## MTH5113 (2023/24): Problem Sheet 6 Solutions

(1) (Warm-up) For each of the sets C and points $\mathbf{p} \in \mathrm{C}$ given below:
(i) Show that C is a curve.
(ii) Sketch $\mathbf{C}$, and indicate the point $\mathbf{p}$ on $\mathbf{C}$.
(iii) Give a parametrisation of $\mathbf{C}$ that passes through $\mathbf{p}$.
(a) Hyperbola:

$$
C=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2} \mid x^{2}-y^{2}=-1\right\}, \quad \mathbf{p}=(0,-1)
$$

(b) Cubic:

$$
C=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2} \mid(x-2)^{3}=y-3\right\}, \quad \mathbf{p}=(0,-5)
$$

(c) Ellipse:

$$
C=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2} \mid x^{2}+6 x+4 y^{2}-8 y=3\right\}, \quad \mathbf{p}=(-3,-1)
$$

(a) (i) Note that C can be written as the following level set:

$$
C=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2} \mid f(x, y)=-1\right\}
$$

where $f$ is the function

$$
f: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x, y)=x^{2}-y^{2}
$$

Observe that the gradient of $f$ satisfies

$$
\nabla f(x, y)=(2 x,-2 y)_{(x, y)}
$$

which vanishes only when $(x, y)=(0,0) \notin C$. Thus, the "level set theorem" (from either the lectures or the lecture notes) implies that C is indeed a curve.
(ii) A sketch is given below, with $\mathbf{C}$ in red and $\mathbf{p}$ in green:

(iii) One approach is to set $x$ to be the parameter $t$. Note that $y$ must satisfy

$$
y^{2}=1+x^{2}, \quad y= \pm \sqrt{1+x^{2}}= \pm \sqrt{1+t^{2}}
$$

Since this parametrisation must pass through $\mathbf{p}=(0,-1)$, it follows that we must choose the negative branch in the above. As a result, one possible parametrisation of C is

$$
\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}, \quad \gamma(\mathrm{t})=\left(\mathrm{t},-\sqrt{1+\mathrm{t}^{2}}\right) .
$$

(Note in particular $\gamma$ maps out the bottom half of $C$, and that $\gamma(0)=(0,-1)$.)
If you like hyperbolic functions, then a slicker parametrisation of the bottom half of $C$ is

$$
\lambda: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}, \quad \lambda(t)=(\sinh t,-\cosh t)
$$

(Note in particular that $\lambda(0)=(0,-1)$.)
(b) (i) Here, we need simply note that C is the graph of the function

$$
\mathfrak{c}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad c(x)=(x-2)^{3}+3
$$

that is,

$$
\mathrm{C}=\{(\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{c}(\mathrm{t})) \mid \mathrm{t} \in \mathbb{R}\} .
$$

It follows (from theorems in lectures or the lecture notes) that C is indeed a curve.
(ii) A sketch is given below, with $\mathbf{C}$ in red and $\mathbf{p}$ in green:

(iii) Since C is the graph of c from part (i), we have a natural way to parametrise all of C :

$$
\gamma_{c}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}, \quad \gamma_{c}(t)=(t, c(t))=\left(t,(t-2)^{3}+3\right)
$$

Note in particular that $\gamma_{c}(0)=(0,-5)$.
(c) This one is a bit trickier. First, we can write the defining equation for C as

$$
16=\left(x^{2}+6 x+9\right)+4\left(y^{2}-2 y+4\right)=(x+3)^{2}+4(y-1)^{2}
$$

In other words, we can express

$$
C=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2} \mid(x+3)^{2}+4(y-1)^{2}=16\right\}
$$

from which we can conclude that $C$ is an ellipse centred at $(-3,1)$.
(i) To show C is a curve, we first note that it is a level set of the function

$$
g: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad g(x, y)=(x+3)^{2}+4(y-1)^{2}
$$

Note that the gradient of $g$ satisfies

$$
\nabla \mathrm{g}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})=(2(\mathrm{x}+3), 8(\mathrm{y}-1))_{(x, y)}
$$

which only vanishes when $(x, y)=(-3,1)$. Since $(-3,1) \notin C$ (this can be checked using the definition of $C$ ), it follows that $C$ is indeed a curve.
(ii) A sketch is given below, with $\mathbf{C}$ in red and $\mathbf{p}$ in green:

(iii) The nicest parametrisation is obtained by relating C to a circle. Setting

$$
\tilde{x}=x+3, \quad \tilde{y}=2(y-1)
$$

then the defining equation for C is becomes

$$
\tilde{x}^{2}+\tilde{y}^{2}=4^{2}
$$

Since the above describes a circle about the origin of radius 4, this can be parametrised as $\tilde{x}=4 \cos t$ and $\tilde{y}=4 \sin t$. Putting the above in terms of $x$ and $y$ yields

$$
x=-3+4 \cos t, \quad y=1+2 \sin t
$$

The above implies that the following is a valid parametrisation of (all of) C:

$$
\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}, \quad \gamma(\mathrm{t})=(-3+4 \cos \mathrm{t}, 1+2 \sin \mathrm{t}) .
$$

(Note, in particular, that $(-3,-1)=\gamma\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$.)

Alternatively, one can set $x=t$ and solve for $y$. This yields

$$
\lambda:(-7,1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}, \quad \lambda(t)=\left(t, 1-\sqrt{4-\frac{1}{4}(t+3)^{2}}\right) .
$$

In this case, $(-3,-1)=\lambda(-3)$.
(2) (Fun with plotting) The following are exercises involving sketching parametric surfaces. Do make use of computer programs or webpages (see the links in the Additional Resources section on the QMPlus page) to help you with your sketches.
(a) Sphere: Consider the following parametric surface:

$$
\sigma: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}, \quad \sigma(u, v)=(\cos u \sin v, \sin u \sin v, \cos v)
$$

(i) Sketch the paths obtained from $\sigma$ by holding $v$ constant, with values

$$
v_{0}=0, \frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3 \pi}{4}, \pi
$$

(ii) Sketch the paths obtained from $\sigma$ by holding $u$ constant, with values

$$
u_{0}=0, \frac{\pi}{2}, \pi, \frac{3 \pi}{2}, 2 \pi .
$$

(iii) Sketch the image of $\sigma$.
(b) Hyperboloid: Consider the following parametric surface:

$$
\mathbf{h}: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}, \quad \mathbf{h}(u, v)=(\cos u \cosh v, \sin u \cosh v, \sinh v)
$$

(i) Sketch the paths obtained from $\mathbf{h}$ by holding $v$ constant, with values

$$
v_{0}=-2,-1,0,1,2 .
$$

(ii) Sketch the paths obtained from $\mathbf{h}$ by holding $\boldsymbol{u}$ constant, with values

$$
u_{0}=0, \frac{\pi}{2}, \pi, \frac{3 \pi}{2}, 2 \pi .
$$

(iii) Sketch the image of $\mathbf{h}$.
(a) A sketch of $\sigma$ is given below; moreover, the paths obtained by holding $v$ constant are drawn in red, while the paths obtained by holding $u$ constant are drawn in blue:

(b) A sketch of $\mathbf{h}$ is given below; moreover, the paths obtained by holding $v$ constant are drawn in red, while the paths obtained by holding $u$ constant are drawn in blue:

(3) (Warm-up) For each of the following parametric surfaces $\sigma$ and parameters $\left(u_{0}, v_{0}\right)$, compute the tangent plane to $\sigma$ at $\left(u_{0}, v_{0}\right)$ :
(a) $\sigma$ is the parametric cylinder,

$$
\sigma: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}, \quad \sigma(u, v)=(\cos u, \sin u, v)
$$

and $\left(u_{0}, v_{0}\right)=\left(\frac{\pi}{2},-1\right)$.
(b) $\sigma$ is the parametric one-sheeted hyperboloid,

$$
\sigma: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}, \quad \sigma(u, v)=(\cos u \cosh v, \sin u \cosh v, \sinh v)
$$

and $\left(u_{0}, v_{0}\right)=(\pi, 1)$.
(a) We begin by differentiating $\sigma$ :

$$
\partial_{1} \sigma(u, v)=(-\sin u, \cos u, 0), \quad \partial_{2} \sigma(u, v)=(0,0,1) .
$$

Evaluating the above at $\left(\frac{\pi}{2},-1\right)$ yields

$$
\sigma\left(\frac{\pi}{2},-1\right)=(0,1,-1), \quad \partial_{1} \sigma\left(\frac{\pi}{2},-1\right)=(-1,0,0), \quad \partial_{2} \sigma\left(\frac{\pi}{2},-1\right)=(0,0,1)
$$

Thus, by definition, we conclude that

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{\sigma}\left(-\frac{\pi}{2},-1\right) & =\left\{\left.a \cdot \partial_{1} \sigma\left(\frac{\pi}{2},-1\right)_{\sigma\left(\frac{\pi}{2},-1\right)}+b \cdot \partial_{2} \sigma\left(\frac{\pi}{2},-1\right)_{\sigma\left(\frac{\pi}{2},-1\right)} \right\rvert\, a, b \in \mathbb{R}\right\} \\
& =\left\{a \cdot(-1,0,0)_{(0,1,-1)}+b \cdot(0,0,1)_{(0,1,-1)} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) Taking partial derivatives of $\sigma$ yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \partial_{1} \sigma(u, v)=(-\sin u \cosh v, \cos u \cosh v, 0), \\
& \partial_{2} \sigma(u, v)=(\cos u \sinh v, \sin u \sinh v, \cosh v)
\end{aligned}
$$

Evaluating the above at $(\pi, 1)$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma(\pi, 1) & =(-\cosh 1,0, \sinh 1) \\
\partial_{1} \sigma(\pi, 1) & =(0,-\cosh 1,0),
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\partial_{2} \sigma(\pi, 1)=(-\sinh 1,0, \cosh 1)
$$

Thus, by definition,

$$
T_{\sigma}(\pi, 1)=\left\{a(0,-\cosh 1,0)_{(-\cosh 1,0, \sinh 1)}+b(-\sinh 1,0, \cosh 1)_{(-\cosh 1,0, \sinh 1)} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}\right\} .
$$

The above answer can be further expanded by recalling the formulas

$$
\cosh 1=\frac{1}{2}\left(e+e^{-1}\right), \quad \sinh 1=\frac{1}{2}\left(e-e^{-1}\right)
$$

(4) (Introduction to curve integrals) One can also define an intermediate notion of curve integration of vector fields over parametric curves. More specifically:

Definition. Let $\gamma:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a parametric curve, and let $\mathbf{F}$ be a vector field that is defined on the image of $\gamma$. We then define the curve integral of $\mathbf{F}$ over $\gamma$ by

$$
\int_{\gamma} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathrm{ds}=\int_{\mathrm{a}}^{\mathrm{b}}\left[\mathbf{F}(\gamma(\mathrm{t})) \cdot \gamma^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})_{\gamma(\mathrm{t})}\right] \mathrm{dt} .
$$

For each of the following $\gamma$ and $\mathbf{F}$, compute the curve integral of $\mathbf{F}$ over $\gamma$ :
(a) $\gamma$ is the regular parametric curve

$$
\gamma:(0,1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}, \quad \gamma(t)=(t,-t, 2 t)
$$

and $\mathbf{F}$ is the vector field on $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ given by

$$
\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)=(x, y, z)_{(x, y, z)} .
$$

(b) $\gamma$ is the regular parametric curve

$$
\gamma:(0,2 \pi) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}, \quad \gamma(t)=(\cos t, \sin t \cos t)
$$

and $\mathbf{F}$ is the vector field on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ given by

$$
\mathbf{F}(x, y)=\left(x^{2}, 0\right)_{(x, y)}
$$

(a) The first step is to compute, for each $t \in(0,1)$,

$$
\gamma^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})=(1,-1,2), \quad \mathbf{F}(\gamma(\mathrm{t}))=\mathbf{F}(\mathrm{t},-\mathrm{t}, 2 \mathrm{t})=(\mathrm{t},-\mathrm{t}, 2 \mathrm{t})_{(\mathrm{t},-\mathrm{t}, 2 \mathrm{t})} .
$$

Thus, by the above definition, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{\gamma} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathrm{ds} & =\int_{0}^{1}\left[\mathbf{F}(\gamma(\mathrm{t})) \cdot \gamma^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})_{\gamma(\mathrm{t})}\right] \mathrm{dt} \\
& =\int_{0}^{1}\left[(\mathrm{t},-\mathrm{t}, 2 \mathrm{t})_{(\mathrm{t},-\mathrm{t}, 2 \mathrm{t})} \cdot(1,-1,2)_{(\mathrm{t},-\mathrm{t}, 2 \mathrm{t})}\right] \mathrm{dt} \\
& =\int_{0}^{1}[(\mathrm{t},-\mathrm{t}, 2 \mathrm{t}) \cdot(1,-1,2)] d t \\
& =\int_{0}^{1} 6 t d t \\
& =3
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) Again, we begin by computing the necessary quantities:

$$
\gamma^{\prime}(t)=\left(-\sin t, \cos ^{2} t-\sin ^{2} t\right), \quad F(\gamma(t))=\left(\cos ^{2} t, 0\right)_{(\cos t, \sin t \cos t)} .
$$

As a result, we see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{\gamma} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathrm{ds} & =\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left[\mathbf{F}(\gamma(\mathrm{t})) \cdot \gamma^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})_{\gamma(\mathrm{t})}\right] \mathrm{dt} \\
& =\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left[\left(\cos ^{2} \mathrm{t}, 0\right) \cdot\left(-\sin \mathrm{t}, \cos ^{2} \mathrm{t}-\sin ^{2} \mathrm{t}\right)\right] \mathrm{dt} \\
& =-\int_{0}^{2 \pi} \cos ^{2} \mathrm{t} \sin \mathrm{t} d \mathrm{t} \\
& =\frac{1}{3}\left[\cos ^{3} \mathrm{t}\right]_{\mathrm{t}=0}^{\mathrm{t}=2 \pi} \\
& =0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

(5) [Marked] (Conservative forces) Conservative forces have a very special property that we will explore in this problem. Consider a function $U: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which we will call the potential. The conservative force $\mathbf{F}$ associated to the potential U is given by

$$
\mathbf{F}=-\nabla \mathrm{U}
$$

(a) Consider the following potential

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

Compute the force $\mathbf{F}$ associated to U and sketch the vector field associated to $\mathbf{F}$. (You should produce something like Figure 2.18 from the lecture notes.)
(b) Consider two curves $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ with injective parametrizations $\gamma_{1}:(0,2 \pi) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ and $\gamma_{2}:(0,2 \pi) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ given by

$$
\gamma_{1}(\mathrm{t})=\left(0, \frac{\mathrm{t}}{2 \pi}\right), \quad \gamma_{2}(\mathrm{t})=\left(\sin (\mathrm{t}), \frac{\mathrm{t}}{2 \pi}\right)
$$

Sketch the curves $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$.
(c) Compute the curve integrals $\int_{\mathrm{C}_{1}} \mathbf{F} \cdot$ ds and $\int_{\mathrm{C}_{2}} \mathbf{F} \cdot$ ds. Do you notice anything?
(d) If you've done things correctly, you should have found $\int_{C_{1}} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathrm{ds}=\int_{\mathrm{C}_{2}} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathrm{ds}$ : the answer is independent of the shape of the curve! In fact, you may have noticed that

$$
\int_{\mathrm{C}_{1}} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathrm{ds}=\int_{\mathrm{C}_{2}} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathrm{ds}=-(\mathrm{U}(0,1)-\mathrm{U}(0,0))
$$

Does this remind you of anything? We will explore this further in section 5.4 of the lecture notes.
(a) To compute $\mathbf{F}$ need to compute the gradient of $\mathbf{U}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{F} & =-\nabla \mathrm{U}=-\left(\partial_{1} \mathrm{U}, \partial_{2} \mathrm{U}\right)_{(x, y)} \\
& =\left(-\frac{x}{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+1\right)^{3 / 2}},-\frac{y}{\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+1\right)^{3 / 2}}\right)_{(x, y)}
\end{aligned}
$$

[1 mark for correct computation]
A sketch of this vector field is provided here

[1 mark for mostly correct sketch]
(b) A sketch of the two curves $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ is provided below

[1 mark for mostly correct sketch]
(c) Since parametrisations induce an orientation for a curve, we have two curves endowed with a natural orientation. [1 mark for correct orientation]

Let us first compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{C_{1}} \mathbb{F} \cdot d s & =\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left[\mathbf{F}\left(\gamma_{1}(t)\right) \cdot \gamma_{1}^{\prime}(t)_{\gamma_{1}(t)}\right] d t \\
& =\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left[\left(0,-\frac{t}{2 \pi\left(1+\frac{t^{2}}{4 \pi^{2}}\right)^{3 / 2}}\right)_{\left(0, \frac{t}{2 \pi}\right)} \cdot\left(0, \frac{1}{2 \pi}\right)_{\left(0, \frac{t}{2 \pi}\right)}\right] d t \\
& =\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left[-\frac{2 \pi t}{\left(4 \pi^{2}+t^{2}\right)^{3 / 2}}\right] d t \\
& =\left.\frac{2 \pi}{\sqrt{4 \pi^{2}+t^{2}}}\right|_{0} ^{2 \pi} \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}-1
\end{aligned}
$$

[1 mark for mostly correct manipulations. 1 mark for correct answer.]

Similarly for $C_{2}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \int_{C_{2}} F \cdot d s=\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left[F\left(\gamma_{2}(t)\right) \cdot \gamma_{2}^{\prime}(t)_{\gamma_{2}(t)}\right] d t \\
& =\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left[\left(\frac{-\sin (t)}{\left(1+\sin ^{2}(t)+\frac{t^{2}}{4 \pi^{2}}\right)^{3 / 2}}, \frac{-t}{2 \pi\left(1+\sin ^{2}(t)+\frac{t^{2}}{4 \pi^{2}}\right)^{3 / 2}}\right)_{\left(\sin t, \frac{t}{2 \pi}\right)} \cdot\left(\cos t, \frac{1}{2 \pi}\right)_{\left(\sin t, \frac{t}{2 \pi}\right)}\right] d t \\
& =\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left[-\frac{2 \pi\left(4 \pi^{2} \sin t \cos t+t\right)}{\left(4 \pi^{2}+4 \pi^{2} \sin ^{2}(t)+t^{2}\right)^{3 / 2}}\right] d t \\
& =\left.\frac{2 \pi}{\sqrt{4 \pi^{2}+4 \pi^{2} \sin ^{2}(t)+t^{2}}}\right|_{0} ^{2 \pi} \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}-1
\end{aligned}
$$

[1 mark for mostly correct manipulations. 1 mark for correct answer.]
(d) We have just shown that

$$
-\int_{\mathrm{C}_{1}}(\nabla \mathrm{U}) \cdot \mathrm{ds}=-\int_{\mathrm{C}_{2}}(\nabla \mathrm{U}) \cdot \mathrm{ds}=-(\mathrm{U}(0,1)-\mathrm{U}(0,0)),
$$

which is the difference between U and the start point and U at the end point of either curve. This should remind you of the fundamental theorem of calculus. [1 mark for any reasonable statement.]
(6) [Tutorial] For each of the following oriented curves $C$ and vector fields $\mathbf{F}$ :
(i) Give an injective parametrisation $\gamma$ of C such that the image of $\gamma$ differs from C by only a finite number of points. Which orientation does $\gamma$ generate?
(ii) Compute the (curve) integral of $\mathbf{F}$ over the curve $\mathbf{C}$.
(a) C is the anticlockwise-oriented ellipse,

$$
C=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2} \mid 3 x^{2}+2 y^{2}=6\right\}
$$

and $\mathbf{F}$ is the vector field on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ given by

$$
\mathbf{F}(x, y)=(y,-x)_{(x, y)}
$$

(b) C is the downward-oriented (with decreasing $z$-value) helical segment,

$$
C=\{(\cos t, \sin t, t) \mid t \in(0,2 \pi)\}
$$

and $\mathbf{F}$ is the vector field on $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ given by

$$
\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)=(-y, x, 1)_{(x, y, z)} .
$$

(a) (i) For this, we can borrow the formula from Question (5b) of Problem Sheet 4:

$$
\gamma(t)=(\sqrt{2} \cdot \cos t, \sqrt{3} \cdot \sin t)
$$

We can make it injective by restricting its domain so that it only traverses $C$ once:

$$
\gamma:(0,2 \pi) \rightarrow C, \quad \gamma(t)=(\sqrt{2} \cdot \cos t, \sqrt{3} \cdot \sin t) .
$$

(In particular, the image of image is all of $C$ except for its rightmost point $(\sqrt{2}, 0)$.) Furthermore, notice that $\gamma$ generates the anticlockwise orientation of C .
(ii) We can now integrate $\mathbf{F}$ using $\gamma$ from part (i):

$$
\int_{C} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathrm{~d} \mathbf{s}=+\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left[\mathbf{F}(\gamma(\mathrm{t})) \cdot \gamma^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})_{\gamma(\mathrm{t})}\right] \mathrm{dt} .
$$

By direct computations, we see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma^{\prime}(t) & =(-\sqrt{2} \cdot \sin t, \sqrt{3} \cdot \cos t) \\
F(\gamma(t)) & =(\sqrt{3} \cdot \sin t,-\sqrt{2} \cdot \cos t)(\sqrt{2} \cdot \cos t, \sqrt{3} \cdot \sin t)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, combining the above yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{C} \mathbf{F} \cdot d s & =\int_{0}^{2 \pi}[(\sqrt{3} \cdot \sin t,-\sqrt{2} \cdot \cos t) \cdot(-\sqrt{2} \cdot \sin t, \sqrt{3} \cdot \cos t)] d t \\
& =-\sqrt{6} \int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(\sin ^{2} t+\cos ^{2} t\right) d t \\
& =-2 \sqrt{6} \pi
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) (i) We can use the apparent parametrisation of C,

$$
\lambda:(0,2 \pi) \rightarrow C, \quad \lambda(t)=(\cos t, \sin t, t)
$$

which is injective and whose image is all of $C$. Notice, however, that $\lambda$ has the upward orientation, which is opposite to the given orientation of C .
(ii) The integral can now be computed using $\lambda$ from part (i):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{C} \mathbf{F} \cdot d \mathbf{s} & =-\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left[\mathbf{F}(\lambda(t)) \cdot \lambda^{\prime}(t)_{\lambda(t)}\right] d t \\
& =-\int_{0}^{2 \pi}[(-\sin t, \cos t, 1) \cdot(-\sin t, \cos t, 1)] d t \\
& =-\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(\sin ^{2} t+\cos ^{2} t+1\right) d t \\
& =-4 \pi .
\end{aligned}
$$

(7) (Exploring curvature) Let $\gamma: \mathrm{I} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be any regular parametric curve. We then define
the curvature of $\gamma$ at $\mathrm{t} \in \mathrm{I}$ by the formula

$$
\kappa_{\gamma}(t)=\frac{1}{\left|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right|}\left|\left(\frac{\gamma^{\prime}}{\left|\gamma^{\prime}\right|}\right)^{\prime}(t)\right|
$$

(This can be viewed as the "change in the direction of $\gamma$ per unit length"; see the 2019 version of the MTH5113 lecture notes for additional discussions of curvature.)
(a) Let $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, and let $\ell$ be the parametric line,

$$
\ell: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}, \quad \ell(\mathrm{t})=\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{t v} .
$$

Compute the curvature of $\ell$ at every $t \in \mathbb{R}$.
(b) Let $\mathrm{R}>0$, and let $\gamma_{\mathrm{R}}$ be the parametric circle of radius R :

$$
\gamma_{R}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}, \quad \gamma_{R}(t)=(R \cos t, R \sin t)
$$

Compute the curvature of $\gamma_{R}$ at every $t \in \mathbb{R}$.
(c) Show that curvature is independent of parametrisation. More specificially, show that if $\gamma$ is a reparametrisation of $\tilde{\gamma}: \tilde{\mathrm{I}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$, with corresponding change of variables $\phi: I \rightarrow \tilde{\mathrm{I}}$ (in particular, $\gamma(\mathrm{t})=\tilde{\gamma}(\phi(\mathrm{t}))$ for all $\mathrm{t} \in \mathrm{I}$ ), then

$$
\mathrm{K}_{\gamma}(\mathrm{t})=\mathrm{K}_{\tilde{\gamma}}(\phi(\mathrm{t})), \quad \mathrm{t} \in \mathrm{I} .
$$

(a) To compute the curvature of $\ell$, we first calculate

$$
\ell^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})=\mathbf{v}, \quad\left|\ell^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right|=|\mathbf{v}|, \quad \frac{\ell^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})}{\left|\ell^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right|}=\frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} .
$$

Since all three of the above are constant, we see from our given definition that

$$
K_{\ell}(\mathrm{t})=\frac{1}{\left|\ell^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right|}\left|\left(\frac{\ell^{\prime}}{\left|\ell^{\prime}\right|}\right)^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right|=\frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|}\left|\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dt}}\left(\frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|}\right)\right|=0, \quad \mathrm{t} \in \mathbb{R} .
$$

(b) First, some direct computations yield

$$
\gamma_{R}^{\prime}(t)=(-R \sin t, R \cos t), \quad\left|\gamma_{R}^{\prime}(t)\right|=R, \quad \frac{\gamma_{R}^{\prime}(t)}{\left|\gamma_{R}^{\prime}(t)\right|}=(-\sin t, \cos t) .
$$

Applying our given definition to the above then yields, for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$
K_{\gamma_{R}}(t)=\frac{1}{R}\left|\frac{d}{d t}(-\sin t, \cos t)\right|=\frac{1}{R}|(-\cos t,-\sin t)|=\frac{1}{R} .
$$

(c) Recalling the relation between $\gamma^{\prime}$ and $\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}$ (see lectures or the lecture notes), we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{K}_{\gamma}(\mathrm{t}) & =\frac{1}{\left|\gamma^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right|}\left|\left(\frac{\gamma^{\prime}}{\left|\gamma^{\prime}\right|}\right)^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right| \\
& =\frac{1}{\left|\phi^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right|\left|\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}(\phi(\mathrm{t}))\right|}\left|\left[\frac{\phi^{\prime} \cdot \tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}(\phi)}{\left|\phi^{\prime}\right| \cdot\left|\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}(\phi)\right|}\right]^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right| \\
& =\frac{1}{\left|\phi^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right|\left|\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}(\phi(\mathrm{t}))\right|}\left|\left[\frac{\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}(\phi)}{\left|\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}(\phi)\right|}\right]^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right|,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}(\phi)$ denotes the composition of $\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}$ with $\phi$, and where the last step follows from the observation that $\left|\phi^{\prime}(t)\right|^{-1} \phi^{\prime}(t)$ has constant value $\pm 1$.

Furthermore, applying the chain rule to the outer derivative in the above, we see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{K}_{\gamma}(\mathrm{t}) & =\frac{1}{\left|\phi^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right|\left|\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}(\phi(\mathrm{t}))\right|}\left|\left(\frac{\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}}{\left|\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}\right|}\right)^{\prime}(\phi(\mathrm{t})) \cdot \phi^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right| \\
& =\frac{1}{\left|\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}(\phi(\mathrm{t}))\right|}\left|\left(\frac{\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}}{\left|\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}\right|}\right)^{\prime}(\phi(\mathrm{t}))\right| \\
& =\mathrm{K}_{\tilde{\gamma}}(\phi(\mathrm{t}))
\end{aligned}
$$

as desired. (In the first step, we applied the chain rule to the function $\left|\tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}\right|^{-1} \cdot \tilde{\gamma}^{\prime}$.)
(8) (Polar curves) Let $h: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth positive periodic function, with period $2 \pi$ :

$$
h(\theta)>0, \quad h(\theta+2 \pi)=h(\theta), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}
$$

Let the polar curve P be the set of all points in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ satisfying the relation

$$
r=h(\theta)
$$

in polar coordinates. (Here, you can assume that P is indeed a curve.)
(a) The unit circle $\mathcal{C}=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \mid x^{2}+y^{2}=1\right\}$ is a polar curve. What is $h$ here?
(b) Give a injective parametrisation of P whose image is all of P except for a single point.
(c) Derive a formula for the arc length of P .
(a) Since the expression $x^{2}+y^{2}$ is simply $r^{2}$ in polar coordinates, it follows that $\mathcal{C}$ is the polar curve $r=1$, that is, with $h(\theta)=1$ for all $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$.
(b) The most straightforward method is to set the parameter $t$ to be the polar angle $\theta$. (This is analogous to the polar parametrisation of the unit circle). Since

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

and since the above starts repeating itself after $\theta$ has increased by $2 \pi$, then the following is an injective parametrisation of P whose image misses only a single point of P :

$$
\gamma:(0,2 \pi) \rightarrow P, \quad \gamma(t)=(h(t) \cos t, h(t) \sin t) .
$$

(In particular, $\gamma$ misses the point $\gamma(0)=(h(0), 0)$.
(c) We use the parametrisation in part (b). Note that

$$
\left|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right|=\left|\left(h^{\prime}(t) \cos t-h(t) \sin t, h^{\prime}(t) \sin t+h(t) \cos t\right)\right|=\sqrt{\left[h^{\prime}(t)\right]^{2}+[h(t)]^{2}} .
$$

As a result, the arc length of $P$ is

$$
\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{P})=\mathrm{L}(\gamma)=\int_{0}^{2 \pi} \sqrt{[\mathrm{~h}(\mathrm{t})]^{2}+\left[h^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right]^{2}} d \mathrm{t}
$$

(See also Question (5c) of Problem Sheet 5.)
(9) (Conic sections) Let N denote the following cone:

$$
N=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3} \mid z^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}\right\} .
$$

In addition, let $\mathrm{P} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{3}$ denote an arbitrary plane that does not pass through the origin. More specifically, P is a set of the form

$$
\mathrm{P}=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3} \mid a x+b y+c z=d\right\}
$$

where $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ satisfy $(a, b, c) \neq(0,0,0)$ and $d \neq 0$. A set of the form $N \cap P$ (i.e. the intersection of the cone N and the plane P ) is called a conic section.
(a) Use the theorem in Question (9) of Problem Sheet 4 to show that any conic section $\mathrm{N} \cap \mathrm{P}$ is indeed a curve. (Hint: You will have to be resourceful to do this. The first step is to express $\mathrm{N} \cap \mathrm{P}$ as an appropriate level set.)
(b) Find examples of such planes $P$ such that the conic section $N \cap P$ is:
(i) A circle.
(ii) An ellipse.
(iii) A parabola.
(iv) A hyperbola.

Check your answers graphically on a computer!
(a) We begin by observing that $\mathrm{N} \cap \mathrm{P}$ can be expressed as a level set

$$
\begin{equation*}
N \cap P=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3} \mid f(x, y, z)=0, g(x, y, z)=d\right\} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the functions $f$ and $g$ are given by

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
f: \mathbb{R}^{3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, & f(x, y, z)=x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2} \\
g: \mathbb{R}^{3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, & g(x, y, z)=a x+b y+c z
\end{array}
$$

Taking the gradients of $f$ and $g$ yields, for any $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$,

$$
\nabla f(x, y, z)=(2 x, 2 y,-2 z)_{(x, y, z)}, \quad \nabla g(x, y, z)=(a, b, c)_{(x, y, z)}
$$

Recall that $\nabla f(x, y, z) \times \nabla g(x, y, z)$ vanishes if and only if the two gradients point in the same or in the opposite directions. Since $(a, b, c) \neq(0,0,0)$ by assumption, it follows that $\nabla f(x, y, z) \times \nabla g(x, y, z)$ vanishes if and only if there is some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$
(x, y,-z)=\lambda(a, b, c)
$$

We now let L denote the set

$$
L=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3} \mid(x, y,-z)=\lambda(a, b, c) \text { for some } \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\right\} .
$$

(Note that L is a line through the origin.) We claim that no point of L lies in $\mathrm{N} \cap \mathrm{P}$. To show this, we suppose $(x, y, z) \in L-$ so that $(x, y,-z)=\lambda(a, b, c)$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$-and we assume ( $x, y, z$ ) does lie in $N \cap P$. Then, (1) implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}=0, \quad x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}=\lambda(a x+b y+c z)=\lambda d \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $d \neq 0$ by assumption, (2) yields $\lambda=0$. However, this implies $(x, y, z)=(0,0,0)$, which by assumption does not lie in $\mathrm{N} \cap \mathrm{P}$, resulting in a contradiction. This proves the claim.

Combining all the above, we deduce that $\nabla f(x, y, z) \times \nabla g(x, y, z)$ does not vanish at any point of $N \cap P$. Therefore, applying the theorem in Question (9) of Problem Sheet 4 to $N \cap P$ in (1), we conclude that it is indeed a curve.
(b) (i) One example of a circle is to take $N \cap P$, with

$$
P=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3} \mid z=1\right\}
$$

(In general, any P with $(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})=(0,0)$ suffices.) This is illustrated below:

(ii) One example of a (non-circular) ellipse is to take $\mathrm{N} \cap \mathrm{P}$, with

$$
\mathrm{P}=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3} \left\lvert\, z=\frac{1}{2} x+1\right.\right\}
$$

(In general, any P with $\mathrm{a}^{2}+\mathrm{b}^{2}<\mathrm{c}^{2}$ suffices.) This is illustrated below:

(iii) One example of a parabola is to take $N \cap P$, with

$$
\mathrm{P}=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3} \mid z=x+1\right\} .
$$

(In general, any $P$ with $a^{2}+b^{2}=c^{2}$ suffices.) This is illustrated below:

(iv) One example of a hyperbola is to take $\mathrm{N} \cap \mathrm{P}$, with

$$
P=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3} \mid x=1\right\} .
$$

(In general, any $P$ with $a^{2}+b^{2}>c^{2}$ suffices.) This is illustrated below:


