

MULTIVARIABLE CALCULUS



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Multivariable Calculus, Eighth Edition

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To my family

Contents

PREFACE xi

11.6

11.7

11.8

11.9

TO THE STUDENT xxii **Parametric Equations and Polar Coordinates** 679 10.1 Curves Defined by Parametric Equations 680 Laboratory Project • Running Circles Around Circles 688 10.2 Calculus with Parametric Curves 689 Laboratory Project • Bézier Curves 697 10.3 Polar Coordinates 698 Laboratory Project • Families of Polar Curves 708 10.4 Areas and Lengths in Polar Coordinates 709 10.5 Conic Sections 714 10.6 Conic Sections in Polar Coordinates 722 Review 729 **Problems Plus 732 Infinite Sequences and Series** 733 11.1 Sequences 734 Laboratory Project • Logistic Sequences 747 11.2 Series 747 11.3 The Integral Test and Estimates of Sums 759 11.4 The Comparison Tests 767 11.5 Alternating Series 772

Absolute Convergence and the Ratio and Root Tests 777

Writing Project • How Newton Discovered the Binomial Series 813

Representations of Functions as Power Series 792

Laboratory Project • An Elusive Limit 813

Strategy for Testing Series 784

Power Series 786

11.10 Taylor and Maclaurin Series 799

	Problems Plus 827			
12	Vect	tors and the Geometry of Space	831	
	12.1 12.2 12.3	Three-Dimensional Coordinate Systems 832 Vectors 838 The Dot Product 847		
	12.4	The Cross Product 854 Discovery Project • The Geometry of a Tetrahedron 863		
	12.5	Equations of Lines and Planes 863 Laboratory Project • Putting 3D in Perspective 873		
	12.6	Cylinders and Quadric Surfaces 874 Review 881		
	Proble	ems Plus 884		
13	Vect	tor Functions	887	
	13.1	Vector Functions and Space Curves 888		
The same of the sa	13.2	Derivatives and Integrals of Vector Functions 895		
The state of	13.3	Arc Length and Curvature 901		
	13.4	Motion in Space: Velocity and Acceleration 910		
and the second		Applied Project • Kepler's Laws 920		
		Review 921		
	Proble	ems Plus 924		
14	Partial Derivatives		927	
A	14.1	Functions of Several Variables 928		
	14.2	Limits and Continuity 943		
	14.3	Partial Derivatives 951		
de	14.4	Tangent Planes and Linear Approximations 967		
C. C		Applied Project • The Speedo LZR Racer 976		
	14.5	The Chain Rule 977		
	14.6	Directional Derivatives and the Gradient Vector 986		

11.11 Applications of Taylor Polynomials 814

Review 824

Applied Project • Radiation from the Stars 823

Contents 14.7 Maximum and Minimum Values 999 Applied Project • Designing a Dumpster 1010 Discovery Project • Quadratic Approximations and Critical Points 1010 Lagrange Multipliers 1011 14.8 Applied Project • Rocket Science 1019 Applied Project • Hydro-Turbine Optimization 1020 Review 1021 **Problems Plus 1025 Multiple Integrals** 1027 15.1 Double Integrals over Rectangles 1028 15.2 Double Integrals over General Regions 1041 15.3 Double Integrals in Polar Coordinates 1050 15.4 Applications of Double Integrals 1056 15.5 Surface Area 1066 15.6 Triple Integrals 1069 Discovery Project • Volumes of Hyperspheres 1080 15.7 Triple Integrals in Cylindrical Coordinates 1080 Discovery Project • The Intersection of Three Cylinders 1084 15.8 Triple Integrals in Spherical Coordinates 1085 Applied Project • Roller Derby 1092 15.9 Change of Variables in Multiple Integrals 1092 Review 1101 **Problems Plus 1105**

Vector Calculus

16.8

1107



16.1 Vector Fields 1108 16.2 Line Integrals 1115 16.3 The Fundamental Theorem for Line Integrals 1127 16.4 Green's Theorem 1136 16.5 Curl and Divergence 1143

16.6 Parametric Surfaces and Their Areas 1151

16.7 Surface Integrals 1162

Writing Project • Three Men and Two Theorems 1180

16.9 The Divergence Theorem 1181

Stokes' Theorem 1174

16.10 Summary 1187 Review 1188 **Problems Plus 1191**

17 Second-Order Differential Equations

1193



- **17.1** Second-Order Linear Equations 1194
- 17.2 Nonhomogeneous Linear Equations 1200
- **17.3** Applications of Second-Order Differential Equations 1208
- **17.4** Series Solutions 1216 Review 1221

Appendixes

A1

- **F** Proofs of Theorems A2
- **G** Complex Numbers A5
- **H** Answers to Odd-Numbered Exercises A15

Index

A45

Preface

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

GEORGE POLYA

The art of teaching, Mark Van Doren said, is the art of assisting discovery. I have tried to write a book that assists students in discovering calculus—both for its practical power and its surprising beauty. In this edition, as in the first seven editions, I aim to convey to the student a sense of the utility of calculus and develop technical competence, but I also strive to give some appreciation for the intrinsic beauty of the subject. Newton undoubtedly experienced a sense of triumph when he made his great discoveries. I want students to share some of that excitement.

The emphasis is on understanding concepts. I think that nearly everybody agrees that this should be the primary goal of calculus instruction. In fact, the impetus for the current calculus reform movement came from the Tulane Conference in 1986, which formulated as their first recommendation:

Focus on conceptual understanding.

I have tried to implement this goal through the *Rule of Three*: "Topics should be presented geometrically, numerically, and algebraically." Visualization, numerical and graphical experimentation, and other approaches have changed how we teach conceptual reasoning in fundamental ways. More recently, the Rule of Three has been expanded to become the *Rule of Four* by emphasizing the verbal, or descriptive, point of view as well.

In writing the eighth edition my premise has been that it is possible to achieve conceptual understanding and still retain the best traditions of traditional calculus. The book contains elements of reform, but within the context of a traditional curriculum.

Alternate Versions

I have written several other calculus textbooks that might be preferable for some instructors. Most of them also come in single variable and multivariable versions.

- Calculus: Early Transcendentals, Eighth Edition, is similar to the present textbook except that the exponential, logarithmic, and inverse trigonometric functions are covered in the first semester.
- Essential Calculus, Second Edition, is a much briefer book (840 pages), though it
 contains almost all of the topics in Calculus, Eighth Edition. The relative brevity is
 achieved through briefer exposition of some topics and putting some features on the
 website.
- Essential Calculus: Early Transcendentals, Second Edition, resembles Essential Calculus, but the exponential, logarithmic, and inverse trigonometric functions are covered in Chapter 3.

- Calculus: Concepts and Contexts, Fourth Edition, emphasizes conceptual understanding even more strongly than this book. The coverage of topics is not encyclopedic and the material on transcendental functions and on parametric equations is woven throughout the book instead of being treated in separate chapters.
- Calculus: Early Vectors introduces vectors and vector functions in the first semester and integrates them throughout the book. It is suitable for students taking engineering and physics courses concurrently with calculus.
- Brief Applied Calculus is intended for students in business, the social sciences, and the life sciences.
- Biocalculus: Calculus for the Life Sciences is intended to show students in the life sciences how calculus relates to biology.
- Biocalculus: Calculus, Probability, and Statistics for the Life Sciences contains all
 the content of Biocalculus: Calculus for the Life Sciences as well as three additional chapters covering probability and statistics.

What's New in the Eighth Edition?

The changes have resulted from talking with my colleagues and students at the University of Toronto and from reading journals, as well as suggestions from users and reviewers. Here are some of the many improvements that I've incorporated into this edition:

- The data in examples and exercises have been updated to be more timely.
- New examples have been added (see Examples 11.2.5 and 14.3.3, for instance). And the solutions to some of the existing examples have been amplified.
- One new project has been added: In the project The Speedo LZR Racer (page 976) it is explained that this suit reduces drag in the water and, as a result, many swimming records were broken. Students are asked why a small decrease in drag can have a big effect on performance.
- I have streamlined Chapter 15 (Multiple Integrals) by combining the first two sections so that iterated integrals are treated earlier.
- More than 20% of the exercises in each chapter are new. Here are some of my favorites: 12.5.81, 12.6.29–30, 14.6.65–66. In addition, there are some good new Problems Plus. (See Problem 8 on page 1026.)

Features

Conceptual Exercises

The most important way to foster conceptual understanding is through the problems that we assign. To that end I have devised various types of problems. Some exercise sets begin with requests to explain the meanings of the basic concepts of the section. (See, for instance, the first few exercises in Sections 11.2, 14.2, and 14.3.) Similarly, all the review sections begin with a Concept Check and a True-False Quiz. Other exercises test conceptual understanding through graphs or tables (see Exercises 10.1.24–27, 11.10.2, 13.2.1–2, 13.3.33–39, 14.1.1–2, 14.1.32–38, 14.1.41–44, 14.3.3–10, 14.6.1–2, 14.7.3–4, 15.1.6–8, 16.1.11–18, 16.2.17–18, and 16.3.1–2).

Another type of exercise uses verbal description to test conceptual understanding. I particularly value problems that combine and compare graphical, numerical, and algebraic approaches.

Graded Exercise Sets

Each exercise set is carefully graded, progressing from basic conceptual exercises and skill-development problems to more challenging problems involving applications and proofs.

Real-World Data

My assistants and I spent a great deal of time looking in libraries, contacting companies and government agencies, and searching the Internet for interesting real-world data to introduce, motivate, and illustrate the concepts of calculus. As a result, many of the examples and exercises deal with functions defined by such numerical data or graphs. Functions of two variables are illustrated by a table of values of the wind-chill index as a function of air temperature and wind speed (Example 14.1.2). Partial derivatives are introduced in Section 14.3 by examining a column in a table of values of the heat index (perceived air temperature) as a function of the actual temperature and the relative humidity. This example is pursued further in connection with linear approximations (Example 14.4.3). Directional derivatives are introduced in Section 14.6 by using a temperature contour map to estimate the rate of change of temperature at Reno in the direction of Las Vegas. Double integrals are used to estimate the average snowfall in Colorado on December 20–21, 2006 (Example 15.1.9). Vector fields are introduced in Section 16.1 by depictions of actual velocity vector fields showing San Francisco Bay wind patterns.

Projects

One way of involving students and making them active learners is to have them work (perhaps in groups) on extended projects that give a feeling of substantial accomplishment when completed. I have included four kinds of projects: *Applied Projects* involve applications that are designed to appeal to the imagination of students. The project after Section 14.8 uses Lagrange multipliers to determine the masses of the three stages of a rocket so as to minimize the total mass while enabling the rocket to reach a desired velocity. *Laboratory Projects* involve technology; the one following Section 10.2 shows how to use Bézier curves to design shapes that represent letters for a laser printer. *Discovery Projects* explore aspects of geometry: tetrahedra (after Section 12.4), hyperspheres (after Section 15.6), and intersections of three cylinders (after Section 15.7). The *Writing Project* after Section 17.8 explores the historical and physical origins of Green's Theorem and Stokes' Theorem and the interactions of the three men involved. Many additional projects can be found in the *Instructor's Guide*.

Tools for Enriching Calculus

TEC is a companion to the text and is intended to enrich and complement its contents. (It is now accessible in the eBook via CourseMate and Enhanced WebAssign. Selected Visuals and Modules are available at www.stewartcalculus.com.) Developed by Harvey Keynes, Dan Clegg, Hubert Hohn, and myself, TEC uses a discovery and exploratory approach. In sections of the book where technology is particularly appropriate, marginal icons direct students to TEC Modules that provide a laboratory environment in which they can explore the topic in different ways and at different levels. Visuals are animations of figures in text; Modules are more elaborate activities and include exercises. Instructors can choose to become involved at several different levels, ranging from sim-

ply encouraging students to use the Visuals and Modules for independent exploration, to assigning specific exercises from those included with each Module, or to creating additional exercises, labs, and projects that make use of the Visuals and Modules.

TEC also includes Homework Hints for representative exercises (usually odd-numbered) in every section of the text, indicated by printing the exercise number in red. These hints are usually presented in the form of questions and try to imitate an effective teaching assistant by functioning as a silent tutor. They are constructed so as not to reveal any more of the actual solution than is minimally necessary to make further progress.

Enhanced WebAssign

Technology is having an impact on the way homework is assigned to students, particularly in large classes. The use of online homework is growing and its appeal depends on ease of use, grading precision, and reliability. With the Eighth Edition we have been working with the calculus community and WebAssign to develop an online homework system. Up to 70% of the exercises in each section are assignable as online homework, including free response, multiple choice, and multi-part formats.

The system also includes Active Examples, in which students are guided in step-by-step tutorials through text examples, with links to the textbook and to video solutions.

Website

Visit CengageBrain.com or stewartcalculus.com for these additional materials:

- Homework Hints
- Algebra Review
- Lies My Calculator and Computer Told Me
- History of Mathematics, with links to the better historical websites
- Additional Topics (complete with exercise sets): Fourier Series, Formulas for the Remainder Term in Taylor Series, Rotation of Axes
- Archived Problems (drill exercises that appeared in previous editions, together with their solutions)
- Challenge Problems (some from the Problems Plus sections from prior editions)
- Links, for particular topics, to outside Web resources
- Selected Visuals and Modules from Tools for Enriching Calculus (TEC)

Content

10 Parametric Equations and Polar Coordinates

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

11 Infinite Sequences and Series

The convergence tests have intuitive justifications (see page 759) as well as formal proofs. Numerical estimates of sums of series are based on which test was used to prove convergence. The emphasis is on Taylor series and polynomials and their applications to physics. Error estimates include those from graphing devices.

12 Vectors and the Geometry of Space

The material on three-dimensional analytic geometry and vectors is divided into two chapters. Chapter 12 deals with vectors, the dot and cross products, lines, planes, and surfaces.

13 Vector Functions

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

14 Partial Derivatives

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

15 Multiple Integrals

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

16 Vector Calculus

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

17 Second-Order Differential Equations

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

Ancillaries

Multivariable Calculus, Eighth Edition, is supported by a complete set of ancillaries developed under my direction. Each piece has been designed to enhance student understanding and to facilitate creative instruction. The tables on pages xx–xxi describe each of these ancillaries.

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JAMES STEWART

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A Companion to Calculus

By Dennis Ebersole, Doris Schattschneider, Alicia Sevilla, and Kay Somers

ISBN 978-0-495-01124-8

Written to improve algebra and problem-solving skills of students taking a calculus course, every chapter in this companion is keyed to a calculus topic, providing conceptual background and specific algebra techniques needed to understand and solve calculus problems related to that topic. It is designed for calculus courses that integrate the review of precalculus concepts or for individual use. Order a copy of the text or access the eBook online at www.cengagebrain.com by searching the ISBN.

Linear Algebra for Calculus

by Konrad J. Heuvers, William P. Francis, John H. Kuisti, Deborah F. Lockhart, Daniel S. Moak, and Gene M. Ortner ISBN 978-0-534-25248-9

This comprehensive book, designed to supplement the calculus course, provides an introduction to and review of the basic ideas of linear algebra. Order a copy of the text or access the eBook online at www.cengagebrain.com by searching the ISBN.

To the Student

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

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

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

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

The icon \bigcap indicates an exercise that definitely requires the use of either a graphing calculator or a computer with graphing software. But that doesn't mean that graphing devices can't be used to check your work on the other exercises as well. The symbol is reserved for problems in which the full resources of a computer algebra system (like Maple, Mathematica, or the TI-89) are required.

You will also encounter the symbol , which warns you against committing an error. I have placed this symbol in the margin in situations where I have observed that a large proportion of my students tend to make the same mistake.

Tools for Enriching Calculus, which is a companion to this text, is referred to by means of the symbol **TEC** and can be accessed in the *eBook* via Enhanced WebAssign and CourseMate (selected Visuals and Modules are available at stewartcalculus.com). It directs you to modules in which you can explore aspects of calculus for which the computer is particularly useful.

You will notice that some exercise numbers are printed in red: 5. This indicates that *Homework Hints* are available for the exercise. These hints can be found on stewart-calculus.com as well as Enhanced WebAssign and CourseMate. The homework hints ask you questions that allow you to make progress toward a solution without actually giving you the answer. You need to pursue each hint in an active manner with pencil and paper to work out the details. If a particular hint doesn't enable you to solve the problem, you can click to reveal the next hint.

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

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

JAMES STEWART

Parametric Equations and Polar Coordinates



The photo shows Halley's comet as it passed Earth in 1986. Due to return in 2061, it was named after Edmond Halley (1656–1742), the English scientist who first recognized its periodicity. In Section 10.6 you will see how polar coordinates provide a convenient equation for the elliptical path of its orbit.

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

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

10.1 Curves Defined by Parametric Equations

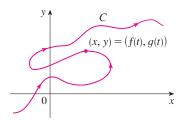


FIGURE 1

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

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

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

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

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

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

SOLUTION Each value of t gives a point on the curve, as shown in the table. For instance, if t = 0, then x = 0, y = 1 and so the corresponding point is (0, 1). In Figure 2 we plot the points (x, y) determined by several values of the parameter and we join them to produce a curve.

t	х	у
-2	8	-1
-1	3	0
0	0	1
1	-1	2
2	0	3
3	3	4
4	8	5

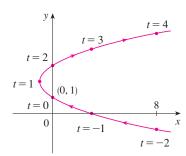


FIGURE 2

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

It appears from Figure 2 that the curve traced out by the particle may be a parabola. This can be confirmed by eliminating the parameter t as follows. We obtain t = y - 1 from the second equation and substitute into the first equation. This gives

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

and so the curve represented by the given parametric equations is the parabola $x = y^2 - 4y + 3$.

This equation in x and y describes where the particle has been, but it doesn't tell us when the particle was at a particular point. The parametric equations have an advantage—they tell us when the particle was at a point. They also indicate the direction of the motion.

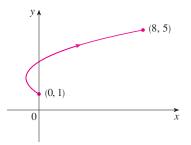


FIGURE 3

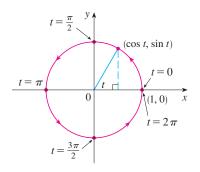


FIGURE 4

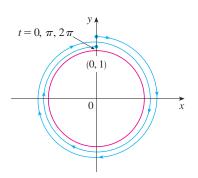


FIGURE 5

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

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

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

In general, the curve with parametric equations

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

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

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

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

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

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

Thus the point (x, y) moves on the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. Notice that in this example the parameter t can be interpreted as the angle (in radians) shown in Figure 4. As t increases from 0 to 2π , the point $(x, y) = (\cos t, \sin t)$ moves once around the circle in the counterclockwise direction starting from the point (1, 0).

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

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

SOLUTION Again we have

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

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

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

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

SOLUTION If we take the equations of the unit circle in Example 2 and multiply the expressions for x and y by r, we get $x = r \cos t$, $y = r \sin t$. You can verify that these equations represent a circle with radius r and center the origin traced counterclockwise. We now shift h units in the x-direction and k units in the y-direction and obtain para-

metric equations of the circle (Figure 6) with center (h, k) and radius r:

$$x = h + r \cos t$$
 $y = k + r \sin t$ $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

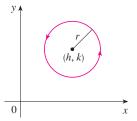


FIGURE 6

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

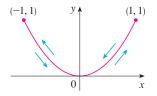


FIGURE 7

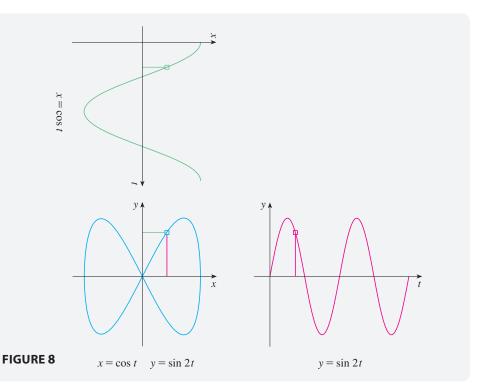
EXAMPLE 5 Sketch the curve with parametric equations $x = \sin t$, $y = \sin^2 t$.

SOLUTION Observe that $y = (\sin t)^2 = x^2$ and so the point (x, y) moves on the parabola $y = x^2$. But note also that, since $-1 \le \sin t \le 1$, we have $-1 \le x \le 1$, so the parametric equations represent only the part of the parabola for which $-1 \le x \le 1$. Since $\sin t$ is periodic, the point $(x, y) = (\sin t, \sin^2 t)$ moves back and forth infinitely often along the parabola from (-1, 1) to (1, 1). (See Figure 7.)

TEC Module 10.1A gives an animation of the relationship between motion along a parametric curve x = f(t), y = g(t) and motion along the graphs of f and g as functions of t. Clicking on TRIG gives you the family of parametric curves

$$x = a \cos bt$$
 $y = c \sin dt$

If you choose a = b = c = d = 1 and click on **animate**, you will see how the graphs of $x = \cos t$ and $y = \sin t$ relate to the circle in Example 2. If you choose a = b = c = 1, d = 2, you will see graphs as in Figure 8. By clicking on **animate** or moving the t-slider to the right, you can see from the color coding how motion along the graphs of $x = \cos t$ and $y = \sin 2t$ corresponds to motion along the parametric curve, which is called a **Lissajous figure**.



Graphing Devices

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

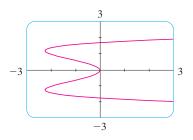


FIGURE 9

EXAMPLE 6 Use a graphing device to graph the curve $x = y^4 - 3y^2$.

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

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

Using these parametric equations to graph the curve, we obtain Figure 9. It would be possible to solve the given equation $(x = y^4 - 3y^2)$ for y as four functions of x and graph them individually, but the parametric equations provide a much easier method.

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

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

Notice also that curves with equations y = f(x) (the ones we are most familiar with—graphs of functions) can also be regarded as curves with parametric equations

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

Graphing devices are particularly useful for sketching complicated parametric curves. For instance, the curves shown in Figures 10, 11, and 12 would be virtually impossible to produce by hand.

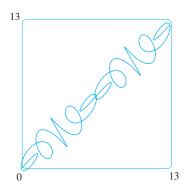


FIGURE 10 $x = t + \sin 5t$ $y = t + \sin 6t$

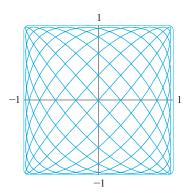


FIGURE 11 $x = \sin 9t$ $y = \sin 10t$

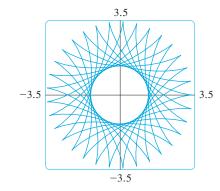


FIGURE 12 $x = 2.3 \cos 10t + \cos 23t$ $y = 2.3 \sin 10t - \sin 23t$

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

The Cycloid

EXAMPLE 7 The curve traced out by a point *P* on the circumference of a circle as the circle rolls along a straight line is called a **cycloid** (see Figure 13). If the circle has radius *r* and rolls along the *x*-axis and if one position of *P* is the origin, find parametric equations for the cycloid.



TEC An animation in Module 10.1B shows how the cycloid is formed as the circle moves.

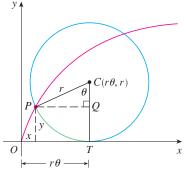
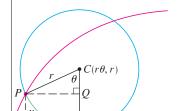


FIGURE 14



SOLUTION We choose as parameter the angle of rotation θ of the circle ($\theta = 0$ when P is at the origin). Suppose the circle has rotated through θ radians. Because the circle has been in contact with the line, we see from Figure 14 that the distance it has rolled from the origin is

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

Therefore the center of the circle is $C(r\theta, r)$. Let the coordinates of P be (x, y). Then from Figure 14 we see that

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

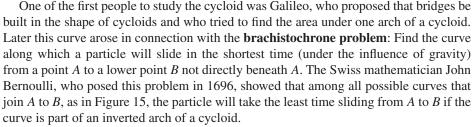
$$y = |TC| - |QC| = r - r\cos\theta = r(1 - \cos\theta)$$

Therefore parametric equations of the cycloid are

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

One arch of the cycloid comes from one rotation of the circle and so is described by $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$. Although Equations 1 were derived from Figure 14, which illustrates the case where $0 < \theta < \pi/2$, it can be seen that these equations are still valid for other values of θ (see Exercise 39).

Although it is possible to eliminate the parameter θ from Equations 1, the resulting Cartesian equation in x and y is very complicated and not as convenient to work with as the parametric equations.



The Dutch physicist Huygens had already shown that the cycloid is also the solution to the **tautochrone problem**; that is, no matter where a particle P is placed on an inverted cycloid, it takes the same time to slide to the bottom (see Figure 16). Huygens proposed that pendulum clocks (which he invented) should swing in cycloidal arcs because then the pendulum would take the same time to make a complete oscillation whether it swings through a wide or a small arc.

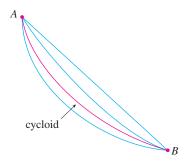


FIGURE 15



FIGURE 16

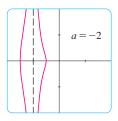
Families of Parametric Curves

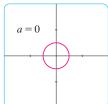
EXAMPLE 8 Investigate the family of curves with parametric equations

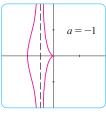
$$x = a + \cos t$$
 $y = a \tan t + \sin t$

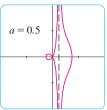
What do these curves have in common? How does the shape change as a increases?

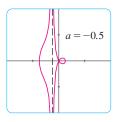
SOLUTION We use a graphing device to produce the graphs for the cases a = -2, -1,-0.5, -0.2, 0, 0.5, 1, and 2 shown in Figure 17. Notice that all of these curves (except the case a = 0) have two branches, and both branches approach the vertical asymptote x = a as x approaches a from the left or right.

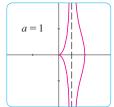


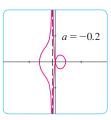












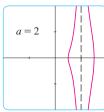


FIGURE 17

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

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

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

10.1 EXERCISES

1–4 Sketch the curve by using the parametric equations to plot points. Indicate with an arrow the direction in which the curve is traced as *t* increases.

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

2.
$$x = t^3 + t$$
, $y = t^2 + 2$, $-2 \le t \le 2$

3.
$$x = t + \sin t$$
, $y = \cos t$, $-\pi \le t \le \pi$

4.
$$x = e^{-t} + t$$
, $y = e^{t} - t$, $-2 \le t \le 2$

5-10

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

5.
$$x = 2t - 1$$
, $y = \frac{1}{2}t + 1$

6.
$$x = 3t + 2$$
, $y = 2t + 3$

7.
$$x = t^2 - 3$$
, $y = t + 2$, $-3 \le t \le 3$

8.
$$x = \sin t$$
, $y = 1 - \cos t$, $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

9.
$$x = \sqrt{t}$$
, $y = 1 - t$

10.
$$x = t^2$$
, $y = t^3$

11-18

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

11.
$$x = \sin \frac{1}{2}\theta$$
, $y = \cos \frac{1}{2}\theta$, $-\pi \le \theta \le \pi$

12.
$$x = \frac{1}{2}\cos\theta$$
, $y = 2\sin\theta$, $0 \le \theta \le \pi$

13.
$$x = \sin t$$
, $y = \csc t$, $0 < t < \pi/2$

14.
$$x = e^t$$
, $y = e^{-2t}$

15.
$$x = t^2$$
, $y = \ln t$

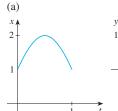
16.
$$x = \sqrt{t+1}$$
, $y = \sqrt{t-1}$

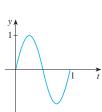
$$17. x = \sinh t, \quad y = \cosh t$$

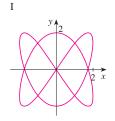
18.
$$x = \tan^2 \theta$$
, $y = \sec \theta$, $-\pi/2 < \theta < \pi/2$

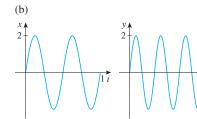
19–22 Describe the motion of a particle with position (x, y) as t varies in the given interval.

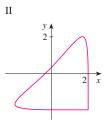
- **19.** $x = 5 + 2\cos \pi t$, $y = 3 + 2\sin \pi t$, $1 \le t \le 2$
- **20.** $x = 2 + \sin t$, $y = 1 + 3\cos t$, $\pi/2 \le t \le 2\pi$
- **21.** $x = 5 \sin t$, $y = 2 \cos t$, $-\pi \le t \le 5\pi$
- **22.** $x = \sin t$, $y = \cos^2 t$, $-2\pi \le t \le 2\pi$
- **23.** Suppose a curve is given by the parametric equations x = f(t), y = g(t), where the range of f is [1, 4] and the range of g is [2, 3]. What can you say about the curve?
- **24.** Match the graphs of the parametric equations x = f(t) and y = g(t) in (a)–(d) with the parametric curves labeled I–IV. Give reasons for your choices.



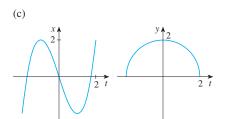


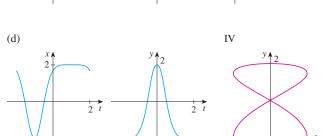






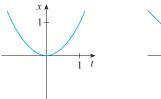
III





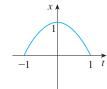
25–27 Use the graphs of x = f(t) and y = g(t) to sketch the parametric curve x = f(t), y = g(t). Indicate with arrows the direction in which the curve is traced as t increases.

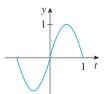




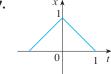


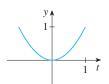
26.





27.





28. Match the parametric equations with the graphs labeled I–VI. Give reasons for your choices. (Do not use a graphing device.)

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

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

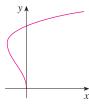
(c)
$$x = \sin 2t$$
, $y = \sin(t + \sin 2t)$

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

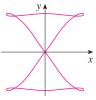
(e)
$$x = t + \sin 4t$$
, $y = t^2 + \cos 3t$

(f)
$$x = \frac{\sin 2t}{4 + t^2}$$
, $y = \frac{\cos 2t}{4 + t^2}$

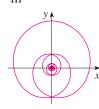








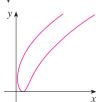
III



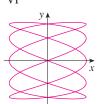
IV



V



VI

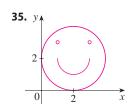


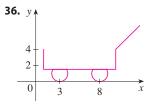
- **29.** Graph the curve $x = y 2 \sin \pi y$.
- \square 30. Graph the curves $y = x^3 4x$ and $x = y^3 4y$ and find their points of intersection correct to one decimal place.
 - **31.** (a) Show that the parametric equations

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

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

- (b) Find parametric equations to represent the line segment from (-2, 7) to (3, -1).
- **32.** Use a graphing device and the result of Exercise 31(a) to draw the triangle with vertices A(1, 1), B(4, 2), and C(1, 5).
 - **33.** Find parametric equations for the path of a particle that moves along the circle $x^2 + (y - 1)^2 = 4$ in the manner described.
 - (a) Once around clockwise, starting at (2, 1)
 - (b) Three times around counterclockwise, starting at (2, 1)
 - (c) Halfway around counterclockwise, starting at (0, 3)
- **34.** (a) Find parametric equations for the ellipse $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$. [Hint: Modify the equations of the circle in Example 2.1
 - (b) Use these parametric equations to graph the ellipse when a = 3 and b = 1, 2, 4, and 8.
 - (c) How does the shape of the ellipse change as b varies?
- ₹ 35-36 Use a graphing calculator or computer to reproduce the picture.





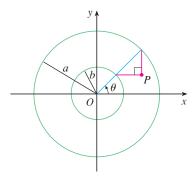
- **37–38** Compare the curves represented by the parametric equations. How do they differ?
- **37.** (a) $x = t^3$, $y = t^2$ (b) $x = t^6$, $y = t^4$ (c) $x = e^{-3t}$, $y = e^{-2t}$
- **38.** (a) x = t, $y = t^{-2}$ (c) $x = e^t$, $y = e^{-2t}$
- (b) $x = \cos t$, $y = \sec^2 t$
- **39.** Derive Equations 1 for the case $\pi/2 < \theta < \pi$.
- **40.** Let P be a point at a distance d from the center of a circle of radius r. The curve traced out by P as the circle rolls along a straight line is called a trochoid. (Think of the motion of a point on a spoke of a bicycle wheel.) The cycloid is the special case of a trochoid with d = r. Using the same parameter θ as for the cycloid, and assuming the line is the x-axis and $\theta = 0$ when P is at one of its lowest points, show

that parametric equations of the trochoid are

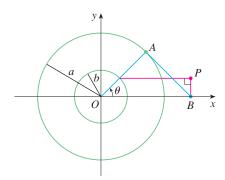
$$x = r\theta - d\sin\theta$$
 $y = r - d\cos\theta$

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

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



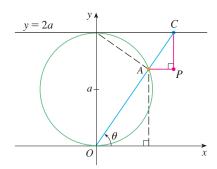
42. If a and b are fixed numbers, find parametric equations for the curve that consists of all possible positions of the point P in the figure, using the angle θ as the parameter. The line segment AB is tangent to the larger circle.



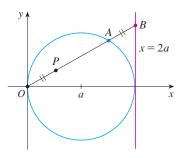
43. A curve, called a witch of Maria Agnesi, consists of all possible positions of the point P in the figure. Show that parametric equations for this curve can be written as

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

Sketch the curve.



- **44.** (a) Find parametric equations for the set of all points P as shown in the figure such that |OP| = |AB|. (This curve is called the **cissoid of Diocles** after the Greek scholar Diocles, who introduced the cissoid as a graphical method for constructing the edge of a cube whose volume is twice that of a given cube.)
 - (b) Use the geometric description of the curve to draw a rough sketch of the curve by hand. Check your work by using the parametric equations to graph the curve.



 \square **45.** Suppose that the position of one particle at time t is given by

$$x_1 = 3\sin t \qquad y_1 = 2\cos t$$

and the position of a second particle is given by

$$x_2 = -3 + \cos t$$
 $y_2 = 1 + \sin t$ $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

- (a) Graph the paths of both particles. How many points of intersection are there?
- (b) Are any of these points of intersection collision points? In other words, are the particles ever at the same place at the same time? If so, find the collision points.
- (c) Describe what happens if the path of the second particle is given by

$$x_2 = 3 + \cos t$$
 $y_2 = 1 + \sin t$ $0 \le t \le 2\pi$

46. If a projectile is fired with an initial velocity of v_0 meters per second at an angle α above the horizontal and air resistance is assumed to be negligible, then its position after

t seconds is given by the parametric equations

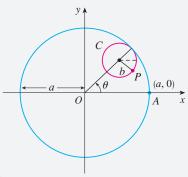
$$x = (v_0 \cos \alpha)t$$
 $y = (v_0 \sin \alpha)t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$

where q is the acceleration due to gravity (9.8 m/s²).

- (a) If a gun is fired with $\alpha = 30^{\circ}$ and $v_0 = 500 \text{ m/s}$, when will the bullet hit the ground? How far from the gun will it hit the ground? What is the maximum height reached by the bullet?
- (b) Use a graphing device to check your answers to part (a). Then graph the path of the projectile for several other values of the angle α to see where it hits the ground. Summarize your findings.
 - (c) Show that the path is parabolic by eliminating the parameter.
- **47.** Investigate the family of curves defined by the parametric equations $x = t^2$, $y = t^3 ct$. How does the shape change as c increases? Illustrate by graphing several members of the family.
- **48.** The **swallowtail catastrophe curves** are defined by the parametric equations $x = 2ct 4t^3$, $y = -ct^2 + 3t^4$. Graph several of these curves. What features do the curves have in common? How do they change when c increases?
- **49.** Graph several members of the family of curves with parametric equations $x = t + a \cos t$, $y = t + a \sin t$, where a > 0. How does the shape change as a increases? For what values of a does the curve have a loop?
- **50.** Graph several members of the family of curves $x = \sin t + \sin nt$, $y = \cos t + \cos nt$, where n is a positive integer. What features do the curves have in common? What happens as n increases?
- **51.** The curves with equations $x = a \sin nt$, $y = b \cos t$ are called **Lissajous figures**. Investigate how these curves vary when a, b, and n vary. (Take n to be a positive integer.)
- **52.** Investigate the family of curves defined by the parametric equations $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t \sin ct$, where c > 0. Start by letting c be a positive integer and see what happens to the shape as c increases. Then explore some of the possibilities that occur when c is a fraction.

LABORATORY PROJECT | RUNNING CIRCLES AROUND CIRCLES

 $0 \le t \le 2\pi$



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

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

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

2. Use a graphing device (or the interactive graphic in TEC Module 10.1B) to draw the graphs of hypocycloids with a a positive integer and b = 1. How does the value of a affect the

TEC Look at Module 10.1B to see how hypocycloids and epicycloids are formed by the motion of rolling circles.

graph? Show that if we take a=4, then the parametric equations of the hypocycloid reduce to

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

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

- **3.** Now try b = 1 and a = n/d, a fraction where n and d have no common factor. First let n = 1 and try to determine graphically the effect of the denominator d on the shape of the graph. Then let n vary while keeping d constant. What happens when n = d + 1?
- **4.** What happens if b=1 and a is irrational? Experiment with an irrational number like $\sqrt{2}$ or e-2. Take larger and larger values for θ and speculate on what would happen if we were to graph the hypocycloid for all real values of θ .
- **5.** If the circle *C* rolls on the *outside* of the fixed circle, the curve traced out by *P* is called an **epicycloid**. Find parametric equations for the epicycloid.
- **6.** Investigate the possible shapes for epicycloids. Use methods similar to Problems 2–4.

10.2 Calculus with Parametric Curves

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

Tangents

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

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

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

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

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

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

As we know from Chapter 4, it is also useful to consider d^2y/dx^2 . This can be found by replacing y by dy/dx in Equation 1:

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

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

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

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

SOLUTION

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

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt} = \frac{3t^2 - 3}{2t} = \frac{3}{2}\left(t - \frac{1}{t}\right)$$

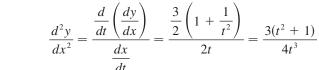
the slope of the tangent when $t = \pm \sqrt{3}$ is $dy/dx = \pm 6/(2\sqrt{3}) = \pm \sqrt{3}$, so the equations of the tangents at (3, 0) are

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

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

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

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)}{\frac{dx}{dt}} = \frac{\frac{3}{2}\left(1 + \frac{1}{t^2}\right)}{2t} = \frac{3(t^2 + 1)}{4t^3}$$



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

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

FIGURE 1

EXAMPLE 2

(a) Find the tangent to the cycloid $x = r(\theta - \sin \theta)$, $y = r(1 - \cos \theta)$ at the point where $\theta = \pi/3$. (See Example 10.1.7.)

(b) At what points is the tangent horizontal? When is it vertical?

SOLUTION

(a) The slope of the tangent line is

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

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

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

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

(3, 0)(1, -2) $y = -\sqrt{3}(x-3)$

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

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

The tangent is sketched in Figure 2.

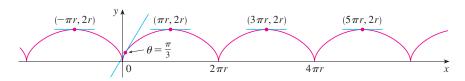


FIGURE 2

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

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

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

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

Areas

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

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

as usual with the Substitution Rule. When x = a, t is either α or β . When x = b, t is the remaining value.

The limits of integration for t are found

EXAMPLE 3 Find the area under one arch of the cycloid

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

(See Figure 3.)

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

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

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

$$= r^2 \int_0^{2\pi} \left[1 - 2\cos \theta + \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos 2\theta) \right] d\theta$$

$$= r^2 \left[\frac{3}{2} \theta - 2\sin \theta + \frac{1}{4} \sin 2\theta \right]_0^{2\pi}$$

$$= r^2 \left(\frac{3}{2} \cdot 2\pi \right) = 3\pi r^2$$

0 $2\pi r$ x

FIGURE 3

The result of Example 3 says that the area under one arch of the cycloid is three times the area of the rolling circle that generates the cycloid (see Example 10.1.7). Galileo guessed this result but it was first proved by the French mathematician Roberval and the Italian mathematician Torricelli.

Arc Length

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

$$L = \int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} \ dx$$

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

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

Since dx/dt > 0, we have

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

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

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

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

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

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

If we let $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$ and $\Delta y_i = y_i - y_{i-1}$, this equation becomes

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

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

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

Therefore

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

and so

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

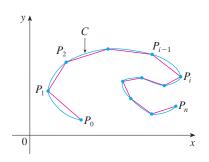


FIGURE 4

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

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

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

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

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

Notice that the formula in Theorem 5 is consistent with the general formulas $L = \int ds$ and $(ds)^2 = (dx)^2 + (dy)^2$ of Section 8.1.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

we have

$$L = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{d\theta}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{d\theta}\right)^2} d\theta$$

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

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & L = 8r \\
\hline
 & 0 \\
\hline
 & 2\pi r \\
 & x
\end{array}$$

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

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

$$= 2r[2+2] = 8r$$

FIGURE 5

Surface Area

and so

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

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

The general symbolic formulas $S = \int 2\pi y \, ds$ and $S = \int 2\pi x \, ds$ (Formulas 8.2.7 and 8.2.8) are still valid, but for parametric curves we use

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

EXAMPLE 6 Show that the surface area of a sphere of radius r is $4\pi r^2$.

SOLUTION The sphere is obtained by rotating the semicircle

$$x = r \cos t$$
 $y = r \sin t$ $0 \le t \le \pi$

about the x-axis. Therefore, from Formula 6, we get

$$S = \int_0^{\pi} 2\pi r \sin t \sqrt{(-r \sin t)^2 + (r \cos t)^2} dt$$

$$= 2\pi \int_0^{\pi} r \sin t \sqrt{r^2 (\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t)} dt = 2\pi \int_0^{\pi} r \sin t \cdot r dt$$

$$= 2\pi r^2 \int_0^{\pi} \sin t dt = 2\pi r^2 (-\cos t) \Big]_0^{\pi} = 4\pi r^2$$

10.2 EXERCISES

1-2 Find dy/dx.

1.
$$x = \frac{t}{1+t}$$
, $y = \sqrt{1+t}$

- **2.** $x = te^t$, $y = t + \sin t$
- 3-6 Find an equation of the tangent to the curve at the point corresponding to the given value of the parameter.

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

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

5.
$$x = t \cos t$$
, $y = t \sin t$; $t = \pi$

6.
$$x = e^t \sin \pi t$$
, $y = e^{2t}$; $t = 0$

7–8 Find an equation of the tangent to the curve at the given point by two methods: (a) without eliminating the parameter and (b) by first eliminating the parameter.

7.
$$x = 1 + \ln t$$
, $y = t^2 + 2$; (1, 3)

8.
$$x = 1 + \sqrt{t}$$
, $y = e^{t^2}$; $(2, e)$

9-10 Find an equation of the tangent to the curve at the given point. Then graph the curve and the tangent.

9.
$$x = t^2 - t$$
, $y = t^2 + t + 1$; $(0,3)$

- **10.** $x = \sin \pi t$, $y = t^2 + t$; (0, 2)
- 11-16 Find dy/dx and d^2y/dx^2 . For which values of t is the curve concave upward?

11.
$$x = t^2 + 1$$
, $y = t^2 + t$ **12.** $x = t^3 + 1$, $y = t^2 - t$

12.
$$y = t^3 + 1$$
 $y = t^2 - t$

13.
$$x = e^t$$
, $y = te^{-t}$ **14.** $x = t^2 + 1$, $y = e^t - 1$

14.
$$x = t^2 + 1$$
, $y = e^t - 1$

15.
$$x = t - \ln t$$
, $y = t + \ln t$

16.
$$x = \cos t$$
, $y = \sin 2t$, $0 < t < \pi$

17–20 Find the points on the curve where the tangent is horizontal or vertical. If you have a graphing device, graph the curve to check your work.

17.
$$x = t^3 - 3t$$
, $y = t^2 - 3$

18.
$$x = t^3 - 3t$$
, $y = t^3 - 3t^2$

19.
$$x = \cos \theta$$
, $y = \cos 3\theta$ **20.** $x = e^{\sin \theta}$, $y = e^{\cos \theta}$

20.
$$x = e^{\sin \theta}$$
, $y = e^{\cos \theta}$

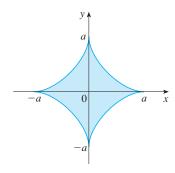
- **21.** Use a graph to estimate the coordinates of the rightmost point on the curve $x = t - t^6$, $y = e^t$. Then use calculus to find the exact coordinates.
- **22.** Use a graph to estimate the coordinates of the lowest point and the leftmost point on the curve $x = t^4 - 2t$, $y = t + t^4$. Then find the exact coordinates.

23-24 Graph the curve in a viewing rectangle that displays all the important aspects of the curve.

23.
$$x = t^4 - 2t^3 - 2t^2$$
, $y = t^3 - t$

24.
$$x = t^4 + 4t^3 - 8t^2$$
, $y = 2t^2 - t$

- **25.** Show that the curve $x = \cos t$, $y = \sin t \cos t$ has two tangents at (0, 0) and find their equations. Sketch the curve.
- \nearrow 26. Graph the curve $x = -2 \cos t$, $y = \sin t + \sin 2t$ to discover where it crosses itself. Then find equations of both tangents at that point.
 - 27. (a) Find the slope of the tangent line to the trochoid $x = r\theta - d\sin\theta$, $y = r - d\cos\theta$ in terms of θ . (See Exercise 10.1.40.)
 - (b) Show that if d < r, then the trochoid does not have a vertical tangent.
 - **28.** (a) Find the slope of the tangent to the astroid $x = a \cos^3 \theta$, $y = a \sin^3 \theta$ in terms of θ . (Astroids are explored in the Laboratory Project on page 689.)
 - (b) At what points is the tangent horizontal or vertical?
 - (c) At what points does the tangent have slope 1 or -1?
 - **29.** At what point(s) on the curve $x = 3t^2 + 1$, $y = t^3 1$ does the tangent line have slope $\frac{1}{2}$?
 - **30.** Find equations of the tangents to the curve $x = 3t^2 + 1$, $y = 2t^3 + 1$ that pass through the point (4, 3).
 - **31.** Use the parametric equations of an ellipse, $x = a \cos \theta$, $y = b \sin \theta$, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$, to find the area that it encloses.
 - **32.** Find the area enclosed by the curve $x = t^2 2t$, $y = \sqrt{t}$ and the y-axis.
 - **33.** Find the area enclosed by the *x*-axis and the curve $x = t^3 + 1, y = 2t - t^2$.
 - 34. Find the area of the region enclosed by the astroid $x = a \cos^3 \theta$, $y = a \sin^3 \theta$. (Astroids are explored in the Laboratory Project on page 689.)



35. Find the area under one arch of the trochoid of Exercise 10.1.40 for the case d < r.

- **36.** Let \mathcal{R} be the region enclosed by the loop of the curve in Example 1.
 - (a) Find the area of \Re .
 - (b) If \Re is rotated about the *x*-axis, find the volume of the resulting solid.
 - (c) Find the centroid of \Re .
- **37–40** Set up an integral that represents the length of the curve. Then use your calculator to find the length correct to four decimal places.
- **37.** $x = t + e^{-t}$, $y = t e^{-t}$, $0 \le t \le 2$
- **38.** $x = t^2 t$, $y = t^4$, $1 \le t \le 4$
- **39.** $x = t 2 \sin t$, $y = 1 2 \cos t$, $0 \le t \le 4\pi$
- **40.** $x = t + \sqrt{t}$, $y = t \sqrt{t}$, $0 \le t \le 1$
- 41–44 Find the exact length of the curve.
- **41.** $x = 1 + 3t^2$, $y = 4 + 2t^3$, $0 \le t \le 1$
- **42.** $x = e^t t$, $y = 4e^{t/2}$, $0 \le t \le 2$
- **43.** $x = t \sin t$, $y = t \cos t$, $0 \le t \le 1$
- **44.** $x = 3 \cos t \cos 3t$, $y = 3 \sin t \sin 3t$, $0 \le t \le \pi$
- 45-46 Graph the curve and find its exact length.
 - **45.** $x = e^t \cos t$, $y = e^t \sin t$, $0 \le t \le \pi$
 - **46.** $x = \cos t + \ln(\tan \frac{1}{2}t)$, $y = \sin t$, $\pi/4 \le t \le 3\pi/4$
- $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$ 47. Graph the curve $x = \sin t + \sin 1.5t$, $y = \cos t$ and find its length correct to four decimal places.
 - **48.** Find the length of the loop of the curve $x = 3t t^3$, $y = 3t^2$.
 - **49.** Use Simpson's Rule with n = 6 to estimate the length of the curve $x = t e^t$, $y = t + e^t$, $-6 \le t \le 6$.
 - **50.** In Exercise 10.1.43 you were asked to derive the parametric equations $x = 2a \cot \theta$, $y = 2a \sin^2 \theta$ for the curve called the witch of Maria Agnesi. Use Simpson's Rule with n = 4 to estimate the length of the arc of this curve given by $\pi/4 \le \theta \le \pi/2$.
 - **51–52** Find the distance traveled by a particle with position (x, y) as t varies in the given time interval. Compare with the length of the curve.
 - **51.** $x = \sin^2 t$, $y = \cos^2 t$, $0 \le t \le 3\pi$
 - **52.** $x = \cos^2 t$, $y = \cos t$, $0 \le t \le 4\pi$
 - **53.** Show that the total length of the ellipse $x = a \sin \theta$, $y = b \cos \theta$, a > b > 0, is

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

- where *e* is the eccentricity of the ellipse (e = c/a), where $c = \sqrt{a^2 b^2}$.
- **54.** Find the total length of the astroid $x = a \cos^3 \theta$, $y = a \sin^3 \theta$, where a > 0.
- **55.** (a) Graph the **epitrochoid** with equations

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

What parameter interval gives the complete curve?

- (b) Use your CAS to find the approximate length of this curve.
- **65.** A curve called **Cornu's spiral** is defined by the parametric equations

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

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

where C and S are the Fresnel functions that were introduced in Chapter 4.

- (a) Graph this curve. What happens as $t \to \infty$ and as $t \to -\infty$?
- (b) Find the length of Cornu's spiral from the origin to the point with parameter value *t*.
- **57–60** Set up an integral that represents the area of the surface obtained by rotating the given curve about the *x*-axis. Then use your calculator to find the surface area correct to four decimal places.
- **57.** $x = t \sin t$, $y = t \cos t$, $0 \le t \le \pi/2$
- **58.** $x = \sin t$, $y = \sin 2t$, $0 \le t \le \pi/2$
- **59.** $x = t + e^t$, $y = e^{-t}$, $0 \le t \le 1$
- **60.** $x = t^2 t^3$, $y = t + t^4$, $0 \le t \le 1$
- **61–63** Find the exact area of the surface obtained by rotating the given curve about the *x*-axis.
- **61.** $x = t^3$, $y = t^2$, $0 \le t \le 1$
- **62.** $x = 2t^2 + 1/t$, $y = 8\sqrt{t}$, $1 \le t \le 3$
- **63.** $x = a \cos^3 \theta$, $y = a \sin^3 \theta$, $0 \le \theta \le \pi/2$
- **64.** Graph the curve

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

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

- **65–66** Find the surface area generated by rotating the given curve about the *y*-axis.
- **65.** $x = 3t^2$, $y = 2t^3$, $0 \le t \le 5$

- **66.** $x = e^t t$, $y = 4e^{t/2}$, $0 \le t \le 1$
- **67.** If f' is continuous and $f'(t) \neq 0$ for $a \leq t \leq b$, show that the parametric curve x = f(t), y = g(t), $a \leq t \leq b$, can be put in the form y = F(x). [*Hint*: Show that f^{-1} exists.]
- **68.** Use Formula 1 to derive Formula 6 from Formula 8.2.5 for the case in which the curve can be represented in the form y = F(x), $a \le x \le b$.
- **69.** The **curvature** at a point *P* of a curve is defined as

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

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

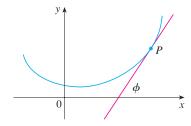
(a) For a parametric curve x = x(t), y = y(t), derive the formula

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

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

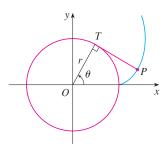
(b) By regarding a curve y = f(x) as the parametric curve x = x, y = f(x), with parameter x, show that the formula in part (a) becomes

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

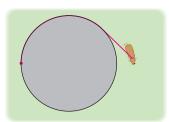


- **70.** (a) Use the formula in Exercise 69(b) to find the curvature of the parabola $y = x^2$ at the point (1, 1).
 - (b) At what point does this parabola have maximum curvature?
- **71.** Use the formula in Exercise 69(a) to find the curvature of the cycloid $x = \theta \sin \theta$, $y = 1 \cos \theta$ at the top of one of its arches.
- **72.** (a) Show that the curvature at each point of a straight line is $\kappa = 0$.
 - (b) Show that the curvature at each point of a circle of radius r is $\kappa = 1/r$.
- **73.** A string is wound around a circle and then unwound while being held taut. The curve traced by the point P at the end of the string is called the **involute** of the circle. If the circle has radius r and center O and the initial position of P is (r, 0), and if the parameter θ is chosen as in the figure, show that parametric equations of the involute are

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



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



LABORATORY PROJECT PR BÉZIER CURVES

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

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

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

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

- **1.** Graph the Bézier curve with control points $P_0(4, 1)$, $P_1(28, 48)$, $P_2(50, 42)$, and $P_3(40, 5)$. Then, on the same screen, graph the line segments P_0P_1 , P_1P_2 , and P_2P_3 . (Exercise 10.1.31 shows how to do this.) Notice that the middle control points P_1 and P_2 don't lie on the curve; the curve starts at P_0 , heads toward P_1 and P_2 without reaching them, and ends at P_3 .
- **2.** From the graph in Problem 1, it appears that the tangent at P_0 passes through P_1 and the tangent at P_3 passes through P_2 . Prove it.
- **3.** Try to produce a Bézier curve with a loop by changing the second control point in Problem 1.
- **4.** Some laser printers use Bézier curves to represent letters and other symbols. Experiment with control points until you find a Bézier curve that gives a reasonable representation of the letter C.
- 5. More complicated shapes can be represented by piecing together two or more Bézier curves. Suppose the first Bézier curve has control points P₀, P₁, P₂, P₃ and the second one has control points P₃, P₄, P₅, P₆. If we want these two pieces to join together smoothly, then the tangents at P₃ should match and so the points P₂, P₃, and P₄ all have to lie on this common tangent line. Using this principle, find control points for a pair of Bézier curves that represent the letter S.

10.3 Polar Coordinates

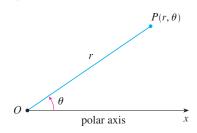


FIGURE 1

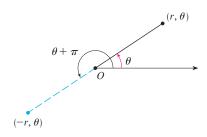


FIGURE 2

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

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

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

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

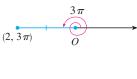
EXAMPLE 1 Plot the points whose polar coordinates are given.

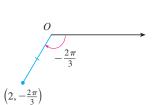
- (a) $(1, 5\pi/4)$
- (b) $(2, 3\pi)$
- (c) $(2, -2\pi/3)$
- (d) $(-3, 3\pi/4)$

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









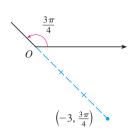
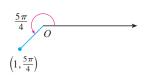
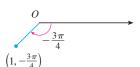
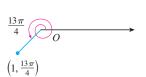


FIGURE 3

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







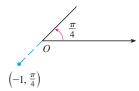
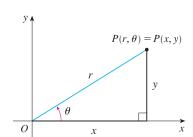


FIGURE 4

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

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

where n is any integer.

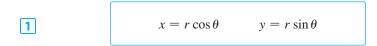


The connection between polar and Cartesian coordinates can be seen from Figure 5, in which the pole corresponds to the origin and the polar axis coincides with the positive x-axis. If the point P has Cartesian coordinates (x, y) and polar coordinates (r, θ) , then, from the figure, we have

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

and so

FIGURE 5



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

Equations 1 allow us to find the Cartesian coordinates of a point when the polar coordinates are known. To find r and θ when x and y are known, we use the equations

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

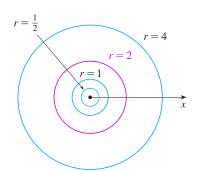


FIGURE 6

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Polar Curves

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

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

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

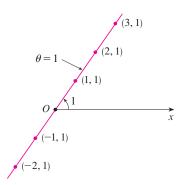


FIGURE 7

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

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

EXAMPLE 6

- (a) Sketch the curve with polar equation $r = 2 \cos \theta$.
- (b) Find a Cartesian equation for this curve.

SOLUTION

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

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

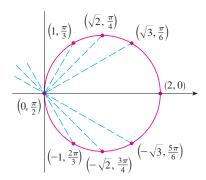


FIGURE 8 Table of values and graph of $r = 2 \cos \theta$

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

$$2x = r^2 = x^2 + y^2$$
 or $x^2 + y^2 - 2x = 0$

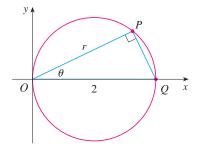
Completing the square, we obtain

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

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

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

FIGURE 9



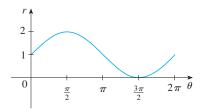


FIGURE 10 $r = 1 + \sin \theta$ in Cartesian coordinates, $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$

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

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

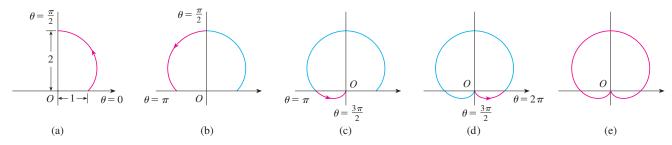


FIGURE 11 Stages in sketching the cardioid $r = 1 + \sin \theta$

Module 10.3 helps you see how polar curves are traced out by showing animations similar to Figures 10–13.

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

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

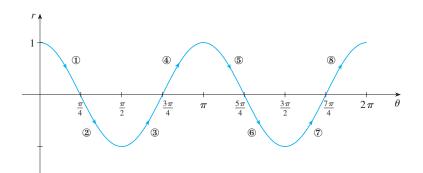


FIGURE 12 $r = \cos 2\theta$ in Cartesian coordinates

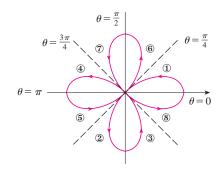
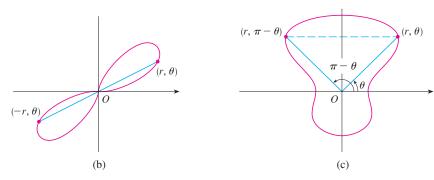


FIGURE 13 Four-leaved rose $r = \cos 2\theta$

Symmetry

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

- (a) If a polar equation is unchanged when θ is replaced by $-\theta$, the curve is symmetric about the polar axis.
- (b) If the equation is unchanged when r is replaced by -r, or when θ is replaced by $\theta + \pi$, the curve is symmetric about the pole. (This means that the curve remains unchanged if we rotate it through 180° about the origin.)
- (c) If the equation is unchanged when θ is replaced by $\pi \theta$, the curve is symmetric about the vertical line $\theta = \pi/2$.



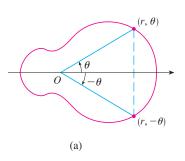


FIGURE 14

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

Tangents to Polar Curves

To find a tangent line to a polar curve $r = f(\theta)$, we regard θ as a parameter and write its parametric equations as

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

Then, using the method for finding slopes of parametric curves (Equation 10.2.1) and the Product Rule, we have

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

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

Notice that if we are looking for tangent lines at the pole, then r=0 and Equation 3 simplifies to

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

For instance, in Example 8 we found that $r = \cos 2\theta = 0$ when $\theta = \pi/4$ or $3\pi/4$. This means that the lines $\theta = \pi/4$ and $\theta = 3\pi/4$ (or y = x and y = -x) are tangent lines to $r = \cos 2\theta$ at the origin.

EXAMPLE 9

(a) For the cardioid $r = 1 + \sin \theta$ of Example 7, find the slope of the tangent line when $\theta = \pi/3$.

(b) Find the points on the cardioid where the tangent line is horizontal or vertical.

SOLUTION Using Equation 3 with $r = 1 + \sin \theta$, we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{dr}{d\theta}\sin\theta + r\cos\theta}{\frac{dr}{d\theta}\cos\theta - r\sin\theta} = \frac{\cos\theta\sin\theta + (1+\sin\theta)\cos\theta}{\cos\theta\cos\theta - (1+\sin\theta)\sin\theta}$$
$$= \frac{\cos\theta(1+2\sin\theta)}{1-2\sin^2\theta - \sin\theta} = \frac{\cos\theta(1+2\sin\theta)}{(1+\sin\theta)(1-2\sin\theta)}$$

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

$$\frac{dy}{dx} \bigg|_{\theta=\pi/3} = \frac{\cos(\pi/3)(1+2\sin(\pi/3))}{(1+\sin(\pi/3))(1-2\sin(\pi/3))} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(1+\sqrt{3})}{(1+\sqrt{3}/2)(1-\sqrt{3})}$$
$$= \frac{1+\sqrt{3}}{(2+\sqrt{3})(1-\sqrt{3})} = \frac{1+\sqrt{3}}{-1-\sqrt{3}} = -1$$

(b) Observe that

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

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

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

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

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

By symmetry,

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

FIGURE 15 Tangent lines for $r = 1 + \sin \theta$

 $\left(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{5\pi}{6}\right)$

Thus there is a vertical tangent line at the pole (see Figure 15).

NOTE Instead of having to remember Equation 3, we could employ the method used to derive it. For instance, in Example 9 we could have written

$$x = r\cos\theta = (1 + \sin\theta)\cos\theta = \cos\theta + \frac{1}{2}\sin 2\theta$$
$$y = r\sin\theta = (1 + \sin\theta)\sin\theta = \sin\theta + \sin^2\theta$$

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

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

which is equivalent to our previous expression.

Then we have

Graphing Polar Curves with Graphing Devices

Although it's useful to be able to sketch simple polar curves by hand, we need to use a graphing calculator or computer when we are faced with a curve as complicated as the ones shown in Figures 16 and 17.

Some graphing devices have commands that enable us to graph polar curves directly. With other machines we need to convert to parametric equations first. In this case we take the polar equation $r = f(\theta)$ and write its parametric equations as

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

Some machines require that the parameter be called t rather than θ .

EXAMPLE 10 Graph the curve $r = \sin(8\theta/5)$.

SOLUTION Let's assume that our graphing device doesn't have a built-in polar graphing command. In this case we need to work with the corresponding parametric equations, which are

$$x = r \cos \theta = \sin(8\theta/5) \cos \theta$$
 $y = r \sin \theta = \sin(8\theta/5) \sin \theta$

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

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

and so we require that $16n\pi/5$ be an even multiple of π . This will first occur when n=5. Therefore we will graph the entire curve if we specify that $0 \le \theta \le 10\pi$. Switching from θ to t, we have the equations

$$x = \sin(8t/5)\cos t \qquad y = \sin(8t/5)\sin t \qquad 0 \le t \le 10\pi$$

and Figure 18 shows the resulting curve. Notice that this rose has 16 loops.

EXAMPLE 11 Investigate the family of polar curves given by $r = 1 + c \sin \theta$. How does the shape change as c changes? (These curves are called **limaçons**, after a French word for snail, because of the shape of the curves for certain values of c.)

SOLUTION Figure 19 on page 706 shows computer-drawn graphs for various values of c. For c>1 there is a loop that decreases in size as c decreases. When c=1 the loop disappears and the curve becomes the cardioid that we sketched in Example 7. For c between 1 and $\frac{1}{2}$ the cardioid's cusp is smoothed out and becomes a "dimple." When c

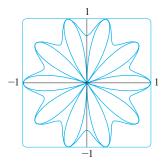


FIGURE 16 $r = \sin^3(2.5\theta) + \cos^3(2.5\theta)$

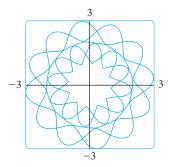


FIGURE 17 $r = 2 + \sin^3(2.4\theta)$

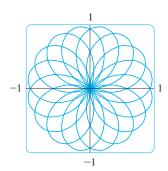
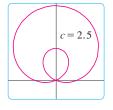
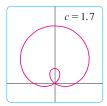


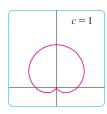
FIGURE 18 $r = \sin(8\theta/5)$

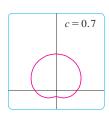
In Exercise 53 you are asked to prove analytically what we have discovered from the graphs in Figure 19.

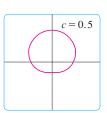
decreases from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 0, the limaçon is shaped like an oval. This oval becomes more circular as $c \rightarrow 0$, and when c = 0 the curve is just the circle r = 1.

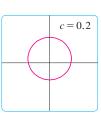


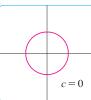


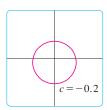


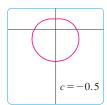


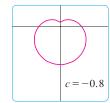


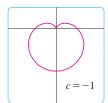












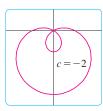


FIGURE 19

Members of the family of $\lim_{n \to \infty} c = 1 + c \sin \theta$

The remaining parts of Figure 19 show that as c becomes negative, the shapes change in reverse order. In fact, these curves are reflections about the horizontal axis of the corresponding curves with positive c.

Limaçons arise in the study of planetary motion. In particular, the trajectory of Mars, as viewed from the planet Earth, has been modeled by a limacon with a loop, as in the parts of Figure 19 with |c| > 1.

10.3 EXERCISES

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

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

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

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

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

5–6 The Cartesian coordinates of a point are given.

- (i) Find polar coordinates (r, θ) of the point, where r > 0and $0 \le \theta < 2\pi$.
- (ii) Find polar coordinates (r, θ) of the point, where r < 0and $0 \le \theta < 2\pi$.
- **5.** (a) (-4, 4)
- (b) $(3, 3\sqrt{3})$
- **6.** (a) $(\sqrt{3}, -1)$
- (b) (-6,0)

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

- **7.** $r \ge 1$
- **8.** $0 \le r < 2$, $\pi \le \theta \le 3\pi/2$
- **9.** $r \ge 0$, $\pi/4 \le \theta \le 3\pi/4$
- **10.** $1 \le r \le 3$, $\pi/6 < \theta < 5\pi/6$
- **11.** 2 < r < 3, $5\pi/3 \le \theta \le 7\pi/3$
- **12.** $r \ge 1$, $\pi \le \theta \le 2\pi$

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

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

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

15. $r^2 = 5$

- **16.** $r = 4 \sec \theta$
- **17.** $r = 5 \cos \theta$
- **18.** $\theta = \pi/3$
- **19.** $r^2 \cos 2\theta = 1$
- **20.** $r^2 \sin 2\theta = 1$

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

21.
$$y = 2$$

22.
$$y = x$$

23.
$$y = 1 + 3x$$

24.
$$4y^2 = x$$

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

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

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

- **27.** (a) A line through the origin that makes an angle of $\pi/6$ with the positive x-axis
 - (b) A vertical line through the point (3, 3)
- **28.** (a) A circle with radius 5 and center (2, 3)
 - (b) A circle centered at the origin with radius 4

29–46 Sketch the curve with the given polar equation by first sketching the graph of r as a function of θ in Cartesian coordinates.

29.
$$r = -2 \sin \theta$$

30.
$$r = 1 - \cos \theta$$

31.
$$r = 2(1 + \cos \theta)$$

32.
$$r = 1 + 2\cos\theta$$

33.
$$r = \theta, \ \theta \geqslant 0$$

34.
$$r = \theta^2, -2\pi \le \theta \le 2\pi$$

35.
$$r = 3 \cos 3\theta$$

36.
$$r = -\sin 5\theta$$

37.
$$r = 2 \cos 4\theta$$

38.
$$r = 2 \sin 6\theta$$

39.
$$r = 1 + 3 \cos \theta$$

40.
$$r = 1 + 5 \sin \theta$$

41.
$$r^2 = 9 \sin 2\theta$$

42.
$$r^2 = \cos 4\theta$$

43.
$$r = 2 + \sin 3\theta$$

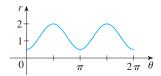
44.
$$r^2\theta = 1$$

45.
$$r = \sin(\theta/2)$$

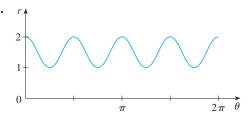
46.
$$r = \cos(\theta/3)$$

47–48 The figure shows a graph of r as a function of θ in Cartesian coordinates. Use it to sketch the corresponding polar curve.





48.



- **49.** Show that the polar curve $r = 4 + 2 \sec \theta$ (called a **conchoid**) has the line x = 2 as a vertical asymptote by showing that $\lim_{r\to\pm\infty} x = 2$. Use this fact to help sketch the conchoid.
- **50.** Show that the curve $r = 2 \csc \theta$ (also a conchoid) has the line y = -1 as a horizontal asymptote by showing that $\lim_{r\to\pm\infty} y = -1$. Use this fact to help sketch the conchoid.
- **51.** Show that the curve $r = \sin \theta \tan \theta$ (called a **cissoid of Diocles**) has the line x = 1 as a vertical asymptote. Show also that the curve lies entirely within the vertical strip $0 \le x < 1$. Use these facts to help sketch the cissoid.
- **52.** Sketch the curve $(x^2 + y^2)^3 = 4x^2y^2$.
- **53.** (a) In Example 11 the graphs suggest that the limaçon $r = 1 + c \sin \theta$ has an inner loop when |c| > 1. Prove that this is true, and find the values of θ that correspond to the inner loop.
 - (b) From Figure 19 it appears that the limaçon loses its dimple when $c = \frac{1}{2}$. Prove this.
- **54.** Match the polar equations with the graphs labeled I–VI. Give reasons for your choices. (Don't use a graphing device.)

(a)
$$r = \ln \theta$$
, $1 \le \theta \le 6\pi$

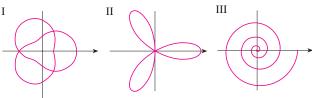
(b)
$$r = \theta^2$$
, $0 \le \theta \le 8\pi$

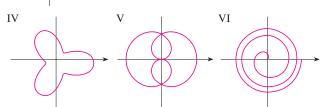
(c)
$$r = \cos 3\theta$$

(d)
$$r = 2 + \cos 3\theta$$

(e)
$$r = \cos(\theta/2)$$

(f)
$$r = 2 + \cos(3\theta/2)$$





55-60 Find the slope of the tangent line to the given polar curve at the point specified by the value of θ .

55.
$$r=2\cos\theta$$
, $\theta=$

55.
$$r = 2\cos\theta$$
, $\theta = \pi/3$ **56.** $r = 2 + \sin 3\theta$, $\theta = \pi/4$

57.
$$r = 1/\theta, \quad \theta = \pi$$

58.
$$r = \cos(\theta/3), \quad \theta = \pi$$

59.
$$r = \cos 2\theta, \quad \theta = \pi/4$$

60.
$$r = 1 + 2\cos\theta$$
, $\theta = \pi/3$

61-64 Find the points on the given curve where the tangent line is horizontal or vertical.

61.
$$r = 3\cos\theta$$

62.
$$r = 1 - \sin \theta$$

63.
$$r = 1 + \cos \theta$$

64.
$$r = e^{\theta}$$