi/4$. We can either imagine that we can take negative values of r,

or as we would normally expect we could impose $r \ge 0$ and plot a half-line, as is done here. Finally, let's look at an example where both coordinates vary, say $r = \sin \theta$. Then we get the plot in Figure 8, where we see that the plot repeats values after $\theta = \pi$, because the Cartesian coordinates are $x = \sin t \, \cos \theta$, $y = \sin \theta \sin \theta = \sin^2 \theta \ge 0$.



Figure 8: Plot of $r = \sin \theta$.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

EXAMPLE: Express the equation $x^2 = 4y$ in polar coordinates. Solution: We use the formulas $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$.

> $x^2 = 4y$ $(r\cos\theta)^2 = 4r\sin\theta$ $r^2 \cos^2 \theta = 4r \sin \theta$

$$r = 4 \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos^2 \theta} = 4 \sec \theta \tan \theta$$

| Polar to Cartesian Conversion Formulas | | |
|--|---------------------|---|
| $x = r\cos\theta$ | $y = r \sin \theta$ | |
| | | _ |

Converting from Cartesian is almost as easy. Let's first notice the following.

$$x^{2} + y^{2} = (r\cos\theta)^{2} + (r\sin\theta)^{2}$$
$$= r^{2}\cos^{2}\theta + r^{2}\sin^{2}\theta$$
$$= r^{2}(\cos^{2}\theta + \sin^{2}\theta) = r^{2}$$

This is a very useful formula that we should remember, however we are after an equation for r so let's take the square root of both sides. This gives,

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

Note that technically we should have a plus or minus in front of the root since we know that r can be either positive or negative. We will run with the convention of positive r here.

Getting an equation for θ is almost as simple. We'll start with,

$$\frac{y}{x} = \frac{r\sin\theta}{r\cos\theta} = \tan\theta$$

Taking the inverse tangent of both sides gives,

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

We will need to be careful with this because inverse tangents only return values in the range $-\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$. Recall that there is a second possible angle and that the second angle is given by $\theta + \pi$.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing)BATCH-2018-2021

Cartesian to Polar Conversion Formulas

$$r^{2} = x^{2} + y^{2} \qquad \qquad r = \sqrt{x^{2} + y^{2}}$$
$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

Example 1 Convert each of the following points into the given coordinate system.

(a) $\left(-4, \frac{2\pi}{3}\right)$ into Cartesian coordinates. [Solution] (b) (-1,-1) into polar coordinates. [Solution]

Solution

(a) Convert
$$\left(-4, \frac{2\pi}{3}\right)$$
 into Cartesian coordinates.

This conversion is easy enough. All we need to do is plug the points into the formulas.

$$x = -4\cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = -4\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = 2$$
$$y = -4\sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = -4\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = -2\sqrt{3}$$

So, in Cartesian coordinates this point is $(2, -2\sqrt{3})$.

(b) Convert (-1,-1) into polar coordinates.

Let's first get r.

$$r = \sqrt{\left(-1\right)^2 + \left(-1\right)^2} = \sqrt{2}$$

Now, let's get θ .

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{-1}{-1}\right) = \tan^{-1}(1) = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

This is not the correct angle however. This value of θ is in the first quadrant and the point we've been given is in the third quadrant. As noted above we can get the correct angle by adding π onto this. Therefore, the actual angle is,

$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{4} + \pi = \frac{5\pi}{4}$$

So, in polar coordinates the point is $\left(\sqrt{2}, \frac{5\pi}{4}\right)$. Note as well that we could have used the first θ that we got by using a negative *r*. In this case the point could also be written in polar coordinates as $\left(-\sqrt{2}, \frac{\pi}{4}\right)$.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 2 Convert each of the following into an equation in the given coordinate system.

(a) Convert $2x - 5x^3 = 1 + xy$ into polar coordinates. [Solution]

(b) Convert $r = -8\cos\theta$ into Cartesian coordinates. [Solution]

Solution

(a) Convert $2x - 5x^3 = 1 + xy$ into polar coordinates.

In this case there really isn't much to do other than plugging in the formulas for x and y (*i.e.* the Cartesian coordinates) in terms of r and θ (*i.e.* the polar coordinates).

 $2(r\cos\theta) - 5(r\cos\theta)^3 = 1 + (r\cos\theta)(r\sin\theta)$ $2r\cos\theta - 5r^3\cos^3\theta = 1 + r^2\cos\theta\sin\theta$

[Return to Problems]

(b) Convert $r = -8\cos\theta$ into Cartesian coordinates.

This one is a little trickier, but not by much. First notice that we could substitute straight for the r. However, there is no straight substitution for the cosine that will give us only Cartesian coordinates. If we had an r on the right along with the cosine then we could do a direct substitution. So, if an r on the right side would be convenient let's put one there, just don't forget to put one on the left side as well.

$$r^2 = -8r\cos\theta$$

We can now make some substitutions that will convert this into Cartesian coordinates.

$$x^2 + y^2 = -8x$$

Lines

Some lines have fairly simple equations in polar coordinates.

1. $\theta = \beta$.

We can see that this is a line by converting to Cartesian coordinates as follows

$$\theta = \beta$$
$$\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) = \beta$$
$$\frac{y}{x} = \tan \beta$$
$$y = (\tan \beta)x$$

This is a line that goes through the origin and makes an angle of β with the positive *x*-axis. Or, in other words it is a line through the origin with slope of tan β .

- 2. $r \cos \theta = a$ This is easy enough to convert to Cartesian coordinates to x = a. So, this is a vertical line.
- 3. $r \sin \theta = b$ Likewise, this converts to y = b and so is a horizontal line.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 3 Graph $\theta = \frac{3\pi}{4}$, $r\cos\theta = 4$ and $r\sin\theta = -3$ on the same axis system.

Solution

There really isn't too much to this one other than doing the graph so here it is.



Circles

Let's take a look at the equations of circles in polar coordinates.

1. r = a.

This equation is saying that no matter what angle we've got the distance from the origin must be a. If you think about it that is exactly the definition of a circle of radius a centered at the origin.

So, this is a circle of radius *a* centered at the origin. This is also one of the reasons why we might want to work in polar coordinates. The equation of a circle centered at the origin has a very nice equation, unlike the corresponding equation in Cartesian coordinates.

2. $r = 2a\cos\theta$.

We looked at a specific example of one of these when we were converting equations to Cartesian coordinates.

This is a circle of radius |a| and center (a, 0). Note that *a* might be negative (as it was in our example above) and so the absolute value bars are required on the radius. They should not be used however on the center.

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

This is similar to the previous one. It is a circle of radius |b| and center (0,b).

4. $r = 2a\cos\theta + 2b\sin\theta$.

This is a combination of the previous two and by completing the square twice it can be shown that this is a circle of radius $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ and center (a, b). In other words, this is the general equation of a circle that isn't centered at the origin.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing)BATCH-2018-2021

Example 4 Graph r = 7, $r = 4\cos\theta$, and $r = -7\sin\theta$ on the same axis system.

Solution

The first one is a circle of radius 7 centered at the origin. The second is a circle of radius 2

centered at (2,0). The third is a circle of radius $\frac{7}{2}$ centered at $\left(0, -\frac{7}{2}\right)$. Here is the graph of the

three equations.



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 1 Find the rectangular coordinates of the point *P* whose polar coordinates are $(r, \theta) = (6, 2\pi/3)$ (Figure 10.2.6).

Solution. Substituting the polar coordinates r = 6 and $\theta = 2\pi/3$ in (1) yields

$$x = 6\cos\frac{2\pi}{3} = 6\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = -3$$
$$y = 6\sin\frac{2\pi}{3} = 6\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = 3\sqrt{3}$$

Thus, the rectangular coordinates of *P* are $(x, y) = (-3, 3\sqrt{3})$.

Example 2 Find polar coordinates of the point *P* whose rectangular coordinates are $(-2, -2\sqrt{3})$ (Figure 10.2.7).

Solution. We will find the polar coordinates (r, θ) of *P* that satisfy the conditions r > 0 and $0 \le \theta < 2\pi$. From the first equation in (2),

$$r^{2} = x^{2} + y^{2} = (-2)^{2} + (-2\sqrt{3})^{2} = 4 + 12 = 16$$

so r = 4. From the second equation in (2),

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} = \frac{-2\sqrt{3}}{-2} = \sqrt{3}$$

From this and the fact that $(-2, -2\sqrt{3})$ lies in the third quadrant, it follows that the angle satisfying the requirement $0 \le \theta < 2\pi$ is $\theta = 4\pi/3$. Thus, $(r, \theta) = (4, 4\pi/3)$ are polar coordinates of *P*. All other polar coordinates of *P* are expressible in the form

$$\left(4, \frac{4\pi}{3} + 2n\pi\right)$$
 or $\left(-4, \frac{\pi}{3} + 2n\pi\right)$

where *n* is an integer. \blacktriangleleft

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing)BATCH-2018-2021

Example 3 Sketch the graphs of

(a)
$$r = 1$$
 (b) $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$

in polar coordinates.

Solution (a). For all values of θ , the point $(1, \theta)$ is 1 unit away from the pole. Since θ is arbitrary, the graph is the circle of radius 1 centered at the pole (Figure 10.2.8*a*).

Solution (b). For all values of r, the point $(r, \pi/4)$ lies on a line that makes an angle of $\pi/4$ with the polar axis (Figure 10.2.8b). Positive values of r correspond to points on the line in the first quadrant and negative values of r to points on the line in the third quadrant. Thus, in absence of any restriction on r, the graph is the entire line. Observe, however, that had we imposed the restriction $r \ge 0$, the graph would have been just the ray in the first quadrant.



Figure 10.2.8

Equations $r = f(\theta)$ that express r as a function of θ are especially important. One way to graph such an equation is to choose some typical values of θ , calculate the corresponding values of r, and then plot the resulting pairs (r, θ) in a polar coordinate system. The next two examples illustrate this process.

Example 3 Sketch the graphs of

(a)
$$r = 1$$
 (b) $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$

in polar coordinates.

Solution (a). For all values of θ , the point $(1, \theta)$ is 1 unit away from the pole. Since θ is arbitrary, the graph is the circle of radius 1 centered at the pole (Figure 10.2.8*a*).

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing)BATCH-2018-2021

Solution (b). For all values of r, the point $(r, \pi/4)$ lies on a line that makes an angle of $\pi/4$ with the polar axis (Figure 10.2.8b). Positive values of r correspond to points on the line in the first quadrant and negative values of r to points on the line in the third quadrant. Thus, in absence of any restriction on r, the graph is the entire line. Observe, however, that had we imposed the restriction $r \ge 0$, the graph would have been just the ray in the first quadrant.



Figure 10.2.8

Equations $r = f(\theta)$ that express r as a function of θ are especially important. One way to graph such an equation is to choose some typical values of θ , calculate the corresponding values of r, and then plot the resulting pairs (r, θ) in a polar coordinate system. The next two examples illustrate this process.

Example 4 Sketch the graph of $r = \theta$ ($\theta \ge 0$) in polar coordinates by plotting points.

Solution. Observe that as θ increases, so does r; thus, the graph is a curve that spirals out from the pole as θ increases. A reasonably accurate sketch of the spiral can be obtained by plotting the points that correspond to values of θ that are integer multiples of $\pi/2$, keeping in mind that the value of r is always equal to the value of θ (Figure 10.2.9).





CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing)BATCH-2018-2021

The first limit was obtained algebraically by factoring the numerator and canceling the common factor of x - 1, and the second two limits were obtained using geometric methods. However, there are many indeterminate forms for which neither algebraic nor geometric methods will produce the limit, so we need to develop a more general method.

To motivate such a method, suppose that (1) is an indeterminate form of type 0/0 in which f' and g' are continuous at x = a and $g'(a) \neq 0$. Since f and g can be closely approximated by their local linear approximations near a, it is reasonable to expect that

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)}{g(a) + g'(a)(x - a)}$$
(2)

Since we are assuming that f' and g' are continuous at x = a, we have

$$\lim_{x \to a} f'(x) = f'(a) \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to a} g'(x) = g'(a)$$

and since the differentiability of f and g at x = a implies the continuity of f and g at x = a, we have

$$f(a) = \lim_{x \to a} f(x) = 0$$
 and $g(a) = \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = 0$

Thus, we can rewrite (2) as

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(a)(x-a)}{g'(a)(x-a)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(a)}{g'(a)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$
(3)

This result, called *L'Hôpital's rule*, converts the given indeterminate form into a limit involving derivatives that is often easier to evaluate.

Although we motivated (3) by assuming that f and g have continuous derivatives at x = a and that $g'(a) \neq 0$, the result is true under less stringent conditions and is also valid for one-sided limits and limits at $+\infty$ and $-\infty$. The proof of the following precise statement of L'Hôpital's rule is omitted.

3.6.1 THEOREM (*L'Hôpital's Rule for Form* 0/0) Suppose that f and g are differentiable functions on an open interval containing x = a, except possibly at x = a, and that

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = 0 \quad and \quad \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = 0$$

If $\lim [f'(x)/g'(x)]$ exists, or if this limit is $+\infty$ or $-\infty$, then

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

Moreover, this statement is also true in the case of a limit as $x \to a^-$, $x \to a^+$, $x \to -\infty$, *or as* $x \to +\infty$.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

In the examples that follow we will apply L'Hôpital's rule using the following three-step process:

Applying L'Hôpital's Rule

- Step 1. Check that the limit of f(x)/g(x) is an indeterminate form of type 0/0.
- Step 2. Differentiate *f* and *g* separately.
- Step 3. Find the limit of f'(x)/g'(x). If this limit is finite, $+\infty$, or $-\infty$, then it is equal to the limit of f(x)/g(x).

Example 1 Find the limit

$$\lim_{x \to 2} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$$

using L'Hôpital's rule, and check the result by factoring.

Solution. The numerator and denominator have a limit of 0, so the limit is an indeterminate form of type 0/0. Applying L'Hôpital's rule yields

$$\lim_{x \to 2} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \to 2} \frac{\frac{d}{dx} [x^2 - 4]}{\frac{d}{dx} [x - 2]} = \lim_{x \to 2} \frac{2x}{1} = 4$$

This agrees with the computation

$$\lim_{x \to 2} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \to 2} \frac{(x - 2)(x + 2)}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \to 2} (x + 2) = 4$$

■ INDETERMINATE FORMS OF TYPE ∞ /∞

When we want to indicate that the limit (or a one-sided limit) of a function is $+\infty$ or $-\infty$ without being specific about the sign, we will say that the limit is ∞ . For example,

 $\lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = \infty \quad \text{means} \quad \lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = +\infty \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = -\infty$ $\lim_{x \to +\infty} f(x) = \infty \quad \text{means} \quad \lim_{x \to +\infty} f(x) = +\infty \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \to +\infty} f(x) = -\infty$ $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \infty \quad \text{means} \quad \lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = \pm\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to a^-} f(x) = \pm\infty$

The limit of a ratio, f(x)/g(x), in which the numerator has limit ∞ and the denominator has limit ∞ is called an *indeterminate form of type* ∞/∞ . The following version of L'Hôpital's rule, which we state without proof, can often be used to evaluate limits of this type.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

3.6.2 THEOREM (L'Hôpital's Rule for Form ∞/∞) Suppose that f and g are differentiable functions on an open interval containing x = a, except possibly at x = a, and that

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \infty \quad and \quad \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = \infty$$

If $\lim_{x \to \infty} [f'(x)/g'(x)]$ exists, or if this limit is $+\infty$ or $-\infty$, then

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

Moreover, this statement is also true in the case of a limit as $x \to a^-$, $x \to a^+$, $x \to -\infty$, *or as* $x \to +\infty$.

Example 3 In each part confirm that the limit is an indeterminate form of type ∞/∞ and apply L'Hôpital's rule.

(a)
$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{x}{e^x}$$
 (b) $\lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\ln x}{\csc x}$

Solution (a). The numerator and denominator both have a limit of $+\infty$, so we have an indeterminate form of type ∞/∞ . Applying L'Hôpital's rule yields

$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{x}{e^x} = \lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{1}{e^x} = 0$$

Solution (b). The numerator has a limit of $-\infty$ and the denominator has a limit of $+\infty$, so we have an indeterminate form of type ∞/∞ . Applying L'Hôpital's rule yields

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\ln x}{\csc x} = \lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{1/x}{-\csc x \cot x}$$
(4)

This last limit is again an indeterminate form of type ∞/∞ . Moreover, any additional applications of L'Hôpital's rule will yield powers of 1/x in the numerator and expressions involving $\csc x$ and $\cot x$ in the denominator; thus, repeated application of L'Hôpital's rule simply produces new indeterminate forms. We must try something else. The last limit in (4) can be rewritten as

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \left(-\frac{\sin x}{x} \tan x \right) = -\lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\sin x}{x} \cdot \lim_{x \to 0^+} \tan x = -(1)(0) = 0$$

Thus,

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\ln x}{\csc x} = 0 \blacktriangleleft$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

ANALYZING THE GROWTH OF EXPONENTIAL FUNCTIONS USING L'HÔPITAL'S RULE

If *n* is any positive integer, then $x^n \to +\infty$ as $x \to +\infty$. Such integer powers of *x* are sometimes used as "measuring sticks" to describe how rapidly other functions grow. For example, we know that $e^x \to +\infty$ as $x \to +\infty$ and that the growth of e^x is very rapid (Table 0.5.5); however, the growth of x^n is also rapid when *n* is a high power, so it is reasonable to ask whether high powers of *x* grow more or less rapidly than e^x . One way to investigate this is to examine the behavior of the ratio x^n/e^x as $x \to +\infty$. For example, Figure 3.6.1*a* shows the graph of $y = x^5/e^x$. This graph suggests that $x^5/e^x \to 0$ as $x \to +\infty$, and this implies that the growth of the function e^x is sufficiently rapid that its values eventually overtake those of x^5 and force the ratio toward zero. Stated informally, " e^x eventually grows more rapidly than x^5 ." The same conclusion could have been reached by putting e^x on top and examining the behavior of e^x/x^5 as $x \to +\infty$ (Figure 3.6.1*b*). In this case the values of e^x eventually overtake those of x^5 and force the ratio toward $+\infty$. More generally, we can use L'Hôpital's rule to show that e^x eventually grows more rapidly than any positive integer power of *x*, that is,

$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{x^n}{e^x} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{e^x}{x^n} = +\infty$$
(5-6)

Both limits are indeterminate forms of type ∞/∞ that can be evaluated using L'Hôpital's rule. For example, to establish (5), we will need to apply L'Hôpital's rule *n* times. For this purpose, observe that successive differentiations of x^n reduce the exponent by 1 each time, thus producing a constant for the *n*th derivative. For example, the successive derivatives



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

of x^3 are $3x^2$, 6x, and 6. In general, the *n*th derivative of x^n is $n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots 1 = n!$ (verify).^{*} Thus, applying L'Hôpital's rule *n* times to (5) yields

$$\lim_{n \to +\infty} \frac{x^n}{e^x} = \lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{n!}{e^x} = 0$$

Limit (6) can be established similarly.

■ INDETERMINATE FORMS OF TYPE 0 · ∞

Thus far we have discussed indeterminate forms of type 0/0 and ∞/∞ . However, these are not the only possibilities; in general, the limit of an expression that has one of the forms

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$
, $f(x) \cdot g(x)$, $f(x)^{g(x)}$, $f(x) - g(x)$, $f(x) + g(x)$

is called an *indeterminate form* if the limits of f(x) and g(x) individually exert conflicting influences on the limit of the entire expression. For example, the limit

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} x \ln x$$

is an *indeterminate form of type* $0 \cdot \infty$ because the limit of the first factor is 0, the limit of the second factor is $-\infty$, and these two limits exert conflicting influences on the product. On the other hand, the limit

$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} \left[\sqrt{x} (1 - x^2) \right]$$

is not an indeterminate form because the first factor has a limit of $+\infty$, the second factor has a limit of $-\infty$, and these influences work together to produce a limit of $-\infty$ for the product.

Indeterminate forms of type $0 \cdot \infty$ can sometimes be evaluated by rewriting the product as a ratio, and then applying L'Hôpital's rule for indeterminate forms of type 0/0 or ∞/∞ .

► Example 4 Evaluate

(a)
$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} x \ln x$$
 (b) $\lim_{x \to \pi/4} (1 - \tan x) \sec 2x$

Solution (a). The factor x has a limit of 0 and the factor ln x has a limit of $-\infty$, so the stated problem is an indeterminate form of type $0 \cdot \infty$. There are two possible approaches: we can rewrite the limit as

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\ln x}{1/x} \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{x}{1/\ln x}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

the first being an indeterminate form of type ∞/∞ and the second an indeterminate form of type 0/0. However, the first form is the preferred initial choice because the derivative of 1/x is less complicated than the derivative of $1/\ln x$. That choice yields

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} x \ln x = \lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\ln x}{1/x} = \lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{1/x}{-1/x^2} = \lim_{x \to 0^+} (-x) = 0$$

Solution (b). The stated problem is an indeterminate form of type $0 \cdot \infty$. We will convert it to an indeterminate form of type 0/0:

$$\lim_{x \to \pi/4} (1 - \tan x) \sec 2x = \lim_{x \to \pi/4} \frac{1 - \tan x}{1/\sec 2x} = \lim_{x \to \pi/4} \frac{1 - \tan x}{\cos 2x}$$
$$= \lim_{x \to \pi/4} \frac{-\sec^2 x}{-2\sin 2x} = \frac{-2}{-2} = 1 \blacktriangleleft$$

■ INDETERMINATE FORMS OF TYPE ∞ - ∞

A limit problem that leads to one of the expressions

$$(+\infty) - (+\infty), \quad (-\infty) - (-\infty),$$

 $(+\infty) + (-\infty), \quad (-\infty) + (+\infty)$

is called an *indeterminate form of type* $\infty - \infty$. Such limits are indeterminate because the two terms exert conflicting influences on the expression: one pushes it in the positive direction and the other pushes it in the negative direction. However, limit problems that lead to one of the expressions

$$(+\infty) + (+\infty), \quad (+\infty) - (-\infty),$$

 $(-\infty) + (-\infty), \quad (-\infty) - (+\infty)$

are not indeterminate, since the two terms work together (those on the top produce a limit of $+\infty$ and those on the bottom produce a limit of $-\infty$).

Indeterminate forms of type $\infty - \infty$ can sometimes be evaluated by combining the terms and manipulating the result to produce an indeterminate form of type 0/0 or ∞/∞ .

Example 5 Evaluate
$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \left(\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{\sin x}\right)$$
.

Solution. Both terms have a limit of $+\infty$, so the stated problem is an indeterminate form of type $\infty - \infty$. Combining the two terms yields

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \left(\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{\sin x} \right) = \lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\sin x - x}{x \sin x}$$

which is an indeterminate form of type 0/0. Applying L'Hôpital's rule twice yields

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\sin x - x}{x \sin x} = \lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\cos x - 1}{\sin x + x \cos x}$$
$$= \lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{-\sin x}{\cos x + \cos x - x \sin x} = \frac{0}{2} = 0 \blacktriangleleft$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

INDETERMINATE FORMS OF TYPE 0⁰, ∞⁰, 1[∞]

Limits of the form

$$\lim f(x)^{g(x)}$$

can give rise to *indeterminate forms of the types* 0^0 , ∞^0 , and 1^∞ . (The interpretations of these symbols should be clear.) For example, the limit

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} (1+x)^{1/x}$$

whose value we know to be *e* [see Formula (1) of Section 3.2] is an indeterminate form of type 1^{∞} . It is indeterminate because the expressions 1 + x and 1/x exert two conflicting influences: the first approaches 1, which drives the expression toward 1, and the second approaches $+\infty$, which drives the expression toward $+\infty$.

Indeterminate forms of types 0^0 , ∞^0 , and 1^∞ can sometimes be evaluated by first introducing a dependent variable $v = f(x)g^{(x)}$

$$y = f(x)^{g(x)}$$

and then computing the limit of ln y. Since

$$\ln y = \ln[f(x)^{g(x)}] = g(x) \cdot \ln[f(x)]$$

the limit of ln y will be an indeterminate form of type $0 \cdot \infty$ (verify), which can be evaluated by methods we have already studied. Once the limit of ln y is known, it is a straightforward matter to determine the limit of $y = f(x)^{g(x)}$, as we will illustrate in the next example.

• **Example 6** Find $\lim_{x \to 0} (1 + \sin x)^{1/x}$.

Solution. As discussed above, we begin by introducing a dependent variable

$$y = (1 + \sin x)^{1/x}$$

and taking the natural logarithm of both sides:

$$\ln y = \ln(1 + \sin x)^{1/x} = \frac{1}{x}\ln(1 + \sin x) = \frac{\ln(1 + \sin x)}{x}$$

Thus,

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \ln y = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1 + \sin x)}{x}$$

which is an indeterminate form of type 0/0, so by L'Hôpital's rule

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \ln y = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1 + \sin x)}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(\cos x)/(1 + \sin x)}{1} = 1$$

Since we have shown that $\ln y \to 1$ as $x \to 0$, the continuity of the exponential function implies that $e^{\ln y} \to e^1$ as $x \to 0$, and this implies that $y \to e$ as $x \to 0$. Thus,

$$\lim_{x \to 0} (1 + \sin x)^{1/x} = e$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: II (Reduction formulae and curve tracing) BATCH-2018-2021

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

PART - A (20 x 1 = 20 Marks) (Ouestion Nos. 1 to 20 Online Examinations)

PART-B (5 x 2 =10 Marks)

Answer all the questions

- 1. Convert the polar equation to Cartesian equation for $r = \frac{5}{\sin\theta 2\cos\theta}$.
- 2. Find the Cartesian coordinate of the point P whose polar coordinates are $(r, \theta) = (6, \frac{2\pi}{2})$.
- 3. State the L'Hospital's Rule.
- 4. Evaluate $\int \tan^5 x \, dx$
- 5. Find the polar coordinate of the point P whose Cartesian coordinate are $(-2, -2\sqrt{3})$.

PART-C (5 x 6 = 30 Marks)

Answer all the questions

- 1. Show that $\lim_{x \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x = e$ 2. If $I_n = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \tan^n x \, dx$ then prove that $I_n + I_{n-2} = \frac{1}{n-1}$ and hence evaluate I₅
- 3. Find i) $\lim_{x \to 0^+} x^{\sin x}$ ii) $\lim_{x \to +\infty} x^{\frac{1}{x}}$
- 4. Evaluate $\int x^4 (logx)^3 dx$.
- 5. Find a polar equation for the circle $x^2 + (y 3)^2 = 9$
- 6. Find the Cartesian equation for $r^2 = 4r \cos\theta$ and $r\cos\theta = -4$
- 7. Derive the reduction formula for $\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin^n x \, dx$.
- 8. Derive the reduction formula for $\int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} x^n \sin x \, dx$
- 9. Evaluate i) $\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x \sin x}{x^3}$ ii) $\lim_{x \to +\infty} \frac{2x^2 3x + 1}{3x^2 + 5x 2}$
- 10. Derive the reduction formula for $\int \sin^m x \cos^n x \, dx$.

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| Subject: Calculus Subject Code: 18MMU101 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Class: 1 - B.Sc. Mathematics Semester: 1 Unit II Semester: 1 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | |
| Reduction formulae and curve tracing | | | | | | | | | | |
| Part A (20x1=20 Marks) | | | | | | | | | | |
| (Question Nos. 1 to 20 Online Examinations) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Possible Questions | | | | | | | | | | |
| Question | Choice 1 | Choice 2 | Choice 3 | Choice 4 | Answer | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | |
| A polar coordinate system in a plane consists of a | | | | | n a 1 a | | | | | |
| In a natar accridinates n denotes a | polar | | | parameter | distance | | | | | |
| In a polar coordinates r denotes a | distance | area | angle | radius | distance | | | | | |
| An Destangular scordinates means | nala | cartesian | nolor nlono | nolon ocondinata | cartesian | | | | | |
| All Rectangular coordinates means | distance | coordinate | polar plane | rodius | coolumate | | | | | |
| The polar coordinates is denoted by | $S(r, \theta)$ | $P(r, \theta)$ | $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{A})$ | $O(r, \theta)$ | $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{A})$ | | | | | |
| The polar angle is denoted by | (1,0) | $\Gamma(1,0)$ | r (1,0) | D | (1,0) | | | | | |
| If the polar equation is $r \cos \theta = 2$ then the cartesian | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | | | | | |
| equation is | $\mathbf{x} = -1$ | $\mathbf{x} = 2$ | $\mathbf{x} = -2$ | $\mathbf{x} = 0$ | $\mathbf{x} = 2$ | | | | | |
| The slope of the polar curve $= f(\theta)$ is given by | $\frac{x}{2(dy''/dx'')}$ | $\frac{dy'}{dx'}$ | $\frac{x - 2}{dy/dx}$ | $\frac{dx}{dy}$ | $\frac{x}{dy/dx}$ | | | | | |
| | | ay / an | ay an | | u y an | | | | | |
| A ray emanating from the pole is called the | polar curve | polar axis | polar plane | polar coordinate | polar axis | | | | | |
| The radial coordinate is denoted by | θ | 0 | r | P | r | | | | | |
| | square | rectangular | | | rectangular | | | | | |
| what is another name foe cartesian coordinate? | coordinate | coordinate | polar plane | polar coordinate | coordinate | | | | | |
| $\lim_{x\to 0} (\sin x / x) =$ | 0 | (-1) | 1 | 2 | 1 | | | | | |
| $\lim_{x\to 0} \left((3x - \sin x) / x \right) =$ | 0 | (-1) | 1 | 2 | 2 | | | | | |

| $\int \sec x dx = $ | tanx | sinx | secx | cos x | secx |
|--|-------------|----------------------|-------------------|------------------|--------------|
| $\lim_{x\to 0^+} (x \cot x) =$ | 2 | 1 | 0 | (-1) | 1 |
| $\lim_{x \to 0^+} (1 + x)^{1/x} =$ | e | 2 | 1 | 0 | e |
| In a competitive economy, the total amount that | | | | | |
| consumers actually spend on a commodity is usually | | | | | |
| the total amount they would have been | | | | more than or | |
| willing to spend | equal to | less than | greater than | equal to | less than |
| ∫cos x dx | sinx | $(-\cos x)$ | (-sinx) | tanx | (-sinx) |
| $\int u dv = uv - _$ | ∫ du | ∫v du | ∫u du | ∫dv | ∫v du |
| d(uv) = | uv - vu | uv + vu | udv - v du | udv + v du | udv - v du |
| Asystem in a plane consists of a fixed | | cartesian | | | polar |
| point O is called the pole. | polar curve | coordinate | polar plane | polar coordinate | coordinate |
| A ray emanating from the is called the polar | | | | | |
| axis | polar | pole | initial ray | parameter | pole |
| $\int \sec^2 x dx =$ | tanx | sinx | (-cos x) | (-sinx) | tanx |
| $\int (1/x) \mathrm{d}x = \underline{\qquad}$ | Х | log x | 2x | 1 - x | log x |
| ∫cotx dx = | log cosx | log tanx | log secx | logsinx | logsinx |
| | | | | log [secx + | log [secx + |
| $\int \sec x dx =$ | secx + tanx | $\log [secx + tanx]$ | $\sec x + \cos x$ | cosec x] | tanx] |
| $\int \log x dx =$ | x log x | $\log x + x$ | x log x - x | $x \log x + x$ | x log x - x |
| $\lim_{x\to 0} (\tan x / x) =$ | 0 | (-1) | 1 | 2 | 1 |

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

<u>UNIT-III</u> SYLLABUS

Volumes by slicing, disks and washers methods, volumes by cylindrical shells, parametric equations, parameterizing a curve, arc length, arc length of parametric curves, area of surface of revolution.

VOLUMES BY SLICING; DISKS AND WASHERS

VOLUMES BY SLICING

Recall that the underlying principle for finding the area of a plane region is to divide the region into thin strips, approximate the area of each strip by the area of a rectangle, add the approximations to form a Riemann sum, and take the limit of the Riemann sums to produce an integral for the area. Under appropriate conditions, the same strategy can be used to find the volume of a solid. The idea is to divide the solid into thin slabs, approximate the volume of each slab, add the approximations to form a Riemann sum, and take the limit of the Riemann sums to produce an integral for the volume (Figure 6.2.1).



Figure 6.2.1

One of the simplest examples of a solid with congruent cross sections is a right circular cylinder of radius r, since all cross sections taken perpendicular to the central axis are circular regions of radius r. The volume V of a right circular cylinder of radius r and height h can be expressed in terms of the height and the area of a cross section as

$$V = \pi r^2 h = [\text{area of a cross section}] \times [\text{height}]$$
 (1)

This is a special case of a more general volume formula that applies to solids called right cylinders. A *right cylinder* is a solid that is generated when a plane region is translated along a line or *axis* that is perpendicular to the region (Figure 6.2.3).

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021 Some Right Cylinders Image: Translated square Translated square Translated disk Translated annulus

If a right cylinder is generated by translating a region of area A through a distance h, then h is called the *height* (or sometimes the *width*) of the cylinder, and the volume V of the cylinder is defined to be

$$V = A \cdot h = [\text{area of a cross section}] \times [\text{height}]$$
(2)

(Figure 6.2.4). Note that this is consistent with Formula (1) for the volume of a right *circular* cylinder.

We now have all of the tools required to solve the following problem.



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

If a right cylinder is generated by translating a region of area A through a distance h, then h is called the *height* (or sometimes the *width*) of the cylinder, and the volume V of the cylinder is defined to be

$$V = A \cdot h = [area of a cross section] \times [height]$$
 (2)

(Figure 6.2.4). Note that this is consistent with Formula (1) for the volume of a right *circular* cylinder.

We now have all of the tools required to solve the following problem.

6.2.1 PROBLEM Let S be a solid that extends along the x-axis and is bounded on the left and right, respectively, by the planes that are perpendicular to the x-axis at x = a and x = b (Figure 6.2.5). Find the volume V of the solid, assuming that its cross-sectional area A(x) is known at each x in the interval [a, b].

To solve this problem we begin by dividing the interval [a, b] into *n* subintervals, thereby dividing the solid into *n* slabs as shown in the left part of Figure 6.2.6. If we assume that the width of the *k*th subinterval is Δx_k , then the volume of the *k*th slab can be approximated by the volume $A(x_k^*)\Delta x_k$ of a right cylinder of width (height) Δx_k and cross-sectional area $A(x_k^*)$, where x_k^* is a point in the *k*th subinterval (see the right part of Figure 6.2.6).

Adding these approximations yields the following Riemann sum that approximates the volume V:

$$V \approx \sum_{k=1}^{n} A(x_k^*) \Delta x_k$$

Taking the limit as *n* increases and the widths of all the subintervals approach zero yields the definite integral

$$V = \lim_{\max \Delta x_k \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^n A(x_k^*) \Delta x_k = \int_a^b A(x) \, dx$$

In summary, we have the following result.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

6.2.2 VOLUME FORMULA Let *S* be a solid bounded by two parallel planes perpendicular to the *x*-axis at x = a and x = b. If, for each *x* in [a, b], the cross-sectional area of *S* perpendicular to the *x*-axis is A(x), then the volume of the solid is

$$V = \int_{a}^{b} A(x) \, dx \tag{3}$$

provided A(x) is integrable.

6.2.3 VOLUME FORMULA Let *S* be a solid bounded by two parallel planes perpendicular to the *y*-axis at y = c and y = d. If, for each *y* in [c, d], the cross-sectional area of *S* perpendicular to the *y*-axis is A(y), then the volume of the solid is

$$V = \int_{c}^{d} A(y) \, dy \tag{4}$$

provided A(y) is integrable.

Example 1 Derive the formula for the volume of a right pyramid whose altitude is *h* and whose base is a square with sides of length *a*.

Solution. As illustrated in Figure 6.2.7*a*, we introduce a rectangular coordinate system in which the *y*-axis passes through the apex and is perpendicular to the base, and the *x*-axis passes through the base and is parallel to a side of the base.

At any y in the interval [0, h] on the y-axis, the cross section perpendicular to the yaxis is a square. If s denotes the length of a side of this square, then by similar triangles (Figure 6.2.7b)

$$\frac{\frac{1}{2}s}{\frac{1}{2}a} = \frac{h-y}{h} \quad \text{or} \quad s = \frac{a}{h}(h-y)$$

Thus, the area A(y) of the cross section at y is

$$A(y) = s^{2} = \frac{a^{2}}{h^{2}}(h - y)^{2}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021



and by (4) the volume is

$$V = \int_0^h A(y) \, dy = \int_0^h \frac{a^2}{h^2} (h - y)^2 \, dy = \frac{a^2}{h^2} \int_0^h (h - y)^2 \, dy$$
$$= \frac{a^2}{h^2} \left[-\frac{1}{3} (h - y)^3 \right]_{y=0}^h = \frac{a^2}{h^2} \left[0 + \frac{1}{3} h^3 \right] = \frac{1}{3} a^2 h$$

That is, the volume is $\frac{1}{3}$ of the area of the base times the altitude.

SOLIDS OF REVOLUTION

A *solid of revolution* is a solid that is generated by revolving a plane region about a line that lies in the same plane as the region; the line is called the *axis of revolution*. Many familiar solids are of this type (Figure 6.2.8).



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

VOLUMES BY DISKS PERPENDICULAR TO THE *x*-AXIS

We will be interested in the following general problem.

6.2.4 PROBLEM Let f be continuous and nonnegative on [a, b], and let R be the region that is bounded above by y = f(x), below by the *x*-axis, and on the sides by the lines x = a and x = b (Figure 6.2.9*a*). Find the volume of the solid of revolution that is generated by revolving the region R about the *x*-axis.



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

We can solve this problem by slicing. For this purpose, observe that the cross section of the solid taken perpendicular to the x-axis at the point x is a circular disk of radius f(x) (Figure 6.2.9b). The area of this region is

$$A(x) = \pi [f(x)]^2$$

Thus, from (3) the volume of the solid is

$$V = \int_{a}^{b} \pi [f(x)]^{2} dx$$
(5)

Because the cross sections are disk shaped, the application of this formula is called the *method of disks*.

Example 2 Find the volume of the solid that is obtained when the region under the curve $y = \sqrt{x}$ over the interval [1, 4] is revolved about the *x*-axis (Figure 6.2.10).

Solution. From (5), the volume is

$$V = \int_{a}^{b} \pi [f(x)]^{2} dx = \int_{1}^{4} \pi x \, dx = \frac{\pi x^{2}}{2} \bigg]_{1}^{4} = 8\pi - \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{15\pi}{2} \blacktriangleleft$$

Example 3 Derive the formula for the volume of a sphere of radius *r*.

Solution. As indicated in Figure 6.2.11, a sphere of radius *r* can be generated by revolving the upper semicircular disk enclosed between the *x*-axis and

$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2$$

about the x-axis. Since the upper half of this circle is the graph of $y = f(x) = \sqrt{r^2 - x^2}$, it follows from (5) that the volume of the sphere is

$$V = \int_{a}^{b} \pi [f(x)]^{2} dx = \int_{-r}^{r} \pi (r^{2} - x^{2}) dx = \pi \left[r^{2} x - \frac{x^{3}}{3} \right]_{-r}^{r} = \frac{4}{3} \pi r^{3} \blacktriangleleft$$

VOLUMES BY WASHERS PERPENDICULAR TO THE *x***-AXIS**

6.2.5 PROBLEM Let f and g be continuous and nonnegative on [a, b], and suppose that $f(x) \ge g(x)$ for all x in the interval [a, b]. Let R be the region that is bounded above by y = f(x), below by y = g(x), and on the sides by the lines x = a and x = b (Figure 6.2.12a). Find the volume of the solid of revolution that is generated by revolving the region R about the x-axis (Figure 6.2.12b).

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

We can solve this problem by slicing. For this purpose, observe that the cross section of the solid taken perpendicular to the x-axis at the point x is the annular or "washer-shaped" region with inner radius g(x) and outer radius f(x) (Figure 6.2.12b); its area is

$$A(x) = \pi [f(x)]^2 - \pi [g(x)]^2 = \pi ([f(x)]^2 - [g(x)]^2)$$

Thus, from (3) the volume of the solid is

$$V = \int_{a}^{b} \pi([f(x)]^{2} - [g(x)]^{2}) dx$$
(6)

Because the cross sections are washer shaped, the application of this formula is called the *method of washers*.

Example 4 Find the volume of the solid generated when the region between the grap of the equations $f(x) = \frac{1}{2} + x^2$ and g(x) = x over the interval [0, 2] is revolved about t *x*-axis.

Solution. First sketch the region (Figure 6.2.13*a*); then imagine revolving it about t *x*-axis (Figure 6.2.13*b*). From (6) the volume is

$$V = \int_{a}^{b} \pi([f(x)]^{2} - [g(x)]^{2}) dx = \int_{0}^{2} \pi\left(\left[\frac{1}{2} + x^{2}\right]^{2} - x^{2}\right) dx$$
$$= \int_{0}^{2} \pi\left(\frac{1}{4} + x^{4}\right) dx = \pi\left[\frac{x}{4} + \frac{x^{5}}{5}\right]_{0}^{2} = \frac{69\pi}{10} \blacktriangleleft$$



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

VOLUMES BY DISKS AND WASHERS PERPENDICULAR TO THE y-AXIS

The methods of disks and washers have analogs for regions that are revolved about the *y*-axis (Figures 6.2.14 and 6.2.15). Using the method of slicing and Formula (4), you should be able to deduce the following formulas for the volumes of the solids in the figures.



Example 5 Find the volume of the solid generated when the region enclosed by $y = \sqrt{x}$, y = 2, and x = 0 is revolved about the y-axis.

Solution. First sketch the region and the solid (Figure 6.2.16). The cross sections taken perpendicular to the y-axis are disks, so we will apply (7). But first we must rewrite $y = \sqrt{x}$ as $x = y^2$. Thus, from (7) with $u(y) = y^2$, the volume is

 $V = \int_{-1}^{d} \pi [u(y)]^2 dy = \int_{0}^{2} \pi y^4 dy = \frac{\pi y^5}{5} \Big|_{0}^{2} = \frac{32\pi}{5}$



VOLUMES BY CYLINDRICAL SHELLS

CYLINDRICAL SHELLS

In this section we will be interested in the following problem.

6.3.1 PROBLEM Let *f* be continuous and nonnegative on [a, b] ($0 \le a < b$), and let *R* be the region that is bounded above by y = f(x), below by the *x*-axis, and on the sides by the lines x = a and x = b. Find the volume *V* of the solid of revolution *S* that is generated by revolving the region *R* about the *y*-axis (Figure 6.3.1).

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021



A cylindrical shell is a solid enclosed by two concentric right circular cylinders (Figure 6.3.2). The volume V of a cylindrical shell with inner radius r_1 , outer radius r_2 , and neight h can be written as

$$V = [\text{area of cross section}] \cdot [\text{height}] = (\pi r_2^2 - \pi r_1^2)h = \pi (r_2 + r_1)(r_2 - r_1)h = 2\pi \cdot \left[\frac{1}{2}(r_1 + r_2)\right] \cdot h \cdot (r_2 - r_1)$$

But $\frac{1}{2}(r_1 + r_2)$ is the average radius of the shell and $r_2 - r_1$ is its thickness, so

$$V = 2\pi \cdot [\text{average radius}] \cdot [\text{height}] \cdot [\text{thickness}]$$
(1)

6.3.2 VOLUME BY CYLINDRICAL SHELLS ABOUT THE *y***-AXIS** Let *f* be continuous and nonnegative on [a, b] ($0 \le a < b$), and let *R* be the region that is bounded above by y = f(x), below by the *x*-axis, and on the sides by the lines x = a and x = b. Then the volume *V* of the solid of revolution that is generated by revolving the region *R* about the *y*-axis is given by

$$V = \int_{a}^{b} 2\pi x f(x) \, dx \tag{2}$$

Example 1 Use cylindrical shells to find the volume of the solid generated when the region enclosed between $y = \sqrt{x}$, x = 1, x = 4, and the x-axis is revolved about the y-axis.

Solution. First sketch the region (Figure 6.3.6*a*); then imagine revolving it about the y-axis (Figure 6.3.6*b*). Since $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$, a = 1, and b = 4, Formula (2) yields

$$V = \int_{1}^{4} 2\pi x \sqrt{x} \, dx = 2\pi \int_{1}^{4} x^{3/2} \, dx = \left[2\pi \cdot \frac{2}{5} x^{5/2}\right]_{1}^{4} = \frac{4\pi}{5} [32 - 1] = \frac{124\pi}{5}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 2 Use cylindrical shells to find the volume of the solid generated when the region *R* in the first quadrant enclosed between y = x and $y = x^2$ is revolved about the *y*-axis (Figure 6.3.8*a*).

Solution. As illustrated in part (b) of Figure 6.3.8, at each x in [0, 1] the cross section of R parallel to the y-axis generates a cylindrical surface of height $x - x^2$ and radius x. Since the area of this surface is

$$2\pi x(x-x^2)$$

the volume of the solid is

$$V = \int_0^1 2\pi x (x - x^2) \, dx = 2\pi \int_0^1 (x^2 - x^3) \, dx$$
$$= 2\pi \left[\frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} \right]_0^1 = 2\pi \left[\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} \right] = \frac{\pi}{6} \blacktriangleleft$$

Example 3 Use cylindrical shells to find the volume of the solid generated when the region *R* under $y = x^2$ over the interval [0, 2] is revolved about the line y = -1.

Solution. First draw the axis of revolution; then imagine revolving the region about the axis (Figure 6.3.9*a*). As illustrated in Figure 6.3.9*b*, at each y in the interval $0 \le y \le 4$, the cross section of *R* parallel to the x-axis generates a cylindrical surface of height $2 - \sqrt{y}$ and radius y + 1. Since the area of this surface is

$$2\pi(y+1)(2-\sqrt{y})$$

it follows that the volume of the solid is

$$\int_0^4 2\pi (y+1)(2-\sqrt{y}) \, dy = 2\pi \int_0^4 (2y-y^{3/2}+2-y^{1/2}) \, dy$$
$$= 2\pi \left[y^2 - \frac{2}{5}y^{5/2} + 2y - \frac{2}{3}y^{3/2} \right]_0^4 = \frac{176\pi}{15} \blacktriangleleft$$
CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

AREA OF A SURFACE OF REVOLUTION

SURFACE AREA

A *surface of revolution* is a surface that is generated by revolving a plane curve about an axis that lies in the same plane as the curve. For example, the surface of a sphere can be generated by revolving a semicircle about its diameter, and the lateral surface of a right circular cylinder can be generated by revolving a line segment about an axis that is parallel to it (Figure 6.5.1).



6.5.1 SURFACE AREA PROBLEM Suppose that f is a smooth, nonnegative function on [a, b] and that a surface of revolution is generated by revolving the portion of the curve y = f(x) between x = a and x = b about the *x*-axis (Figure 6.5.2). Define what is meant by the *area S* of the surface, and find a formula for computing it.

6.5.2 DEFINITION If *f* is a smooth, nonnegative function on [a, b], then the surface area *S* of the surface of revolution that is generated by revolving the portion of the curve y = f(x) between x = a and x = b about the *x*-axis is defined as

$$S = \int_{a}^{b} 2\pi f(x) \sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2} \, dx$$

$$S = \int_{a}^{b} 2\pi f(x) \sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2} \, dx = \int_{a}^{b} 2\pi y \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} \, dx$$

Moreover, if g is nonnegative and x = g(y) is a smooth curve on the interval [c, d], then the area of the surface that is generated by revolving the portion of a curve x = g(y) between y = c and y = d about the y-axis can be expressed as

$$S = \int_{c}^{d} 2\pi g(y) \sqrt{1 + [g'(y)]^{2}} \, dy = \int_{c}^{d} 2\pi x \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^{2}} \, dy \tag{5}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 1 Find the area of the surface that is generated by revolving the portion of the curve $y = x^3$ between x = 0 and x = 1 about the x-axis.

Solution. First sketch the curve; then imagine revolving it about the x-axis (Figure 6.5.6). Since $y = x^3$, we have $dy/dx = 3x^2$, and hence from (4) the surface area S is

$$S = \int_{0}^{1} 2\pi y \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{2}} dx$$

$$= \int_{0}^{1} 2\pi x^{3} \sqrt{1 + (3x^{2})^{2}} dx$$

$$= 2\pi \int_{0}^{1} x^{3} (1 + 9x^{4})^{1/2} dx$$

$$= \frac{2\pi}{36} \int_{1}^{10} u^{1/2} du \qquad \boxed{u = 1 + 9x^{4}}_{du = 36x^{3} dx}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi}{36} \cdot \frac{2}{3} u^{3/2} \boxed{u}_{u=1}^{10} = \frac{\pi}{27} (10^{3/2} - 1) \approx 3.56 \blacktriangleleft$$

Example 2 Find the area of the surface that is generated by revolving the portion of the curve $y = x^2$ between x = 1 and x = 2 about the y-axis.

Solution. First sketch the curve; then imagine revolving it about the y-axis (Figure 6.5.7). Because the curve is revolved about the y-axis we will apply Formula (5). Toward this end, we rewrite $y = x^2$ as $x = \sqrt{y}$ and observe that the y-values corresponding to x = 1 and

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

x = 2 are y = 1 and y = 4. Since $x = \sqrt{y}$, we have $dx/dy = 1/(2\sqrt{y})$, and hence from (5) the surface area S is

$$S = \int_{1}^{4} 2\pi x \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^{2}} dy$$

= $\int_{1}^{4} 2\pi \sqrt{y} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}}\right)^{2}} dy$
= $\pi \int_{1}^{4} \sqrt{4y + 1} dy$
= $\frac{\pi}{4} \int_{5}^{17} u^{1/2} du$ $\begin{bmatrix} u = 4y + 1 \\ du = 4dy \end{bmatrix}$
= $\frac{\pi}{4} \cdot \frac{2}{3} u^{3/2} \Big]_{u=5}^{17} = \frac{\pi}{6} (17^{3/2} - 5^{3/2}) \approx 30.85$

PARAMETRIC EQUATIONS; TANGENT LINES AND ARC LENGTH FOR PARAMETRIC CURVES

PARAMETRIC EQUATIONS

Suppose that a particle moves along a curve C in the xy-plane in such a way that its x- and y-coordinates, as functions of time, are

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

We call these the *parametric equations* of motion for the particle and refer to C as the *trajectory* of the particle or the *graph* of the equations (Figure 10.1.1). The variable t is called the *parameter* for the equations.

Example 1 Sketch the trajectory over the time interval $0 \le t \le 10$ of the particle whose parametric equations of motion are

$$x = t - 3\sin t, \quad y = 4 - 3\cos t$$
 (1)

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

Solution. One way to sketch the trajectory is to choose a representative succession of times, plot the (x, y) coordinates of points on the trajectory at those times, and connect the points with a smooth curve. The trajectory in Figure 10.1.2 was obtained in this way from the data in Table 10.1.1 in which the approximate coordinates of the particle are given at time increments of 1 unit. Observe that there is no *t*-axis in the picture; the values of *t* appear only as labels on the plotted points, and even these are usually omitted unless it is important to emphasize the locations of the particle at specific times.

Example 2 Find the graph of the parametric equations

$$x = \cos t, \quad y = \sin t \qquad (0 \le t \le 2\pi) \tag{2}$$

Solution. One way to find the graph is to eliminate the parameter t by noting that

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

Thus, the graph is contained in the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Geometrically, the parameter t can be interpreted as the angle swept out by the radial line from the origin to the point $(x, y) = (\cos t, \sin t)$ on the unit circle (Figure 10.1.3). As t increases from 0 to 2π , the point traces the circle counterclockwise, starting at (1, 0) when t = 0 and completing one full revolution when $t = 2\pi$. One can obtain different portions of the circle by varying the interval over which the parameter varies. For example,

$$x = \cos t$$
, $y = \sin t$ $(0 \le t \le \pi)$ (3)

represents just the upper semicircle in Figure 10.1.3.

Example 3 Graph the parametric curve

$$x = 2t - 3, \quad y = 6t - 7$$

by eliminating the parameter, and indicate the orientation on the graph.

Solution. To eliminate the parameter we will solve the first equation for t as a function of x, and then substitute this expression for t into the second equation:

$$t = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)(x+3)$$

y = 6 $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)(x+3) - 7$
y = 3x + 2

Thus, the graph is a line of slope 3 and y-intercept 2. To find the orientation we must look to the original equations; the direction of increasing t can be deduced by observing that x increases as t increases or by observing that y increases as t increases. Either piece of information tells us that the line is traced left to right as shown in Figure 10.1.5.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

TANGENT LINES TO PARAMETRIC CURVES

We will be concerned with curves that are given by parametric equations

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

in which f(t) and g(t) have continuous first derivatives with respect to t. It can be proved that if $dx/dt \neq 0$, then y is a differentiable function of x, in which case the chain rule implies that

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt}$$
(4)

This formula makes it possible to find dy/dx directly from the parametric equations without eliminating the parameter.

Example 4 Find the slope of the tangent line to the unit circle

$$x = \cos t$$
, $y = \sin t$ $(0 \le t \le 2\pi)$

at the point where $t = \pi/6$ (Figure 10.1.9).

Solution. From (4), the slope at a general point on the circle is

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt} = \frac{\cos t}{-\sin t} = -\cot t$$

Thus, the slope at $t = \pi/6$ is

$$\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{t=\pi/6} = -\cot\frac{\pi}{6} = -\sqrt{3} \blacktriangleleft$$

ARC LENGTH OF PARAMETRIC CURVES

10.1.1 ARC LENGTH FORMULA FOR PARAMETRIC CURVES If no segment of the curve represented by the parametric equations

$$x = x(t), \quad y = y(t) \qquad (a \le t \le b)$$

is traced more than once as t increases from a to b, and if dx/dt and dy/dt are continuous functions for $a \le t \le b$, then the arc length L of the curve is given by

$$L = \int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^{2} + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^{2}} dt \tag{9}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 8 Use (9) to find the circumference of a circle of radius *a* from the parametric equations $x = a \cos t$, $y = a \sin t$ $(0 \le t \le 2\pi)$

Solution.

$$L = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} \, dt = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{(-a\sin t)^2 + (a\cos t)^2} \, dt$$
$$= \int_0^{2\pi} a \, dt = at \Big]_0^{2\pi} = 2\pi a \blacktriangleleft$$

Arc Length

Symbolically $L = \int_C ds$

 $\langle 0 \dots a \dots b \dots x$ -, $0 \dots y$ -, curve *C* over [*a*, *b*], triangle $dx, dy, ds \rangle$

$$L = \int_c \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2}$$

Suppose C is described by parametric equations

$$x = f(t), \quad y = g(t)$$
$$dx = \frac{dx}{dt}dt, \quad dy = \frac{dy}{dt}dt$$

then

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

where $a = f(\alpha)$ and $b = f(\beta)$.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Volume by slicing and revolution of curves) BATCH-2018-2021

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

PART - A (20 x 1 =20 Marks) (Question Nos. 1 to 20 Online Examinations)

PART-B (5 x 2 =10 Marks)

Answer all the questions

- 1. Define a length of a parameterized curve .
- 2. Find arc length for the circumference of a circle of radius a form the parametric equations $x = a\cos t$, y = asint ($0 \le t \le 2\pi$).
- 3. Write down the surface area formula for the Revolution about the X-axis.
- 4. Write down the surface area formula for the Revolution about the X-axis.
- 5. Find the Volume of the solid generated by revolving the region between the Y axis and the curve $x = \frac{2}{y}$, $1 \le y \le 4$, about the Y axis.

PART-C (5 x 6 =30 Marks)

Answer all the questions

- 1. Find the Volume of the solid generated by revolving the region between the parabola $x = y^2 + 1$ and the line x = 3 about the line x = 3.
- 2. Find the graph of the parametric equations $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t$, $(0 \le t \le 2\pi)$.
- 3. The region bounded by the curve $y = x^2 + 1$ and the line y = -x + 3 is revolved about the x axis to generate a solid. Find the volume of the solid.
- 4. In a disastrous first flight, an experimental paper airplane follows the trajectory of the particle in x = t 3 sint, y = 4 3 cost, $t \ge 0$. but crashes into a wall at a time t = 10.
 - i) At what times was the airplane flying horizontally?

ii) At what time was it flying vertically?

- 5. Find the Volume of the solid generated by revolving the region bounded by $y = \sqrt{x}$ and the lines y = 1, x = 4 about the line y = 1.
- 6. Find the area of the surface generated by revolving the curve $y = x^3$, $0 \le x \le \frac{1}{2}$ about the x-axis.
- 7. Find the area of the surface generated by revolving the curve $y = 2\sqrt{x}$, $1 \le x \le 2$ about the x-axis.
- 8. Find the length of the asteroid $x = \cos^3 t$, $y = \sin^3 t$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$.
- 9. Use Cylindrical shells to find the volume of the solid generate when the region enclosed between $y = \sqrt{x}$, x = 1, x = 4, and the x axis is revolved about the y axis.
- 10. Find $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ for the parametric equation $x = t t^2$ and $y = t t^3$.

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| Unit III | | | | | | |
| Volume by sli | icing and re | volution of | curves | | | |
| Part A (20x1=20 Marks) | 8 | | | | | |
| (Question N | los. 1 to 20 Onli | ine Examinatio | ons) | | | |
| | Possible Qu | estions | | | | |
| Question | Choice 1 | Choice 2 | Choice 3 | Choice 4 | Answer | |
| | | | | | | |
| | | | 2(base + | (base x | | |
| The volume of the cylinder is | base - height | base x height | height) | height) / 2 | base x height | |
| A function with a continuous first derivative is said to be | | | | smooth | | |
| smooth and its graph is called | smooth curve | length | smooth plane | derivative | smooth curve | |
| If a right cylinder is generated by translating a region of | | | | | | |
| area A through a distance h, then h is called | circumference | base | height | length | height | |
| | | smooth | | | | |
| A function with a continuous first derivative is said to be | length | derivative | smooth | smooth curve | smooth | |
| A piece of cone is called a | frustum | surface | area | radil | frustum | |
| | volume of | lateral surface | volume of | area of | lateral surface | |
| (base circumference x slant height) $/ 2 =$ | cone | area | solid | revolution | area | |
| Volume of a right circular cylinder is | πr^2 | $2\pi r^2h$ | 2πr | $\pi r^2 h$ | $\pi r^2 h$ | |
| is a solid that generayte when a plane region is | | | | | | |
| translated along a line or axis that is perpendicular to the | | | | | | |
| region | sphere | right cylinder | cone | pyramid | right cylinder | |
| A right cylinder is a solid that generayte when a plane | | | | | | |
| region is translated along a line or axis that is to | | | | | | |
| the region | perpendicular | bounded | parallel | linear | perpendicular | |

| The volume of a solid can be obtained by integrating the | | | cross | | cross sectional |
|--|---------------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| from one end of the solid to the other . | length | height | sectional area | surface area | area |
| volume of a sphere is | $4/3 \pi r^{3}$ | $1/2 \pi r^2 h$ | $\pi r^2 h$ | 2πr | $4/3 \pi r^{3}$ |
| is a solid enclosed by two concentric right | | | cylindrical | | |
| circular cylinders | right cylinder | surface area | shell | cone | cylindrical shell |
| volume of a cylindrical shell = | 2π | πr^2 | $2\pi r^2h$ | 2πr | 2π |
| A is a surface that is generated by revolving a | | | | | |
| plane curve about an axis thatb lies in the same plane as | lateral surface | surface of | area of | cross sectional | surface of |
| the curve. | area | revolution | revolution | area | revolution |
| | | | | | |
| The direction in which the graph of a pair of parametric | parametric | cross | | surface of | |
| equation is traced as the parameter increase is called the | curve | sectional area | orientation | revolution | orientation |
| A curve with an orientation imposed on it by a set of | | surface of | parametric | area of | parametric |
| parametric equation is called | orientation | revolution | curve | revolution | curve |
| An tangent lines to the parametric curve is | 2(dy''/dx'') | dy'/dx' | dy/dx | dx/dy | dy/dx |
| The curve represented by the parametric equations $x = t^2$ | | semicubical | | | semicubical |
| and $y = t^3$ is called | ellipse | parabola | hyperbola | parabola | parabola |
| If $x = a(\theta - \sin\theta)$ and $y = a(1 - \cos\theta)$ is called a equation | | | | | |
| of | hyperbola | parabola | cycloid | solid | cycloid |
| The parametric equation of is $x = acost and y =$ | | | | | |
| asint | ellipse | circle | hyperbola | parabola | circle |
| The parametric equation of is $x = acost and y =$ | | | | | |
| bsint | hyperbola | parabola | ellipse | circle | ellipse |
| If $x = sect$ and $y = tan t$ the find dy/dx | 1/tan t | sect / tant | tant / sect | 1/sect | sect / tant |
| The parametric equation of is $x = asect and y =$ | | | | | |
| btant | hyperbola | parabola | ellipse | circle | hyperbola |
| | | | | | |
| If $f(x) = x + \sin x$, then $f'(x) =$ | $\sin x - x \cos x$ | $1 + \cos x$ | cos x | 1– cos x | $1 + \cos x$ |
| An horizontal tangent for parametric equations | dy/dt = 0 | dy/dx = 0 | dx/dt = 0 | dx/dy=0 | dy/dt = 0 |
| An vertical tangent for parametric equations | dy/dt = 0 | dy/dx = 0 | dx/dt = 0 | dx/dy=0 | dx/dt = 0 |
| A cylindrical shell is a solid enclosed by two concentric | | | right circular | parametric | right circular |
| | right cylinder | cone | cylinders | curve | cylinders |

| | $x = a \cos t$, y | $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{a} \tanh \mathbf{y}$ | $x = a \cos t$, y | $x = a \cos t$, y | $x = a \cos t$, $y =$ |
|--|--|--|--------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| The parametric equation of a circle is | = a sint | = a sect | = a sect | = b sint | a sint |
| | $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{a} \tanh \mathbf{y}$ | $x = a \cos t$, y | x = a tant, y = | $x = a \cos t$, y | $x = a \cos t$, $y =$ |
| The parametric equation of a ellipse is | = a sect | = a sint | a sect | = b sint | b sint |
| | $x = a \cos t$, y | $x = a \cos t, y$ | x = a sect , y | x = a tant, y = | x = a sect, y = |
| The parametric equation of a hyperbola is | = a sint | = b sint | = b tant | a sect | b tant |
| A cylinderical shell is a solid enclosed by concentric | | | | | |
| right circular cylinders | four | two | three | one | two |
| A solid of is a solid that is generated by revolving | | | | | |
| a plane region about a line that lies in the same plane as | | | | | |
| the region | cone | revolution | perpendicular | parallel | revolution |
| The line of a solid of revolution is a of revolution | ray | distance | axis | plane | axis |
| A function f is smooth on [a, b] if f is on [a, b]. | discontinuous | parallel | perpendicular | continuous | continuous |

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

<u>UNIT-IV</u> SYLLABUS

Concavity and Inflection points, asymptotes. Techniques of sketching conics, reflection properties of conics, rotation of axes and second degree equations, classification into conics using the discriminant, polar equations of conics.



Concave down

Decreasing slopes

CONCAVITY

Although the sign of the derivative of f reveals where the graph of f is increasing or decreasing, it does not reveal the direction of *curvature*. For example, the graph is increasing on both sides of the point in Figure 4.1.7, but on the left side it has an upward curvature ("holds water") and on the right side it has a downward curvature ("spills water"). On intervals where the graph of f has upward curvature we say that f is *concave up*, and on intervals where the graph has downward curvature we say that f is *concave down*.

Figure 4.1.8 suggests two ways to characterize the concavity of a differentiable function *f* on an open interval:

- f is concave up on an open interval if its tangent lines have increasing slopes on that interval and is concave down if they have decreasing slopes.
- f is concave up on an open interval if its graph lies above its tangent lines on that interval and is concave down if it lies below its tangent lines.

Our formal definition for "concave up" and "concave down" corresponds to the first of these characterizations.

4.1.3 DEFINITION If f is differentiable on an open interval, then f is said to be *concave up* on the open interval if f' is increasing on that interval, and f is said to be *concave down* on the open interval if f' is decreasing on that interval.

Since the slopes of the tangent lines to the graph of a differentiable function f are the values of its derivative f', it follows from Theorem 4.1.2 (applied to f' rather than f) that f' will be increasing on intervals where f'' is positive and that f' will be decreasing on intervals where f'' is negative. Thus, we have the following theorem.

4.1.4 THEOREM Let f be twice differentiable on an open interval.

- (a) If f"(x) > 0 for every value of x in the open interval, then f is concave up on that interval.
- (b) If f''(x) < 0 for every value of x in the open interval, then f is concave down on that interval.

Example 4 Figure 4.1.4 suggests that the function $f(x) = x^2 - 4x + 3$ is concave up on the interval $(-\infty, +\infty)$. This is consistent with Theorem 4.1.4, since f'(x) = 2x - 4 and f''(x) = 2, so f''(x) > 0 on the interval $(-\infty, +\infty)$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

Also, Figure 4.1.5 suggests that $f(x) = x^3$ is concave down on the interval $(-\infty, 0)$ and concave up on the interval $(0, +\infty)$. This agrees with Theorem 4.1.4, since $f'(x) = 3x^2$ and f''(x) = 6x, so

f''(x) < 0 if x < 0 and f''(x) > 0 if x > 0

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

INFLECTION POINTS

We see from Example 4 and Figure 4.1.5 that the graph of $f(x) = x^3$ changes from concave down to concave up at x = 0. Points where a curve changes from concave up to concave down or vice versa are of special interest, so there is some terminology associated with them.



(1, -1)

 $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 1$

Figure 4.1.9

-1

Figure 4.1.10

_1



Example 5 Figure 4.1.10 shows the graph of the function $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 1$. Use the first and second derivatives of f to determine the intervals on which f is increasing, decreasing, concave up, and concave down. Locate all inflection points and confirm that your conclusions are consistent with the graph.

Solution. Calculating the first two derivatives of *f* we obtain

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x = 3x(x - 2)$$

$$f''(x) = 6x - 6 = 6(x - 1)$$

The sign analysis of these derivatives is shown in the following tables:

| INTERVAL | (3x)(x-2) | 2) f'(x) | CONCLUSION |
|--------------|------------------|----------|---------------------------------------|
| <i>x</i> < 0 | (-)(-) | + | f is increasing on $(-\infty, 0]$ |
| 0 < x < 2 | (+)(-) | _ | f is decreasing on [0, 2] |
| x > 2 | (+)(+) | + | f is increasing on $[2, +\infty)$ |
| NTERVAL | 6(<i>x</i> – 1) | f''(x) | CONCLUSION |
| <i>x</i> < 1 | (-) | _ | f is concave down on $(-\infty, 1)$ |
| r > 1 | (+) | + | f is concave up on $(1 \pm \infty)$ |

The second table shows that there is an inflection point at x = 1, since f changes from concave down to concave up at that point. The inflection point is (1, f(1)) = (1, -1). All of these conclusions are consistent with the graph of f.

One can correctly guess from Figure 4.1.10 that the function $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 1$ has an inflection point at x = 1 without actually computing derivatives. However, sometimes changes in concavity are so subtle that calculus is essential to confirm their existence and identify their location. Here is an example.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021



Example 6 Figure 4.1.11 suggests that the function $f(x) = xe^{-x}$ has an inflection point but its exact location is not evident from the graph in this figure. Use the first and second derivatives of f to determine the intervals on which f is increasing, decreasing, concave up, and concave down. Locate all inflection points.

Solution. Calculating the first two derivatives of f we obtain (verify)

$$f'(x) = (1 - x)e^{-x}$$
$$f''(x) = (x - 2)e^{-x}$$

Keeping in mind that e^{-x} is positive for all x, the sign analysis of these derivatives is easily determined:

| INTERVAL | $(1-x)(e^{-x})$ | f'(x) | CONCLUSION |
|--------------|-----------------|--------|--|
| <i>x</i> < 1 | (+)(+) | + | f is increasing on $(-\infty, 1]$ |
| <i>x</i> > 1 | (-)(+) | - | f is decreasing on $[1, +\infty)$ |
| | | | |
| INTERVAL | $(x-2)(e^{-x})$ | f''(x) | CONCLUSION |
| <i>x</i> < 2 | (-)(+) | - | f is concave down on $(-\infty, 2)$ |
| x > 2 | (+)(+) | + | <i>f</i> is concave up on $(2, +\infty)$ |

The second table shows that there is an inflection point at x = 2, since f changes from concave down to concave up at that point. All of these conclusions are consistent with the graph of f.

Example 7 Figure 4.1.12 shows the graph of the function $f(x) = x + 2 \sin x$ over the interval [0, 2π]. Use the first and second derivatives of f to determine where f is increasing, decreasing, concave up, and concave down. Locate all inflection points and confirm that your conclusions are consistent with the graph.

Solution. Calculating the first two derivatives of *f* we obtain

$$f'(x) = 1 + 2\cos x$$
$$f''(x) = -2\sin x$$

Since f' is a continuous function, it changes sign on the interval $(0, 2\pi)$ only at points where f'(x) = 0 (why?). These values are solutions of the equation

$$1 + 2\cos x = 0$$
 or equivalently $\cos x = -\frac{1}{2}$

There are two solutions of this equation in the interval $(0, 2\pi)$, namely, $x = 2\pi/3$ and $x = 4\pi/3$ (verify). Similarly, f'' is a continuous function, so its sign changes in the interval $(0, 2\pi)$ will occur only at values of x for which f''(x) = 0. These values are solutions of the equation

$$-2 \sin x = 0$$

$$f'(x) = 1 +$$
$$f''(x) = -2s$$

Prepared by A. Henna Shenofer, Asst Prof, Department of Mathematics, KAHE



Figure 4.1.12

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

There is one solution of this equation in the interval $(0, 2\pi)$, namely, $x = \pi$. With the help of these "sign transition points" we obtain the sign analysis shown in the following tables:

| INTERVAL | $f'(x) = 1 + 2\cos x$ | CONCLUSION | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|--|--|
| $0 < x < 2\pi/3$ | + | <i>f</i> is increasing on $[0, 2\pi/3]$ | |
| $2\pi/3 < x < 4\pi/3$ | - | f is decreasing on $[2\pi/3, 4\pi/3]$ | |
| $4\pi/3 < x < 2\pi$ | + | <i>f</i> is increasing on $[4\pi/3, 2\pi]$ | |
| | | | |
| INTERVAL | $f''(x) = -2\sin x$ | CONCLUSION | |
| $0 < x < \pi$ | - | f is concave down on $(0, \pi)$ | |
| $\pi < x < 2\pi$ | + | f is concave up on $(\pi, 2\pi)$ | |

The second table shows that there is an inflection point at $x = \pi$, since *f* changes from concave down to concave up at that point. All of these conclusions are consistent with the graph of *f*.

In the preceding examples the inflection points of f occurred wherever f''(x) = 0. However, this is not always the case. Here is a specific example.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 8 Find the inflection points, if any, of $f(x) = x^4$.

Solution. Calculating the first two derivatives of *f* we obtain

$$f'(x) = 4x^3$$
$$f''(x) = 12x^2$$

Since f''(x) is positive for x < 0 and for x > 0, the function f is concave up on the interval $(-\infty, 0)$ and on the interval $(0, +\infty)$. Thus, there is no change in concavity and hence no inflection point at x = 0, even though f''(0) = 0 (Figure 4.1.13).

We will see later that if a function f has an inflection point at $x = x_0$ and $f''(x_0)$ exists, then $f''(x_0) = 0$. Also, we will see in Section 4.3 that an inflection point may also occur where f''(x) is not defined.



Figure 4.1.13

Asymptotes

Before continuing with asymptotes, it is recommended that you review the vertical asymptote and infinite limits section of the limits tutorial at the link below.

Vertical Asymptotes and Infinite Limits

In order to properly sketch a curve, we need to determine how the curve behaves as *x* approaches positive and negative infinity. We must find the limit of the function as x approaches infinity.

For a function f defined on (a, ∞) ,

 $\lim f(x) = L$

means that the values of f(x) approach the value *L* when *x* is taken to be sufficiently large. For a function f defined on $(-\infty, a)$,

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

 $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L$

means that the values of f(x) approach the value *L* when *x* is taken to be sufficiently large, negatively.

The line y = L is called a horizontal asymptote of y = f(x) if either, $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \to -\infty} f(x) = L$

In order to find the horizontal asymptotes of a function, we use the following theorem. If n is a positive number, then

 $\lim_{x\to\infty}\frac{1}{x^n} = 0$

If n is a positive, rational number such that xn is defined for all x, then

 $\lim_{x\to-\infty}\frac{1}{x^n} = 0$

Functions do not always approach a value as x approaches positive or negative infinity. Often there is no horizontal asymptote and the functions have infinite limits at infinity. For example, the function $f(x) = x^2$ approaches infinity when x is taken to be sufficiently large, positively or negatively.

Slant Asymptotes

Some curves may have an asymptote that is neither vertical nor horizontal. These curves approach a line as *x* approaches positive or negative infinity. This line is called the slant asymptote of the function. The graph to the right illustrates the concept of slant asymptotes.

 $\lim_{x \to 0} [f(x) - (mx + b)] = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \to 0} [f(x) - (mx + b)] = 0$



then the function f(x) has a slant asymptote of y = mx + b.

Rational functions will have a slant asymptote when the degree of the numerator is one more than the degree of the denominator. To find the equation of the slant asymptote, we divide the numberator by the denominator using long division. The quotient will be the equation of the slant asymptote. The remainder is the quantity f(x) - (mx + b). We must show that the remainder approaches 0, as x approaches positive or negative infinity. The example below will give you a better idea of how to find the slant asymptote of a function.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 1: Sketch a curve for $f(x) = \frac{x}{\text{Step 1}}$: Find the y-intercepts, when x = 02 3 v = 2 3

) is the y-intercept Therefore (0,

y ≠ 0 Step 2: We cannot find the x-intercepts, since

Step 3: Check if the curve is symmetric, i.e. is the function odd or even.

$$f(x) = \frac{2}{x^2 + 3}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{2}{x^2 + 3}$$

$$f(-x) = f(-x)$$
So this is an even

So this is an even function, and is symmetric about y-axis.

Step 4: Check for any discontinuities, and find the asymptotes, if any, or the limits

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{2}{x^2 + 3} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x^2}}{1 + \frac{3}{x^2}}$$
$$= \frac{0}{1 + 0} = 0 +$$
$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} \frac{2}{x^2 + 3} = \lim_{x \to -\infty} \frac{\frac{2}{x^2}}{1 + \frac{3}{x^2}}$$
$$= 0 -$$
Step 5: Find stationary points (put y' = f'(x) = 0)
$$= -4x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-\frac{2}{(x^2 + 3)^2}}{(x^2 + 3)^2} = \frac{-4x}{(x^2 + 3)^2}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

+ 3).2x



$$\frac{4(x^{2} + 3)(-(x^{3} + 3) + 16x^{2})}{(x^{2} + 3)^{4}}$$

$$\frac{4(15x^{2} - 3)}{(x^{2} + 3)^{3}}$$

dx

For point of inflection, Therefore $15x^2 - 3 = 0$ = 0.

$$x^{2} = \frac{1}{5}, \text{ or } x = \frac{\pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}}{4\left(15\left(0\right)^{2} - 3\right)} = \frac{4\left(15\left(0\right)^{2} - 3\right)}{\left(\left(0\right)^{2} + 3\right)^{3}} = \frac{4\left(-3\right)}{3^{3}} = \frac{4}{9} < 0$$

When x = 0, $\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} = \frac{4}{9} < 0$



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

CONIC SECTIONS

CONIC SECTIONS

Circles, ellipses, parabolas, and hyperbolas are called *conic sections* or *conics* because they can be obtained as intersections of a plane with a double-napped circular cone (Figure 10.4.1). If the plane passes through the vertex of the double-napped cone, then the intersection is a point, a pair of intersecting lines, or a single line. These are called *degenerate conic sections*.



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

10.4.1 DEFINITION A *parabola* is the set of all points in the plane that are equidistant from a fixed line and a fixed point not on the line.

10.4.2 DEFINITION An *ellipse* is the set of all points in the plane, the sum of whose distances from two fixed points is a given positive constant that is greater than the distance between the fixed points.

10.4.3 DEFINITION A *hyperbola* is the set of all points in the plane, the difference of whose distances from two fixed distinct points is a given positive constant that is less than the distance between the fixed points.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

EQUATIONS OF PARABOLAS IN STANDARD POSITION



A TECHNIQUE FOR SKETCHING PARABOLAS

Parabolas can be sketched from their standard equations using four basic steps:

Sketching a Parabola from Its Standard Equation

- Step 1. Determine whether the axis of symmetry is along the x-axis or the y-axis. Referring to Figure 10.4.6, the axis of symmetry is along the x-axis if the equation has a y²-term, and it is along the y-axis if it has an x²-term.
- Step 2. Determine which way the parabola opens. If the axis of symmetry is along the x-axis, then the parabola opens to the right if the coefficient of x is positive, and it opens to the left if the coefficient is negative. If the axis of symmetry is along the y-axis, then the parabola opens up if the coefficient of y is positive, and it opens down if the coefficient is negative.
- Step 3. Determine the value of p and draw a box extending p units from the origin along the axis of symmetry in the direction in which the parabola opens and extending 2p units on each side of the axis of symmetry.
- Step 4. Using the box as a guide, sketch the parabola so that its vertex is at the origin and it passes through the corners of the box (Figure 10.4.8).

Example 1 Sketch the graphs of the parabolas

(a) $x^2 = 12y$ (b) $y^2 + 8x = 0$

and show the focus and directrix of each.



Solution (a). This equation involves x^2 , so the axis of symmetry is along the y-axis, and the coefficient of y is positive, so the parabola opens upward. From the coefficient of y, we obtain 4p = 12 or p = 3. Drawing a box extending p = 3 units up from the origin and 2p = 6 units to the left and 2p = 6 units to the right of the y-axis, then using corners of the box as a guide, yields the graph in Figure 10.4.9.

The focus is p = 3 units from the vertex along the axis of symmetry in the direction in which the parabola opens, so its coordinates are (0, 3). The directrix is perpendicular to the axis of symmetry at a distance of p = 3 units from the vertex on the opposite side from the focus, so its equation is y = -3.

Solution (*b*). We first rewrite the equation in the standard form

$$y^2 = -8x$$

This equation involves y^2 , so the axis of symmetry is along the *x*-axis, and the coefficient of *x* is negative, so the parabola opens to the left. From the coefficient of *x* we obtain 4p = 8, so p = 2. Drawing a box extending p = 2 units left from the origin and 2p = 4 units above and 2p = 4 units below the *x*-axis, then using corners of the box as a guide, yields the graph in Figure 10.4.10.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 2 Find an equation of the parabola that is symmetric about the y-axis, has its vertex at the origin, and passes through the point (5, 2).

Solution. Since the parabola is symmetric about the y-axis and has its vertex at the origin, the equation is of the form

 $x^2 = 4py$ or $x^2 = -4py$

where the sign depends on whether the parabola opens up or down. But the parabola must open up since it passes through the point (5, 2), which lies in the first quadrant. Thus, the equation is of the form $x^{2} = 4py$ (5)

Since the parabola passes through (5, 2), we must have $5^2 = 4p \cdot 2$ or $4p = \frac{25}{2}$. Therefore, (5) becomes $x^2 = \frac{25}{2}y \blacktriangleleft$

EQUATIONS OF ELLIPSES IN STANDARD POSITION



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

A TECHNIQUE FOR SKETCHING ELLIPSES

Ellipses can be sketched from their standard equations using three basic steps:

Sketching an Ellipse from Its Standard Equation

- Step 1. Determine whether the major axis is on the x-axis or the y-axis. This can be ascertained from the sizes of the denominators in the equation. Referring to Figure 10.4.14, and keeping in mind that $a^2 > b^2$ (since a > b), the major axis is along the x-axis if x^2 has the larger denominator, and it is along the y-axis if y^2 has the larger denominator. If the denominators are equal, the ellipse is a circle.
- Step 2. Determine the values of a and b and draw a box extending a units on each side of the center along the major axis and b units on each side of the center along the minor axis.
- Step 3. Using the box as a guide, sketch the ellipse so that its center is at the origin and it touches the sides of the box where the sides intersect the coordinate axes (Figure 10.4.16).

Example 3 Sketch the graphs of the ellipses

(a)
$$\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{16} = 1$$
 (b) $x^2 + 2y^2 = 4$

showing the foci of each.

Solution (a). Since y^2 has the larger denominator, the major axis is along the y-axis. Moreover, since $a^2 > b^2$, we must have $a^2 = 16$ and $b^2 = 9$, so

$$a = 4$$
 and $b = 3$

Drawing a box extending 4 units on each side of the origin along the y-axis and 3 units on each side of the origin along the x-axis as a guide yields the graph in Figure 10.4.17.

The foci lie c units on each side of the center along the major axis, where c is given by (7). From the values of a^2 and b^2 above, we obtain

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

 $c = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2} = \sqrt{16 - 9} = \sqrt{7} \approx 2.6$

Thus, the coordinates of the foci are $(0, \sqrt{7})$ and $(0, -\sqrt{7})$, since they lie on the y-axis.

Solution (b). We first rewrite the equation in the standard form

$$\frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{2} = 1$$

Since x^2 has the larger denominator, the major axis lies along the x-axis, and we have $a^2 = 4$ and $b^2 = 2$. Drawing a box extending a = 2 units on each side of the origin along the x-axis and extending $b = \sqrt{2} \approx 1.4$ units on each side of the origin along the y-axis as a guide yields the graph in Figure 10.4.18.

From (7), we obtain

$$c = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2} = \sqrt{2} \approx 1.4$$

Thus, the coordinates of the foci are $(\sqrt{2}, 0)$ and $(-\sqrt{2}, 0)$, since they lie on the x-axis.



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 4 Find an equation for the ellipse with foci $(0, \pm 2)$ and major axis with endpoints $(0, \pm 4)$.

Solution. From Figure 10.4.14, the equation has the form

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

and from the given information, a = 4 and c = 2. It follows from (6) that

$$b^2 = a^2 - c^2 = 16 - 4 = 12$$

so the equation of the ellipse is

$$\frac{x^2}{12} + \frac{y^2}{16} = 1$$

EQUATIONS OF HYPERBOLAS IN STANDARD POSITION



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

A TECHNIQUE FOR SKETCHING HYPERBOLAS

Hyperbolas can be sketched from their standard equations using four basic steps:

Sketching a Hyperbola from Its Standard Equation

- Step 1. Determine whether the focal axis is on the x-axis or the y-axis. This can be ascertained from the location of the minus sign in the equation. Referring to Figure 10.4.22, the focal axis is along the x-axis when the minus sign precedes the y^2 -term, and it is along the y-axis when the minus sign precedes the x^2 -term.
- Step 2. Determine the values of a and b and draw a box extending a units on either side of the center along the focal axis and b units on either side of the center along the conjugate axis. (The squares of a and b can be read directly from the equation.)
- Step 3. Draw the asymptotes along the diagonals of the box.
- Step 4. Using the box and the asymptotes as a guide, sketch the graph of the hyperbola (Figure 10.4.24).

Example 5 Sketch the graphs of the hyperbolas

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

showing their vertices, foci, and asymptotes.

Solution (a). The minus sign precedes the y^2 -term, so the focal axis is along the x-axis. From the denominators in the equation we obtain

$$a^2 = 4$$
 and $b^2 = 9$

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

Since a and b are positive, we must have a = 2 and b = 3. Recalling that the vertices lie a units on each side of the center on the focal axis, it follows that their coordinates in this case are (2, 0) and (-2, 0). Drawing a box extending a = 2 units along the x-axis on each side of the origin and b = 3 units on each side of the origin along the y-axis, then drawing the asymptotes along the diagonals of the box as a guide, yields the graph in Figure 10.4.25.

To obtain equations for the asymptotes, we replace 1 by 0 in the given equation; this yields $r^2 = r^2$

$$\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{9} = 0$$
 or $y = \pm \frac{3}{2}x$

The foci lie c units on each side of the center along the focal axis, where c is given by (11). From the values of a^2 and b^2 above we obtain

$$c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = \sqrt{4 + 9} = \sqrt{13} \approx 3.6$$

Since the foci lie on the x-axis in this case, their coordinates are $(\sqrt{13}, 0)$ and $(-\sqrt{13}, 0)$.

Solution (b). The minus sign precedes the x^2 -term, so the focal axis is along the y-axis. From the denominators in the equation we obtain $a^2 = 1$ and $b^2 = 1$, from which it follows that a = 1 and b = 1

Thus, the vertices are at (0, -1) and (0, 1). Drawing a box extending a = 1 unit on either side of the origin along the y-axis and b = 1 unit on either side of the origin along the x-axis, then drawing the asymptotes, yields the graph in Figure 10.4.26. Since the box is actually

a square, the asymptotes are perpendicular and have equations $y = \pm x$. This can also be seen by replacing 1 by 0 in the given equation, which yields $y^2 - x^2 = 0$ or $y = \pm x$. Also,

$$c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = \sqrt{1+1} = \sqrt{2}$$

so the foci, which lie on the y-axis, are $(0, -\sqrt{2})$ and $(0, \sqrt{2})$.



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Page 20/31

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 6 Find the equation of the hyperbola with vertices $(0, \pm 8)$ and asymptotes $y = \pm \frac{4}{3}x$.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

Solution. Since the vertices are on the y-axis, the equation of the hyperbola has the form $(y^2/a^2) - (x^2/b^2) = 1$ and the asymptotes are

$$y = \pm \frac{a}{b}x$$

From the locations of the vertices we have a = 8, so the given equations of the asymptotes yield a = 8 4

$$y = \pm \frac{a}{b}x = \pm \frac{8}{b}x = \pm \frac{4}{3}x$$

from which it follows that b = 6. Thus, the hyperbola has the equation

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

Example 7 Find an equation for the parabola that has its vertex at (1, 2) and its focus at (4, 2).

Solution. Since the focus and vertex are on a horizontal line, and since the focus is to the right of the vertex, the parabola opens to the right and its equation has the form

$$(y-k)^2 = 4p(x-h)$$

Since the vertex and focus are 3 units apart, we have p = 3, and since the vertex is at (h, k) = (1, 2), we obtain $(y - 2)^2 = 12(x - 1)$

Example 8 Describe the graph of the equation

$$y^2 - 8x - 6y - 23 = 0$$

Solution. The equation involves quadratic terms in y but none in x, so we first take all of the y-terms to one side: $y^2 - 6y = 8x + 23$

Next, we complete the square on the y-terms by adding 9 to both sides:

$$(y-3)^2 = 8x + 32$$

Finally, we factor out the coefficient of the x-term to obtain

$$(y-3)^2 = 8(x+4)$$

This equation is of form (12) with h = -4, k = 3, and p = 2, so the graph is a parabola with vertex (-4, 3) opening to the right. Since p = 2, the focus is 2 units to the right of the vertex, which places it at the point (-2, 3); and the directrix is 2 units to the left of the vertex, which means that its equation is x = -6. The parabola is shown in Figure 10.4.27.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021



Example 9 Describe the graph of the equation

 $16x^2 + 9y^2 - 64x - 54y + 1 = 0$

Solution. This equation involves quadratic terms in both x and y, so we will group the x-terms and the y-terms on one side and put the constant on the other:

$$(16x^2 - 64x) + (9y^2 - 54y) = -1$$

Next, factor out the coefficients of x^2 and y^2 and complete the squares:

 $16(x^2 - 4x + 4) + 9(y^2 - 6y + 9) = -1 + 64 + 81$

$$16(x-2)^2 + 9(y-3)^2 = 144$$

Finally, divide through by 144 to introduce a 1 on the right side:

$$\frac{(x-2)^2}{9} + \frac{(y-3)^2}{16} = 1$$

This is an equation of form (17), with h = 2, k = 3, $a^2 = 16$, and $b^2 = 9$. Thus, the graph of the equation is an ellipse with center (2, 3) and major axis parallel to the y-axis. Since a = 4, the major axis extends 4 units above and 4 units below the center, so its endpoints are (2, 7) and (2, -1) (Figure 10.4.28). Since b = 3, the minor axis extends 3 units to the left and 3 units to the right of the center, so its endpoints are (-1, 3) and (5, 3). Since

$$c = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2} = \sqrt{16 - 9} = \sqrt{7}$$

the foci lie $\sqrt{7}$ units above and below the center, placing them at the points $(2, 3 + \sqrt{7})$ and $(2, 3 - \sqrt{7})$.


CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

REFLECTION PROPERTIES OF THE CONIC SECTIONS

Parabolas, ellipses, and hyperbolas have certain reflection properties that make them extremely valuable in various applications. In the exercises we will ask you to prove the following results.

10.4.4 THEOREM (*Reflection Property of Parabolas*) The tangent line at a point P on a parabola makes equal angles with the line through P parallel to the axis of symmetry and the line through P and the focus (Figure 10.4.30a).

10.4.5 THEOREM (*Reflection Property of Ellipses*) A line tangent to an ellipse at a point *P* makes equal angles with the lines joining *P* to the foci (Figure 10.4.30b).

10.4.6 THEOREM (*Reflection Property of Hyperbolas*) A line tangent to a hyperbola at a point P makes equal angles with the lines joining P to the foci (Figure 10.4.30c).



CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

ROTATION OF AXES; SECOND-DEGREE EQUATIONS

ROTATION OF AXES

To study conics that are tilted relative to the coordinate axes it is frequently helpful to rotate the coordinate axes, so that the rotated coordinate axes are parallel to the axes of the conic. Before we can discuss the details, we need to develop some ideas about rotation of coordinate axes.

In Figure 10.5.2*a* the axes of an *xy*-coordinate system have been rotated about the origin through an angle θ to produce a new *x'y'*-coordinate system. As shown in the figure, each point *P* in the plane has coordinates (*x'*, *y'*) as well as coordinates (*x*, *y*). To see how the two are related, let *r* be the distance from the common origin to the point *P*, and let α be the angle shown in Figure 10.5.2*b*. It follows that

$$x = r\cos(\theta + \alpha), \quad y = r\sin(\theta + \alpha)$$
 (3)

and

 $x' = r \cos \alpha, \quad y' = r \sin \alpha$

Using familiar trigonometric identities, the relationships in (3) can be written as

 $x = r \cos \theta \cos \alpha - r \sin \theta \sin \alpha$ $y = r \sin \theta \cos \alpha + r \cos \theta \sin \alpha$

(4)

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021



Example 1 Suppose that the axes of an *xy*-coordinate system are rotated through an angle of $\theta = 45^{\circ}$ to obtain an x'y'-coordinate system. Find the equation of the curve $x^2 - xy + y^2 - 6 = 0$

in x'y'-coordinates.

Solution. Substituting $\sin \theta = \sin 45^\circ = 1/\sqrt{2}$ and $\cos \theta = \cos 45^\circ = 1/\sqrt{2}$ in (5) yields the rotation equations

$$x = \frac{x'}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{y'}{\sqrt{2}}$$
 and $y = \frac{x'}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{y'}{\sqrt{2}}$

Substituting these into the given equation yields

$$\frac{x'}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{y'}{\sqrt{2}}\Big)^2 - \left(\frac{x'}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{y'}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\left(\frac{x'}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{y'}{\sqrt{2}}\right) + \left(\frac{x'}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{y'}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 - 6 = 0$$
$$\frac{x'^2 - 2x'y' + y'^2 - x'^2 + y'^2 + x'^2 + 2x'y' + y'^2}{2} = 6$$

or

$$\frac{{x'}^2}{12} + \frac{{y'}^2}{4} = 1$$

which is the equation of an ellipse (Figure 10.5.3).

If the rotation equations (5) are solved for x' and y' in terms of x and y, one obtains (Exercise 16):

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta \\ y' &= -x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

Example 2 Find the new coordinates of the point (2, 4) if the coordinate axes are rotated through an angle of $\theta = 30^{\circ}$.

Solution. Using the rotation equations in (6) with x = 2, y = 4, $\cos \theta = \cos 30^\circ = \sqrt{3}/2$, and $\sin \theta = \sin 30^\circ = 1/2$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= 2(\sqrt{3}/2) + 4(1/2) = \sqrt{3} + 2\\ y' &= -2(1/2) + 4(\sqrt{3}/2) = -1 + 2\sqrt{3} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the new coordinates are $(\sqrt{3} + 2, -1 + 2\sqrt{3})$.

ELIMINATING THE CROSS-PRODUCT TERM

10.5.1 THEOREM If the equation

$$Ax^{2} + Bxy + Cy^{2} + Dx + Ey + F = 0$$
(7)

is such that $B \neq 0$, and if an x'y'-coordinate system is obtained by rotating the xy-axes through an angle θ satisfying A - C

$$ot 2\theta = \frac{A - C}{R}$$
(8)

then, in x'y'-coordinates, Equation (7) will have the form

 $A'x'^{2} + C'y'^{2} + D'x' + E'y' + F' = 0$

CONIC SECTIONS IN POLAR COORDINATES

Example 1 Sketch the graph of $r = \frac{2}{1 - \cos \theta}$ in polar coordinates.

Solution. The equation is an exact match to (4) with d = 2 and e = 1. Thus, the graph is a parabola with the focus at the pole and the directrix 2 units to the left of the pole. This tells us that the parabola opens to the right along the polar axis and p = 1. Thus, the parabola looks roughly like that sketched in Figure 10.6.4.

Example 2 Find the constants *a*, *b*, and *c* for the ellipse $r = \frac{6}{2 + \cos \theta}$.

Solution. This equation does not match any of the forms in Theorem 10.6.2 because they all require a constant term of 1 in the denominator. However, we can put the equation into one of these forms by dividing the numerator and denominator by 2 to obtain

$$r = \frac{3}{1 + \frac{1}{2}\cos\theta}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

This is an exact match to (3) with d = 6 and $e = \frac{1}{2}$, so the graph is an ellipse with the directrix 6 units to the right of the pole. The distance r_0 from the focus to the closest vertex can be obtained by setting $\theta = 0$ in this equation, and the distance r_1 to the farthest vertex can be obtained by setting $\theta = \pi$. This yields

$$r_0 = \frac{3}{1 + \frac{1}{2}\cos 0} = \frac{3}{\frac{3}{2}} = 2, \quad r_1 = \frac{3}{1 + \frac{1}{2}\cos \pi} = \frac{3}{\frac{1}{2}} = 6$$

Thus, from Formulas (8), (10), and (9), respectively, we obtain

$$a = \frac{1}{2}(r_1 + r_0) = 4$$
, $b = \sqrt{r_0 r_1} = 2\sqrt{3}$, $c = \frac{1}{2}(r_1 - r_0) = 2$

The ellipse looks roughly like that sketched in Figure 10.6.6.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: III (Concavity and conic sections) BATCH-2018-2021

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

PART - A (20 x 1 = 20 Marks) (Question Nos. 1 to 20 Online Examinations)

PART-B (5 x 2 =10 Marks)

Answer all the questions

- 1. Define discriminant test.
- 2. Define an ellipse.
- 3. Define eccentricity of the ellipse.
- 4. Find the eccentricity of the hyperbola $9x^2 16y^2 = 144$.
- 5. Find an equation for the hyperbola with eccentricity 3/2 and directrix x = 2.

PART-C (5 x 6 = 30 Marks)

Answer all the questions

- 1. Sketch the graph of the ellipse $i)\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{16} = 1$ ii) $x^2 + 2y^2 = 4$. and showing the foci of each.
- 2. Find a Cartesian equation for the hyperbola centered at the origin that has a focus at (3, 0) and the line x = 1 as the corresponding directrix.
- 3. Find the equation of the curve $x^2 xy + y^2 6 = 0$ in x'y' coordinates. if the coordinate axes are rotated through an angle of $\theta = 45^{\circ}$
- 4. Find the constants a, b and c for the ellipse $r = \frac{6}{2+cos\theta}$
- 5. Sketch the graph of the parabolas i) $x^2 = 12y$ ii) $y^2 + 8x = 0$ and show that focus and directrix of each.
- 6. Identify and sketch the curve $153x^2 193xy + 97y^2 30x 40y 200 = 0$.
- 7. Identify and sketch the curve xy = 1
- 8. Find the directrix of the parabola $r = \frac{25}{10+10 \cos\theta}$
- 9. Find the equation for the hyperbola with eccentricity 3/2 and directrix x = 2.
- 10. Describe the graph of the equation $16x^2 + 9y^2 64x 54y + 1 = 0$.
- 11. Find a polar equation for an ellipse with semimajor axis 39.44 AU and eccentricity size of pluto's orbit around the sun.

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| | Possible | Questions | | | | | |
| Question | Choice 1 | Choice 2 | Choice 3 | Choice 4 | Answer | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| Which one is the example for conic section ? | parabola | solid | triangle | rectangle | parabola | | |
| is the set of all points in the plane that are | | | | | | | |
| equiditant from a fixed line and fixed point not on the line | | | | | | | |
| | ellipse | hyperbola | parabola | circle | parabola | | |
| is the set of all points in the plane, the sum of | | | | | | | |
| whose distance from two fixed point is a given positive | | | | | | | |
| constant that is greater than the distance between the fixed | | | | | | | |
| point. | ellipse | hyperbola | parabola | circle | ellipse | | |
| is the set of all points in the plane, the sum of | | | | | | | |
| whose distance from two fixed point is a given positive | | | | | | | |
| constant that is less than the distance between the fixed | | | | | | | |
| point. | ellipse | hyperbola | parabola | circle | hyperbola | | |
| In a ellipse the midpoint of the line segment joining the | | | | | | | |
| foci is called | vertices | axis | symmetry | center | center | | |
| In an ellipse ,the end point of the major axis is called | | | | | | | |
| | minor axis | vertices | symmetry | center | vertices | | |

| The midpoint of the line segment joining the foci is called | | | | | |
|--|--------------|-----------|----------------|--------------|----------------|
| the of the hyperbola | vertices | axis | symmetry | center | center |
| The hyperbola intersect the focal axis at two points is | | | | | |
| called the | center | vertices | axis | symmetry | vertices |
| In a hyperbola the line through the center that is | | | | standard | |
| perpendicular to the focal axis is called | asymptotes | vertices | conjugate axis | position | conjugate axis |
| is the set of points in a plane whose distance from | | | | | |
| a given fixed point in the plane is constant. | ellipse | hyperbola | parabola | circle | circle |
| | | | | standard | |
| The fixed point is the of the circle. | center | vertices | radius | position | center |
| Find the focus of the parabola $y^2 = 10 x$ | (0,5/2) | (-5/2,0) | (5/2,0) | (0,-5/2) | (5/2,0) |
| The eccentricity of a parabola is | e < 1 | e >1 | e = 0 | e =1 | e =1 |
| The eccentricity of a hyperbola is | e < 1 | e >1 | e = 0 | e =1 | e >1 |
| Find the radius of the circle $r = 4 \cos \theta$ | 2 | 8 | 4 | 16 | 2 |
| The eccentricity of a ellipse is | e < 1 | e >1 | e = 0 | e =1 | e < 1 |
| If B^2 - 4AC =0 then it is called | ellipse | hyperbola | parabola | circle | parabola |
| If $B^2 - 4AC < 0$ then it is called | ellipse | hyperbola | parabola | circle | ellipse |
| If $B^2 - 4AC > 0$ then it is called | ellipse | hyperbola | parabola | circle | hyperbola |
| An ellipse is the set of all points in the plane, the sum of | | | | | |
| whose distance from two fixed point is a given positive | | | | | |
| constant that is the distance between the fixed | | | | | |
| point. | greater than | equal to | less than | not equal to | greater than |
| An hyperbola is the set of all points in the plane, the sum | | | | | |
| of whose distance from two fixed point is a given positive | | | | | |
| constant that is the distance between the fixed | | | | | |
| point. | greater than | equal to | less than | not equal to | less than |
| If e =1 then it is the eccentricity of a | ellipse | hyperbola | parabola | circle | parabola |
| If $e > 1$ then it is the eccentricity of a | ellipse | hyperbola | parabola | circle | hyperbola |
| If $e < 1$ then it is the eccentricity of a | ellipse | hyperbola | parabola | circle | ellipse |
| | | | | standard | |
| The constant distance is the of the circle | center | vertices | radius | position | radius |
| Find the radius of the circle $r = 6 \cos \theta$ | 2 | 3 | 6 | 36 | 3 |

| In a ellipse the midpoint of the line segment joining | | | | | |
|---|--------------|---------|---------------|---------------|-----------|
| theis called center | minor axis | foci | major axis | vertices | foci |
| Which one is the not a example for conic section ? | rectangle | ellipse | hyperbola | parabola | rectangle |
| Intersection of two straight lines is | Surface | Curve | Plane | Point | Plane |
| Plane is a surface | 1 - D | 2 -D | 3 - D | Dimensionless | 2 -D |
| The angle between the asymptotes of a rectangular | | | | | |
| hyperbola is | 30 | 45 | 60 | 90 | 90 |
| | | | | | |
| The intersection of a cone with a plane gives | Point | Line | Conic Section | Two points | Point |

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions) BATCH-2018-2021

<u>UNIT-V</u> SYLLABUS

Introduction to vector functions, operations with vector-valued functions, limits and continuity of vector functions, differentiation and integration of vector functions, tangent and normal components of acceleration, modeling ballistics and planetary motion, Kepler's second law.

VECTOR-VALUED FUNCTIONS

The twisted cubic defined by the equations in (3) is the set of points of the form (t, t^2, t^3) for real values of t. If we view each of these points as a terminal point for a vector **r** whose initial point is at the origin,

$$\mathbf{r} = \langle x, y, z \rangle = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^3\mathbf{k}$$

then we obtain **r** as a function of the parameter *t*, that is, $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$. Since this function produces a *vector*, we say that $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$ defines **r** as a *vector-valued function of a real variable*, or more simply, a *vector-valued function*. The vectors that we will consider in this text are either in 2-space or 3-space, so we will say that a vector-valued function is in 2-space or in 3-space according to the kind of vectors that it produces.

If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is a vector-valued function in 3-space, then for each allowable value of t the vector $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$ can be represented in terms of components as

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$$
(4)

The functions x(t), y(t), and z(t) are called the *component functions* or the *components* of $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

Example 3 The component functions of

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle t, t^2, t^3 \rangle = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^3\mathbf{k}$$

are

x(t) = t, $y(t) = t^2$, $z(t) = t^3$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions)BATCH-2018-2021

Example 4 Find the natural domain of

 $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle \ln|t-1|, e^t, \sqrt{t} \rangle = (\ln|t-1|)\mathbf{i} + e^t\mathbf{j} + \sqrt{t}\mathbf{k}$

Solution. The natural domains of the component functions

 $x(t) = \ln |t - 1|, \quad y(t) = e^t, \quad z(t) = \sqrt{t}$

are

 $(-\infty, 1) \cup (1, +\infty), \quad (-\infty, +\infty), \quad [0, +\infty)$

respectively. The intersection of these sets is

 $[0, 1) \cup (1, +\infty)$

(verify), so the natural domain of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ consists of all values of t such that

 $0 \le t < 1$ or $t > 1 \blacktriangleleft$

LIMITS AND CONTINUITY

Our first goal in this section is to develop a notion of what it means for a vector-valued function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ in 2-space or 3-space to approach a limiting vector L as t approaches a number a. That is, we want to define

$$\lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{L} \tag{1}$$

One way to motivate a reasonable definition of (1) is to position $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and \mathbf{L} with their initial points at the origin and interpret this limit to mean that the terminal point of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ approaches the terminal point of \mathbf{L} as t approaches a or, equivalently, that the vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ approaches the vector \mathbf{L} in both length and direction at t approaches a (Figure 12.2.1). Algebraically, this is equivalent to stating that

$$\lim_{t \to a} \|\mathbf{r}(t) - \mathbf{L}\| = 0 \tag{2}$$

12.2.1 DEFINITION Let $\mathbf{r}(t)$ be a vector-valued function that is defined for all t in some open interval containing the number a, except that $\mathbf{r}(t)$ need not be defined at a. We will write $\lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{I}$

$$\lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{L}$$

if and only if

$$\lim_{t \to a} \|\mathbf{r}(t) - \mathbf{L}\| = 0$$

Example 1 Let $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2 \mathbf{i} + e^t \mathbf{j} - (2\cos \pi t)\mathbf{k}$. Then

$$\lim_{t \to 0} \mathbf{r}(t) = \left(\lim_{t \to 0} t^2\right) \mathbf{i} + \left(\lim_{t \to 0} e^t\right) \mathbf{j} - \left(\lim_{t \to 0} 2\cos \pi t\right) \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$$

Alternatively, using the angle bracket notation for vectors,

$$\lim_{t \to 0} \mathbf{r}(t) = \lim_{t \to 0} \langle t^2, e^t, -2\cos \pi t \rangle = \left\langle \lim_{t \to 0} t^2, \lim_{t \to 0} e^t, \lim_{t \to 0} (-2\cos \pi t) \right\rangle = \langle 0, 1, -2 \rangle \blacktriangleleft$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions)BATCH-2018-2021

DERIVATIVES

The derivative of a vector-valued function is defined by a limit similar to that for the derivative of a real-valued function.

12.2.3 DEFINITION If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is a vector-valued function, we define the *derivative of* \mathbf{r} *with respect to t* to be the vector-valued function \mathbf{r}' given by

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{h}$$
(4)

The domain of \mathbf{r}' consists of all values of t in the domain of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ for which the limit exists.

Example 2 Let $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2 \mathbf{i} + e^t \mathbf{j} - (2\cos\pi t)\mathbf{k}$. Then

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \frac{d}{dt}(t^2)\mathbf{i} + \frac{d}{dt}(e^t)\mathbf{j} - \frac{d}{dt}(2\cos\pi t)\mathbf{k}$$
$$= 2t\mathbf{i} + e^t\mathbf{j} + (2\pi\sin\pi t)\mathbf{k} \blacktriangleleft$$

12.2.4 GEOMETRIC INTERPRETATION OF THE DERIVATIVE Suppose that C is the graph of a vector-valued function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ in 2-space or 3-space and that $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ exists and is nonzero for a given value of t. If the vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is positioned with its initial point at the terminal point of the radius vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$, then $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is tangent to C and points in the direction of increasing parameter.

DERIVATIVE RULES

(a)
$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{c}] = \mathbf{0}$$

(b)
$$\frac{d}{dt}[k\mathbf{r}(t)] = k\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}(t)]$$

(c)
$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}_1(t) + \mathbf{r}_2(t)] = \frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}_1(t)] + \frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}_2(t)]$$

(d)
$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}_1(t) - \mathbf{r}_2(t)] = \frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}_1(t)] - \frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}_2(t)]$$

(e) $\frac{d}{dt}[f(t)\mathbf{r}(t)] = f(t)\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{r}(t)] + \frac{d}{dt}[f(t)]\mathbf{r}(t)$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions)BATCH-2018-2021

TANGENT LINES TO GRAPHS OF VECTOR-VALUED FUNCTIONS

Motivated by the discussion of the geometric interpretation of the derivative of a vectorvalued function, we make the following definition.

12.2.7 DEFINITION Let *P* be a point on the graph of a vector-valued function $\mathbf{r}(t)$, and let $\mathbf{r}(t_0)$ be the radius vector from the origin to *P* (Figure 12.2.4). If $\mathbf{r}'(t_0)$ exists and $\mathbf{r}'(t_0) \neq \mathbf{0}$, then we call $\mathbf{r}'(t_0)$ a *tangent vector* to the graph of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at $\mathbf{r}(t_0)$, and we call the line through *P* that is parallel to the tangent vector the *tangent line* to the graph of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ at $\mathbf{r}(t_0)$.

Example 3 Find parametric equations of the tangent line to the circular helix

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

where $t = t_0$, and use that result to find parametric equations for the tangent line at the point where $t = \pi$.

Solution. The vector equation of the helix is

 $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t \mathbf{i} + \sin t \mathbf{j} + t \mathbf{k}$

so we have

 $\mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{r}(t_0) = \cos t_0 \mathbf{i} + \sin t_0 \mathbf{j} + t_0 \mathbf{k}$

$$\mathbf{v}_0 = \mathbf{r}'(t_0) = (-\sin t_0)\mathbf{i} + \cos t_0\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$

It follows from (5) that the vector equation of the tangent line at $t = t_0$ is

$$\mathbf{r} = \cos t_0 \mathbf{i} + \sin t_0 \mathbf{j} + t_0 \mathbf{k} + t[(-\sin t_0)\mathbf{i} + \cos t_0 \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}]$$

 $= (\cos t_0 - t \sin t_0)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t_0 + t \cos t_0)\mathbf{j} + (t_0 + t)\mathbf{k}$

Thus, the parametric equations of the tangent line at $t = t_0$ are

$$x = \cos t_0 - t \sin t_0$$
, $y = \sin t_0 + t \cos t_0$, $z = t_0 + t$

In particular, the tangent line at $t = \pi$ has parametric equations

$$x = -1$$
, $y = -t$, $z = \pi + t$

The graph of the helix and this tangent line are shown in Figure 12.2.5.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions)BATCH-2018-2021

Example 4 Let

$$\mathbf{r}_1(t) = (\tan^{-1} t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$$

and

$$\mathbf{r}_2(t) = (t^2 - t)\mathbf{i} + (2t - 2)\mathbf{j} + (\ln t)\mathbf{k}$$

The graphs of $\mathbf{r}_1(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}_2(t)$ intersect at the origin. Find the degree measure of the acute angle between the tangent lines to the graphs of $\mathbf{r}_1(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}_2(t)$ at the origin.

Solution. The graph of $\mathbf{r}_1(t)$ passes through the origin at t = 0, where its tangent vector is $\mathbf{r}'_1(0) = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \cos t, 2t\right) = (1, 1, 0)$

$$T'_{1}(0) = \left\langle \frac{1}{1+t^{2}}, \cos t, 2t \right\rangle \Big|_{t=0} = \langle 1, 1, 0 \rangle$$

The graph of $r_2(t)$ passes through the origin at t = 1 (verify), where its tangent vector is

$$\mathbf{r}_{2}'(1) = \left\langle 2t - 1, 2, \frac{1}{t} \right\rangle \Big|_{t=1} = \langle 1, 2, 1 \rangle$$

By Theorem 11.3.3, the angle θ between these two tangent vectors satisfies

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle 1, 1, 0 \rangle \cdot \langle 1, 2, 1 \rangle}{\|\langle 1, 1, 0 \rangle\| \|\langle 1, 2, 1 \rangle\|} = \frac{1+2+0}{\sqrt{2}\sqrt{6}} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{12}} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

It follows that $\theta = \pi/6$ radians, or 30°.

DEFINITE INTEGRALS OF VECTOR-VALUED FUNCTIONS

If $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is a vector-valued function that is continuous on the interval $a \le t \le b$, then we define the *definite integral* of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ over this interval as a limit of Riemann sums, just as in Definition 5.5.1, except here the integrand is a vector-valued function. Specifically, we define

$$\int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \lim_{\max \Delta t_{k} \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \mathbf{r}(t_{k}^{*}) \Delta t_{k}$$
(10)

Example 6 Let $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2 \mathbf{i} + e^t \mathbf{j} - (2 \cos \pi t) \mathbf{k}$. Then

$$\int_0^1 \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \left(\int_0^1 t^2 dt\right) \mathbf{i} + \left(\int_0^1 e^t dt\right) \mathbf{j} - \left(\int_0^1 2\cos\pi t \, dt\right) \mathbf{k}$$
$$= \frac{t^3}{3} \Big]_0^1 \mathbf{i} + e^t \Big]_0^1 \mathbf{j} - \frac{2}{\pi} \sin\pi t \Big]_0^1 \mathbf{k} = \frac{1}{3} \mathbf{i} + (e-1)\mathbf{j} \blacktriangleleft$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions)BATCH-2018-2021

RULES OF INTEGRATION

As with differentiation, many of the rules for integrating real-valued functions have analogs for vector-valued functions.

(a)
$$\int_{a}^{b} k\mathbf{r}(t) dt = k \int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{r}(t) dt$$

(b) $\int_{a}^{b} [\mathbf{r}_{1}(t) + \mathbf{r}_{2}(t)] dt = \int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{r}_{1}(t) dt + \int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{r}_{2}(t) dt$
(c) $\int_{a}^{b} [\mathbf{r}_{1}(t) - \mathbf{r}_{2}(t)] dt = \int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{r}_{1}(t) dt - \int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{r}_{2}(t) dt$

Example 7

$$\int (2t\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\mathbf{j}) dt = \left(\int 2t dt\right)\mathbf{i} + \left(\int 3t^2 dt\right)\mathbf{j}$$
$$= (t^2 + C_1)\mathbf{i} + (t^3 + C_2)\mathbf{j}$$
$$= (t^2\mathbf{i} + t^3\mathbf{j}) + (C_1\mathbf{i} + C_2\mathbf{j}) = (t^2\mathbf{i} + t^3\mathbf{j}) + C$$

where $C = C_1 i + C_2 j$ is an arbitrary vector constant of integration.

Example 8 Evaluate the definite integral $\int_0^2 (2t\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\mathbf{j}) dt$.

Solution. Integrating the components yields

$$\int_0^2 (2t\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\mathbf{j}) dt = t^2 \Big]_0^2 \mathbf{i} + t^3 \Big]_0^2 \mathbf{j} = 4\mathbf{i} + 8\mathbf{j}$$

Example 9 Find $\mathbf{r}(t)$ given that $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle 3, 2t \rangle$ and $\mathbf{r}(1) = \langle 2, 5 \rangle$.

Solution. Integrating $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ to obtain $\mathbf{r}(t)$ yields

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \int \mathbf{r}'(t) \, dt = \int \langle 3, 2t \rangle \, dt = \langle 3t, t^2 \rangle + \mathbf{C}$$

where C is a vector constant of integration. To find the value of C we substitute t = 1 and use the given value of r(1) to obtain

$$\mathbf{r}(1) = \langle 3, 1 \rangle + \mathbf{C} = \langle 2, 5 \rangle$$

so that $C = \langle -1, 4 \rangle$. Thus,

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 3t, t^2 \rangle + \langle -1, 4 \rangle = \langle 3t - 1, t^2 + 4 \rangle \blacktriangleleft$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions)BATCH-2018-2021

NORMAL AND TANGENTIAL COMPONENTS OF ACCELERATION

12.6.2 THEOREM If a particle moves along a smooth curve C in 2-space or 3-space, then at each point on the curve velocity and acceleration vectors can be written as

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{ds}{dt}\mathbf{T}$$
 $\mathbf{a} = \frac{d^2s}{dt^2}\mathbf{T} + \kappa \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 \mathbf{N}$ (10–11)

where s is an arc length parameter for the curve, and T, N, and κ denote the unit tangent vector, unit normal vector, and curvature at the point (Figure 12.6.4).

Example 4 Suppose that a particle moves through 3-space so that its position vector at time t is $r(t) = ti + t^{2} i + t^{3} t$

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^3\mathbf{k}$$

- (a) Find the scalar tangential and normal components of acceleration at time t.
- (b) Find the scalar tangential and normal components of acceleration at time t = 1.

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions) BATCH-2018-2021

- (c) Find the vector tangential and normal components of acceleration at time t = 1.
- (d) Find the curvature of the path at the point where the particle is located at time t = 1.

Solution (a). We have

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{i} + 2t\mathbf{j} + 3t^{2}\mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{v}'(t) = 2\mathbf{j} + 6t\mathbf{k}$$

$$\|\mathbf{v}(t)\| = \sqrt{1 + 4t^{2} + 9t^{4}}$$

$$\mathbf{v}(t) \cdot \mathbf{a}(t) = 4t + 18t^{3}$$

$$\mathbf{v}(t) \times \mathbf{a}(t) = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 2t & 3t^{2} \\ 0 & 2 & 6t \end{vmatrix} = 6t^{2}\mathbf{i} - 6t\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$$

Thus, from (15) and (16)

$$a_T = \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{4t + 18t^3}{\sqrt{1 + 4t^2 + 9t^4}}$$
$$a_N = \frac{\|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}\|}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{\sqrt{36t^4 + 36t^2 + 4}}{\sqrt{1 + 4t^2 + 9t^4}} = 2\sqrt{\frac{9t^4 + 9t^2 + 1}{9t^4 + 4t^2 + 1}}$$

Solution (b). At time t = 1, the components a_T and a_N in part (a) are

$$a_T = \frac{22}{\sqrt{14}} \approx 5.88$$
 and $a_N = 2\sqrt{\frac{19}{14}} \approx 2.33$

Solution (c). Since T and v have the same direction, T can be obtained by normalizing v, that is, v(t)

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{\|\mathbf{v}(t)\|}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions)BATCH-2018-2021

At time t = 1 we have

$$\mathbf{T}(1) = \frac{\mathbf{v}(1)}{\|\mathbf{v}(1)\|} = \frac{\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}}{\|\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}}(\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k})$$

From this and part (b) we obtain the vector tangential component of acceleration:

$$a_T(1)\mathbf{T}(1) = \frac{22}{\sqrt{14}}\mathbf{T}(1) = \frac{11}{7}(\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}) = \frac{11}{7}\mathbf{i} + \frac{22}{7}\mathbf{j} + \frac{33}{7}\mathbf{k}$$

To find the normal vector component of acceleration, we rewrite $\mathbf{a} = a_T \mathbf{T} + a_N \mathbf{N}$ as

 $a_N \mathbf{N} = \mathbf{a} - a_T \mathbf{T}$

Thus, at time t = 1 the normal vector component of acceleration is

$$a_{N}(1)\mathbf{N}(1) = \mathbf{a}(1) - a_{T}(1)\mathbf{T}(1)$$

= $(2\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k}) - \left(\frac{11}{7}\mathbf{i} + \frac{22}{7}\mathbf{j} + \frac{33}{7}\mathbf{k}\right)$
= $-\frac{11}{7}\mathbf{i} - \frac{8}{7}\mathbf{j} + \frac{9}{7}\mathbf{k}$

Solution (d). We will apply Formula (17) with t = 1. From part (a)

$$\|\mathbf{v}(1)\| = \sqrt{14}$$
 and $\mathbf{v}(1) \times \mathbf{a}(1) = 6\mathbf{i} - 6\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$

Thus, at time t = 1

$$\kappa = \frac{\|\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{a}\|}{\|\mathbf{v}\|^3} = \frac{\sqrt{76}}{(\sqrt{14})^3} = \frac{1}{14}\sqrt{\frac{38}{7}} \approx 0.17 \blacktriangleleft$$

In the case where ||a|| and a_T are known, there is a useful alternative to Formula (16) for a_N that does not require the calculation of a cross product. It follows algebraically from Formula (14) (see Exercise 51) or geometrically from Figure 12.6.6 and the Theorem of Pythagoras that

$$a_N = \sqrt{\|\mathbf{a}\|^2 - a_T^2} \tag{18}$$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions)BATCH-2018-2021

KEPLER'S LAWS OF PLANETARY MOTION

- First law (*Law of Orbits*). Each planet moves in an elliptical orbit with the Sun at a focus.
- Second law (*Law of Areas*). Equal areas are swept out in equal times by the line from the Sun to a planet.
- Third law (Law of Periods). The square of a planet's period (the time it takes the planet to complete one orbit about the Sun) is proportional to the cube of the semimajor axis of its orbit.

KEPLER'S FIRST AND SECOND LAWS

It follows from our general discussion of central force fields that the planets have elliptical orbits with the Sun at the focus, which is Kepler's first law. To derive Kepler's second law, we begin by equating (10) and (13) to obtain

$$r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dt} = r_0 v_0 \tag{24}$$

To prove that the radial line from the center of the Sun to the center of a planet sweeps out equal areas in equal times, let $r = f(\theta)$ denote the polar equation of the planet, and let A denote the area swept out by the radial line as it varies from any fixed angle θ_0 to an angle θ . It follows from the area formula in 10.3.4 that A can be expressed as

$$A = \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} \frac{1}{2} [f(\phi)]^2 \, d\phi$$

where the dummy variable ϕ is introduced for the integration to reserve θ for the upper limit. It now follows from Part 2 of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus and the chain rule that $dA \quad dA \quad d\theta = 1$ and $d\theta = 1$ and $d\theta$

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{dA}{d\theta}\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{1}{2}[f(\theta)]^2\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{1}{2}r^2\frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

Thus, it follows from (24) that

 $\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2}r_0v_0\tag{25}$

which shows that A changes at a constant rate. This implies that equal areas are swept out in equal times.

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions)BATCH-2018-2021

KEPLER'S THIRD LAW

To derive Kepler's third law, we let *a* and *b* be the semimajor and semiminor axes of the elliptical orbit, and we recall that the area of this ellipse is πab . It follows by integrating (25) that in *t* units of time the radial line will sweep out an area of $A = \frac{1}{2}r_0v_0t$. Thus, if *T* denotes the time required for the planet to make one revolution around the Sun (the period), then the radial line will sweep out the area of the entire ellipse during that time and hence

$$\pi ab = \frac{1}{2}r_0v_0T$$

from which we obtain

$$T^2 = \frac{4\pi^2 a^2 b^2}{r_0^2 v_0^2} \tag{26}$$

However, it follows from Formula (1) of Section 10.6 and the relationship $c^2 = a^2 - b^2$ for an ellipse that

$$e = \frac{c}{a} = \frac{\sqrt{a^2 - b^2}}{a}$$

Thus, $b^2 = a^2(1 - e^2)$ and hence (26) can be written as

$$T^{2} = \frac{4\pi^{2}a^{4}(1-e^{2})}{r_{0}^{2}v_{0}^{2}}$$
(27)

But comparing Equation (20) to Equation (17) of Section 10.6 shows that

 $k = a(1 - e^2)$

Finally, substituting this expression and (21) in (27) yields

$$T^{2} = \frac{4\pi^{2}a^{3}}{r_{0}^{2}v_{0}^{2}}k = \frac{4\pi^{2}a^{3}}{r_{0}^{2}v_{0}^{2}}\frac{r_{0}^{2}v_{0}^{2}}{GM} = \frac{4\pi^{2}}{GM}a^{3}$$
(28)

Thus, we have proved that T^2 is proportional to a^3 , which is Kepler's third law. When convenient, Formula (28) can also be expressed as

$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{GM}} a^{3/2} \tag{29}$$

► Example 1 A geosynchronous orbit for a satellite is a circular orbit about the equator of the Earth in which the satellite stays fixed over a point on the equator. Use the fact that the Earth makes one revolution about its axis every 24 hours to find the altitude in miles of a communications satellite in geosynchronous orbit. Assume the Earth to be a sphere of radius 4000 mi.

KARPAGAM ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICS COURSE NAME: Calculus COURSE CODE: 18MMU101 UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions) BATCH-2018-2021

Solution. To remain fixed over a point on the equator, the satellite must have a period of T = 24 h. It follows from (28) or (29) and the Earth value of $GM = 1.24 \times 10^{12} \text{ mi}^3/\text{h}^2$ from Table 12.7.1 that

$$a = \sqrt[3]{\frac{GMT^2}{4\pi^2}} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{(1.24 \times 10^{12})(24)^2}{4\pi^2}} \approx 26,250 \text{ mi}$$

and hence the altitude h of the satellite is

 $h \approx 26,250 - 4000 = 22,250 \text{ mi}$

CLASS: IB.Sc MATHEMATICSCOURSE NAME: CalculusCOURSE CODE: 18MMU101UNIT: V (Vector-valued functions)BATCH-2018-2021

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

PART - A (20 x 1 =20 Marks) (Question Nos. 1 to 20 Online Examinations)

PART-B (5 x 2 =10 Marks)

Answer all the questions

- 1. Write down the polar formulas for velocity and acceleration.
- 2. Write down the polar formulas for velocity and acceleration.
- 3. Find $\lim_{t \to 0} F(t)$, where $F(t) = (t^2 3)i + e^t j + (sin\pi t)k$.
- 4. For what values of t is G(t) = |t|i + (cost)j + (t-5)k differentiable.
- 5. Write down the tangential and normal components of acceleration.

PART-C (5 x 6 =30 Marks)

Answer all the questions

- 1. State and prove Kepler's second law of motion.
- 2. Find the tangential and normal components of the acceleration of an object the moves with position vector $R(t) = \langle t^3, t^2, t \rangle$.
- 3. If the position vector of a moving body is $R(t) = 2ti t^2j$ for $t \ge 0$. Express R and the velocity vector V(t) in terms of u_r and u_{θ} .
- 4. If the velocity of a particle moving in space is $V(t) = e^t i + t^2 j + (\cos 2t)k$. Find the particle's position as a function of t if the position at time t=0 is R(0) = 2i + j k.
- 5. Find the second and third derivative of the vector function $F(t) = e^{t}i + (sint)j + (t^3 + 5t)k$.
- 6. Find the second and third derivative of the vector function $F(t) = e^{2t}i + (1 t^2)j + (\cos 2t)k$
- 7. A boy standing at the edge of a cliff throws a ball upwards at a 30° angle with an initial speed of 64 ft/s. suppose that when the ball leaves the boy's hand, it is 48 ft above the ground as the base of the cliff.

i) what are the time of flight of the ball and its range?

ii) what are the velocity of the ball and its speed at impact?

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|--|--|-----------------|--------------------|---------------------------|--|--|--|
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| | Coimbatore – | 641 021 | | | | | |
| Subject: Calculus Subject Code: 18MMU101 | | | | | | | |
| Class: I - B.Sc. Mathematics | | | Semes | ter: I | | | |
| Unit V | | | | | | | |
| Vec | ctor - valued | l functions | | | | | |
| Part A (20x1=20 Marks) | | | | (| Question Nos. | | |
| 11 | to 20 Online Exa | aminations) | | | | | |
| | Pos | sible Question | <u> </u> | | | | |
| Question | Choice 1 | Choice 2 | Choice 3 | Choice 4 | Answer | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| | $(\mathbf{u} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{v}) + (\mathbf{u} \mathbf{x})$ | | | | $(\mathbf{u} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{v}) + (\mathbf{u} \mathbf{x})$ | | |
| If u, v and w are vectors in R then u x $(v + w) =$ | w) | u.v + u.w | uv +(u +w) | $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}$ | w) | | |
| (F+G)(t) = | F(t) - G(t) | F(t) + G(t) | $F(t) \times G(t)$ | F(t) / G(t) | F(t) + G(t) | | |
| (F - G)(t) = | F(t) - G(t) | F(t) + G(t) | $F(t) \times G(t)$ | F(t) / G(t) | F(t) - G(t) | | |
| $(F \times G) (t) =$ | F(t) - G(t) | F(t) + G(t) | $F(t) \times G(t)$ | F(t) / G(t) | $F(t) \times G(t)$ | | |
| (f F)(t) | f(t)F | f(t)F(t) | f(t) | F(t) | f(t)F(t) | | |
| (F . G) (t) = | F(t) - G(t) | F(t) + G(t) | $F(t) \times G(t)$ | $F(t) \cdot G(t)$ | $F(t) \cdot G(t)$ | | |
| The square of the time of one complete revolution | | | | | | | |
| of a planet about its orbit is proportional to the | | semi major | | semi minor | semi major | | |
| cube of the length of the of its orbit. | minor axis | axis | major axis | axis | axis | | |
| | | lim F(t) - lim | [lim F(t)] [lim | $\lim F(t) +$ | $\lim F(t) + \lim$ | | |
| $\lim [F(t) + G(t)] =$ | $\lim F(t) - G(t)$ | G(t) | G(t)] | lim G(t) | G(t) | | |
| | | lim F(t) - lim | [lim F(t)] [lim | $\lim F(t) +$ | lim F(t) - lim | | |
| $\lim [F(t) - G(t)] =$ | $\lim F(t) - G(t)$ | G(t) | G(t)] | lim G(t) | G(t) | | |
| | lim F(t) - lim | $[\lim F(t)] x$ | $\lim F(t) + \lim$ | [lim F(t)] [| [lim F(t)] [| | |
| lim [F(t) . G(t)] = | G(t) | lim G(t)] | G(t) | lim G(t)] | lim G(t)] | | |
| | lim F(t) - lim | $[\lim F(t)] x$ | $\lim F(t) + \lim$ | [lim F(t)] [| $[\lim F(t)] x [$ | | |
| $\lim [F(t) \times G(t)] =$ | G(t) | lim G(t)] | G(t) | lim G(t)] | lim G(t)] | | |

| A vector function F(t) is said to be at t if t | | | | | |
|---|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|--|
| is in the domain of F | bounded | continuous | differentiable | derivative | continuous |
| | lim [F(t) + | lim [F(t) x | lim [F(t) . G(t) | lim [F(t) - | lim [F(t) + |
| $\lim F(t) + \lim G(t) =$ | G(t)] | G(t)] |] | G(t)] | G(t)] |
| The planets moves about the sun in elliptical orbit, | | | | | |
| with the sun at focus | one | two | three | four | one |
| mass x acceleration = | speed | velocity | force | momentum | force |
| The derivative of velocity is equal to | speed | acceleration | force | momentum | acceleration |
| The square of the time ofcomplete revolution | | | | | |
| of a planet about its orbit is proportional to the | | | | | |
| cube of the length of the semi major axis of its | | | | | |
| orbit. | four | one | two | three | one |
| The magnitude of velocity is a | momentum | force | speed | acceleration | speed |
| The derivative of position is a | momentum | velocity | speed | acceleration | velocity |
| | lim [F(t) + | lim [F(t) x | lim [F(t) . G(t) | lim [F(t) - | lim [F(t) x |
| $[\lim F(t)] x \ [\lim G(t)]$ | G(t)] | G(t)] |] | G(t)] | G(t)] |
| | | <pre>/</pre> | | (1) | |
| If a, b and c are vectors in R then $(c.a)b - (b.a)c =$ | ax(bxc) | (a x c) x b | (b x c) x a | c x (a x b) | a x (b x c) |
| If v is a vector the v x $0 =$ | 1 | 0 | V | (-v) | 0 |
| If v and w are vectors and s and t are scalars then | | | | | |
| st(v x w) = | st(v) . st(w) | $st(v) \ge st(w)$ | $s(v) \ge t(w)$ | $s(v) \cdot t(w)$ | $s(v) \ge t(w)$ |
| | (F' . G)(t) - (F) | | | (F' . G)(t) + | $(F' \cdot G)(t) +$ |
| $(F \cdot G)'(t) =$ | . G')(t) | $F'(t) \cdot G'(t)$ | F' G' (t) | (F.G')(t) | $(\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{G}')(\mathbf{t})$ |
| | $(F' \times G)(t) +$ | | | (F' . G)(t) + | $(F' \times G)(t) +$ |
| $(F \times G)'(t) =$ | $(F \times G')(t)$ | $F'(t) \ge G'(t)$ | F'x G' (t) | (F . G')(t) | (F x G')(t) |
| Range of the projectile is | $v^2 \sin \alpha$ | 2v / g | $v^2 \sin \alpha / g$ | 2v sinα/g | v ² sinα/g |
| Time of flight of a projectile is | $v^2 \sin \alpha / g$ | 2v sinα/g | $v^2 \sin \alpha$ | 2v / g | 2v sinα/g |
| The square of the time of one complete revolution | | | | | |
| of a planet about its orbit is to the cube of | | | | | |
| the length of the semi major axis of its orbit. | greater than | proportional | less than | equal to | proportional |

| The square of the time of one complete revolution | | | | | |
|--|---------------------------------|--------------|--|---|---|
| of a planet about its orbit is proportional to the | | | | | |
| cube of the of the semi major axis of its | | | | | |
| orbit. | radius | length | distance | center | length |
| | lim [F(t) + | lim [F(t) x | lim [F(t) . G(t) | lim [F(t) - | lim [F(t) . |
| $[\lim F(t)] [\lim G(t)] =$ | G(t)] | G(t)] |] | G(t)] | G(t)] |
| | | | | Time of | |
| of the projectile is $v^2 \sin \alpha/g$ | speed | Range | Distance | flight | Range |
| | | | | Time of | |
| of the projectile is 2vsinα/g | speed | Range | Distance | flight | Time of flight |
| $F(t) \cdot G(t) =$ | (F + G)(t) | (F - G)(t) | (F x G) (t) | (F . G) (t) | $(F \cdot G)(t)$ |
| $F(t) \times G(t) =$ | (F + G)(t) | (F - G)(t) | (F x G) (t) | (F . G) (t) | (F x G) (t) |
| F(t) - G(t) = | $(\mathbf{F} + \mathbf{G})$ (t) | (F - G)(t) | $(\mathbf{F} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{G})(\mathbf{f})$ | $(\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{G})(\mathbf{f})$ | $(\mathbf{F} - \mathbf{G})(\mathbf{f})$ |
| | $(\Gamma + O)(l)$ | (1 - 0)(t) | $(\mathbf{I} \times \mathbf{O})(\mathbf{i})$ | (1.0)(0) | $(1 \ 0)(l)$ |

| Reg. No | | | 7. sinh(-x) = | - | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------|--|
| (18MMU101) | | | | a) (- coshx) | b) sinh2x | |
| NAKP | AGAM ACA C | 8. What is the third | derivative of | | | |
| | DEPARTM | ENT OF MA | THEMATICS | a) 1 | b) 6 | |
| | | First Semeste | er | 9. Differentiation of sinhx = | | |
| | I Inte | ernal Test - Ju | ly'2018 | a) (- coshx) | b) sinh2x | |
| Date : 3 Class : I | 1.07.2018 (FN B. Sc Mathen | I) natics | Time : 2 Hours Maximum: 50 Marks | 10. If $x = 0$ then co | sh x = | |
| | | A (00 1 0 | | a) (-1) | b) 1 | |
| PART - A (20 x $1 = 20$ Marks) | | | 11. Range of tanhx | is | | |
| Answer all t | he questions: | | | a) (-1, -1) | b) (1, 1) | |
| 1. The odd pa | arts of e ^x is call | led the hyperbo | olic | 12. The is def | fined to be the | |
| a) cosine | b) tangent | c) sine | d) secant | a) f ² | b) f ⁿ | |
| 2. $\cosh^2 x$ - sin | $nh^2x = $ | | | 13. $\cosh x \cosh y + s$ | sinhx sinhy = | |
| a) 1 | b) 0 | c) cosh2x | d) sinh2x | a) $\cosh(x + y)$ | b) sin(x - y | |
| 3. If $f(x) = cc$ | sechx cothx dy | x, then find f'(x | x). | 14. Differentiation | of $y = In$ (sinf | |
| a) —sinhx | b) –sechx | c) –tanhx | d) –cosechx | a) sinhx | b) cothx | |
| 4. $\int (1/x) dx =$ | : | | | 15. ∫tan hx dx = | | |
| a) x | b) 2x | c) log x | d) x ² | a) In(sinhx) | b) In(sech | |
| 5. For | , f ⁿ is called | the higher or | ler derivative of f. | 16. Find the second | l derivative of | |
| a) n=0 | b) n>1 | c) n<1 | d) n | a) e^{2x} | b) 2e ^{2x} | |
| 6. What is the | e value of f''(a) |) when $f(x)=x^2$ | (1-2x); if a=2? | 17. For $f(x) = \sinh(x)$ | (x), what is th | |
| a) 22 | b) 24 | c) -24 | d) -22 | a) sinhx | b) cothx | |
| | | | | | | |

| $\operatorname{Sim}(-x) = ____$ | | | | | | | | |
|--|---------------------|-------------------|---------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| a) (- coshx) | b) sinh2x | c) coshx | d) (- sinhx) | | | | | |
| What is the third derivative of x^3-3x^2+4x-1 ? | | | | | | | | |
| a) 1 | b) 6 | c) 2 | d) 0 | | | | | |
| Differentiation of sinhx = | | | | | | | | |
| a) (- coshx) | b) sinh2x | c) coshx | d) (-sinhx) | | | | | |
| . If $x = 0$ then cosh | x = | | | | | | | |
| a) (-1) | b) 1 | c) 0 | d) 2 | | | | | |
| . Range of tanhx is | | | | | | | | |
| a) (-1, -1) | b) (1, 1) | c) (0, 1) | d) (-1, 1) | | | | | |
| . The is defined to be the derivative of $(n-1)^{th}$ derivative of f. | | | | | | | | |
| a) f ² | b) f ⁿ | c) f ³ | d) f ⁿ⁻¹ | | | | | |
| . coshx coshy + sin | hx sinhy = | | | | | | | |
| a) $\cosh(x + y)$ | b) sin(x - y) | c) cosh(x - y) |) d) $\sinh(x + y)$ | | | | | |
| . Differentiation of | y = In (sinhx) | is | | | | | | |
| a) sinhx | b) cothx | c) tanhx | d) coshx | | | | | |
| $\int \tan hx dx =$ | | | | | | | | |
| a) In(sinhx) | b) In(sechx) | c) In(coshx) | d) cothx | | | | | |
| . Find the second derivative of e^{2x} . | | | | | | | | |
| a) e^{2x} | b) 2e ^{2x} | c) $4e^{2x}$ | d) $(-e^{2x})$ | | | | | |
| . For $f(x) = \sinh(x)$, what is the value of $f''(x)$? | | | | | | | | |
| a) sinhx | b) cothx | c) tanhx | d) sechx | | | | | |

18. $\int \operatorname{sechx} \tanh x \, dx =$ _____ a) cothx b) sechx c) $\sinh x$ d) coshx 19. $\sinh (2x) =$ ______ a) $2 \sinh x \cosh x$ b) $\sinh x + \cosh x$ c) $\cosh x \cosh x$ d) $\sinh x \cosh x$ 20. $\sinh x =$ ______ a) $\frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$ b) $\frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{1}$ c) $\frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{1}$ d) $\frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$

 $PART - B (3 \times 2 = 6 \text{ Marks})$

Answer all the questions:

- 21. Find the derivative of $f(x)=5x^3-2x^2+6x+1$.
- 22. Prove that $\sinh 2x = 2\sinh x \cosh x$.

23. Find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ when y=e^{3x}cosh4x

$$PART - C$$
 (3 x 8 =24 Marks)

Answer all the questions:

24. a) Find the integral of $\int 4^{sinh2x} \cosh 2x \, dx$.

(**OR**)

b) If
$$y = \sin(msin^{-1}x)$$
, prove that $(1 - x^2)y_2 - xy_1 + m^2y = 0$ and hence show that $(1 + x^2)y_{n+2} - (2n + 1)xy_{n+1} + (m^2 - n^2)y_n = 0$. Also find $y_n a + x = 0$.

25. a) Show that i) $tanh(x + y) = \frac{tanhx + tanhy}{1 + tanhxtanhy}$. ii) $cosh^2 x - sinh^2 x = 1$.

(**OR**)

b) Find the nth derivative of cosx cos2x cos3x.

25. a) State and prove Leibniz Rule for nth derivative.

(OR) b) If $I_n = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \tan^n x \, dx$ then prove that $I_n + I_{n-2} = \frac{1}{n-1}$ and hence evaluate I₅