

CHAP. 2. CURVES, LENGTHS, SURFACES & AREAS .

Recall the 3 ways to specify a curve in 2D x, y :

i) $y = f(x)$

ii) $g(x, y) = c$

iii) $x = f(t), y = g(t)$

t is PARAMETER .

t has defined DOMAIN

(eg $-\infty < t < \infty$, or $0 \leq t \leq 1$)

Curve is set of all points

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

for t in given domain.

Parametric curves can express complex curves which are very messy in the other forms.

Given a curve C , and a point P ,
it may be hard to find if given
point P is on the curve !

e.g. given $P = (x_0, y_0)$,

solve for $f(t_0) = x_0$ or $g(t_0) = y_0$,

then test the other equation.

Parametric curves : Examples :

Straight line :

$$x = x_0 + at$$

$$y = y_0 + bt$$

Line through (x_0, y_0) with slope $\frac{b}{a}$.

Rearrange to $y = y_0 + (b/a)(x - x_0)$

Circle :

$$x^2 + y^2 = a^2$$

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

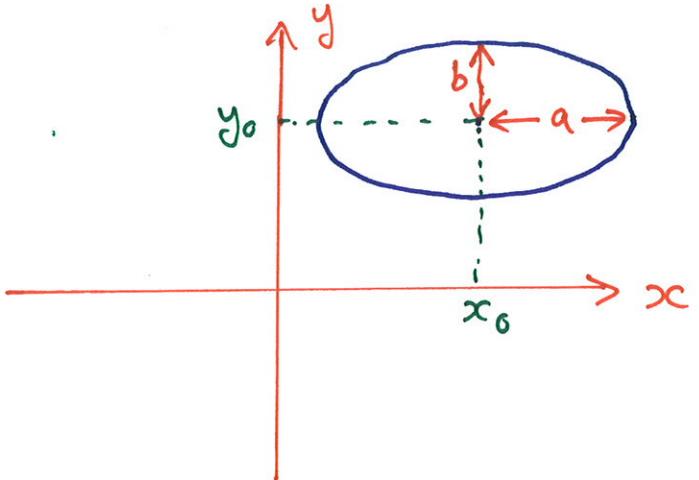
$x = a \cos t$, $y = a \sin t$
obviously satisfies this.

Ellipse: $x = a \cos t$, $y = b \sin t$
 (centroid $(0,0)$)

Ellipse with centroid (x_0, y_0) :

$$x = x_0 + a \cos t$$

$$y = y_0 + b \sin t.$$



Note domain of t :

If ~~$t = -\infty$~~ $-\infty < t < \infty$, curve 'wraps round' ellipse infinitely many times.

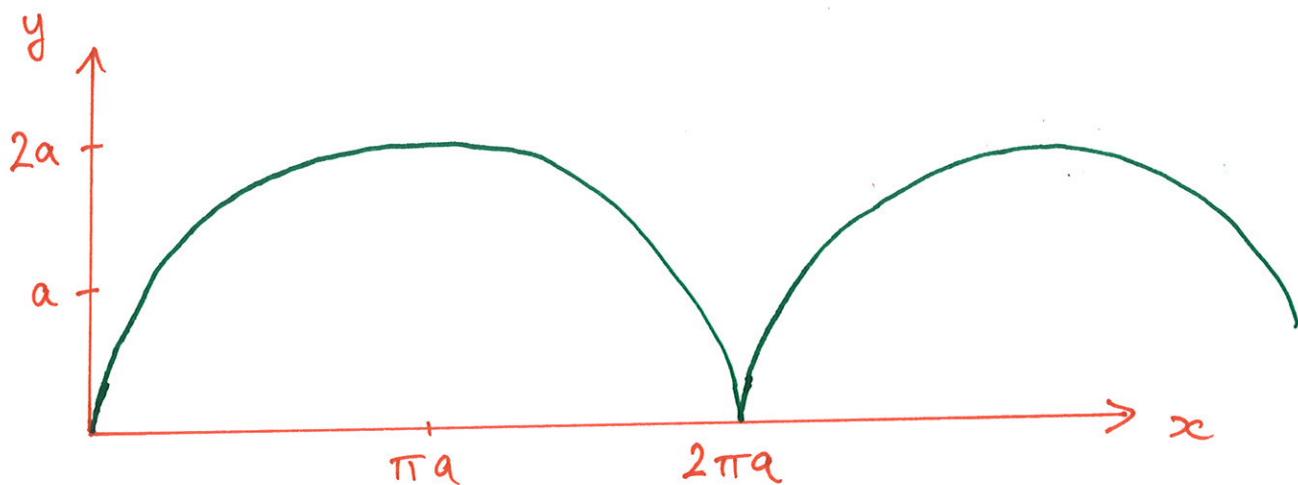
To go round ellipse exactly once,

$$\text{use } 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi.$$

The Cycloid :

$$x = a(t - \sin t)$$

$$y = a(1 - \cos t)$$



This is the curve traced by a point on a "circular 'wheel'" rolling along the x -axis.

[There are generalisations of circles rolling inside / outside another circle, called epicycloid and hypocycloid.]

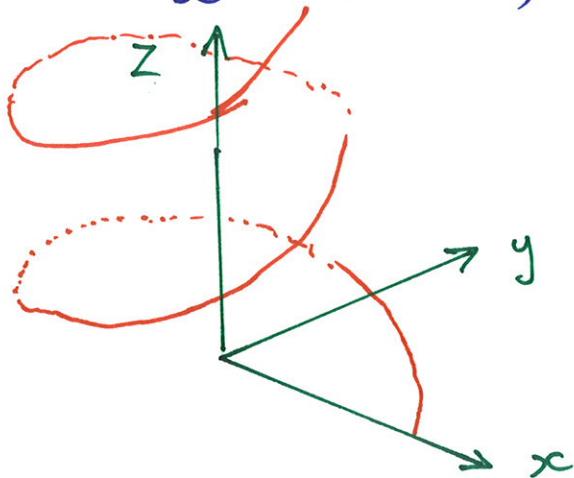
2.1.4 Parametric Curves in 3 dimensions.

It is simple to extend to 3-D by adding a 3rd function $z = h(t)$, so

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

Example : Helix .

$$x = a \cos t, \quad y = a \sin t, \quad z = bt.$$

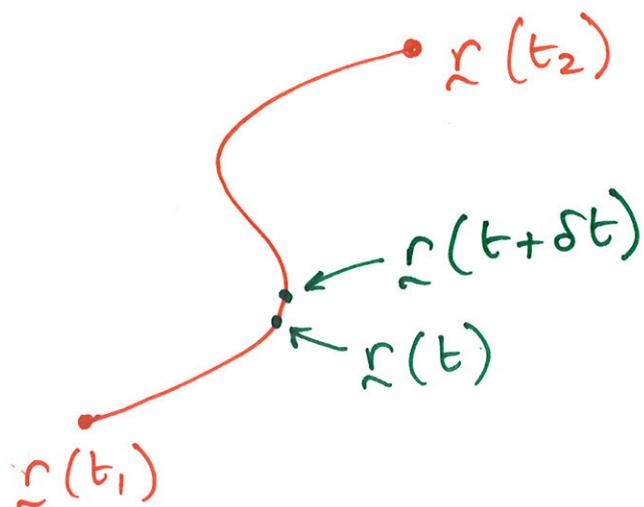


Projects onto a circle in x/y plane,
so every point on curve is distance a
from the z -axis,
but its z -coordinate increases by
 $2\pi b$ per revolution .

2.2 ARC-LENGTH OF A CURVE.

Suppose we have a parametric curve given by $\underline{r} = \underline{r}(t)$
 $= (f(t), g(t), h(t))$.

What is the length of the curve between points $\underline{r}(t_1)$ and $\underline{r}(t_2)$?



Consider a point $\underline{r}(t)$ and a neighbouring point $\underline{r}(t + \delta t)$:

vector distance between them is

$$\underline{r}(t + \delta t) - \underline{r}(t) \approx \frac{d\underline{r}}{dt} \delta t$$

Let ds be the length of the above,

$$ds = |\underline{r}(t + \delta t) - \underline{r}(t)| = \left| \frac{d\underline{r}}{dt} \right| \delta t.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{So } \frac{ds}{dt} &= \left| \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} \right| \\
 &= \left| \left(\frac{df}{dt}, \frac{dg}{dt}, \frac{dh}{dt} \right) \right| \\
 &= \sqrt{\left(\frac{df}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dg}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dh}{dt} \right)^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Get arc-length L
by summing up all these infinitesimal
line-segments,

$$L = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \sqrt{\left(\frac{df}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dg}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dh}{dt} \right)^2} dt$$

(in 2 dimensions, just set $z = h(t) = 0$)

Note : you may be given a parametric curve with end points given as (x_1, y_1, z_1) and (x_2, y_2, z_2) . In this case you need to solve for t_1 and t_2 giving those endpoints - solve whichever of the 3 eqns. is simplest, then check other two.

Example 2.1 :

The curve C is given by

$$x = t, \quad y = t^2, \quad z = \frac{2}{3}t^3.$$

Evaluate the arc-length of C between points $(0, 0, 0)$ and $(2, 4, \frac{16}{3})$.

Since $x = t$, clearly $t_1 = 0$ and $t_2 = 2$.

Then $\frac{dx}{dt} = 1, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = 2t, \quad \frac{dz}{dt} = 2t^2$

$$L = \int_0^2 \sqrt{1^2 + (2t)^2 + (2t^2)^2} dt$$

$$= \int_0^2 \sqrt{1 + 4t^2 + 4t^4} dt$$

$$= \int_0^2 1 + 2t^2 dt$$

$$= \left[t + \frac{2}{3}t^3 \right]_0^2 = \frac{22}{3}.$$

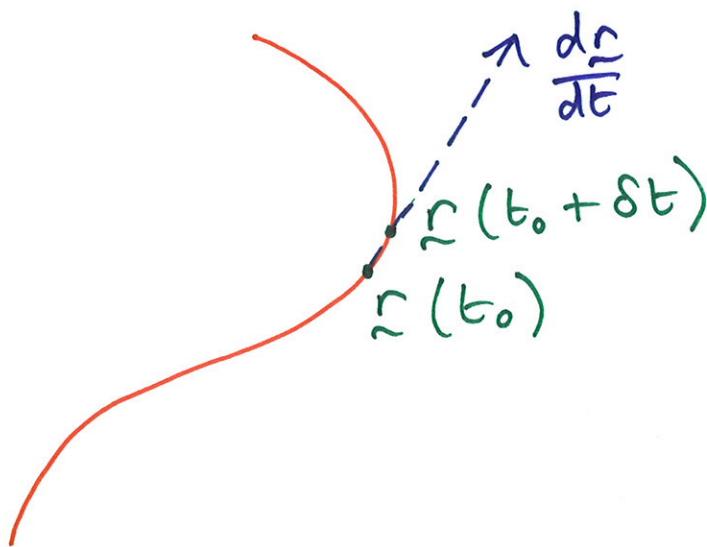
2.2.1 TANGENT VECTOR TO A CURVE.

Given a parametric curve

$$\underline{r} = \underline{r}(t) = (f(t), g(t), h(t))$$

we can differentiate w.r.t. t , giving

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\underline{r}}{dt} &= \lim_{\delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\underline{r}(t + \delta t) - \underline{r}(t)}{\delta t} \\ &= \left(\frac{df}{dt}, \frac{dg}{dt}, \frac{dh}{dt} \right).\end{aligned}$$



So tangent line to our curve at $\underline{r}(t_0)$ goes through $\underline{r}_0 = \underline{r}(t_0)$, and is parallel to $\frac{d\underline{r}}{dt} \Big|_{t_0}$,

eqn. of line is $\underline{r} = \underline{r}_0 + u \frac{d\underline{r}}{dt} \Big|_{t_0}$.

WARNING :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\tilde{r}}{dt} &= \left(\frac{df}{dt}, \frac{dg}{dt}, \frac{dh}{dt} \right) \\ &= \frac{df}{dt} \hat{i} + \frac{dg}{dt} \hat{j} + \frac{dh}{dt} \hat{k}\end{aligned}$$

looks a bit like

$$\tilde{\nabla}f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \hat{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \hat{k}.$$

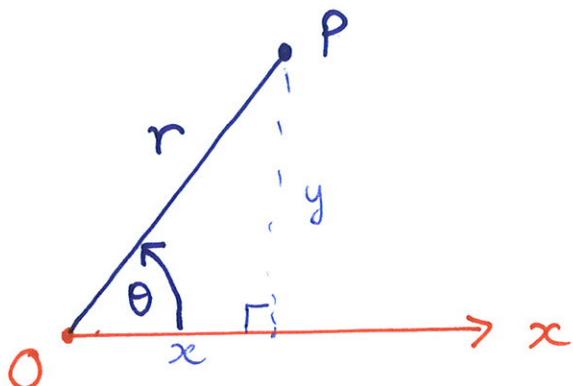
BUT

$\frac{d\tilde{r}}{dt}(t)$ has 3 fns (for x, y, z) of t ,
all differentiated w.r.t t .

$\tilde{\nabla}f$ has 1 fn $f(x, y, z)$
and partial derivatives.

2.3 CURVES IN POLAR COORDS.

Sometimes it is convenient to work in ^{2D} plane polar coordinates : radius r and angle θ .



r is distance from origin

θ is angle anticlockwise from $+x$ axis.

Easy to see $x = r \cos \theta$
 $y = r \sin \theta$

Other way : $r = \pm \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$
 $\theta = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) + n\pi$

Note $r, \theta \rightarrow x, y$ is unique

$x, y \rightarrow r, \theta$ is NOT unique

e.g. (r, θ) and $(r, \theta + 2n\pi)$

and $(-r, \theta + (2n+1)\pi)$

are the same point.

We can now define curves in polar coords as

$$r = f(\theta)$$

eg $r = a + b\theta$ - Archimedes spiral
 $r = a e^{k\theta}$ - logarithmic spiral.

2.3.1 CONICS IN POLAR COORDS

The polar equation

$$r = \frac{l}{1 + e \cos \theta}$$

\nwarrow Not 2.718!

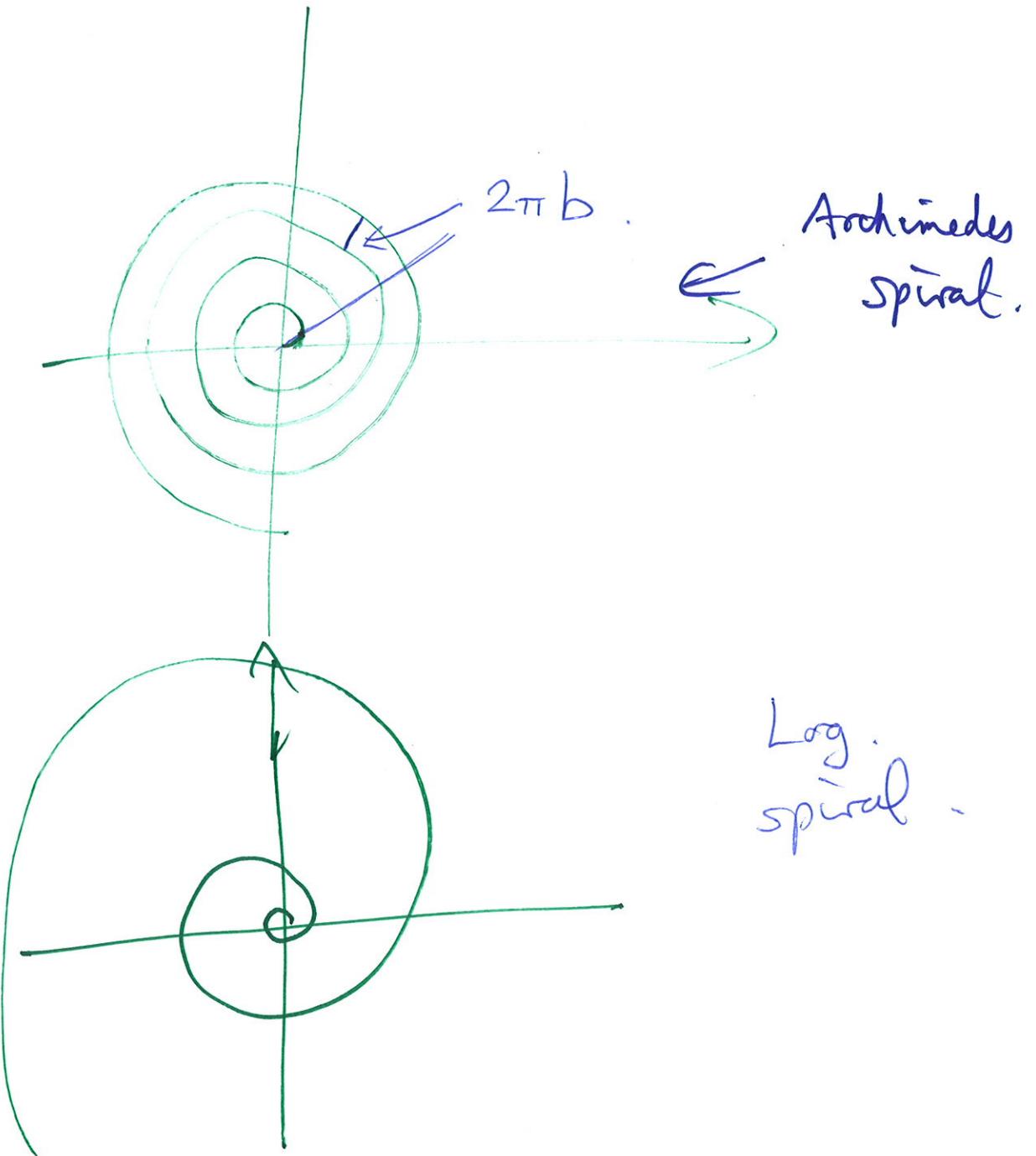
can give all the conic sections depending on e :

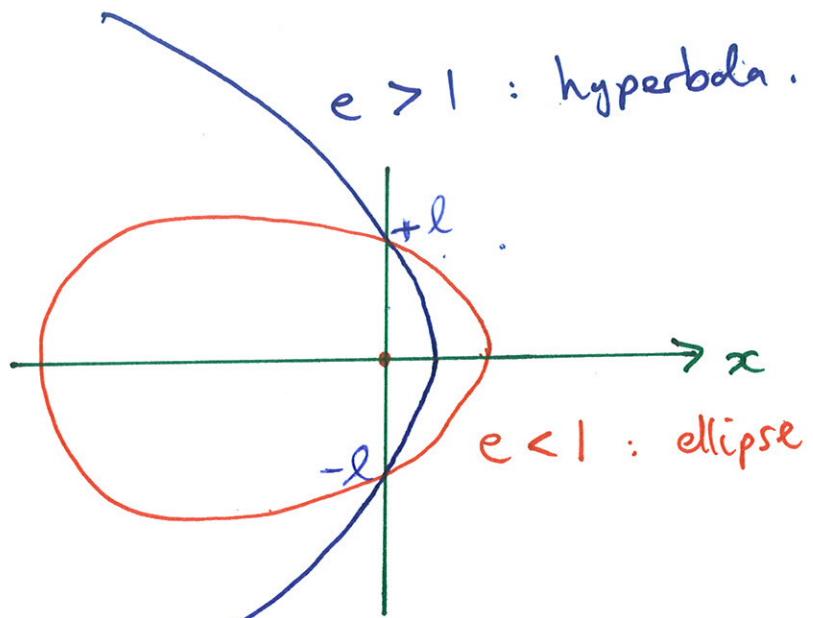
$e = 0$: circle

$0 < e < 1$: ellipse

$e = 1$: parabola

$e > 1$: hyperbola.





Curve cuts y -axis at $\pm l$.

Origin is ~~a~~ a focus, not the centroid (unless $e = 0$).

2.3.2 ARC-LENGTH IN POLAR COORDS.

Given $r = f(\theta)$,
we convert back to Cartesians and get

$$x = f(\theta) \cos \theta$$

$$y = f(\theta) \sin \theta$$

This looks like a parametric curve with
 θ as the parameter -

now we use Eq. 2.11 for arc-length

$$L = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2} dt.$$

$$\text{and } \frac{dx}{d\theta} = -f(\theta) \sin \theta + \frac{df}{d\theta} \cos \theta$$

$$\frac{dy}{d\theta} = f(\theta) \cos \theta + \frac{df}{d\theta} \sin \theta.$$

$$\Rightarrow L = \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \sqrt{\left[f(\theta)\right]^2 + \left(\frac{df}{d\theta}\right)^2} d\theta \quad (2.27)$$

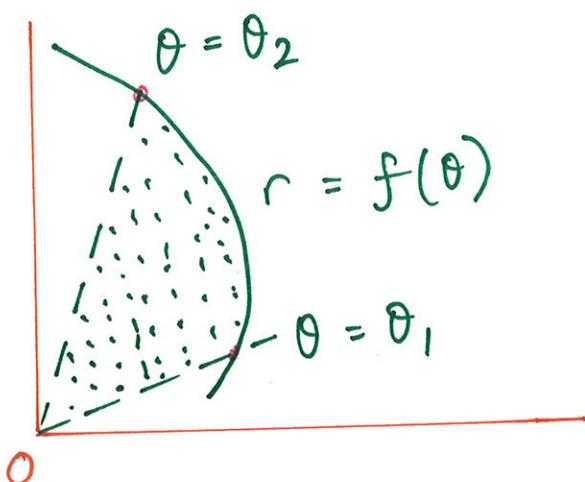
Note : This is different from 2.14.

2.3.3 AREA IN POLAR COORDS.

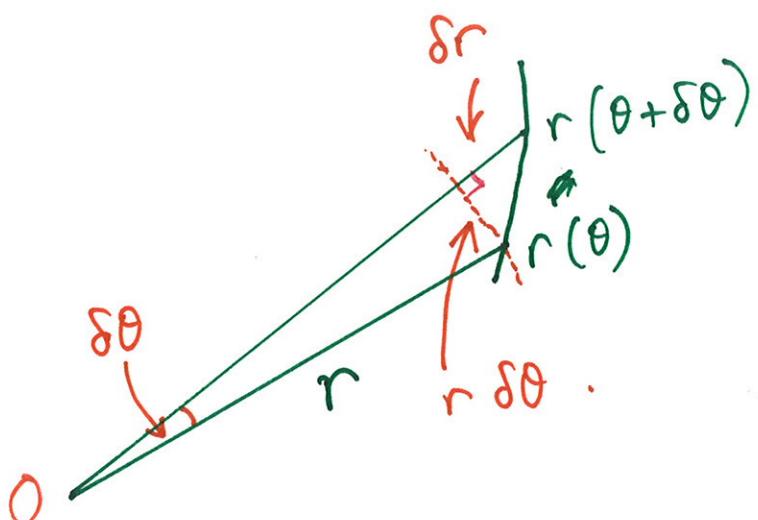
Given a polar curve

$$r = f(\theta),$$

suppose we want the area shown :

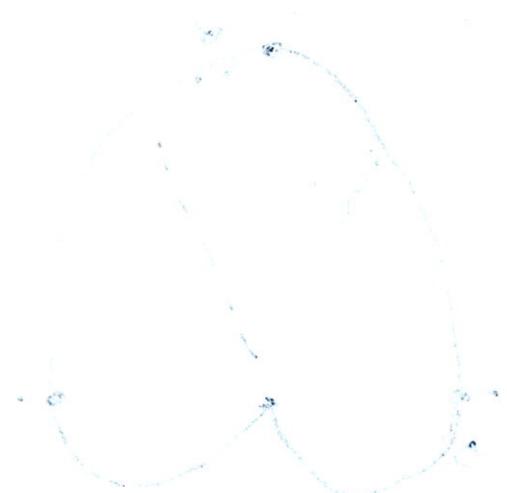
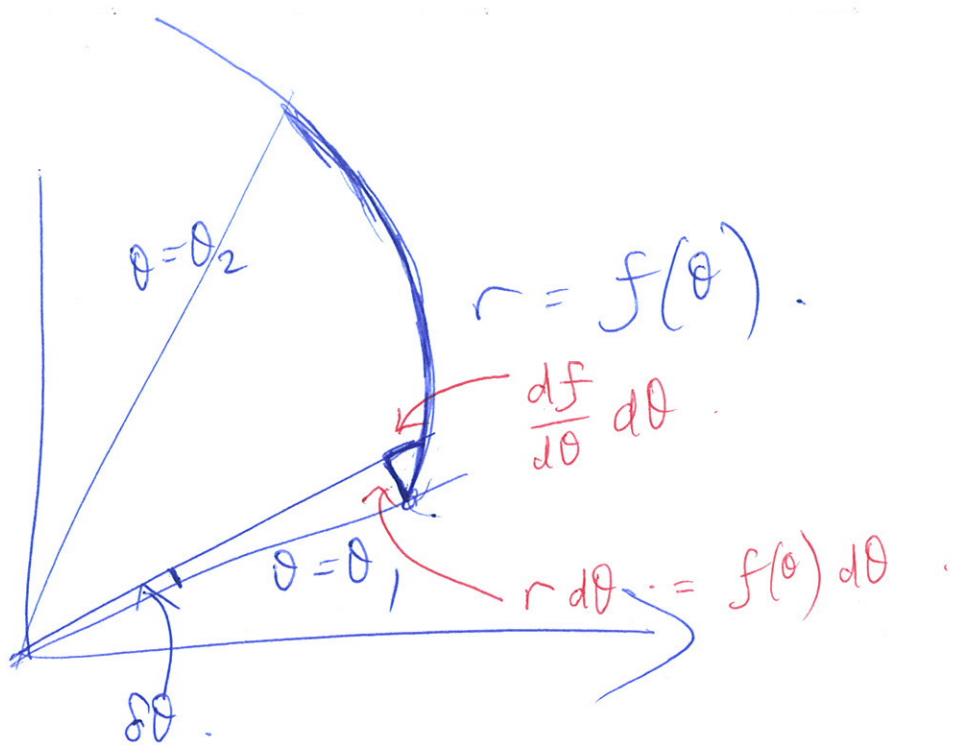


Consider a small interval from θ to $\theta + \delta\theta$:



As $\delta\theta \rightarrow 0$, area tends to isosceles triangle with length r and perp. base $r\delta\theta$

$$\Rightarrow dA = \frac{1}{2} r^2 d\theta.$$

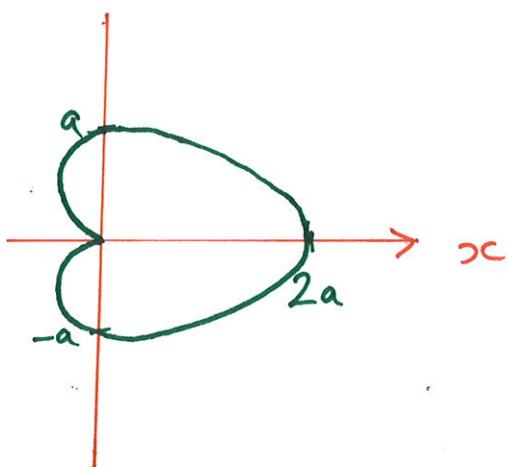


$$\Rightarrow A = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} [f(\theta)]^2 d\theta$$

2.28

Example 2.3:

'Cardioid' $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$



$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Area } A &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} [a(1 + \cos \theta)]^2 d\theta \\
 &= \frac{a^2}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} [1 + 2\cos \theta + \cos^2 \theta] d\theta \\
 &= \frac{a^2}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} [1 + 2\cos \theta + \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2\theta)] d\theta \\
 &= \frac{a^2}{2} \left[\theta + 2\sin \theta + \frac{\theta}{2} + \frac{1}{4}\sin 2\theta \right]_0^{2\pi} \\
 &= \frac{a^2}{2} [2\pi + \pi] = \frac{3\pi a^2}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

2.4 PARAMETRIC SURFACES IN 3-D.

Previously we have met parametric curves in 2D and 3D,

$$\text{eg } \underline{r} = \underline{r}(t) \quad - \text{one parameter } t.$$

The next step is to define a surface in 3D space.

A plane is the simplest type of surface, but we will generalise to curved surfaces.

A surface requires **TWO** parameters - we'll call these u, v so

$$x = f(u, v) \quad y = g(u, v) \quad z = h(u, v)$$

or $\underline{r} = \underline{r}(u, v)$ for short.

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{r} = & f(u, v) \underline{i} + g(u, v) \underline{j} \\ & + h(u, v) \underline{k}. \end{aligned}$$

We have seen $\underline{r}(u, v_0)$ and $\underline{r}(u_0, v)$ are lines on the surface.

From 2.2.1, $\frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial u}(u, v_0)$
 $= \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial g}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial h}{\partial u} \right)$ at (u, v_0)

is the tangent vector to line $\underline{r}(u, v_0)$.

Likewise $\frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial v}(u_0, v)$ is the tangent vector to the line $\underline{r}(u_0, v)$.

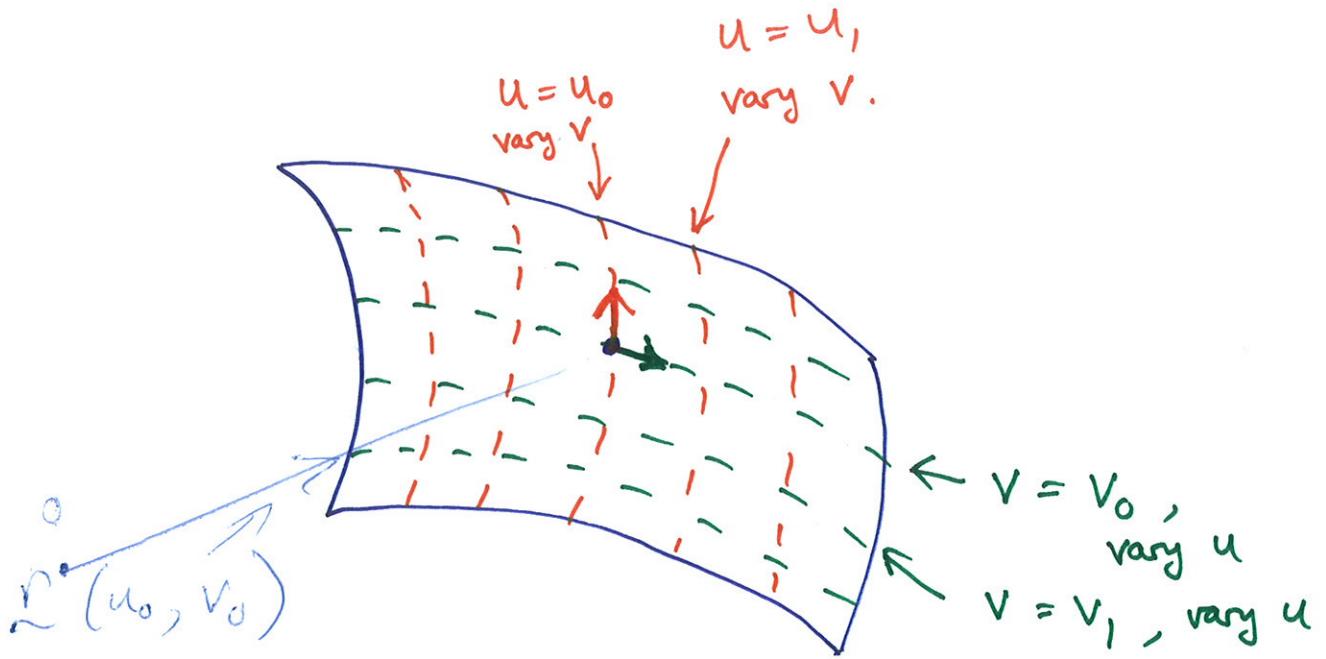
So both $\frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial u}$ and $\frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial v}$ are ^{both} tangent to the surface.

Now take

$$\underline{N} = \frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial v}$$

$\underline{N} \neq \underline{0}$ as long as both $\frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial v}$ are non-zero and non-parallel.

then \underline{N} is normal to the surface.



Fix $v = v_0$, vary u :

$$\underline{r} = \underline{r}(u, v_0) \text{ is a line}$$

Fix $u = u_0$, vary v :

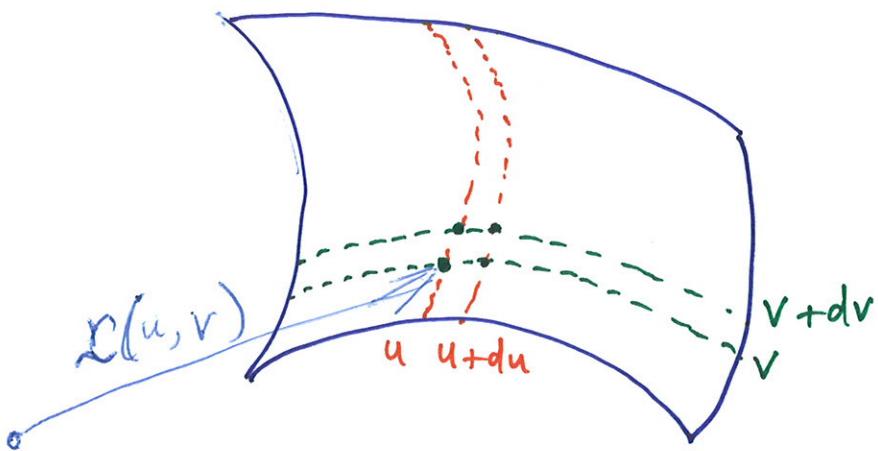
$$\underline{r} = \underline{r}(u_0, v) \text{ is a different line}$$

Lines cross at $\underline{r}(u_0, v_0)$.

In general the curved surface is 'covered' with lines of constant ~~not~~ u, v :

imagine printing graph paper onto a balloon, then inflating it.

AREA OF A SURFACE :



Consider a point $\underline{r}(u, v)$ in the surface, and small changes du, dv :

the four points

$$\underline{r}(u, v)$$

$$\underline{r}(u+du, v)$$

$$\underline{r}(u, v+dv)$$

$$\underline{r}(u+du, v+dv)$$

make an infinitesimal parallelogram in the surface. (ignoring second derivatives).

Two sides are

$$\underline{r}(u+du, v) - \underline{r}(u, v) = \frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial u} du$$

and $\underline{r}(u, v+dv) - \underline{r}(u, v) = \frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial v} dv$

Now we can find the equation for the tangent plane to our surface at point $\tilde{r}(u_0, v_0) = \tilde{r}(u_0, v_0)$:

evaluate $\frac{\partial \tilde{r}}{\partial u}$, $\frac{\partial \tilde{r}}{\partial v}$ at (u_0, v_0)

evaluate cross-product $\tilde{N}_0 = \frac{\partial \tilde{r}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \tilde{r}}{\partial v}$
at u_0, v_0 .

Tan. plane is $(\tilde{r} - \tilde{r}_0) \cdot \tilde{N}_0 = 0$.

NOTE : if we're given point $\tilde{r}_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$,
first need to solve for u_0, v_0 giving
that point.

dA

The area Δ of this parallelogram is the magnitude of the cross-product,

$$dA = \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} du \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} dv \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} \right| du dv.$$

Area of whole ^{'patchy'} ~~surface~~ is integral of this,

$$A = \iint_D \left| \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} \right| du dv \quad (2.34).$$

Limits on u, v set to 'cover' the given patch of the surface.

Special case: For a surface given by
 $z = h(x, y)$ (explicit form)

just let $u = x, v = y$,

so $\mathbf{r} = \text{R}(x, y, h(x, y))$

Now $\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u} = (1, 0, \frac{\partial h}{\partial u})$

$\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v} = (0, 1, \frac{\partial h}{\partial v})$.

Cross-product is $\left(-\frac{\partial h}{\partial u}, -\frac{\partial h}{\partial v}, 1 \right)$

$$\text{so } A = \iint_D \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}\right)^2 + 1} dx dy. \quad (2.35)$$

Example 2.4 :

Area of a sphere. radius a

A parametrisation of a sphere is

$$x = a \sin \theta \cos \phi$$

$$y = a \sin \theta \sin \phi$$

$$z = a \cos \theta$$

$$0 \leq \theta \leq \pi, \quad 0 \leq \phi \leq 2\pi$$

Here we've got θ, ϕ instead of u, v ,
(as in spherical polar coords - see later).

Easy to show $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$.

Get :

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial \theta} = (a \cos \theta \cos \phi, a \cos \theta \sin \phi, -a \sin \theta)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial \phi} = (-a \sin \theta \sin \phi, a \sin \theta \cos \phi, 0)$$

Cross product is

$$\frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial \theta} \times \frac{\partial \underline{r}}{\partial \phi} = \left(a^2 \sin^2 \theta \cos \phi, a^2 \sin^2 \theta \sin \phi, a^2 \cancel{\sin \theta} \cos \theta \right)$$

(~~as~~ [NB this ~~is~~ $\hat{a} \sin \theta \underline{r}$ - it must be normal to the sphere so parallel to \underline{r}])

and this has magnitude $a^2 \sin \theta$.

So area of sphere is

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} a^2 \sin \theta \, d\theta \, d\phi \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \left[-a^2 \cos \theta \right]_0^\pi \, d\phi \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} 2a^2 \, d\phi \\ &= 4\pi a^2. \end{aligned}$$

2.4.1 PARAMETRIC FORMS OF COMMON SURFACES:

Plane: $\underline{r}(u, v) = \underline{r}_0 + u \underline{a} + v \underline{b}$

For \underline{r}_0 any point in the plane,
 $\underline{a}, \underline{b}$ two vectors parallel to plane.

Finite parallelogram:
as above with $0 \leq u \leq 1,$
 $0 \leq v \leq 1,$

get parallelogram with one corner
at \underline{r}_0 and two sides $\underline{a}, \underline{b}.$

(so 4 corners are $\underline{r}_0, \underline{r}_0 + \underline{a},$
 $\underline{r}_0 + \underline{b}, \underline{r}_0 + \underline{a} + \underline{b}).$

Cylinder: $(x, y, z) = (a \cos \theta, a \sin \theta, z)$
Params. $\theta, z.$

→ Cylinder, radius $a,$
axis is z -axis

Sphere :

$$(x, y, z) = (a \sin \theta \cos \phi, a \sin \theta \sin \phi, a \cos \theta)$$

Easy to check $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$.

Ellipsoid :

$$(x, y, z) = (a \sin \theta \cos \phi, b \sin \theta \sin \phi, c \cos \theta)$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1.$$

Semi-axes are a, b, c .

Hyperboloid :

$$(x, y, z) = (a \cos u, b \sin u \cosh v, c \sin u \sinh v)$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1 .$$