

55. তটরেখাগুলির সমীকরণ  $\theta = \frac{k\pi}{n}$  যদি  $n \geq 1$  হয়। কিন্তু যদি  $n < 1$  হয়

তবে কোন তটরেখা হইবেনা।

56.  $r \cos \theta = \pm a$ . 57.  $\pm 4a = \sqrt{r(3 \sin \theta \pm 3 \cos \theta)}$

58.  $r=1$  59.  $r=1$  60.  $r=5/3$  61.  $r=1$  62.  $r \neq a$ .

73.  $axy(y^2-x^2) + a(a^2-b^2)(x^2+y^2-a^2) = 0$

74. (i)  $x=0, y=0, x+y-2=0, x+y+2=0$

(ii)  $x-2=0, x-3=0, y-1=0, y-2=0$

(iii)  $x=0, y=0, x=1, y=1$ .

(iv)  $x=0, y=0, x \pm 2y=0$

(v)  $24x - 48y + 13 = 0$

(vi)  $x = \pm \pi a/2$ . (vii)  $x=0, y=2, 2y-3x-14=0$

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## CHAPTER XIII CURVATURE

13.1. Definitions :-

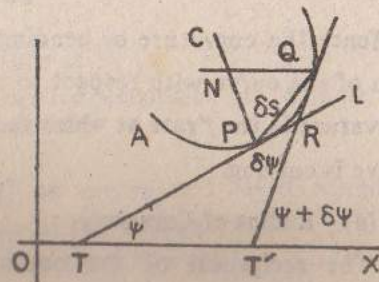
(a) Angle of Contiguance.

Let  $P$  and  $Q$  be two neighbouring points on the curve  $APQ$ .

Let arc  $AP = s$ ,

arc  $AQ = s + \delta s$

then arc  $PQ = \delta s$ .



Let the tangents  $PT$  and  $QT'$  at  $P$  and  $Q$  of the curve make angles  $\psi$  and  $\psi + \delta\psi$  respectively with the positive direction of  $X$ -axis

$$\angle QRL = \angle TRT' = \angle RT'X - \angle RTT' = \psi + \delta\psi - \psi = \delta\psi$$

Thus  $\delta\psi = (\psi + \delta\psi - \psi)$  is the change in inclination of the tangent line as the point of contact of the tangent describes the arc  $\delta s$ . The angle  $\delta\psi$  is called the angle of contiguance of  $PQ$  provided the bending of the curve between  $P$  and  $Q$  is continuous in one direction only.

(b) Average Curvature or Average bending

The average curvature of arc  $PQ$  is the ratio of the corresponding angle of contiguance  $\delta\psi$  to the length of the arc  $\delta s$ , that is average curvature or average bending of the arc  $PQ = \frac{\delta\psi}{\delta s}$

For one and the same curve the average curvature of its difference parts may be different.

## (c) Curvature

The curvature at a given point  $P$  is the limit (if it exists) of the average curvature (bending) of the arc  $PQ$  when the length of this arc  $\delta s$  approaches zero. The curvature at  $P$  is denoted by  $\lambda$ .

$$\therefore \text{Curvature at } P = \lambda = \lim_{\delta s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\delta \psi}{\delta s} = \frac{d\psi}{ds}$$

Hence the curvature or bending is the rate of change of direction of the curve with respect to the arc or roughly speaking the curvature is the "rate at which the curve curves" or how much the curve is curving.

## (d) Radius of Curvature.

The reciprocal of the curvature  $\lambda$  is called the radius of curvature of the curve at  $P$ .

The radius of curvature is usually denoted by  $\rho$ .

$$\text{Thus } \rho = \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{ds}{d\psi} \text{ or, } \rho = \frac{ds}{d\psi}$$

## (e) Radius of Curvature (Geometrically)

Let the normals at  $P$  and  $Q$  to the given curve intersect at  $N$ . The limiting position of  $N$  as  $Q \rightarrow P$  is called the centre of curvature at  $P$ . In the fig. 14;  $C$  is the centre of curvature at  $P$ ,

The radius of curvature at  $P$ .

$$\rho = \lim_{\delta s \rightarrow 0} (PN)$$

From the  $\triangle NPQ$ ,

$$\frac{PN}{\text{chord } PQ} = \frac{\sin NQP}{\sin PNQ} = \frac{\sin NQP}{\sin TRT'} = \frac{\sin NQP}{\sin \delta \psi}$$

$$\rho = \lim_{\delta s \rightarrow 0} PN = \lim_{\delta s \rightarrow 0} \text{chord } PQ \frac{\sin NQP}{\sin \delta \psi}$$

$$= \lim_{\delta \psi \rightarrow 0} \frac{\text{chord } PQ}{\delta s} \cdot \frac{\delta s}{\delta \psi} \cdot \frac{\delta \psi}{\sin \delta \psi} \cdot \sin NQP$$

Now,  $\delta \psi \rightarrow 0$ ,  $NQP \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}\pi$  as  $\delta s \rightarrow 0$ .

$$\therefore \rho = \lim_{\delta \psi \rightarrow 0} \frac{\text{chord } PQ}{\text{Arc } PQ} \cdot \frac{\delta s}{\delta \psi} \cdot \frac{\delta \psi}{\sin \delta \psi} \cdot \sin NQP$$

$$= 1 \cdot \frac{ds}{\delta \psi} \cdot 1 \cdot 1 = \frac{ds}{d\psi}$$

$$\text{or, } \rho = \frac{ds}{d\psi}$$

which is the radius of curvature at  $P$ ,

Note:  $\rho$  is positive or negative according as  $C$  is on the positive or negative side of the normal.

## (f) Circle of curvature

If a circle is drawn having  $C$  as centre and  $\rho = PC$  as radius then the circle is called the circle of curvature at  $P$ .

## (g) Curvature and radius of Curvature of a circle.

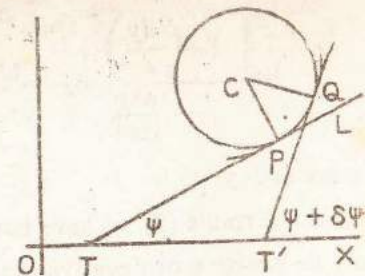
Let  $C$  be the centre of a circle of radius  $a$ ,  $P$  and  $Q$  be two points very near to each other on the circle. Let  $PT'$  and  $QT'$  be tangents drawn at  $P$  and  $Q$  respectively

Let

$$\angle PTX = \psi$$

$$\angle QT'X = \psi + \delta \psi$$

Join  $CP$  and  $CQ$ .



$$\therefore \angle PCQ = \angle TPT' = \delta \psi$$

Fig 15

$$\therefore \frac{\delta \psi}{\delta s} = \frac{\angle TPT'}{\delta s} = \frac{\angle PCQ}{\delta s} = \frac{\delta s/a}{\delta s} = \frac{1}{a} \text{ as } \angle PCQ = \frac{\delta s}{a}$$

$$\lambda = \text{Curvature at any point } P = \lim_{\delta s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\delta \psi}{\delta s} = \frac{1}{a}$$

$$= \text{constant} = \frac{1}{\text{radius of the circle}}$$

$\therefore \rho = \frac{1}{\lambda}$  = radius of curvature of a circle =  $a$  = the radius of the curve.

### 13. 2. Formula for the radius of Curvature.

(a) Explicit equation (i. e. when  $y$  is expressed directly in terms of  $x$ ) or, Cartesian formula for radius of curvature for  $y=f(x)$

We know that  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \tan \psi \quad \dots \quad (1)$

Differentiate w. r. to  $x$ . Then

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \sec^2 \psi \frac{d\psi}{dx} = \sec^2 \psi \frac{d\psi}{ds} \cdot \frac{ds}{dx}$$

$$= \sec^2 \psi \frac{1}{\rho} \sec \psi \quad \left( \because \frac{dx}{ds} = \cos \psi \right)$$

$$\therefore \rho = \sec^3 \psi / \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = (1 + \tan^2 \psi)^{3/2} / \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$$

$$\therefore \rho = \frac{\left\{ 1 + \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 \right\}^{3/2}}{\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}} = \frac{(1 + y_1^2)^{3/2}}{y_2} \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

provided  $y_2 \neq 0$ .

In the formula (2) we have not mentioned about the sign of  $\rho$ ,  $\rho$  may be positive or negative according as  $y_2$  is positive or negative. It is customary to attach that sign to the radical which will give a positive sign to  $\rho$ . The radius of curvature is zero at point of inflexion.

The above formula fails when  $y_1$  is infinite (i. e) when tangent is parallel to  $y$ -axis.

In the case, follow the process shown in the corollary.

Cor. The value of  $\rho$  does not depend on the axes but depends on the curve. Hence interchanging  $x$  and  $y$  the formula (2) can be written as

$$\rho = \frac{\left\{ 1 + \left( \frac{dx}{dy} \right)^2 \right\}^{3/2}}{\frac{d^2x}{dy^2}} = \frac{(1 + x_1^2)^{3/2}}{x_2} \quad \text{if } x_2 \neq 0,$$

(b) Implicit equations  $f(x, y) = 0$

we know  $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{f_x}{f_y} = -\frac{\delta f}{\delta x} / \frac{\delta f}{\delta y}$ , where  $f_y \neq 0$

$$\text{or, } f_x + f_y \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

Differentiate w. r. to  $x$ , again

$$f_{xx} + f_{xy} \frac{dy}{dx} + \left( f_{yx} + f_{yy} \right) \frac{dy}{dx} + f_y \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$$

$$\text{or, } f_{xx} + 2f_{xy} \frac{dy}{dx} + f_{yy} \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 + f_y \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0 \quad \therefore f_{xy} = f_{yx}$$

Put  $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{f_x}{f_y}$ . Then

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{-f_{xx}f_y^2 - 2f_{xy}f_xf_y + f_{yy}f_x^2}{f_y^3}$$

Now put the Value of  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ ,  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$  in (a)

$$\therefore \rho = \frac{(1 + y_1^2)^{3/2}}{y_2} = \frac{(f_x^2 + f_y^2)^{3/2}}{f_{xx}f_y^2 - 2f_{xy}f_xf_y + f_{yy}f_x^2}$$

where  $f_{xx}f_y^2 - 2f_{xy}f_xf_y + f_{yy}f_x^2 \neq 0$

(c) Parametric equation :  $x = \phi(t), y = \psi(t)$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \Big| \frac{dx}{dt} = y'/x', \text{ where } x' \neq 0$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{y'}{x'} \right) = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{y'}{x'} \right) \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{x' y'' - x'' y'}{(x')^2}, \quad \frac{1}{x'} = \frac{x' y'' - x'' y'}{(x')^2}$$

Put the values of  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  and  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$  in (a) and simplify

$$\rho = \frac{(1 + y_1^2)^{3/2}}{y_2} = \frac{\{x'^2 + (y')^2\}^{3/2}}{x' y'' - y' x''} \therefore \rho = \frac{\{(x')^2 + (y')^2\}^{3/2}}{x' y'' - y' x''}$$

where  $x' y'' - y' x'' \neq 0$ .

Dashes indicate the number of differentiation w. r. to  $t$ .

(d) Polar equation :  $r = f(\theta)$

The radius of curvature

$$\rho = \frac{ds}{d\psi} = \frac{ds}{d\theta} \cdot \frac{d\theta}{d\psi} = \frac{ds}{d\theta} \Big| \frac{d\psi}{d\theta}$$

we know  $\psi = \theta + \phi \therefore$  see Art. 10.8. Eq. 35

$$\tan \phi = r \frac{d\theta}{dr} = r/r_1 \therefore \phi = \tan^{-1} r/r_1$$

$$\therefore \psi = \theta + \tan^{-1} r/r_1, \text{ where } r_1 = \frac{dr}{d\theta}$$

Differentiate w. r. to  $\theta$

$$\frac{d\psi}{d\theta} = 1 + \frac{1}{1 + r^2/r_1^2} \cdot \frac{r_1^2 - r r_2}{r_1^2} = \frac{r^2 + 2r_1^2 - r r_2}{r^2 + r_1^2}$$

$$\text{But } \frac{ds}{d\theta} = \sqrt{r^2 + r_1^2} \therefore \text{ see Art. 10.8. Eq. 34 (i)}$$

Now put the values of  $\frac{d\psi}{d\theta}$  and  $\frac{ds}{d\theta}$  in  $\rho$ .

$$\text{Hence } \rho = \frac{(r^2 + r_1^2)^{3/2}}{r^2 + 2r_1^2 - r r_2}$$

Cor. If  $r = 1/u$ , then

$$\rho = \frac{\{u^2 + (u')^2\}^{3/2}}{u^3(u + u')} \text{ if } u^3(u + u') \neq 0.$$

(e) Pedal Equation :  $p = f(r)$

The radius of curvature  $\rho = \frac{ds}{d\psi}$

$$\text{or, } \frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{d\psi}{ds} = \frac{d}{ds}(\theta + \phi) \therefore \psi = \theta + \phi$$

$$= \frac{d\theta}{ds} + \frac{d\phi}{ds} \dots \dots (1)$$

we know  $p = r \sin \phi$

$$\therefore \frac{dp}{dr} = \sin \phi + r \cos \phi \frac{d\phi}{dr} \sin \phi + r \frac{d\phi}{ds} \frac{dr}{ds}$$

$$= r \frac{d\theta}{ds} + r \frac{dr}{ds} \cdot \frac{d\phi}{ds} \cdot \frac{ds}{dr} = r \frac{d\theta}{ds} + r \frac{d\phi}{ds}$$

$$\therefore \sin \phi = r \frac{d\phi}{ds}, \cos \phi = \frac{dr}{ds}$$

$$= r \left( \frac{d\theta}{ds} + \frac{d\phi}{ds} \right) = \frac{r}{\rho} \text{ or, } \rho = r \frac{dr}{dp} \text{ by (1)}$$

13.3. Curvature at the origin.

Method of substitution : In the formula Art. 13. (a).

$$\rho = \frac{(1 + y_2^2)^{3/2}}{y_2}$$

put  $x=0$  and  $y=0$  in the Value of  $\rho$  or, by substituting the Value of  $(y_1)_0$  and  $(y_2)_0$  in  $\rho$

If  $y$  is expanded in powers of  $x$  by any method and

$$y = px + qx^2/\sqrt{2} + \dots \dots$$

which shows that the curve passes through the origin,

$$p = \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)_{x=0, y=0}, \quad q = \left( \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \right)_{x=0, y=0}$$

The radius of curvature at the origin is

$$\rho = \frac{(1 + p^2)^{3/2}}{q}$$

(b) Newton's Method :

(i) If the curve passes through the origin and axis of  $x$  is the tangent at the origin then

$$\rho = \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow 0 \\ y \rightarrow 0}} \frac{x^2}{2y}$$

At the origin,  $x=0$ ,  $y=0$  and  $y = \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$  (for the  $x$ -axis)

Expand  $y=f(x)$  by Maclaurin's theorem

$$y = 0 + 0x + \frac{q}{2}x^2 + \dots$$

or,  $\frac{2y}{x^2} = q + \dots$  term  $x$  containing  $x$  and higher point of  $x$

$\therefore \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{2y}{x^2} = q$

So,  $\rho = \frac{(1+p^2)^{3/2}}{q} = \frac{1}{q}$  [  $\therefore p = y_1(0), q = y_2(0)$  ]

$$= \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow 0 \\ y \rightarrow 0}} \frac{x^2}{2y}$$

(iii) If the curve passes through the origin and the  $y$ -axis is the tangent at the origin the radius of curvature at the origin is

$$\rho = \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow 0 \\ y \rightarrow 0}} \frac{y^2}{2x}$$

(ii) Generalised Newtonian Formula.

Let  $ax+by=0$  be the tangent  $OT$  at the origin  $O$ . Take point  $P(x, y)$  on the curve. Draw  $PM$  perpendicular to the tangent.  $OP^2 = x^2 + y^2$ ,

$$PM = \frac{ax+by}{\sqrt{a^2+b^2}}$$

Let  $OB$  be the diameter of the circle through  $O$  and  $PN$  be the perpendicular to  $OB$ .

We have

or,  $ON(OB-ON) = PN^2$

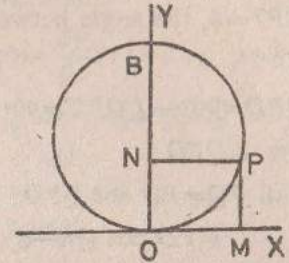


Fig 16

or,  $OB = PN^2/ON + ON = (PN^2 + ON^2)/ON = OP^2/ON = OP^2/PM$

or,  $2r = OB = \frac{OP^2}{PM} = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{(ax+by)/(a^2+b^2)}$

where  $r$  is the radius of the circle.

If  $p \rightarrow 0, x \rightarrow 0, y \rightarrow 0$  then  $r \rightarrow \rho$  where  $\rho$  is the radius of curvature at the origin. Hence

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2} \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow 0, y \rightarrow 0}} \frac{OP^2}{PM} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow 0, y \rightarrow 0}} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{ax + by}$$

$$\therefore \rho = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow 0 \\ y \rightarrow 0}} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{ax + by}$$

13. Chord of the Curvature through the origin

Let  $APB$  be a curve and  $QPD$  be the circle of curvature at  $P$  with centre at  $C$ . Join  $OP$  meeting the circle at  $Q$ . Thus  $PQ$  is the chord passing through the origin  $O$ . Join  $PG$  and produce it to meet  $D$ . Join  $DQ$ .

$\angle PQD = 90^\circ$ , as  $PD$  is the diameter of the circle.

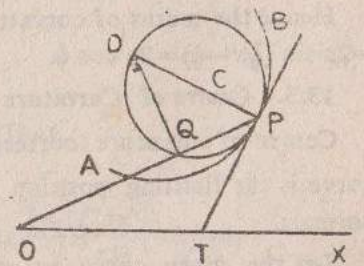


Fig 17

Let  $PT$  be the tangent to the curve at  $P$ .

$\angle QPT = \phi$ , the angle between the radius vector and the tangent.

$\angle QPD = 90^\circ - \angle OPT = 90^\circ - \phi$ , as  $PD$  is perp. to  $PT$ .

From  $\triangle QPD$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Chord } PQ &= PD \cos QPD \\ &= PD \cos (\frac{1}{2}\pi - \phi) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{or, Chord } PQ = 2p \sin \phi$$

$$= 2r \frac{dr}{dp} \cdot \frac{p}{r} \therefore p = r \sin \phi$$

$$\text{Chord } PQ = 2p \frac{dr}{dp}$$

Cor. If the chord does not pass through the origin, the angle

$\angle QPT = \alpha$  (say)

Hence the chord of curvature,

$$PQ = 2p \sin \alpha$$

Cor. 2. If the chord  $PQ$  is parallel to  $x$ -axis then  $\angle PDQ = \psi$

Hence the chord of curvature parallel to  $x$ -axis  $= 2p \sin \psi$

Cor. 3. If the chord  $PQ$  is parallel to  $y$ -axis,

then  $\angle PDQ = \frac{1}{2}\pi - \psi$ ,

Hence the radius of curvature parallel to the  $y$ -axis

$$= 2p \sin (\frac{1}{2}\pi - \psi) = 2p \cos \psi.$$

### 13.5. Centre of Curvature

Centre of curvature corresponding to any point  $P(x, y)$  on a curve is the limiting position of intersection of two consecutive normals.

Let the given curve be  $y=f(x)$  and the two neighbouring points be  $P(x, y)$  and  $Q(x+\delta x, y+\delta y)$

Let  $G(\alpha, \beta)$  be the centre of curvature for  $P$ .

Now  $f'(x) = \frac{dy}{dx}$  at  $P(x, y)$ ,  $f'(x+\delta x) = \frac{dy}{dx}$  at  $(x+\delta x, y+\delta y)$

The equations of normals at  $P$  and  $Q$  are respectively

$$(Y-y)f'(x) + (X-x) = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$(Y-y-\delta y)f'(x+\delta x) + (X-x-\delta x) = 0 \quad (2)$$

Now find the intersection of two normals.

Subtract (1) from (2)

$$(Y-y)\{f'(x+\delta x) - f'(x)\} - \delta y f'(x+\delta x) - \delta x = 0$$

$$\text{or, } (Y-y) \frac{f'(x+\delta x) - f'(x)}{\delta x} - f'(x+\delta x) \frac{\delta y}{\delta x} = 1 \quad (3)$$

If  $Q$  tends to  $P$ ,  $\delta x$  tends to zero and hence  $X \rightarrow \alpha$  and  $Y \rightarrow \beta$

$$\text{Also } \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(x+\delta x) - f'(x)}{\delta x} = f''(x) = \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\delta y}{\delta x} = f'(x) = \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$\therefore$  from (3)

$$\lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} (Y-y) \frac{f'(x+\delta x) - f'(x)}{\delta x} - \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} f'(x+\delta x) \frac{\delta y}{\delta x} - 1 = 0$$

$$\text{or, } (\beta-y)f''(x) - f'(x)f'(x) - 1 = 0$$

$$\text{or, } \beta = y + \frac{1 + \{f'(x)\}^2}{f''(x)} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{or, } \beta = y + \frac{1 + (dy/dx)^2}{d^2y/dx^2}$$

Since the point  $C(\alpha, \beta)$  is on (1), then

$$(\beta-y)f'(x) + \alpha - x = 0$$

$$\text{or, } \alpha = x - (\beta-y)f'(x) = x - f'(x) \frac{1 + \{f'(x)\}^2}{f''(x)} \text{ by (4)}$$

$$\therefore \alpha = x - \frac{(dy/dx)\{1 + (dy/dx)^2\}}{d^2y/dx^2} \dots \quad (5)$$

Thus  $C(\alpha, \beta)$ , the centre of curvature, can be determined from (4) and (5).

**Note 1.**

Let the tangent  $PT$  at  $(x, y)$  make an angle  $\psi$  with  $x$ -axis.

$PC$  is the normal which makes an angle  $90^\circ + \psi$  with the  $x$ -axis,

Let  $(\alpha, \beta)$  be the co-ordinates of the centre of curvature  $C$  at  $P(x, y)$  of the curve.

Therefore  $PC = \rho$ , Then

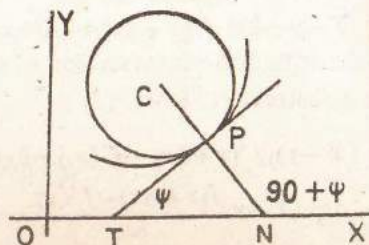


Fig 18

$$\frac{\alpha - x}{\cos(\frac{1}{2}\pi + \psi)} = \frac{\beta - y}{\sin(\frac{1}{2}\pi + \psi)} = \rho$$

or,  $\alpha = x - \rho \sin \psi, \beta = y + \rho \cos \psi$  (1)

But  $\tan \psi = \frac{dy}{dx} = y_1$ . So  $\sin \psi = \frac{y_1}{\sqrt{1 + y_1^2}}$

$\cos \psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + y_1^2}}$  and  $\rho = \frac{(1 + y_1^2)^{3/2}}{y_2}$

Putting the values of  $\rho, \sin \psi$  and  $\cos \psi$  in (1), the co-ordinates of centre of curvature  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  will be determined,

**Note 2.** Let  $C(\alpha, \beta)$  be the centre of curvature at  $P(x, y)$  of curve  $y = f(x)$ .

The equation of the normal at  $P(x, y)$

$$X - x + (Y - y) y_1 = 0$$

Since it passes through  $C(\alpha, \beta)$ ,

$$\alpha - x + (\beta - y) y_1 = 0 \quad (1)$$

But  $PC = \rho$  (See fig. (18))

$$\therefore (\alpha - x)^2 + (\beta - y)^2 = \rho^2 \quad (2)$$

where  $\rho = \frac{(1 + y_1^2)^{3/2}}{y_2}$

From (1) and (2),

$$\beta = y + \frac{1 + y_1^2}{y_2} \dots \dots (3)$$

From (1) and (3)

$$\alpha = x - \frac{y_1(1 + y_1^2)}{y_2^2} \dots \dots (4)$$

Thus from (3) and (4),  $(\alpha, \beta)$  the co-ordinates of centre of curvature can be determined.

**Ex. 1.** Find the radius of curvature at the point  $(s, \psi)$  on the curve  $s = c \log \sec \psi$ ,

The radius of curvature.

$$\rho = \frac{ds}{d\psi} = \frac{d}{d\psi} (c \log \sec \psi) = c \frac{\sec \psi \tan \psi}{\sec^2 \psi}$$

$\therefore \rho = c \tan \psi$ .

**Ex. 1. (a)** What is the geometrical shape of the curve for which  $s = 5\psi$ .

We have,  $s = 5\psi$

$$\therefore \frac{ds}{d\psi} = 5 = \text{constant or, } \rho = 5$$

The curve is such that the radius of curvature at every point is 5. The curve is a circle of radius 5.

**Ex. 2.** Find the radius of curvature at the point  $(x, y)$  of the curve  $ay^2 = x^3$ .

Here  $ay^2 = x^3 \quad \therefore 2ay \frac{dy}{dx} = 3x^2$

or,  $y_1 = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{3x^2}{2ay} = \frac{3x^2}{2ax^3/2\sqrt{a}} = 3/2(x/a)^{1/2}$  as  $ay^2 = x^3$

$$\therefore y_2 = \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 3/2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} = \frac{3}{4} \frac{1}{\sqrt{ax}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } \rho &= \frac{(1+v_1^2)^{3/2}}{y_2} = \left(1+9/4 \cdot \frac{x}{a}\right)^{3/2} \frac{1}{4/3\sqrt{ax}} \\ &= \frac{1}{6a} (4a+9x)^{3/2} \sqrt{x}. \end{aligned}$$

Ex 3. Show that for the curve  $r^m = a^m \cos m\theta$ .

R. U. 1962

$$\rho = \frac{a^m}{(m+1)r^{m-1}}$$

$$\text{Now } r^m = a^m \cos m\theta$$

$$\text{or, } m \log r = m \log a + \log \cos m\theta.$$

$$\therefore \frac{m}{r} \frac{dr}{d\theta} = -\frac{m \sin m\theta}{\cos m\theta} \text{ or, } r_1 = \frac{dr}{d\theta} = -r \tan m\theta$$

$$\therefore \frac{d^2r}{d\theta^2} = -\frac{dr}{d\theta} \tan m\theta - rm \sec^2 m\theta$$

$$\text{or, } r_2 = r \tan^2 m\theta - rm \sec^2 m\theta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But } \rho &= \frac{(r^2+r_1^2)^{3/2}}{r^2+2r_1^2-rr_2} \\ &= \frac{(r^2+r^2 \tan^2 m\theta)^{3/2}}{(r^2+2r^2 \tan^2 m\theta - r^2 \tan^2 m\theta + mr^2 \sec^2 m\theta)} \\ &= \frac{r^3 \sec^3 m\theta}{(m+1)a^2 \sec^2 m\theta} = \frac{r}{(m+1) \cos m\theta} = \frac{ra^m}{(m+1)r^m} \\ \therefore \rho &= \frac{a^m}{(m+1)r^{m-1}} \text{ Proved.} \end{aligned}$$

Ex. 4. For the curve  $x = a \cos^3 \theta$ ,  $y = a \sin^3 \theta$

Show that the radius of curvature is

$$\rho = 3a \sin \theta \cos \theta.$$

D. U. 1966

$$\text{Here } x = a \cos^3 \theta, \quad y = a \sin^3 \theta$$

$$\therefore dx/d\theta = -3a \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta, \quad dy/d\theta = 3a \sin^2 \theta \cos \theta$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{d\theta} \frac{d\theta}{dx} = \frac{3a \sin^2 \theta \cos \theta}{-3a \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta} = -\tan \theta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} &= -\frac{d}{dx} (\tan \theta) = -\sec^2 \theta \frac{d\theta}{dx} \\ &= -\sec^2 \theta \left( -\frac{1}{3a \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta} \right) = \left( \frac{1}{3a} \sec^4 \theta \operatorname{cosec} \theta \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } \rho &= \frac{(1+y_1^2)^{3/2}}{y_2} = \frac{3a (1+\tan^2 \theta)^{3/2}}{\sec^4 \theta \operatorname{cosec} \theta} \\ &= \frac{3a \sec^3 \theta}{\sec^4 \theta \operatorname{cosec} \theta} = 3a \sin \theta \cos \theta \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \rho = 3a \sin \theta \cos \theta. \quad \text{Proved.}$$

Ex. 5. Find the radius of curvature at the point  $(r, \theta)$  on the curve  $r = a(1 - \cos \theta)$

$$r = a(1 - \cos \theta) = a \sin^2 \frac{1}{2}\theta \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

$$\text{or, } \log r = \log 2a + \log \sin^2 \frac{1}{2}\theta \quad \therefore \frac{1}{r} \frac{dr}{d\theta} = \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2}\theta}{\sin \frac{1}{2}\theta} = \cot \frac{1}{2}\theta$$

$$\text{or, } \cot \phi = \cot \frac{1}{2}\theta \quad \left[ \text{As } r \frac{d\theta}{dr} = \tan \phi \right]$$

$$\therefore \phi = \frac{1}{2}\theta.$$

$$\text{But } p = r \sin \phi = r \sin \frac{1}{2}\theta \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

From (1) and (2), we have

$$r = 2ap^2/r^2 \quad \text{or, } r^3 = 2ap^2 \quad \dots \quad (3)$$

Differentiate (3) w, r. to p, then

$$3r^2 \frac{dr}{dp} = 4ap \quad \text{or, } \frac{dr}{dp} = 4/3 \frac{ap}{r^2}$$

$$\text{But } \rho = r \frac{dr}{dp} = r \cdot 4/3 \frac{a}{r^2} p$$

$$= 4/3a \cdot \frac{1}{r} \cdot \frac{r^3/2}{\sqrt{2}\sqrt{a}} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{2} \sqrt{r}\sqrt{a} = \frac{2}{3}\sqrt{(2ar)}$$

$$\therefore \rho = \frac{2}{3}\sqrt{(2ar)}$$



Ex. 6. Find the radius of curvature at the origin of the curve

$$y = x^4 - 4x^3 - 18x^2$$

The tangent at the origin is  $y=0$ , i. e.,  $x$ -axis is the tangent to the given curve at the origin.

Hence by Newton's formula, we have

$$\rho = \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow 0 \\ y \rightarrow 0}} \frac{x^2}{2y} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Divide the given equation by  $y$ , then

$$\frac{x^4}{y} - \frac{4x^3}{y} - 18 \frac{x^2}{y} - 1 = 0$$

$$\text{or, } x^2 \cdot \frac{x^2}{y} - 4x \cdot \frac{x^2}{y} - 18 \frac{x^2}{y} - 1 = 0$$

when  $x \rightarrow 0, y \rightarrow 0$ , then

$$\text{or, } 0 \cdot 2\rho - 4 \cdot 0 \cdot 2\rho - 18 \cdot 2\rho - 1 = 0 \quad \text{by (1)}$$

$$\text{or, } 36\rho = -1 \quad \text{or, } \rho = -1/36$$

Hence the radius of curvature at the origin is  $1/36$

Ex. 7 Find the radius of curvature at the origin of the curve.

$$y^2 - 2xy - 3x^2 - 4x^3 - x^2y^2 = 0$$

The tangents at the origin are given by  $y^2 - 2xy - 3x^2 = 0$

$$\text{or, } (y+x)(y-3x) = 0 \quad \text{i. e. } y+x=0 \text{ and } y-3x=0$$

$$\text{Let } y = px + qx^2/\sqrt{2} + \dots \dots$$

Put the value of  $y$  in the given equation.

Then

$$(px + qx^2/\sqrt{2} + \dots)^2 - 2x(px + qx^2/\sqrt{2} + \dots) - 3x^2 - 4x^3 - x^2(px + qx^2/\sqrt{2} + \dots)^2 = 0$$

$$\text{or, } (p^2 - 2p - 3)x^2 + (2pq/\sqrt{2} - 2q/\sqrt{2} - 4)x^3 - \dots = 0$$

Equate the co-efficient of  $x^2$  to zero, then

$$p^2 - 2q - 3 = 0 \quad \text{or, } (p-3)(p+1) = 0 \quad \therefore p = 3, -1$$

Also equate the co-efficient of  $x^3$  to zero, then

$$pq - q - 4 = 0 \quad \text{when } p=3, q=2.$$

$$\text{and when } p=-1, \text{ then } q=-2.$$

$$\therefore p=3, q=2, \quad \rho = \frac{(1 + n^{2/3})^{3/2}}{4} = \frac{(1+9)^{3/2}}{2} = 5\sqrt{10}$$

$$\text{when } p=-1, q=-2, \quad \rho = \frac{(1+1)^{3/2}}{-2} = -\sqrt{2}$$

Hence radius of curvature are  $5\sqrt{10}, -\sqrt{2}$ .

Ex. 8. Show that the chord of Curvature through the pole

of the cardioid  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$  is  $4/3r$ .

$$\text{Now } r = a(1 + \cos \theta) = 2a \cos^2 \theta/2 \quad \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$\text{or, } \log r = \log 2a + 2 \log \cos \theta/2$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{r} \frac{dr}{d\theta} = -2 \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sin \theta/2}{\cos \theta/2} \quad \text{or, } \cot \phi = -\tan \frac{1}{2}\theta$$

$$\text{or, } \cot \phi = \cot (\frac{1}{2}\pi + \frac{1}{2}\theta)$$

$$\therefore \phi = \frac{1}{2}\pi + \frac{1}{2}\theta \quad \dots \dots (2)$$

$$\text{we know } p = r \sin \phi = r \sin (\frac{1}{2}\pi + \frac{1}{2}\theta) \quad \text{by (2)}$$

$$\text{or, } p = r \cos \theta/2 = \sqrt{(r/2a)} \quad \text{by (1)}$$

$$\text{or, } 2ap^2 = r^3 \quad \text{or, } r^3 = 2ap^2 \quad \dots \dots (3)$$

$$\therefore 3r^2 \frac{dr}{dp} = 4ap \quad \text{or, } r \frac{dr}{dp} = \frac{4ap}{3r}$$

$$\therefore \rho = r \frac{dr}{dp} = \frac{4a}{3r} p = \frac{4a}{3r} \frac{r^3/2}{\sqrt{(2a)}} \quad \text{by (3)}$$

Hence the chord of curvature through the origin (pole)

$$2\rho \sin \phi = 2 \cdot \frac{4a}{3r} \frac{r^3/2}{\sqrt{(2a)}} \sin (\frac{1}{2}\pi + \frac{1}{2}\theta) = \frac{8a}{3 \cdot (2a)} \int r \cos \frac{1}{2}\theta$$

$$= \frac{8a}{3\sqrt{(2a)}} \sqrt{r} \left(\frac{r}{2a}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{8a}{3 \cdot 2a} \cdot r = \frac{4}{3}r.$$

Hence the chord of curvature through Pole is  $4/3r$ .

Ex. 9. Find centre of curvature of  $xy = 16$  corresponding to the point (4, 4) R. U. 1965, D. U. 1983

Here  $xy = 16$  or,  $y = 16/x$ .

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = y_1 = -16/x^2, \text{ when } x=4, \text{ then } y_1 = -1$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = y_2 = 32/x^3, \text{ when } x=4, \text{ then } y_2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

Let  $(\alpha, \beta)$  be the co-ordinates of the centre of curvature at (4, 4)

$$\alpha = x - \frac{y_1(1+y_1^2)}{y_2} = 4 - \frac{-1}{\frac{1}{2}}(1+1) = 4+4=8$$

$$\beta = y + \frac{1+y_1^2}{y_2} = 4 + \frac{1+1}{\frac{1}{2}} = 4+4=8$$

Hence the centre of curvature is at (8, 8)

Ex. 10. Show that the radius for curvature at the origin for the curve  $r = a \sin(2\theta/m)$  is  $a/m$ .

By Newtons formula.

$$\rho = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0, y \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{2y} \text{ when } x \rightarrow 0, y \rightarrow 0$$

$$= \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{r^2 \cos^2 \theta}{2r \sin \theta} = \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{r}{2\theta} \quad [\text{to the first approximation}]$$

In this case,

$$\rho = \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{a \sin(2\theta/m)}{2\theta} = \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{a}{2\theta} \left[ \frac{2\theta}{m} - \frac{2^3 \theta^3}{3m^3} + \dots \right]$$

$$= \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{a}{m} - \frac{2\theta^2 a}{3m^3} + \dots \right) = \frac{a}{m}$$

$\rho = a/m$ . (Proved).

Ex. 11. If  $C_x$  and  $C_y$  be the chords of curvature parallel to the axes at any point of the curve  $y = ae^{x/a}$ , prove that

$$\frac{1}{C_x^2} + \frac{1}{C_y^2} = \frac{1}{2aC_x}$$

Here  $y = ae^{x/a} \dots \dots (1)$

$$y_1 = a \frac{1}{a} e^{x/a} = e^{x/a} = y/a \dots (2)$$

$$y_2 = a \frac{1}{a^2} e^{x/a} = y/a^2 \dots \dots (3)$$

$C_x =$  chord of curvature parallel to x-axis  $= 2\rho \sin \psi$

$$= 2 \frac{(1+y_1^2)^{3/2}}{y_2} \cdot \frac{y_1}{\sqrt{(1+y_1^2)}}$$

$$\text{or, } C_x = 2 \frac{y_1}{y_2} (1+y_1^2) = 2 \cdot \frac{y}{a} \cdot \frac{a^2}{y} \left( 1 + \frac{y^2}{a^2} \right)$$

$$\left[ \therefore \tan \psi = y_1, \sin \psi = \frac{y_1}{\sqrt{(1+y_1^2)}} \right] \text{ by (2) and (3)}$$

$$\text{or, } C_x = 2(a^2 + y^2)/a \dots \dots (4)$$

Similarly,

$$C_y = 2\rho \cos \psi = 2 \cdot \frac{(1+y_1^2)^{3/2}}{y_2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1+y_1^2)}}$$

$$\text{as } \cos \psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1+y_1^2)}}$$

$$C_y = 2 \frac{(1+y_1^2)}{y_2} = 2 \frac{(1+y^2/a^2)}{y/a^2} = \frac{2(a^2 + y^2)}{y}$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{C_x^2} + \frac{1}{C_y^2} = \frac{a^2}{4(a^2 + y^2)^2} + \frac{y^2}{4(a^2 + y^2)^2} = \frac{(a^2 + y^2)}{4(a^2 + y^2)^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4(a^2 + y^2)} = \frac{1}{2aC_x} \quad \text{by (4)}$$

$$\text{Hence } \frac{1}{C_x^2} + \frac{1}{C_y^2} = \frac{1}{2aC_x} \quad \text{Proved.}$$

### Exercise—XIII

- 1 (a) Give an example of a curve of constant curvature.
- 1 (b) Find the radius of curvature at any point  $(s, \psi)$  on the following curves.

- (i)  $s = a \tan \psi$  (ii)  $s = a \psi$
- (ii)  $s = a \log \tan \left( \frac{1}{2}\pi + \frac{1}{2}\psi \right)$  (iv)  $s = a \left( e^{m\psi} - 1 \right)$
- (v)  $\rho = a(1 + \sin \psi)$  at any point. R. U. 1987
2. Find the radius of curvature at the indicated points of the curve.  $y = x^3 - 2x^2 + 7x$  at  $(0, 0)$  N. U. 1994
- (a) (i)  $y = \tan x$  at  $x = \pi/4$  (ii)  $y = x^4$  at  $x = 1$  R. U. 1965,
- (iii)  $y = \log \cos x$  at  $x = \pi/4$ .
- (iv)  $x = 1 + \cos 2\pi t$ ,  $y = 3 + 2 \sin \pi t$ , at  $t = \frac{1}{3}$
- (v)  $x^3 + y^3 = 3axy$  at  $\left( \frac{3a}{2}, \frac{3a}{2} \right)$  D. H. 1965
- (vi)  $y^2 x^2 = a^2(x^2 - a^2)$  at  $(a, 0)$  R. H. 1962
- (vii)  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$  at  $(0, b)$  C. H. 1988
- (viii)  $y = e^{-x^2}$  at  $(0, 1)$  (ix)  $x^4 + y^4 = 2$  at  $(1, 1)$  D. U. 1994
- (b) (i)  $r = a \sin 3\theta$  at  $(a, \pi/6)$
- (ii)  $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$  at  $(a, \pi)$
- (iii)  $r = a \sec \theta$  at  $(a, 0)$
- (iv)  $r = a/(1 - \cos \theta)$  at  $(a, \pi/2)$
- (v)  $x = a \cos \theta$ ,  $y = a \sin \theta$  at  $(a, 0)$  C. U. 1990, '84
- (vi)  $x = a(\theta + \sin \theta)$ ,  $y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$  at vertex  $(a\pi, 2a)$  R. U. 1979
- (c) (i)  $r^3 = 2ap^3$  at  $(p, r)$
- (ii)  $pa^n = r^{n+1}$  at  $(p, r)$  C. U. 1983
3. (a) Prove that  $\rho = y^2/c$  for the curve  $y^2 = c^2 + s^2$
3. (b) Prove that for the curve  $s = a \log \cot \left( \frac{1}{2}\pi - \frac{1}{2}\psi \right) + a (\sin \psi / \cos^2 \psi)$ ,  $\rho = 2a \sec^2 \psi$  C. U. 1993
3. (c) Show that the radius of curvature of the catenary  $y = c \cosh x/c$  at  $(0, c)$  is  $y^2/c$ . D. H. 1983

3. (d) Find the radius of curvature of the curve  $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$ , at  $(r, \theta)$   $a > 0$  D. U. 1967, D. U. 1966
4. If  $x = a(\cos t + t \sin t)$ ,  $y = a(\sin t - t \cos t)$  prove that  $\rho = at$  D. U. 1955
5. In the curve  $\rho = r^{n+1} a^n$ , show that the radius of curvature varies inversely at the  $(n+1)$ th power of the radius vector.
6. Find the chord of curvature through the pole of the following curve.
- (i)  $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$  : R. U. 1964
- (ii)  $r = a(1 - \cos \theta)$
- (iii)  $r^n = a^n \cos(n\theta)$
7. Find the radius of curvature at the origin of the following curve.
- (i)  $y^2 = x^3 + 5x^2 + 6x$
- (ii)  $y^2 = 3xy - 2x^3 + x^3 - y^4$
- (iii)  $x^3 + y^3 = 2x^2 - 6y$
- (iv)  $y^2(a^2 - x^2) = a^2 x$ ,
- (v)  $y^2 = x^2(a+x)/(a-x)$
- (vi)  $5x^3 + 7y^3 + 4x^2y + xy^2 + 2x^2 + 3xy + y^2 + 4x = 0$
- (viii)  $x^3 - 2x^2y + 3xy^2 - 4y^3 + 5x^2 - 6xy + 7y^2 - 8y = 0$
7. Find the radius of curvature of the parabola  $y^2 = 16x$  at an end of the latus rectum.
8. Show that the curvature of the point  $(3a/2, 3a/2)$  of the curve  $x^3 + y^3 = 3axy$  is  $-8\sqrt{2}/3a$ . R. U. 1961, D. H. 1963
9. Prove that chord of curvature parallel to the axis of  $y$  for the curve.  $y = a \log \sec x/a$  is of constant length. R. H. 1960
10. Show that in the curve  $y^3 - 3xy - 4x^2 + x^3 + x^4y + y^5 = 0$ , the radii of curvature at the origin are  $\frac{1}{2}85\sqrt{17}$  and  $5\sqrt{2}$ . C. H. 1986, D. H. 1960

11. Show that the chord of curvature through the pole of the equiangular spiral  $r = ae^{m\theta}$  is  $2r$ .

12. Show that the chord of curvature through the pole of the curve  $p = f(r)$  is  $2f(r)/f''(r)$ .

13. Prove that the points on the curve  $r = f(\theta)$  the circle of curvature at which pass through the origin are given by the equation  $f(\theta) + f''(\theta) = 0$ .

14. Find the radius of curvature of the curve  $r = a \sin n\theta$  at the origin.

14. (a) For the curve  $x = 2\cos^3\theta$ ,  $y = 2\sin^3\theta$  show that the radius of curvature is 3 at  $\theta = \pi/4$  D. U. 1987

15. Find the centre of curvature of the following curves at the indicated points. D. U. 1989

(i)  $xy = x^2 + 4$  at  $(2, 4)$

(ii)  $y = 3x^3 + 2x^2 - 3$  at  $(0, -3)$

(iii)  $x^3 + y^3 = 3axy$  at  $(3a/2, 3a/3)$

16. Prove that the centre of curvature at the point  $(a \cos \theta, b \sin \theta)$  of the ellipse.

$$x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1 \text{ is } \left( \frac{a^2 - b^2}{a} \cos^2 \theta, \frac{b^2 - a^2}{b} \sin^2 \theta \right) \text{ D. U. 1969}$$

17. Show that the centre of curvature of the cycloid  $x = a(\theta - \sin \theta)$ ,  $y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$  lies on a similar cycloid. D. H. 1960

18. For the equiangular spiral  $r = ae^{\theta \cot \alpha}$  prove that the centre of curvature is at the point where the perpendicular to the radius vector intersect the normals. R. H. 1965

19. If  $(\alpha, \beta)$  be the co-ordinates of centre of curvature of the parabola  $\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y} = \sqrt{a}$  at  $(x, y)$  then prove that  $\alpha + \beta = 3(x + y)$  R. U. 1983

20. Obtain the formula for radius of curvature  $\rho = r dr/dp$ . Use the formula to obtain the radius of curvature to the parabola at one end of the latus rectum. D. U. 1954

21. If  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  be the radii of curvature at the extremities of a focal chord of  $y^2 = 4ax$ , show that R. U. 1988

$$\frac{1}{(\rho_1)^{2/3}} + \frac{1}{(\rho_2)^{2/3}} = \frac{1}{(2a)^{2/3}}$$

22. The tangents at two points,  $P, Q$ , on the cycloid  $x = a(\theta - \sin \theta)$ ;  $y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$  are at right angles; show that if  $\rho_1, \rho_2$  be the radii of curvatures at these points.

$$\text{then } \rho_1^2 + \rho_2^2 = 16a^2$$

23. Find the circle of curvature of the following curves.

(i)  $y = x^2 - 6x + 10$ .

Hints :—

$\alpha = 3, \beta = 32$  Find  $\rho = \frac{1}{2}$ . The equation is

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

(ii)  $y = x^3 + 2x^2 + x + 1$  at  $(0, 1)$

24. Prove that the locus of the centre of curvature of the parabola  $x^2 = 4ay$  is

$$4(y-2a)^3 = 27ax^3$$

C. H. 1983

25. Find the radius of curvature of the curve given by  $x = a(1 + \cos 2\theta)$   $y = a(1 - \cos 2\theta)$ .

## প্রশ্নমালা XIII

1. (a) ক্রম বক্রতা বিশিষ্ট একটি বক্ররেখার উপাহরণ দাও।  
 (b) যে কোন বিন্দু  $(s, \psi)$  এ নিম্নলিখিত বক্ররেখাগুলির বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ নির্ণয় কর।
- (i)  $s = a \tan \psi$  (ii)  $s = a \psi$   
 (iii)  $s = a \log \tan (\pi/4 + \frac{1}{2} \psi)$  (iv)  $s = a (e^{m\psi} - 1)$
2. নিম্নলিখিত বক্ররেখা সমূহের পাশ্বে বর্ণিত বিন্দুগুলির বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ নির্ণয় কর,
- (a) (i)  $y = \tan x$  এর  $x = \pi/4$  বিন্দুতে।  
 (ii)  $y = x^2$  এর  $x = 1$  বিন্দুতে R. U. 1965  
 (iii)  $y = \log \operatorname{cose} x$  এর  $x = \pi/4$  বিন্দুতে  
 (iv)  $x = 1 + \cos 2\pi t$ ,  $y = 3 + 2 \sin \pi t$  এর  $t = \frac{1}{2}$  বিন্দুতে  
 (v)  $x^2 + y^2 = 3axy$  এর  $(\frac{3x}{2}, \frac{3a}{2})$  বিন্দুতে। D. H. 1965  
 (vi)  $y^2 x^2 = a^2(x^2 - a^2)$  এর  $(a, b)$  বিন্দুতে। R. H. 1962  
 (vii)  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$  এর  $(0, b)$  বিন্দুতে (viii)  $x^4 + y^4 = 9(x+y)$  মূল বিন্দুতে C. U. 1990
- (b) (i)  $r = a \sin 3\theta$  এর  $(a, \pi/6)$  বিন্দুতে।  
 (ii)  $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$  এর  $(a, \pi)$  বিন্দুতে।  
 (iii)  $r = a \sec \theta$  এর  $(a, 0)$  বিন্দুতে।  
 (iv)  $r = \frac{a}{(1 - \cos \theta)}$  এর  $(a, \pi/2)$  বিন্দুতে।  
 (v)  $x = a \cos \theta$ ,  $y = a \sin \theta$  এর  $(a, 0)$  বিন্দুতে। C. U. 19:0, '84  
 (vi)  $x = a(\theta + \sin \theta)$ ,  $y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$  এর শীর্ষবিন্দু  $(a\pi, 2a)$ -এ।  
 (c) (i)  $r^3 = 2ap^3$  এর  $(p, r)$  বিন্দুতে। C. U. 1983  
 (ii)  $pa^n = r^{n+1}$  এর  $(p, r)$  বিন্দুতে।

3. (a) বক্ররেখা  $y^2 = c^2 + s^2$  এর জন্ম প্রমাণ কর যে  $\rho = y^2/c$   
 (b) বক্ররেখা  $s = a \log \cot (\frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{\psi}{2}) + a (\frac{\sin \psi}{\cos^2 \psi})$  এর জন্ম প্রমাণ কর, যে  $\rho = 2a \sec^3 \psi$ .  
 (c) দেখাও যে ক্যাটেনারী (catenary)  $y = c \cosh (\frac{x}{c})$  এর  $(0, c)$  বিন্দুতে বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ হইবে  $y^2/c$ .  
 D. H. 1983
- (d) বক্ররেখা  $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$  এর  $(r, \theta)$  বিন্দুতে  $[a > 0]$  বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ নির্ণয় কর।  
 D. U. 1967; D. U. 1966
4. যদি  $x = a (\cos t + t \sin t)$ ;  $y = a (\sin t - t \cos t)$  হয় তবে প্রমাণ কর যে  $\rho = at$ .  
 D. U. 1990 D. U. 1955
5. বক্ররেখা  $\rho = r^{n+1} a^n$ -এর জন্ম দেখাও যে, ইহার যে কোন বিন্দুর বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ ঐ বিন্দুর ভেক্টর ব্যাসার্ধের (radius vector)  $(n+1)$  তম শক্তির (Power) ব্যাস্তানুপাতিক।
6. নিম্নলিখিত বক্ররেখাগুলির মেরুবিন্দু (Pole) গামী বক্রতার জ্যানসমূহের সমীকরণ নির্ণয় কর।  
 R. U. 1964
- (i)  $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$   
 (ii)  $r = a (1 - \cos \theta)$   
 (iii)  $r^n = a^n \cos (n\theta)$
7. মূলবিন্দুতে নিম্নলিখিত বক্ররেখাগুলির বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ নির্ণয় কর।
- (i)  $y^2 = x^3 + 5x^2 + 6x$  (ii)  $y^2 = 3xy - 2x^2 + x^3 - y^4$   
 (ii)  $x^3 + y^3 = 2x^2 - 6y$  (iv)  $y^2(a^2 - x^2) = a^2x$   
 (v)  $y^2 = x^2(a+x)/(a-x)$   
 (vi)  $5x^3 + 7y^3 + 4x^2y + xy^2 + 2x^2 + 3xy + y^2 + 4x = 0$   
 (vii)  $x^3 - 2x^2y + 3xy^2 - 4y^3 + 6x^2 - 6xy + 7y^2 - 8y = 0$
7. (a) অধিবৃত্ত (Parabola)  $y^2 = 16x$  এর উপকেন্দ্রিক লম্বের (latus rectum) এক প্রান্তের বিন্দুর বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ নির্ণয় কর।

8. দেখাও যে বক্ররেখা  $x^3+y^3=3axy$  এর  $(3a/2, 3a/2)$  বিন্দুর বক্রতা  $-8\sqrt{2/3y}$ . R. U. 1961, D. H. 1963

9. প্রমাণ কর যে বক্ররেখা  $y=a \log \sec x/a$  এর  $y$ -অক্ষের সমান্তরাল বক্রতার জ্যা-এর দৈর্ঘ্য  $2a$  হইবে। R. U. 1960

10. দেখাও যে বক্ররেখা  $y^2-3xy-4x^2+x^3+x^2y+y^3=0$  এর উপর মূল বিন্দুতে বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ সমূহ হইবে  $\frac{85}{7}\sqrt{17}$  এবং  $5\sqrt{2}$  D. H. 196

11. দেখাও যে সমানকৌনিক শঙ্খিল রেখা (Equiangular spiral)  $r=ae^{m\theta}$ -এর মেরুবিন্দুগামী বক্রতার জ্যা-এর দৈর্ঘ্য  $2r$ .

12. দেখাও যে  $p=f(r)$  বক্ররেখার মেরুবিন্দুগামী (Pole) বক্রতা 'জ্যা' এর দৈর্ঘ্য  $=\frac{2f(r)}{f'(r)}$ .

13. প্রমাণ কর যে  $r=f(\theta)$  বক্ররেখার উপর যে সব বিন্দুর বক্রতার বৃত্ত মূলবিন্দুগামী হইবে সেসব বিন্দুগামী রেখার সমীকরণ হইবে  $f(\theta)+f''(\theta)=0$ .

14.  $r=a \sin n\theta$  বক্ররেখার মূলবিন্দুতে-ব্যাসার্ধ নির্ণয় কর।

15. প্রদত্ত বিন্দুতে নিম্নলিখিত বক্ররেখাগুলি বক্রতার কেন্দ্র নির্ণয় কর।

(i)  $xy=x^2+4$  বক্ররেখার উপর  $(2, 4)$  বিন্দুর।

(ii)  $y=3x^3+2x^2-3$  বক্ররেখার উপর  $(0, -3)$  বিন্দুর।

(iii)  $x^3+y^3=3axy$  বক্ররেখার উপর  $(3a/2, 3a/2)$ ।

16. প্রমাণ কর যে  $(a \cos \theta, b \sin \theta)$  বিন্দুতে উপবৃত্ত

$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$  এর বক্রতার কেন্দ্রের স্থানাঙ্ক হইবে

$\left( \frac{a^2-b^2}{a} \cos 2\theta, \frac{b^2-a^2}{b} \sin 2\theta \right)$ . D. U. 1969.

17. দেখাও যে বৃত্তাকার (cycloid)

$x=a(\theta-\sin \theta)$ ,  $y=a(1-\cos \theta)$  এর বক্রতার কেন্দ্র সমূহ অনুরূপ একটি

বৃত্তাকার ক্ষেত্রের (cycloid) উপর অবস্থিত হইবে।

D. H. 1960,

18. প্রমাণ কর যে, সমানকৌনিক শঙ্খিল রেখা

(equiangular spiral)  $r=ae^{\theta \cot \alpha}$  এর বক্রতার কেন্দ্র সমূহ হইবে ব্যাসার্ধ ভেটোর উপর অঙ্কিত লম্ব এবং অভিলম্বের ছেদ বিন্দু সমূহ। R. H. 1965

19. অধিবৃত্ত  $\sqrt{x}+\sqrt{y}=\sqrt{a}$  এর উপর  $(x, y)$  বিন্দুর বক্রতার কেন্দ্রের স্থানাঙ্ক  $(\alpha, \beta)$  হইলে দেখাও যে

$$\alpha+\beta=3(x+y)$$

R. U. 1983

২০। বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ  $\rho$  অর্থাৎ  $\rho=r \frac{dr}{dp}$  সূত্রটি প্রাপ্তপাদন কর। এই

সূত্র প্রয়োগে অধিবৃত্তের উপকেন্দ্রিক লম্বের (latus rectum) এক প্রান্তের বিন্দুর বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ নির্ণয় কর। D. U. 1954

২১। অধিবৃত্ত  $y^2=4ax$ -এর উপকেন্দ্রিক জ্যা এর প্রান্তবিন্দুদ্বয়ের বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ  $\rho_1$  এবং  $\rho_2$  হইলে দেখাও যে

$$\frac{1}{(\rho_1)^{2/3}} + \frac{1}{(\rho_2)^{2/3}} = \frac{1}{(2a)^{2/3}}$$

22. বৃত্তাকার ক্ষেত্র (Cycloid)  $x=a(1-\sin \theta)$ ,  $y=a(1-\cos \theta)$  এর উপর  $P$  ও  $Q$  বিন্দুদ্বয়ে অঙ্কিত স্পর্শকদ্বয় পরস্পরকে লম্বভাবে ছেদ করে। যদি ঐ বিন্দুদ্বয়ের বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধের যথাক্রমে  $\rho_1$  ও  $\rho_2$  হয় তবে দেখাও যে  $\rho_1^2+\rho_2^2=16a^2$ .

২৩। নিম্নলিখিত বক্ররেখাগুলির বক্রতার বৃত্ত নির্ণয় কর।

(i)  $y=x^2-6x+10$

ইঙ্গিত: এখন  $\alpha=3$ ,  $\rho=3/2$  এবং  $\rho=1/2$  পাওয়া যাইবে।

$\therefore$  বৃত্তের সমীকরণ  $(x-3)^2+(y-3/2)^2=(1/2)^2$ .

(ii)  $y=x^3+2x^2+x+1$  বক্ররেখার  $(0, 1)$  বিন্দুতে।

**ANSWERS**  
**Exercise XIII**

1. (a)  $s = a\psi$ , the curve is a circle of radius  $a$ .
1. (b) (i)  $a \sec^2\psi$  (ii)  $a$  (iii)  $a \sec \psi$  (iv)  $ame^{m\psi}$
- 2 (a) (i)  $\frac{5\sqrt{5}}{4}$  (ii)  $\frac{(17)^{3/2}}{12}$  (iii)  $-2$  (iv)  $7\sqrt{7/16}$
- (v)  $\frac{3\sqrt{2a}}{16}$  (vi)  $a$  (vii)  $a^2/b$
- (b) (i)  $a/10$ , (ii)  $\frac{1}{8}a$  (iii)  $\infty$  (iv)  $2\sqrt{2a}$
- (c) (i)  $2\sqrt{(2ar)/3}$  (ii)  $\frac{a^n}{(n+1)r^{n-1}}$  3(d)  $a^2/3r$
6. (i)  $2r/3$  (ii)  $4r/3$  (iii)  $2r/(n+1)$
7. (i) 3. (ii)  $2\sqrt{5/2}, -\sqrt{2}$  (iii)  $3/2$  (iv)  $1/2$
- (v)  $\pm a\sqrt{2}$  (vi) 2 (vii)  $4/5$ , 7. (a)  $16\sqrt{2}$  14.  $an/2$
15. (i) (2, 5) (ii)  $(0, -2\frac{3}{2})$  (iii)  $21a/16, 21a/(16)$
23. (ii)  $x^2 + y^2 + x - 3y + 2 = 0$

**CHAPTER XIV**  
**SINGULARITIES**

**14. Concavity and Convexity :—**

Let  $P$  be a point of the curve  $y=f(x)$ . Let  $AB$  be a straight line which does not pass through the point  $P$ . Draw a tangent at  $P$ .

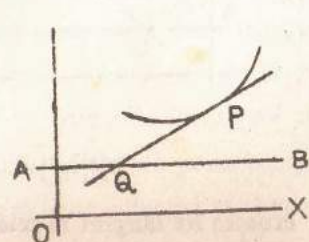


Fig. 19

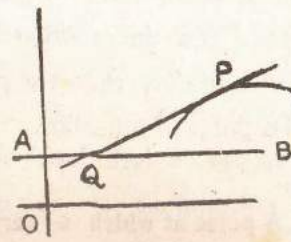


Fig. 20

Then the sufficiently small arc containing  $P$  lies entirely with in (fig. 20) or without (fig 19) the acute angle made by the tangent and the line  $AB$ .

The curve at  $P$  in the fig. 19 is called convex to  $AB$  and the curve at  $P$  in fig. 20 is called the concave to  $AB$ .

Mathematically a curve is convex or concave at  $P$  to the axis of  $x$  according as  $y \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$  is positive or negative at  $P$ . (For proof any Higher Calculus),

Similarly a curve is convex at  $P$  w. r. to  $y$ -axis if  $x \frac{d^2x}{dy^2}$  is positive and the curve is concave at  $P$  w. r. to  $y$ -axis if  $x \frac{d^2x}{dy^2}$  is negative.

**14. 2. Point of inflexion :** As regards the point of inflexion we discussed in chapter XI. Chapter on maxima and minima. A point  $P$  of inflexion is a point on the curve such that on one side

of it the curve is concave and on the other side it is convex with respect to any line  $AB$ . The point  $P$  is called a point of inflexion.

In other way we can define the point of inflexion; We know that ordinarily a curve does not cross its tangent. If a curve crosses its tangent at a point, then the point is called a point of inflexion.

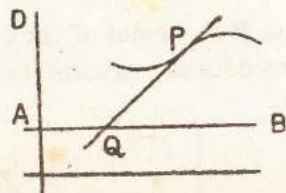


Fig. 21

*i. e.* A point at which a curve crosses its tangent is said to be a point of inflexion.

Test for point of Inflexion.

(a) For Cartesian curves :—

A point of inflexion at  $P$  exists if  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ ,  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$  but  $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} \neq 0$

(b) For Polar curves :—

A point of inflexion at  $P$  exists if  $u + \frac{d^2u}{d\theta^2}$  changes sign

Put  $u + \frac{d^2u}{d\theta^2} = 0$  and find for what values of  $\theta$  changes of sign can occur.

(c) For pedal curve

A point of inflexion at  $P$  exists if

$$\frac{dp}{dr} = 0 \text{ as } p = r \frac{dr}{ds}$$

For a point of inflexion  $\frac{dp}{dr}$  changes sign.

14. 3. Double point—If two branches of a curve pass through a point then the point is called double point.

A curve has two tangents at a double point, one for each branch.

If three branches of a curve pass through a point, then the point is called triple point.

**Multiple Points :**—If more than one branch of a curve passes through a point, then the point is called a multiple point. If  $r$  branches of a curve pass through a point, then the point is called a multiple point of the  $r$ th order on the curve. The curve has  $r$  tangents (real or imaginary) at that point one for each branch.

**Singular point :**—A multiple point is sometimes called a singular point.

**Point of Undulation :**—When a straight line meets a curve at four coincident point of contact is called a point of undulation. In this case the tangent does not cross the curve but is indistinguishable from an ordinary tangent.

For example, in  $y - x = x^4 + y^4$  there is point of undulation at the origin.

14. 4. Classification of double points.

At a double point of a curve, there are two tangents one for each branch.

**Case (i)** If the two tangents are real and not coincident, then the two real branches of the curve passing through the point is called **node or crunode**.

**Case (ii)** If the two tangents are coincident the point is called a **cuspid, stationary point or spinode**.



**Case (iii)** If tangents are imaginary, there are no real points on the curve in the neighbourhood of the point considered, such a point is called an **isolated point or conjugate point or, acnode.**

At a conjugate point the tangents are usually imaginary but sometimes tangents at such point may be real.

**14. 5. Find the necessary condition for the existence of double points.**

Let  $f(x, y)=0$  be the equation of a curve and  $P(x, y)$  be any point on it.

The slope of the tangent at  $P(x, y)$  to the curve  $f(x, y)=0$  is

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -f_x/f_y \text{ whence } f_x + f_y \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \dots (1)$$

At a multiple point of a curve the curve has a least two tangents at that point and  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  must have two values at the multiple point. But the eq. (1) is of first degree in  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  can be satisfied by two values of  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  if and only if

$$f_x=0 \text{ and } f_y=0$$

Hence the necessary condition for any point  $(x, y)$  of the curve to be a multiple point is then

$$f_x=0 \text{ and } f_y=0$$

Solve the equation  $f_x=0$  and  $f_y=0$  for  $x$  and  $y$ . Put the values of  $x$  and  $y$  in eq.  $f(x, y)=0$ . The pairs of values of  $x$  and  $y$  which satisfy  $f(x, y)=0$  constitute the required double points. The values which do not satisfy  $f(x, y)=0$  should be rejected.

The Co-ordinates of the multiple points then satisfy the three equations.

$$f(x, y)=0. \quad f_x=0, \quad f_y=0,$$

Differentiate  $f_x + f_y \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$  with respect to  $x$ .

Then

$$f_{xx} + f_{xy} \frac{dy}{dx} + \left( f_{yx} + f_{yy} \frac{dy}{dx} \right) \frac{dy}{dx} + f_y \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$$

For a double point  $f_x=0, f_y=0$

Also  $f_{xy}=f_{yx}$

$$\text{Thus } f_{yy} \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 + 2f_{yx} \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right) + f_{xx} = 0 \dots \dots (2)$$

The above equation is quadratic in  $\frac{dy}{dx}$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-2f_{yx} \pm \sqrt{\{4f_{yx}^2 - 4f_{yy}f_{xx}\}}}{2f_{yy}}$$

The double point be a node, cusp or conjugate according as  $4f_{yx}^2 - 4f_{yy}f_{xx} >, =$  or,  $<0$  or,  $f_{yx}^2 >, =$  or,  $<f_{yy}f_{xx}$  If  $f_{xx}, f_{xy}$  and  $f_{yy}$  are not also zero.

$\therefore$  In general a double point is a **node, cusp, or conjugate point** if  $f_{yx}^2 >$  or  $<f_{yy}f_{xx} \dots \dots (3)$

If  $f_{xx}=f_{xy}=f_{yy}=0$ , then such a point is a triple point.

**14. 6. (a) Classification of cusps.**

There are two types of cusps.



Fig. 22



Fig. 23

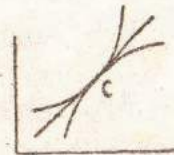


Fig. 24

(i) Single cusps

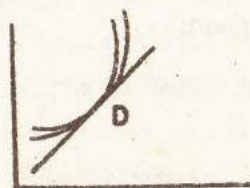


Fig. 25

(ii) Double cusps

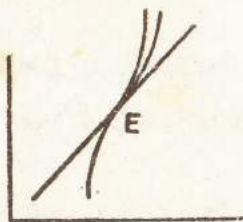


Fig. 26

(i) **Single cusps** : When branches of the curve do not extend on both sides of the point of contact. Fig. 22 & 23

(ii) **Double cusps** :—When branches of the curve extend on both sides of point of contact. Fig. 24, 25, 26.

(b) **Species of cusps.**

Cusps (single or double) are of two species.

**First Species**—A cusp of the first species or a keratoid cusp, (cusp like horns) is that in which the branches are on opposite sides of the common tangents. See fig. 22 and 24.

**Second Species** :—A cusp of the second species or a rhamphoid cusp (cusp like beak) is that in which the branches of the curve lie on the same side of the common tangents, see fig. 23 and 25.

**Oscul inflexion** :—Double cusp with change of species is a point of oscul inflexion.

The point of oscul-inflexion is the combination of two species fig. 26.

The point of contact is a double cusp. The cusp is of 2nd species on the right side of the point of contact and the cusp is of first species on the left side of the point.

#### 14. 7. Search for the nature of a cusp.

Let  $P(x, y)$  be a cusp on a curve  $f(x, y)=0$

To determine the nature of the cusp transfer the origin to the point  $P(x, y)$ . The equation of the curve is such that the lowest degree terms form a perfect square *i. e.*, there are two coincident tangent at  $P(x, y)$ . Draw perpendicular from a point near to  $P(x, y)$  to the tangent  $ax+by=0$ , then  $p = \frac{ax+by}{\sqrt{a^2+b^2}}$

As the point is very near to  $P(x, y)$  then we can write  $p=ax+by$  (roughly).

Now eliminate  $y$  between  $f(x, y)=0$  and  $p=ax+by$ .

We get an equation in  $p$  and  $x$  only. As we want to consider only the small values of  $p$  and  $x$ , so we take only the terms involving  $p^2$  and  $x^2$ . Thus we get a quadratic equation in  $x$  and  $p$ .

(a) If the roots of  $p$  are imaginary there is a conjugate point at the point (new origin).

(b) If the roots are real but of opposite signs (*i. e.*, product of the roots is negative) then two perpendiculars lie on opposite sides of common tangent at that point. Hence the cusp of 1st species or 1st kind.

(c) If the roots of  $p$  are real and of same sign, then two perpendiculars lie on same side of the common tangent. Hence the point is a cusp of the 2nd species.

(d) If the reality of the roots of the equation depends on the sign of  $x$  the cusp is single.

(e) If the reality of the roots of the equation is independent of the sign of  $x$  the cusp is double.

The above stated facts have been shown in the examples.

Ex 1. Find the points of the inflexions of the following curves.

(i)  $y = 2x + x^3 + x^4$       (ii)  $r(\theta^2 - 3) = 2$   
 (i)  $y = 2x + x^3 + x^4$       ... .. (1)

Differentiate with respect to  $x$ .

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2 + 3x^2 + 4x^3 \quad \therefore \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 6x + 12x^2 \dots (2)$$

For a points of inflexion  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$  and  $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} \neq 0$

$$\therefore \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0 \text{ or, } 6x + 12x^2 = 0 \text{ or, } x = 0, -2$$

From (1)  $y = 0, 4$  when  $x = 0, -2$

The probable points of inflexion are  $(0, 0), (-2, 4)$

Again  $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} = 6 + 24x$  which is not zero for  $x = 0$  and  $-2$ .

Hence the points of inflexion are  $(0, 0)$  and  $(-2, 4)$

(ii)  $r(\theta^2 - 3) = 2$

or:  $2u = \theta^2 - 3$ ,      Put  $u = 1/r$

$$2u_1 = 2\theta; \quad 2u_2 = 2.$$

$$u + u_2 = \frac{1}{2}\theta^2 - 3/2 + 1 = \frac{1}{2}\theta^2 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}(\theta - 1)(\theta + 1) = 0$$

If  $\theta = \pm 1$ .

As  $u + u_2$  changes sign as  $\theta$  passes through these values.

From  $r(\theta^2 - 3) = 2$ ;  $r = -1, -1$  for  $\theta = \pm 1$ . Hence the points of inflexion are at  $(-1, 1)$  and  $(-1, 1)$ .

Ex. 1. (a) Determine the double points of the curve

$$x^4 + y^4 - 4a^2xy = 0 \quad \text{R. H. 1964}$$

Let  $f(x, y) = x^4 + y^4 - 4a^2xy$       ... .. (1)

$\therefore f_x = 4x^3 - 4a^2y = 0$       ... .. (2)

and  $f_y = 4y^3 - 4a^2x = 0$       ... .. (3)

From (2) and (3)

$$4x^3 - 4a^2y = 0 \text{ and } 4y^3 - 4a^2x = 0$$

Solve for  $x$  and  $y$ . Then

$$x = 0, a, \text{ and } y = 0, a$$

The double points are  $(0, 0)$  and  $(a, a)$

But  $(0, 0)$  only satisfies  $f(x, y) = 0$ .

Hence only probable double point is at  $(0, 0)$

Again  $f_{xx} = 12x^2 = 0$  at  $(0, 0)$ ,  $f_{yy} = 12y^2 = 0$  at  $(0, 0)$  and  $f_{yx} = -4a^2$  at  $(0, 0)$

Now  $f^2_{yx} - f_{xx}f_{yy} = 16a^4 - 0 = 16a^4 = +ve$

or,  $f^2_{yx} > f_{xx}f_{yy}$

Which shows that the double point is a node at the origin.

Ex. 2. Find the position and nature of the double points on the curve.

$$x(2x^2 - 5ax + 4a^2) = ay(2a - y)$$

Let  $f(x, y) = x(2x^2 - 5ax + 4a^2) - ay(2a - y)$       ... (1)

$$f_x = 6x^2 - 10ax + 4a^2 = 0 \quad \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

$$f_y = -2a + 2y = 0 \quad \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

From (2) and (3), we have  $x = a, \frac{2}{3}a$  and  $y = a$ ,

of these only  $(a, a)$  satisfies eq.  $f(x, y) = 0$

Hence the only probable double point is at  $(a, a)$ .

Again  $f_{xx} = 12x - 10a$  at  $(a, a) = 2a$

$$f_{yy} = 2 \text{ at } (a, a)$$

$$f_{yx} = 0 \text{ at } (a, a)$$

Now  $f^2_{yx} - f_{xx}f_{yy} = 0 - 2a \cdot 2 = -4a$

or;  $f^2_{yx} < f_{xx}f_{yy}$

$i, e$ ; the double point is a conjugate point.

Ex. 3. Examine the nature of the origin on the curve

$$y^2 = 2x^2y + x^4y - 2x^4 \quad \dots \dots (1) \quad \text{D. U. 1958}$$

Tangents and the origin of the curve are given by

$$y^2 = 0, \text{ or, } y = 0 \quad \dots \dots (2)$$

$i. e.$  there are two coincident tangents at the origin. The probable double point is a cusp.

Let  $y = p$  then (1) becomes,

$$p^2 = 2x^2p + x^4p - 2x^4 \text{ or, } p^2 - p(2x^2 + x^4) + 2x^4 = 0$$

or,  $p = \frac{1}{2}[(2x^2 + x^4) \pm \sqrt{(2x^2 + x^4)^2 - 8x^4}]$

$$= \frac{1}{2} [(2x^2 + x^4) \pm \sqrt{4x^4 - 4x^4 + x^8}]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \{(2x^2 + x^4) \pm x^2 \sqrt{4x^2 - 4 + x^2}\}$$

$= \frac{1}{2} \{2x^2 + x^4 + x^2 \sqrt{4x^2 - 4}\}$  for small values of  $x$  near the origin  $= x^2 \pm x^2 \sqrt{4x^2 - 4}$ .

For small values of  $x$ ,  $\sqrt{4x^2 - 4}$  is always imaginary. Hence  $p$  is imaginary near the origin, there is no real point near the origin. Hence the double point is a conjugate point.

**Ex. 4.** Find the nature of the curve

$$y^2 = x^3(1-x)$$

The tangent at the origin is

$$y^2 = 0 \quad \text{or,} \quad y = 0 \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

*i. e.*  $x$ -axis is the tangent at the origin

Put  $y = p$  in  $y^2 = x^3(1-x)$ , then

$$p^2 = x^3(1-x) \quad \text{or,} \quad p^2 = x^3 - x^4$$

$$\therefore p = \pm \sqrt{x^3 - x^4} \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

For small values of  $x$ ,  $x^4$  is neglected in comparison with  $x^3$ , then near the origin  $p = \pm \sqrt{x^3}$ .

For negative values of  $x$ ,  $p$  is imaginary *i. e.*, there is no branch of the curve to the left of the origin.

For positive values of  $x$ ,  $p$  has equal and opposite signs.

Hence there is a cusp for first species of single cusp.

**Ex. 5.** Show that the curve  $x + y = y^2(2 + 3\sqrt{y})$  has a single cusp of the 2nd species at the origin.

The tangent at the origin is  $x + y = 0$ .

$$\text{Let } p = x + y \quad \text{or,} \quad y = p - x \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

Put the value of  $y$  in the equation, then

$$p = 2(p-x)^2 + 3(p-x)^{3/2}$$

$$\text{or,} \quad 2p^2 - p(4x+1) + 2x^2 = 0 \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

Near the origin, we neglect  $p^{5/2}, x^{5/2}$  in comparison to  $x^2$  and  $p^2$ .

$$\text{or,} \quad p = \frac{1}{4} [(4x+1) \pm \sqrt{(16x^2 + 8x + 1 - 16x^2)}]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} [4x+1] \pm \sqrt{(8x+1)}$$

The reality of roots of  $p$  depends on the sign of  $x$ . Hence the double point is a single cusp.

Again from (2), the product of roots of  $p$  is positive ( $2x^2$ ) *i. e.*, the two roots of  $p$  have the same sign. Thus the cusp is of 2nd species.

Hence the double point is a single cusp of 2nd species.

**Ex. 6.** Show that the curve  $y^2 - 2x^2y - x^4y - x^4 = 0$  has a double cusp of first species at the origin.

$$\text{Let } y^2 - 2x^2y - x^4y - x^4 = 0 \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

The tangents at the origin are  $y^2 = 0$

There are two coincident tangents at the origin, so there is a cusp at the origin.

$$\text{Let } y = p \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

From (1) by (2), we have

$$p^2 - 2x^2p - x^4p - x^4 = 0 \quad \text{or,} \quad p^2 - p(2x^2 + x^4) - x^4 = 0 \quad \dots \quad (3)$$

$$\therefore p = \frac{1}{2} [2x^2 + x^4] \pm \sqrt{\{(2x^2 + x^4)^2 + 4x^4\}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \{(2x^2 + x^4) \pm \sqrt{(8x^4 + 4x^6 + x^8)}\}$$

Near the origin we neglect  $x^3, x^4$  in comparison with  $x^2$ ,

$$\text{Then } p = \frac{1}{2} (2x^2 + 2\sqrt{2x^2}) = (1 + \sqrt{2})x^2$$

Therefore roots of  $p$  are real. Moreover the reality of roots does not depend on  $x$  ( $x$  may be positive or negative). Hence the origin is a cusp.

Again products of roots  $p^2$  from (3), is equal to  $-x^4$ , *i. e.* the roots are opposite in signs.

Thus the two perpendiculars lie on the opposite sides of the common tangent at the cusp. The cusp is of 1st species.

Hence the origin is a double cusp of first species.

**Ex. 7.** Show that the curve  $p^2 - x^2y + x^5 = 0$  has an osculinflexion at the origin.

The tangents at the origin are  $y^2 = 0$

The two tangents are coincident at the origin; so there is a cusp at the origin.

$$\text{Let } y=p \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

Then the equation (1) becomes by (2).

$$p^2 - x^2 p + x^5 = 0 \quad \dots \quad (3)$$

$$\text{or, } p = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 \pm \sqrt{x^4 - 4x^5})$$

As  $x$  is very small, so  $x^4 - 4x^5$  is positive. Then the roots of  $p$  are real.

Moreover roots do not depend upon the sign of  $x$ .

Hence the double point is a double cusp.

The product of the roots of  $p$  in (3), is equal to  $x^5$ .

If  $x$  is positive, the product of the root is positive.

Hence the two perpendiculars lie on the same sides of the common tangent at the origin. The cusp is of 2nd species.

If  $x$  is negative the product of the roots is negative  $i, e$ ; the two perpendiculars lie on the opposite sides of the common tangent at the origin.

Hence the cusp is also of 1st species.

Thus cusp at the origin is of the double cusp of mixed species  $i, e$ . the point is a oscul-inflexion.

**Ex. 8.** Examine the nature of the double points on the curve  
 $(x+y)^3 - \sqrt{2}(y-x+2)^2 = 0$  D. U. H. 1959

$$\text{Let } f(x, y) = (x+y)^3 - \sqrt{2}(y-x+2)^2 = 0 \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

$$f_x = 3(x+y)^2 + 2\sqrt{2}(y-x+2) = 0 \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

$$f_y = 3(x+y)^2 - 2\sqrt{2}(y-x+2) = 0 \quad \dots \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Add (2) and (3); } 6(x+y)^2 = 0 \quad \text{or } x+y=0 \quad \dots \quad (4)$$

Subtract (3) from (2);

$$4\sqrt{2}(y-x+2) = 0 \quad \text{or; } x-y=2 \quad \dots \quad (5)$$

Thus from (4) and (5)  $x=1, y=-1$

The point  $(1, -1)$  satisfies  $f(x, y) = 0$ .

Hence  $(1, -1)$  is a double point.

What type of double point is ?

$$\text{Again } f_{xx} = 6(x+y) - 2\sqrt{2} = -2\sqrt{2} \quad \text{when } x=1, y=-1$$

$$f_{yx} = 6(x+y) + 2\sqrt{2} = 2\sqrt{2} \quad \text{when } x=1, y=-1$$

$$f_{yy} = 6(x+y) - 2\sqrt{2} = -2\sqrt{2} \quad \text{when } x=1, y=-1$$

Therefore at  $(1, -1)$ , we have  $f_{yx}^2 = f_{xx} f_{yy}$

Thus the curve  $f(x, y) = 0$  has a cusp at  $(1, -1)$

What is the species of the cusp ?

Now transfer the origin at  $(1, -1)$ , the equation (1) is [ Put  $x=x+1, y=y-1$  ]

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

$$\text{or, } (x+y)^3 - \sqrt{2}(y-x)^2 = 0 \quad \dots \quad (6)$$

Tangents at the new origin of eq (6) are

$$(y-x)^3 = 0 \quad \text{or, } y-x=0$$

$$\text{Put } y-x=p \quad \dots \quad (7)$$

Now the eq. (6) by (7) becomes

$$(2x+p)^3 - \sqrt{2}p^2 = 0 \quad \text{or, } 8x^3 + 12x^2p + 6xp^2 + p^3 - \sqrt{2}p^2 = 0$$

$$\text{or, } p^2(6x - \sqrt{2}) + 12x^2p + 8x^3 = 0$$

neglecting  $p^3$  in the neighbourhood of the origin;  $x$  and  $p$  are small.

$$\text{or, } p = \frac{-12x^2 \pm \sqrt{\{144x^4 - 32x^3(6x - \sqrt{2})\}}}{2(6x - \sqrt{2})}$$

$$= \frac{-12x^2 + \sqrt{\{32\sqrt{2}x^3\}}}{2(6x - \sqrt{2})} \quad \dots \quad (8)$$

neglecting  $x^4$  in comparison with  $x^3$ . For positive values of  $x, p$  is real.

For negative values of  $x, p$  is imaginary. Hence there is a single cusp at  $(1, -1)$ . From (8) for small positive values of  $x$  one value of  $p$  is positive and the other negative. Hence the cusp is of the first species.

Therefore there is a single cusp of first species at  $(1, -1)$ .

#### Exercise XIV

1. Find the points of inflexion of the following curves if any.

$$(i) \quad y(x-1) = x^3 \qquad (ii) \quad xy^2 = a^2(a-x)$$

$$(iii) \quad x^2 = y^2(a^2 + y^2) \qquad (iv) \quad y^2 = 4x^3 + x^3$$

$$(v) \quad y = 3x^4 - 4x^3 + 1 \qquad (vi) \quad a = r\sqrt{6}$$

(vii)  $r^2\theta = a^2$

(viii)  $r(\theta^2 - 1) = a^2$

2. Show that the point of inflexion on the curve  $r = a\theta^n$  are given by  $r = a \{-n(n+1)\}^{n/2}$ .

3. Show that the point of inflexion of the curve

$$y^2 = (x-a)^2(x-b) \text{ lie on the line } 3x+a = -4b.$$

4. Find the nature of the cusps, if any, in the following curves

(i)  $y = x^{3/2} + x^2$

(ii)  $x = y^2 + y^{5/2} + y^3$

(iii)  $(x-2)^2 - y(y-1)^2 = 0$

(iv)  $x^4 - ax^2y + ax^2y^2 + a^2y^2 = 0$

(v)  $x^3 - y^2 - 7x^2 + 4y + 15x - 13 = 0$

(vi)  $a^2y^2 - 2abx^2y - x^3 = 0$

(vii)  $x^7 + 2x^4 + 2x^3y + x^2 + 2xy + y^2 = 0$

R.U. 1991

(viii)  $y(y-6) = x^2(x-9)^3 - 9$

(ix)  $y = x^2 + x^{5/2} + x^3$

(x)  $y = x^2 + x^3\sqrt{9-x}$

(xi)  $y^2 = x^4(x^2-1)$  D. H. 1962

5. Show that the origin on the curve  $y^2 = bx \sin(x/a)$  there is a node or a conjugate point according as  $a$  and  $b$  have like or unlike signs.

6. Show that the curve  $a^2y^2 - 2abx^2y + b^2(x^5 + x^6) = 0$  has a double point at the origin. Show that the double point is an oscul-inflexion.

7. Show that the curve  $x^3 + y^2 + x^2 - x - 4y + 3 = 0$  has a node at  $(-1, 2)$  and a loop.

8. Show that the curve  $x^4 - 2ax^2y - ax^2y^2 + a^2y^2 = 0$  has a cusp of the 2nd kind at the origin.

9. Show that the curve  $x^5 + ayx^4 - a^3x^2y + a^4y^2 = 0$  has a double cusp of 2nd species at the origin.

10. Show that the curve  $y^2 = 2x^2y + x^3y + x^3$  has a single cusp of the first species at the origin.

11. Show that the curve  $y^2 = 2x^2y + x^4y + x^3$  has a double cusp of 1st. species at the origin.

12. Show that the curve  $y-2 = x(1+x+x^3y^2)$  has a single cusp of second species at a point where it cuts the  $y$ -axis.

13. Prove that the radius of curvature of the cartenary  $y = \frac{1}{2}a(e^{x/a} + e^{-x/a})$  is  $y^2/a$  and that of the cartenary of uniform strength  $y = c \log \sec x/c$  is  $c \sec(x/c)$  R. U. 1958

## প্রশ্নমালা XIV

1. নিম্নলিখিত বক্ররেখাগুলিতে যদি কোন আনতি (points of inflexion) বিন্দু থাকে তাহা নির্ণয় কর।

(i)  $y(x-1) = x^3$

(ii)  $xy^2 = a^2(a-x)$

(iii)  $x^2 = y^2(a^2 + y^2)$

(iv)  $y^2 = 4x^2 + x^3$

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

(vi)  $a = r\sqrt{\theta}$

(vii)  $r^2\theta = a^2$

(viii)  $2(\theta^2 - 1) = a\theta^2$

2. দেখাও যে  $r = a\theta^n$  বক্ররেখার উপর আনতি বিন্দু সমূহকে  $r = a\{-n(n+1)\}^{n/2}$  সমীকরণ দ্বারা দেওয়া যায়।

3. দেখাও যে  $y^2 = (x-a)^2(x-b)$  বক্ররেখার আনতি বিন্দু সমূহ  $3x+a = -4b$  সরলরেখার উপর অবস্থিত।

4. নিম্নলিখিত বক্ররেখাগুলির মধ্যে স্পর্শগত বিন্দু যদি থাকে তবে তাদের প্রকৃতি নির্ণয় কর।

(i)  $y = x^{3/2} + x^2$

(ii)  $x = y^2 + y^{5/2} + y^3$

(iii)  $(x-2)^2 - y(y-1)^2 = 0$

(iv)  $x^4 - ax^2y + ax^2y^2 + a^2y^2 = 0$

(v)  $x^3 - y^2 - 7x^2 + 4y + 15x - 13 = 0$

(vi)  $a^2y^2 - 2abx^2y - x^3 = 0$

(vii)  $x^7 + 2x^4 + 2x^3y + x^2 + 2xy + y^2 = 0$

R.U. 1991.

(viii)  $y(y-6) = x^2(x-9)^3 - 9$

(ix)  $y = x^2 + x^{5/2} + x^3$

(x)  $y = x^2 + x^3\sqrt{9-x}$

(xi)  $y^2 = x^4(x^2-1)$

D. H. 1962

5. দেখাও যে  $y^2 = bx \sin(x/a)$  বক্ররেখার উপর মূলবিন্দু পৃথকবিন্দু অথবা মূল বিন্দু হবে যদি  $a$  এবং  $b$  এর চিহ্ন একই রকম বা ভিন্ন রকম হয়

6. দেখাও যে  $a^2y^2 - 2abx^2y + b^2(x^5 + x^6) = 0$

বক্ররেখার উপর মূলবিন্দুতে একটি দ্বি-বিন্দু আছে। আরো দেখাও যে ঐ দ্বি-বিন্দুট একটি আনতি বিন্দু।

7. দেখাও যে  $x^3 + y^3 + x^2 - x - 4y + 3 = 0$  বক্ররেখার  $(-1, 2)$  বিন্দুতে পাতবিন্দু (node) এবং একটি কাঁস (a loop) আছে।

8. দেখাও যে  $x^4 - 2a^2xy - axy^2 + a^2y^3 = 0$  বক্ররেখার উপর মূলবিন্দুতে একটি ২য় প্রকারের স্পন্দিত বিন্দু আছে। (a cusp of the 2nd kind).

9. দেখাও যে  $x^5 + ayx^4 - a^3x^2y + a^4y^2 = 0$  বক্ররেখার উপর মূলবিন্দুতে একটি দ্বিতীয় প্রজাতির দ্বি-স্পন্দিত বিন্দু আছে। (a double cusp of the 2nd species).

10. দেখাও যে  $y^2 = 2x^2y + x^3y + x^3$  বক্ররেখার উপর মূলবিন্দুতে একটি প্রথম প্রজাতির একক স্পন্দিত বিন্দু আছে (a single cusp of the first species).

11. দেখাও যে  $y^2 = 2x^2y + x^4y + x^3$  বক্ররেখার উপর মূলবিন্দুতে একটি প্রথম প্রজাতির দ্বি-স্পন্দিত বিন্দু আছে।

12. দেখাও যে  $y - 2 = x(1 + x + x^3y^2)$  বক্ররেখা যে বিন্দুতে  $y$ -অক্ষকে ছেদ করে সে বিন্দুতে একটি দ্বিতীয় প্রজাতির একক স্পন্দিত বিন্দু আছে। (a single cusp of 2nd species).

13. প্রমাণ কর যে কার্টেসীয়  $y = \frac{1}{2}a(e^{x/a} + e^{-x/a})$ -এর বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ হবে  $y^2/a$  এবং সম-স্পর্শির কার্টেসীয়  $y = c \log \sec(x/c)$ -এর বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ হবে  $c \sec(x/c)$ .

R. U. 1958

## উত্তরমালা XIV

1. (i)  $(0, 0)$  (ii) no (iii) no (iv) no (v)  $(\frac{2}{3}, \frac{11}{27})$   
(vi)  $(r = a\sqrt{2}, \theta = \frac{1}{2})$  (vii)  $\theta = \pm \frac{1}{2}$  (viii)  $\theta = \sqrt{3}, r = 3a/2$

4. (i) একক কেরাটয়েড স্পন্দিত বিন্দু। (ii) দ্বিতীয় প্রজাতি (iii) পাত-বিন্দু (node) (iv) যুগ্মবিন্দু Conjugate point) (v) পাতবিন্দু (node) (vi) আনত-চুপ্তনবিন্দু (vii) আনত-চুপ্তনবিন্দু (oscul-inflexion) (viii) একক কেরাটয়েড স্পন্দিত বিন্দু (single keratoid cusp) যুগ্মবিন্দু (Conjugate point.) (ix) দ্বিতীয় প্রজাতির একক স্পন্দিত বিন্দু। (x) দ্বিতীয় প্রজাতির দ্বি-স্পন্দিত বিন্দু।

## EXERCISE XV

## Envelopes and Evolutes

15. 1. Family of curves :—Let there be an equation of the form  $f(x, y, c) = 0 \dots \dots (1)$  where  $c$  is an arbitrary constant. For different values of  $c$ , the equation (1) will represent different curves. The quantity  $c$  which is constant for a particular curve but different for different curves is called a parameter of the family to which the curves belong. Since there is only one parameter  $c$  in  $f(x, y, c) = 0$ , these curves are sometimes called the one parameter family of curves.

15. 2. Definition of Envelope :—A curve which touches each member of a family of curves and conversely if each point is touched by some members of the family, is called the envelope of that family of curves.

15.3. To find the equation of an envelope.

Let  $f(x, y, c) = 0 \dots \dots (1)$   
represent a family of curves.

Let  $f(x, y, c) = 0$  }  
 $f(x, y, c+h) = 0$  }  $\dots \dots (2)$

be the two consecutive members of the family of curves (1)

Suppose the curve (1) touches the envelope at  $P$ .

The curves in (2) will intersect at a point  $P_1$  which is near the points of contact of these curves with the envelope.

The equation of the curve through  $P_1$  of (2) is

$$f(x, y, c+h) - f(x, y, c) = 0$$

$$\text{or ; } \frac{f(x, y, c+h) - f(x, y, c)}{h} = 0$$

$$\therefore \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x, y, c+h) - f(x, y, c)}{h} = 0$$

$$\text{or, } \frac{\delta}{\delta c} f(x, y, c) = 0 \quad \dots \quad (3)$$

i. e. the co-ordinates of  $P$  will satisfy the equation (3). But  $P$  is a point on the curve (1)

Hence  $P$  satisfies eq. (1) and (3). If we eliminate  $c$  from (1) and (3) we shall get the locus of that point of intersection for all values of parameter  $c$ .

Hence the locus of  $P$  is the envelope of  $f(x, y, c) = 0$

Let us explain the above definition by two illustrations.

**Ex. 1.** Consider the family of circles

$$(x-c)^2 + y^2 = r^2 \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

Where  $c$  is a parameter.

The centre of the circle is at  $(c, 0)$ . For different values of  $c$ , we will get different circles of radius ' $r$ '. The centers of the circles lie on the  $x$ -axis. This family of circles will lie between two straight lines  $y=r$  and  $y=-r$ . All the circles touch the straight lines  $AB$  and  $CD$ . Straight lines  $AB$  and  $CD$  are the envelopes of the family of the circles (1), see fig. 27.

**(Ex. 2.** Consider the family of straight lines.

$x \cos \alpha + y \sin \alpha = a$ , where  $x$  is a parameter.

We know that  $x \cos \alpha + y \sin \alpha - a = 0$  is the tangent to the circle at  $(a \cos \alpha, a \sin \alpha)$

For each value of  $\alpha$ , we get a fixed straight line which touches the fixed circle  $C = x^2 + y^2 - a^2 = 0$ . For different values of  $\alpha$  we will get different straight lines which touch the circle  $C$ .

Hence the envelope of the straight lines  $x \cos \alpha + y \sin \alpha - a = 0$  is the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ . See fig. 28.

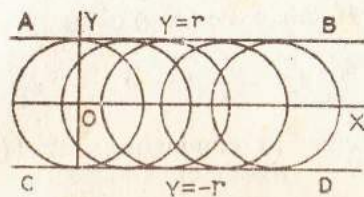


Fig. 27

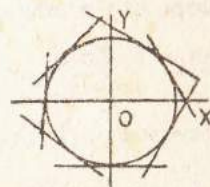


Fig. 28

The required envelope is the eliminant of  $c$  from

$$\left. \begin{aligned} f(x, y, c) &= 0 \\ \frac{\delta}{\delta c} f(x, y, c) &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

**Cor.** The envelope of  $A\alpha^2 + 2B\alpha + C = 0$  is  $B^2 = AC$

If the equation  $f(x, y, \alpha) = 0$  is a quadratic equation in  $\alpha$ , let it be of the form

$$A\alpha^2 + 2B\alpha + C = 0 \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

where  $A, B, C$  are functions of  $x$  and  $y$ .

Differentiate (1) w. r to  $\alpha$  partially  $2A\alpha + 2B = 0$

$$\text{or, } \alpha = -B/A \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

Put the value of  $\alpha$  in (1), then

$$A(-B/A)^2 + 2B(-B/A) + C = 0 \quad \text{or, } B^2/A - 2B^2/A + C = 0$$

$$\text{or, } B^2 = AC$$

Thus the envelope of  $A\alpha^2 + 2B\alpha + C = 0$  is  $B^2 = AC$ .

**Note:**—The polar curves  $f(r, \theta, c) = 0$  may be treated in the same manner.



## 15. 4. The envelope touches each member of the family.

$$\text{Let } f(x, y, c) = 0 \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

represent a family of curves.

The slope of the tangent at any point  $(x, y)$  of  $f(x, y, c) = 0$  is

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = - \frac{\delta f / \delta x}{\delta f / \delta y} \quad \text{or,} \quad \frac{\delta f}{\delta y} dy + \frac{\delta f}{\delta x} dx = 0 \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

The envelope of (1) is obtained by eliminating  $c$  from (1) and

$$\frac{\delta f}{\delta c}(x, y, c) = 0 \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Let } \left. \begin{array}{l} x = \phi(c) \\ y = \psi(c) \end{array} \right\} \dots \quad (4)$$

Therefore values of  $x$  and  $y$  are obtained by solving the equation (1) and (3) in terms of  $c$ .

The slope of the tangent at  $P(x, y)$  of the envelope is.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\psi'(c)}{\phi'(c)} \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad (5)$$

where primes denote differentiation *w. r. to*  $c$ .

Now take the total differential of  $f(x, y, c) = 0$

$$df = \frac{\delta f}{\delta x} dx + \frac{\delta f}{\delta y} dy + \frac{\delta f}{\delta c} dc \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad (6)$$

(For convenience,  $f(x, y, c)$  will be written as  $f$ )

If  $x$  and  $y$  satisfy equations (4). then  $df = 0$

$$dx = \phi'(c) dc, \quad dy = \psi'(c) dc \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\delta f}{\delta c} = 0 \quad \text{by} \quad (3)$$

Hence (6) becomes

$$\frac{\delta f}{\delta x} dx + \frac{\delta f}{\delta y} dy = 0 \quad \text{or,} \quad \frac{\delta f}{\delta x} + \frac{\delta f}{\delta y} \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{df}{dx} \frac{\delta f}{\delta y} - \frac{\psi'(c)}{\phi'(c)} = 0 \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad (7)$$

From (2) and (7) we notice that both the gradients of the tangents are the same. Thus the curve and the envelope have the same tangent at the common points on the curve *i. e.*; the envelope touches each member of his family.

**Note:**—If  $\delta f / \delta x$  and  $\delta f / \delta y$  are both zero then envelope may not touch a curve at points. These points are the singular points on the curve.

## 15. 5 Double Parameters

$$\text{Let } f(x, y, \alpha, \beta) = 0 \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

be an equation with two variables (parameters)

Let the parameters be related by

$$\phi(\alpha, \beta) = 0 \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

To remove the variables from (1) and (2) let us suppose  $\alpha$  an independent parameter. Then from 1) and (2).

$$\frac{\delta f}{\delta \alpha} + \frac{\delta f}{\delta \beta} \frac{d\beta}{d\alpha} = 0 \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad (3)$$

$$\text{where} \quad \frac{\delta f}{\delta \alpha} + \frac{\delta \phi}{\delta \beta} \frac{d\beta}{d\alpha} = 0 \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad (4)$$

There are four equation and three quantities such as  $\alpha, \beta, (d\beta/d\alpha)$ . The eliminant of these quantities is the required envelope of (1)

## 15. 6. (i) Pedal curves as Envelopes :—

If circles are drawn on radius vector of a given curve as diameters; they all touch the first positive pedal of the curve with respect to the origin. Thus the process of finding the first positive pedal of a curve is the same as the finding of envelopes of circles described on the radii vectors as diameters.

## (ii) Envelope of a line as Negative pedals.

The first negative pedal of a curve is the envelope of a straight line drawn through any point of the curve and perpendi-

cular to the radius vector to the point on the curve.

Let  $O$  be the pole  $OP$  the radius vector of a point  $P$  on the curve.  $PQ$  is perpendicular to  $OP$  at  $P$ . The locus of  $PQ$  is the envelope of such straight lines or the first negative pedal of the curve. See Examples 6 and 7.

**EVOLUTES**

15.7. **Definition of evolutes** :—The locus of centre of curvature for a curve is called its evolute.

or, the evolute of curve is the envelope of the normals of that curve.

**15.8. Properties of evolute**

(i) The normal to a given curve is a tangent to its evolute.

(ii) The length of an arc of the evolute of a certain curve is the difference between the radii of curvature of the given curve, which are tangents to this arc of the evolute at its extremities.

(iii) **Radius of the curvature of the evolute**  $\rho' = \frac{d^2s}{d\psi^2}$

where  $\rho'$  is the radius of curvature of the evolute.

15.9. **Involutes** :—If one curve is the evolute of another then the later is called an involute of the former

If the curve  $Q_1 Q_2 Q_3 Q_4$  is the evolute of the curve  $P_1 P_2 P_3 P_4$  then  $P_1 P_2 P_3 P_4$  is called the involute of the curve  $Q_1 Q_2 Q_3 Q_4$ .

Again  $P'_1 P'_2 P'_3 P'_4$  is also the involute of the curve  $Q_1 Q_2 Q_3 Q_4$ . All curve parallel to the curve  $P_1 P_2 P_3 P_4$  are the involutes of  $Q_1 Q_2 Q_3 Q_4$

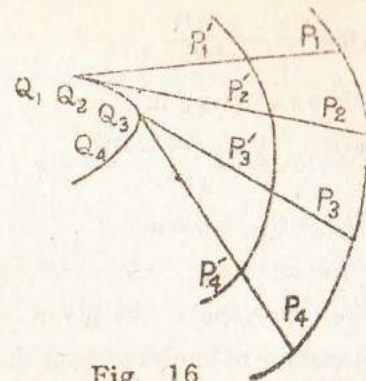


Fig. 16

Therefore every curve has an infinite number of involutes but there is only one evolute (in the fig  $Q_1 Q_2 Q_3 Q_4$ )

Ex. 1. Find the envelope of the straight line

$$y = mx + \sqrt{(a^2 m^2 + b^2)}$$

where  $m$  is a parameter.

The equation is written as  $(y - mx)^2 = a^2 m^2 + b^2$

$$\text{or, } m^2(x^2 - a^2) - 2mxy + y^2 - b^2 = 0 \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

This is quadratic in  $m$ .

Hence the envelope of (1) is given, by Art. 15.3 Cor.

$$4x^2 y^2 = 4(x^2 - a^2)(y^2 - b^2) \text{ or, } x^2 y^2 = x^2 y^2 + a^2 b^2 - b^2 x^2 - a^2 y^2$$

$$\text{or, } x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1 \text{ which is an ellipse}$$

Ex. 2. Find the envelope of the straight line

$$x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta = a \sin \theta \cos \theta$$

where  $\theta$  is the parameter.

The given equation is written as

$$\frac{x}{\sin \theta} + \frac{y}{\cos \theta} = a \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

Differentiate (1) partially w. r. to  $\theta$ , then

$$-\frac{x}{\sin^2 \theta} \cos \theta - \frac{y}{\cos^2 \theta} (-\sin \theta) = 0 \text{ or ; } \tan^3 \theta = \frac{x}{y}$$

$$\text{or ; } \tan \theta = (x/y)^{1/3} \therefore \sin \theta = \frac{x^{1/3}}{\sqrt{(x^2/3 + y^2/3)}}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{y^{1/3}}{\sqrt{(x^{2/3} + y^{2/3})}}$$

put the value of  $\sin \theta$  and  $\cos \theta$  in (1)

then  $\frac{x\sqrt{(x^{2/3} + y^{2/3})}}{x^{1/3}} + \frac{y\sqrt{(x^{2/3} + y^{2/3})}}{y^{1/3}} = a$

or ;  $\sqrt{(x^{2/3} + y^{2/3})(x^{2/3} + y^{2/3})} = a$

or ;  $(x^{2/3} + y^{2/3})^{3/2} = a$  or ;  $x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} = a^{2/3}$

which is the required envelope of the given straight line.

**Ex. 3.** Find the envelope of circles passing through the origin and having their centres lie on the parabola  $x^2 = 4ay$  D. H. 1966

In the parabola  $x^2 = 4ay$ ;  $P(2at, at^2)$  is any point. The distance  $OP$  from the origin  $O(0, 0)$  is

$OP = \sqrt{(4a^2t^2 + a^2t^4)}$  = radius of the circle.

The equation of the circle whose centre is at  $(2at, at^2)$  is

$$(x - 2at)^2 + (y - at^2)^2 = OP^2 = 4a^2t^2 + a^2t^4$$

or ;  $x^2 + y^2 - 4ax - 2ayt^2 = 0$  ... (1)

Differentiate w. r. to  $t$ . Then  $-4ax - 4ayt = 0$  or,  $t = -x/y$

putting the value of  $t$  in (1), we have

$$x^2 + y^2 + 4a \cdot x \cdot x/y - 2ya \cdot x^2/y^2 = 0$$
 or,  $yx^2 + y^3 + 4ay^2 - 2ax^2 = 0$

or,  $y^3 + yx^2 + 2ax^2 = 0$  which is the required envelope.

**Ex. 4.** Find the envelope of the family of ellipses  $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$  where two parameters  $a, b$  are connected by the relation

$a + b = c$ ,  $c$  being a constant D. H. 1962

Here  $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$  ... (i)

and  $a + b = c$  ... (ii)

$\therefore -(2x^2/a^3)da - (2y^2/b^3)db = 0$

or,  $(x^2/a^3)da + (y^2/b^3)db = 0$  ... (iii)

and From (ii)  $da + db = 0$  ... (iv)

from (iii) and (iv) Comparing we have

$$x^2/a^3 = y^2/b^3 = \lambda \text{ (say) or, } x^2/a^2 = a\lambda \text{ and } y^2/b^2 = b\lambda \dots \text{ (v)}$$

Adding we have  $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = (a + b)\lambda$

or,  $1 = c\lambda$  or,  $\lambda = 1/c$  by (i) and (ii)

From (v),

$$x^2/a^3 = a/c \text{ and } y^2/b^2 = b/c \text{ or, } a = (x^2c)^{1/3}, b = (y^2c)^{1/3}$$

Therefore putting the values of  $a$  and  $b$  in (ii)

$$x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} = c^{2/3}$$
 which is the required envelope of (i)

**Ex. 5.** Find the envelope of the straight line  $x/l + y/m = 1$ .

where  $l$  and  $m$  are parameters connected by the relation

$$l/a + m/b = 1, a \text{ and } b \text{ being constants. R. U. 1964, '88}$$

Here  $x/l + y/m = 1$  ... (i)

and  $l/a + m/b = 1$  ... (ii)

$\therefore -(x/l^2)dl - (y/m^2)dm = 0$

or,  $(x/l^2)dl + (y/m^2)dm = 0$  ... (iii)

and  $dl/a + dm/b = 0$  ... (iv)

From (iii) and (iv), comparing we have

$$\frac{x}{l^2} \cdot \frac{1}{a} = \frac{y}{m^2} \cdot \frac{1}{b} = \lambda \text{ (say) } \frac{x}{l} = \frac{\lambda l}{a}, \frac{y}{m} = \frac{\lambda m}{b} \dots \text{ (v)}$$

Adding :  $x/l + y/m = \lambda(l/a + m/b)$  of,  $1 = \lambda$ . 1 by (i) and (ii)

or,  $y = 1$

Therefore from (v)

$$l^2 = ax, m^2 = by \dots \text{ (vi)}$$

or,  $l = \sqrt{ax}, m = \sqrt{by}$

Putting the values of  $l$  and  $m$  in (i)

we have  $\sqrt{ax}/a + \sqrt{by}/b = 1$  or,  $\sqrt{x/a} + \sqrt{y/b} = 1$

which is the required envelope of the above line (i)

**Ex. 6.** Show that envelope of straight lines at right angles to the radii vectors of the curve  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$  drawn through their extremities is  $r = 2a \cos \theta$ .

The equation of the given curve is

$$r = a(1 + \cos \theta) \dots \dots (i)$$

Let  $P(l, \alpha)$  be any point on the curve (1)

$$\text{then } l = a(1 + \cos \alpha) \dots \dots (2)$$

The equation of a straight line right angles to  $OP$  [i.e.  $PQ$ ,  $Q(r, \theta)$ ] is

$$\frac{OP}{OQ} = \cos(\theta - \alpha)$$

as  $\angle OPQ = 90^\circ$ ,  $\angle POQ = \theta - \alpha$  and  $OQ = r$ ,  $OP = l$

$$\therefore l = r \cos(\theta - \alpha) \text{ or, } a(1 + \cos \alpha) = r \cos(\theta - \alpha) \dots \dots (3)$$

$$\text{or, } a = \cos \alpha (r \cos \theta - a) + r \sin \alpha \sin \theta \dots \dots (4)$$

where  $\alpha$  is a parameter.

Differentiate (3) w.r. to  $\alpha$ , then

$$0 = -\sin \alpha (r \cos \theta - a) + r \sin \theta \cos \alpha \dots \dots (5)$$

Square and add (4) and (5) to get  $a^2 = (r \cos \theta - a)^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta$

$$\text{or, } a^2 = r^2 + a^2 - 2ar \cos \theta \text{ or, } r = 2a \cos \theta. \text{ Proved}$$

Ex. 7. Show that the envelope of the circles drawn on the radii vectors of the curve  $r^n = a^n \cos n\theta$  as diameter is

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

Let  $P(l, \alpha)$  be any point on the curve  $r^n = a^n \cos n\theta \dots \dots (i)$ .

Then the equation (i) becomes

$$l^n = a^n \cos n\alpha \dots \dots (ii)$$

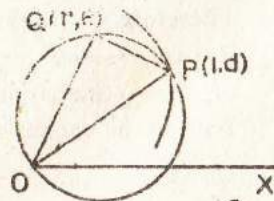


Fig 30

Draw the circle  $OPQ$  with  $OP$  as a diameter and take  $Q(r, \theta)$  any point on the circle. Then

$$\angle OQP = 90^\circ, \angle POX = \alpha, \angle QOP = \theta, OP = l, OQ = r \therefore \angle POQ = \theta - \alpha \dots \dots (iii)$$

The equation of the circle is

$$OQ/OP = \cos(\theta - \alpha) \text{ or, } r = l \cos(\theta - \alpha)$$

Put the value of  $l$  from (ii)

$$\text{or, } r = a(\cos n\alpha)^{1/n} \cos(\theta - \alpha) \dots \dots (iv)$$

$$\text{or, } \log r = \log a + \frac{1}{n} \log \cos n\alpha + \log \cos(\theta - \alpha)$$

Differentiate w.r. to  $\alpha$  which is a parameter, then

$$0 = -(1/n)n \tan n\alpha + \tan(\theta - \alpha) \therefore n\alpha = \theta - \alpha \text{ or, } \alpha = \theta/(n+1)$$

Put the value of  $\alpha$  in (iv) then

$$r = a \left( \cos \frac{n\theta}{n+1} \right)^{1/n} \cos \left( \theta - \frac{\theta}{n+1} \right) = a \left( \cos \frac{n\theta}{n+1} \right)^{1/n} \cos \frac{\theta}{n+1}$$

$$\text{or, } r = a \left( \cos \frac{n\theta}{n+1} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} = a \left( \cos \frac{n\theta}{n+1} \right)^{(n+1)/n}$$

$$\text{or, } r^{\frac{n}{n+1}} = a \cos \left( \frac{n\theta}{n+1} \right) \text{ Proved}$$

Ex. 8. Find the evolute of parabola  $y^2 = 4ax$ .

We know evolute is the envelope of normals, so the evolute of the parabola  $y^2 = 4ax$  is the envelope of the normals.

$$y = mx - 2am - am^3 \dots \dots (1)$$

at  $(am^2, 2am)$  of the parabola, where  $m$  is the parameter.

Differentiate (1) w.r. to  $m$  then

$$0 = x - 2a - 3am^2 \text{ or, } 3am^2 = x - 2a \dots \dots (2)$$

$$\text{From (1); } y = m(x - 2a) - am^3 = m \cdot 3am^2 - am^3 \text{ by (2)}$$

$$\text{or, } y = 2am^3 \text{ or, } m^3 = y/2a \text{ or, } m = (y/2a)^{1/3}$$

Put the value of  $m$  in (2), then

$$3a(y/2a)^{2/3} = (x-2a) \text{ or, } 27a^3(y/2a)^2 = (x-2a)^3$$

$$\text{or, } 27ay^2 = 4(x-2a)^3$$

which is the required evolute of  $y^2 = 4ax$ .

**Note :** Evolute is the locus of centres of curvature of a curve, The centre of curvature at any point  $(x,y)$  of  $y^2 = 4ax$  is  $(\alpha, \beta)$  such

$$\text{that } \alpha = 3x + 2a \text{ and } \beta = -\frac{2}{\sqrt{a}}x^{3/2} \text{ or, } x = \frac{\alpha}{3}$$

$$\therefore \beta = -\frac{2}{\sqrt{a}}\left(\frac{\alpha-2a}{3}\right)^{3/2} \text{ or, } 27\beta^2a = 4(\alpha-2a)^3$$

The required evolute is  $27ay^2 = 4(x-2a)^3$

**Ex. 9.** Show that evolute of ellipse  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$

$$\text{is } (ax)^{2/3} + (by)^{2/3} = (a^2 - b^2)^{2/3}$$

Evolute is the envelopes of normals to the ellipse

The equation of the normal at  $(a \cos \theta, b \sin \theta)$  of

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1 \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

$$\text{is } \frac{ax}{\cos \theta} + \frac{by}{\sin \theta} = a^2 - b^2 \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

where  $\theta$  is the parameter,

Differentiating (2) w. r. to  $\theta$

$$ax \times \frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta} (-\sin \theta) + by \times \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} (\cos \theta) = 0 \quad \dots \quad (3)$$

$$\text{or, } \tan^3 \theta = \frac{by}{ax} \text{ or, } \tan \theta = \left(\frac{by}{ax}\right)^{1/3}$$

$$\text{or, } \frac{\sin \theta}{(by)^{1/3}} = \frac{\cos \theta}{(ax)^{1/3}} = \sqrt{\frac{\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta}{\{(by)^{2/3} + (ax)^{2/3}\}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\{(ax)^{2/3} + (by)^{2/3}\}}}$$

$$\text{or, } \sin \theta = \frac{(by)^{1/3}}{\sqrt{\{(ax)^{2/3} + (by)^{2/3}\}}} \text{ or, } \cos \theta = \frac{(ax)^{1/3}}{\sqrt{\{(ax)^{2/3} + (by)^{2/3}\}}}$$

Putting the value of  $\sin \theta$  and  $\cos \theta$  in (2)

$$ax \times \frac{\sqrt{\{(ax)^{2/3} + (by)^{2/3}\}}}{(ax)^{1/3}} + by \times \frac{\sqrt{\{(ax)^{2/3} + (by)^{2/3}\}}}{(by)^{1/3}} = a^2 - b^2$$

$$\text{or, } \{ (ax)^{2/3} + (by)^{2/3} \}^{1/2} \times \{ (ax)^{2/3} + (by)^{2/3} \} = a^2 - b^2$$

$$\text{or, } \{ (ax)^{2/3} + (by)^{2/3} \}^2 = a^2 - b^2$$

$$\text{or, } (ax)^{2/3} + (by)^{2/3} = (a^2 - b^2)^{2/3} \text{ Proved.}$$

**Ex. 10.** Find the evolute of the equiangular spiral

$$\theta \cot \alpha$$

$$r = ae$$

$$\text{we know } p = r \sin \phi \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

$$\theta \cot \alpha$$

$$r = ae \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{r} \frac{dr}{d\theta} = \cot \alpha \text{ or, } \cot \phi = \cot \alpha \therefore \phi = \alpha$$

$$\text{Hence } p = r \sin \alpha \quad \dots \quad (3)$$

Let  $\rho$  be the radius of curvature at  $\theta = \alpha$  ( $\angle POX = \theta$ )

$$\therefore \rho \frac{dr}{dp} = r / \sin \alpha = r \operatorname{cosec} \alpha \text{ by (4)}$$

Let  $CP$  be the normal, then

$$CP = \rho$$

$$\angle OPN = \phi = \alpha; \quad \angle CPO = 90^\circ - \alpha$$

Now  $CP = OP \operatorname{cosec} \phi = OP \operatorname{cosec} \alpha$

$(90^\circ - \alpha) = OP \cdot \sec \alpha$  i. e.  $OC$  is

perpendicular to  $OP$

[ \*See Author's Co-ordinate Geometry Art. 10 ]

Since  $C$  is the centre of curvature, the evolute is the locus of  $C$ .

Let  $C(r_1, \theta_1)$  be the co-ordinates of centre of curvature. Then

$$r_1 = OC = OP \cot \alpha = r \cot \alpha \text{ or, } r = r_1 \tan \alpha$$

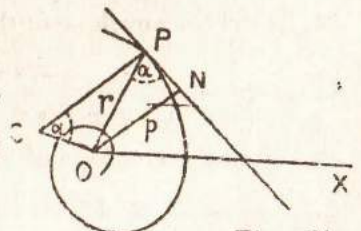


Fig. 31

$\theta_1 = \angle COX = 90^\circ + \angle POX = 90^\circ + \theta$  or,  $\theta = -90^\circ + \theta_1$

Put the values of  $r$  and  $\theta$  in

$r = ae^{\theta \cot \alpha}$  or,  $r_1 \tan \alpha = ae^{(-\frac{1}{2}\pi + \theta_1) \cot \alpha}$

The evolute of the equiangular spiral

is  $r \tan \alpha = ae^{(-\frac{1}{2}\pi + \theta) \cot \alpha}$  or,  $r = a \cot \alpha e^{(\theta - \frac{1}{2}\pi) \cot \alpha}$

Exercise XV

1. Find the envelopes of the following :—

- (i)  $y = mx + a/m$ ,  $m$  being a parameter
- (ii)  $x \cos 2\theta + y \sin 2\theta = a$ ,  $\theta$  is variable
- (iii)  $c^2(y - a)^2 + (cx - a^2)^2 = (a^2 + c^2)$ ,  $a$  is a parameter.
- (iv)  $y = mx + an^p$ ,  $m$  is variable
- (v)  $x^2 \sec^2 \theta + y^2 \operatorname{cosec}^2 \theta = a^2$ ,  $\theta$  is a variable.

2. Prove that the envelope of  $x \cos^2 \theta + y \sin^2 \theta = a$  is  $a^2(x^2 + y^2) = x^2 y^2$

3. Show that the envelope of the straight lines joining the extremities of a pair of conjugate diameters of an ellipse is similar ellipse.

4. Find the envelope of the family of straight lines

$x/a + y/b = 1$

where (i)  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$  (ii)  $ab = c^2$  R. U. 1987

5. Find the envelope of the curve

$(x/a)^m + (y/b)^m = 1$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are connected by

$a^p + b^p = c^p$

6. Show that the envelope of ellipses having the axes of co-ordinates as principal axes when

$ab = c$  is  $4x^2 y^2 = c^2$

7. Show that the envelope of the family of circles whose diameters are double ordinates of

$y^2 = 4ax$  is the parabola  $y^2 = 4a(x + a)$

8. Show that envelope of the circles described on the radius vectors of  $r^3 = a^3 \cos 3\theta$  as diameter is the curve  $r^3 = a^3 \cos^2 \frac{3\theta}{4}$ .

9. Find the envelope of the curve  $(a/x)^{1/3} + (b/y)^{1/3} = 1$  where the parameters  $a$  and  $b$  are connected by the equation  $\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b} = \sqrt{c}$ ,

10. Find the envelope of the straight lines drawn at right angles to the radius vectors of the spiral  $r = ae^{\theta \cot \alpha}$  through their extremities.

11. Find the envelope of the straight lines drawn through the extremities of and at right angles to the radii vectors of the following curves.

(i)  $r^n \cos n\theta = a^n$  (ii)  $r = a + b \cos \theta$ .

12. Show that the envelope of the circles described on the radii vectors of the curve  $y^2 = 4ax$  as diameter is  $ax^2 + x(x^2 + y^2) = 0$ .

13. Show that envelope of all the cardioids described on radii vectors of cardioid  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$  for axes and having their cusps at the pole is  $r = 2a \cos^4 \frac{1}{4}\theta$ .

14. Show that the envelope of the circles drawn on the radii vectors of the curve  $r = 2a \cos \theta$  as diameter is the cardioid  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$

15. Show that the envelope of a circle whose centre lies on the parabola  $y^2 = 4ax$  and which passes through its vertex is

$2ay^2 + x(x^2 + y^2) = 0$ .

16. If  $O$  be the pole and  $P$  be any point of the curve

$r = a \cos n\theta$  and if with  $O$  for pole and  $P$  for vertex a similar curve be described; the envelope of all such curves is  $r = a \cos^2 \frac{1}{2}n\theta$ .

17. Show that the envelope of the family of curves  $a \cos^n \theta + b \sin^n \theta = c$ , when  $\theta$  is arbitrary parameter and  $a, b$  and  $c$  are functions of  $x$  and  $y$  is  $a^2/(2-n) + b^2/(2-n) = c^2/(2-n)$ .

18. Find the evolute of the following curves,

(i)  $xy = c^2$  (ii)  $x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} = a^{2/3}$

(ii)  $x = a (\cos \theta + \log \tan \frac{1}{2}\theta)$ ,  $y = a (1 + \cos \theta)$

19. Prove that the evolute of the cardioid  $r = a (1 + \cos \theta)$  is the cardioid  $r = \frac{1}{8}a (1 - \cos \theta)$  the pole in the latter equation being at the point  $(\frac{3}{8}a, 0)$ . 1968

20. Show that the evolute of the cycloid

$$x = a (\theta + \sin \theta), \quad y = a (1 - \cos \theta)$$

is given by  $x = a (\theta - \sin \theta)$ ,  $y = a (1 + \cos \theta)$

Show that this is an equal cycloid by transferring the origin to  $(a\pi, 2a)$  and by putting  $\theta - \pi = \phi$ .

21. Show that the whole length of the evolute of the astroid

$$x = a \cos^3 \theta, \quad y = a \sin^3 \theta \text{ is } 12a.$$

22. Show that the centre of curvature of cycloid  $x = a (\theta - \sin \theta)$ ,  $y = a (1 - \cos \theta)$  lies on a similar cycloid. D. H. 1960.

23. Show that the envelope of circles drawn on radii vectors of the cardioid  $r = a (1 + \cos \theta)$  is  $r = 2a \cos^2 \frac{1}{2}\theta$ .

24. Find the evolute of the parabola  $y^2 = 4x$ ; find also the length of the evolute from the cusp to the point where it meets the parabola. R. U. 1987

25. Define singular points of an algebraic curve. Explain the classification of double points. R. H. 1987

## উদাহরণমালা—(XV)

1. নিম্নলিখিত রেখাগুলির আচ্ছাদন নির্ণয় কর।

i)  $y = mx + a/m$ , এখানে  $m$  পরামিতিক রাশি।

ii)  $x \cos 2\theta + y \sin 2\theta = a$ , এখানে  $\theta$  চলরাশি।

iii)  $c^2(y-a)^2 + (cx-a)^2 = (a^2+c^2)$  এখানে  $a$  একটি পরামিতিক রাশি।

iv)  $y = mx + am^2$ ,  $m$  একটি চলরাশি।

v)  $x^2 \sec^2 \theta + y^2 \operatorname{cosec}^2 \theta = a^2$ , এখানে  $\theta$  একটি চলরাশি।

2. প্রমাণ কর যে  $x \cos^3 \theta + y \sin^3 \theta = a$  এর আচ্ছাদন হবে  $a^3(x^2+y^2) = x^2y^2$ .

3. দেখাও যে কোন উপবৃত্তের যুগল অনুবন্ধি ব্যাসের প্রান্ত বিন্দুর সংযোগ সরলরেখাসমূহের আচ্ছাদন অপূর্ণ একটি উপবৃত্ত।

4. সরলরেখা-পরিবার  $\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} = 1$  এর আচ্ছাদন নির্ণয় কর

যখন (i)  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$  (ii)  $ab = c^2$

5. বক্ররেখা  $(\frac{x}{a})^m + (\frac{y}{b})^m = 1$  এর আচ্ছাদন নির্ণয় কর

যখন  $a$  এবং  $b$  এর সম্পর্ক হবে  $a^p + b^p = c^p$

6. দেখাও যে যদি অক্ষের কোন উপবৃত্তের প্রধান অক্ষ হয় এবং  $ab = c$  হয়, তবে  $4x^2y^2 = c^2$  হবে উপবৃত্তটির আচ্ছাদন।

7. দেখাও যে  $y^2 = 4ax$  অধিবৃত্তের দ্বি-কোটিকে (double-ordinates) ব্যাস ধরে যে বৃত্তগুলি অঙ্কন করা যায় তাদের আচ্ছাদন হবে অধিবৃত্ত  $y^2 = 4a(x+a)$  (show that the envelope of the family of circle whose diameters are double-ordinates of  $y^2 = 4ax$  is the parabola  $y^2 = 4a(x+a)$ ).

8. দেখাও যে  $r^3 = a^3 \cos 3\theta$  বক্ররেখার কোন বিন্দুর ব্যাসার্ধ ভেট্টরকে ব্যাস ধরে যে বৃত্তগুলি অঙ্কন করা যায় তাদের আচ্ছাদন হবে  $r^3 = a^3 \cos^4 \frac{3}{2}\theta$ .

9. বক্ররেখা  $(\frac{a}{x})^{1/3} + (\frac{b}{y})^{1/3} = 1$  এর আচ্ছাদন নির্ণয় কর।

যেখানে পরামিতিক রাশি  $a$  এবং  $b$  এর মধ্যে সম্পর্ক হল  $\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b} = \sqrt{c}$ .

10. কুণ্ডলী  $r = ae^{\theta \cot \alpha}$  এর ব্যাসার্ধ ভেক্টর সমূহের প্রান্ত বিন্দুগুলির মধ্য দিয়ে অঙ্কিত লম্ব সরলরেখাগুলির আচ্ছাদন নির্ণয় কর।

11. নিম্নলিখিত বক্ররেখার ব্যাসার্ধ ভেক্টর সমূহের প্রান্ত বিন্দুগুলির মধ্য দিয়ে অঙ্কিত লম্ব সরলরেখাগুলির আচ্ছাদন নির্ণয় কর,

$$(i) r^n \cos n\theta = a^n \quad (ii) r = a + b \cos \theta.$$

12. দেখাও যে  $y^2 = 4ax$  বক্ররেখার ব্যাসার্ধ ভেক্টরকে ব্যাস ধরে যে বৃত্তগুলি অঙ্কন করা যায় তাদের আচ্ছাদন হবে  $ax^2 + x(x^2 + y^2) = 0$ .

13. দেখাও যে  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$  কার্ডিয়েডের ব্যাসার্ধ ভেক্টরকে অক্ষরেখা এবং ইহাদের স্পর্শক বিন্দুসহকে মেরু বিন্দু ধরে যে আচ্ছাদন পাওয়া যায় তা হবে  $r = 2a \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2}$ . [Show that envelope of the cardioids described on radii vectors of cardioid  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$  for axes and having their cusps at the pole is  $r = 2a \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2}$ ]

14. দেখাও যে  $r = 2a \cos \theta$  বক্ররেখার বিন্দুগুলির ব্যাসার্ধ ভেক্টরকে ব্যাস ধরে অঙ্কিত বৃত্ত সমূহের আচ্ছাদন হবে কার্ডিয়েড  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$ .

15. কোন বৃত্তের কেন্দ্র  $y^2 = 4ax$  এর উপর হলে এবং বৃত্তটি অধিবৃত্তের স্পর্শবিন্দুগামী হলে, দেখাও যে বৃত্তের আচ্ছাদন হবে  $2ay^2 + x(x^2 + y^2) = 0$ .

16. যদি  $r = a \cos m\theta$  বক্ররেখার মেরুবিন্দু  $O$  এবং  $P$  উহার উপর যে কোন বিন্দু হয় এবং  $O$  বিন্দুকে মেরুবিন্দু এবং  $P$  বিন্দুকে স্পর্শবিন্দু ধরে অনুরূপ কতকগুলি বক্ররেখা অঙ্কন করা হয় তা হলে ঐ সব বক্ররেখার আচ্ছাদন সমীকরণ হবে  $r = a \cos^2 \frac{1}{2} m\theta$ .

17. দেখাও যে বক্ররেখা-পরিবার  $a \cos^n \theta + b \sin^n \theta = c$  এর আচ্ছাদন হবে

$$\frac{a}{2-n} + \frac{b}{2-n} = c, \text{ এখানে } \theta \text{ হল একটি অনিয়মিত পরামিতিক}$$

পারামিটার (arbitrary parameter) এবং  $a, b$  এবং  $c$  হল  $x$  এবং  $y$  এর ফাংশন।

18. নিম্নলিখিত বক্ররেখাগুলির লম্বাচ্ছাদন নির্ণয় কর। (Find the evolute of the following curves,

$$(i) xy = c^2 \quad (ii) x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} = a^{2/3} \quad (iii) x = a(\cos \theta + \log \tan \frac{\theta}{2}), y = a \sin \theta$$

19. দেখাও যে কার্ডিয়েড (cardioid)  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$

এর লম্বাচ্ছাদন হবে কার্ডিয়েড  $r = \frac{1}{2}a(1 - \cos \theta)$ ,

যাহার মেরুবিন্দু হবে  $(\frac{3}{2}a, 0)$ ,

D. H. 1968

20. দেখাও যে বৃত্তাকার ক্ষেত্র (cycloid)  $x = a(\theta + \sin \theta)$ ,

$y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$  এর লম্বাচ্ছাদন হবে অপর একটি বৃত্তাকার ক্ষেত্র (cycloid)  $x = a(\theta - \sin \theta), y = a(1 + \cos \theta)$ , দেখাও যে ইহা দুটির সমান বৃত্তাকার ক্ষেত্র হবে (cycloid যদি মূলবিন্দুটি  $(a\pi, 2a)$  বিন্দুতে স্থানান্তর এবং  $\theta - \pi = \phi$  বসানো হয়।

21. দেখাও যে এষ্টয়েড (astroid)  $x = a \cos^3 \theta, y = a \sin^3 \theta$

এর লম্বাচ্ছাদনের সম্পূর্ণ দৈর্ঘ্য হবে  $12a$ .

22. দেখাও যে বৃত্তাকার ক্ষেত্র  $x = a(\theta - \sin \theta), y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$  এর বক্রতার ব্যাসার্ধ অনুরূপ একটি বৃত্তাকার ক্ষেত্রে (cycloid) উপর হবে। D. H. 1960

23. দেখাও যে কার্ডিয়েড (cardioid)  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$  এর ব্যাসার্ধ ভেক্টরগুলির উপর অঙ্কিত বৃত্ত সমূহের আচ্ছাদন হবে

$r = 2a \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2}$ . [Show that the envelope of circles drawn on radii vectors of cardioid  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$  is  $r = 2a \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2}$ ,]

### ANSWERS

#### Exercise XV

$$1. (i) y^2 = 4ax \quad (ii) x^2 + y^2 = a^2$$

$$(iii) cy^2 + (c+2x)(x^2 + y^2 - c^2) = 0$$

$$(iv) x^p (p-1)^{p-1} + a p^p y^{p-1} = 0 \quad (v) x \pm y \pm a = 0$$

$$4. (i) x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} = c^{2/3} \quad (ii) xy = c^2/4$$

$$5. x^{mP}/(m+P) + y^{mP}/(m+P) = c^{mP}/(m+P)$$

$$9. \frac{1}{x} \pm \frac{1}{y} = \frac{1}{c} \quad 10. r_1 = be^{\theta \cot \alpha}$$

$$11. (i) r^n / (1+n) \cos \{n\theta / (n+1)\} = a^n / (1+n)$$

$$(ii) (x-b)^2 + y^2 = a^2$$

$$18. (i) (x+y)^{2/3} - (x-y)^{2/3} = (4a)^{2/3}.$$

$$(ii) (x+y)^{2/3} + (x-y)^{2/3} = 2a^{2/3} \quad (iii) y = a \cos k \frac{x}{a}$$



## CHAPTER XVI

### TRACING OF CURVES

**Art. 16.1. To determine roughly the shapes of the curves.**

We shall in many cases have to form rough idea about the shape of the curve under discussion. Here we simply give some rules for tracing the curves which will throw some light about the shape of the curves.

**Art. 16.2. (A) For Cartesian Curves :—**

(a) Detect the symmetry in the curve.

(i) A curve is symmetrical about  $x$ -axis, if it contains only even powers of  $y$ .

(ii) It is symmetrical about  $y$ -axis, if it contains only even powers of  $x$ .

(iii) If on interchanging  $x$  and  $y$ , the equation does not change, the curve is symmetrical about the line  $y=x$ .

(iv) If by putting  $-x$  for  $x$  and  $-y$  for  $y$ , the equation does not change, the curve is symmetrical in opposite quadrants.

(b) If the curve passes through the origin, find the tangent at the origin by equating to zero the lowest degree terms in the equation.

(c) Determine the points, where the curve cuts the axes of coordinates and find out the inclination of the tangent to the axis of  $x$  at these points, either by shifting the origin to the point and equating to zero the lowest degree term, or finding  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  at that point.

(d) Find the asymptotes, if any.

(e) See if there are any limitations upon the values of  $x$  and  $y$

e. g. in the curve  $x^2 = \frac{y^3}{2a-y}$  if  $y$  is negative,  $x$  is imaginary and if  $y > 2a$ ,  $x$  is imaginary; so that the curve does not lie beyond  $y=2a$ .

(f) Find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  and find the point where it is zero or infinite.

(g) Determine the singularities of the curve, note that if there is a node, cusps or conjugate points at the origin or a multiple point of higher order than the second. If there is a cusp, determine its species.

(h) Find also the points of inflexions if any.

**Art. 16.3. (B) For Polar Curves :—**

(a) Examine the symmetry.

(i) If we put  $-\theta$  for  $\theta$  and the equation does not change, the curve is symmetrical about the initial line.

(ii) If we put  $-r$  for  $r$  and the equation does not change, there is symmetry about the pole.

(iii) If we put  $-\theta$  for  $\theta$  and  $-r$  for  $r$  and equation does not change, the curve is symmetrical about the line through the pole perpendicular to the initial line.

(b) Find if  $r$  and  $\theta$  are confined between any limits, e. g. if  $r = a \sin n\theta$ ,  $r$  cannot be greater than  $a$ .

(c) Form a table of corresponding values of  $r$  for chosen values of  $\theta$

(d) Find for what value or values of  $\theta$ ,  $r$  is infinite. This will indicate the direction of the asymptotes if any.

**Art. 16.4. (C) For Curves in which variables are connected by a parameter.**

(a) Find  $dy/dx$  and form a table finding the values of  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $dy/dx$  for corresponding value of parameter. Plot the points and mark the slopes of the tangent.

(b) If possible, eliminate the parameter and find a relation between  $x$  and  $y$ , and trace the curve by above methods.

16. (A) 1. কোন একট বক্ররেখার সমীকরণ হইতে বক্ররেখার আকার সম্বন্ধে জানার জন্য স্বাভাবিক ভাবে আগ্রহ দেখা যায়। বিশ্লেষণ জ্যামিতিতে (Analytical geometry) 2nd Degree Equation হইতে standard বক্ররেখা সম্বন্ধে যেমন  $(y^2 = 4ax)$  পরাবৃত্ত,  $(x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1)$  উপবৃত্ত  $(x^2/a^2 - y^2/b^2 = 1)$  অধিবৃত্ত ইত্যাদি সম্বন্ধে ধারণা আছে। এই আকার গুলি হইতে ছাবেরা

(Symmetry), প্রতিসাম্য অক্ষরেখাকে ছেদ করা ইত্যাদি সম্বন্ধে ধারণা আছে। জ্যামিতি ব্যতীত calculus এর সাহায্যে একটি সমীকরণের দ্বারা যে বক্ররেখা বৃক্সন্ন তাহা সম্বন্ধে অধিক তথ্য পাওয়া যায়। যেমন calculus প্রয়োগকালে (points of inflexion), (Maxima and Minima) গুরুমান ও লঘুমান, (double points) দ্বিবিন্দু, (asymptotes) অসীমতটরেখা ইত্যাদি তথ্য জানার ফলে একাধিক বিন্দু ছাড়াও একটি সমীকরণ হইতে বক্ররেখার ধারণা ও ইহার রূপরেখা তৈয়ারী করা যায়। তবে calculus এর প্রয়োগ করার পূর্বে উল্লেখিত বিষয় সম্বন্ধে ছাত্রদের জানা থাকিতে হইবে। এই বিষয়গুলি পূর্ববর্তী অধ্যায়গুলিতে বিষদভাবে ব্যাখ্যা করা হইয়াছে।

সমীকরণ হইতে বক্ররেখার আকার জানার জন্ত এবং ইহাকে অঙ্কন করার কয়েকটি নিয়ম নীচে দেওয়া হইল।

### 7.1. For Cartesian Equation

1. (i) If the equation of a curve remains unchanged when  $y$  is changed into  $-y$ , the curve is symmetrical about the  $x$ -axis i. e. if the equation contains only even powers of  $y$  একটি সমীকরণে যদি  $y$  এর শক্তি যুগ্ম হয় তাহা হইলে বক্ররেখাটি  $x$  অক্ষরেখার সহিত প্রতিসাম্য হইবে। অথবা সমীকরণে  $y$  এর পরিবর্তে  $-y$  বসাইলে যদি সমীকরণের আকারের কোন পরিবর্তন না হয় তাহা হইলেও বক্ররেখাটি  $x$  অক্ষরেখার প্রতিসাম্য হইবে।

$$\therefore y^2 = 4ax, \quad y^2 = x^3 \text{ etc.}$$

(ii) If the equation of the curve remains unchanged when  $x$  is changed into  $-x$  or, if the equation contains only even powers of  $x$ , then the curve is symmetrical about the  $y$ -axis i. e. if  $(x, y)$  lies on the curve, then  $(-x, y)$  also lies on the curve. (সমীকরণে যদি  $x$  এর পরিবর্তে  $-x$  বসান হয় এবং তাতে যদি সমীকরণের কোন পরিবর্তন না হয় অথবা সমীকরণে যদি শুধু  $x$  এর যুগ্ম শক্তি থাকে, তখন বক্ররেখাটি  $-y$  অক্ষরেখার প্রতিসাম্য হইবে।  $(x, y)$  যদি বক্ররেখার উপর থাকে তাহা হইলে  $(-x, y)$  বিন্দুও বক্ররেখার উপর থাকিবে।  $x^2 = y, x^2 = y^2, x^2y + x^2 - y = 0$  ইত্যাদি।

(iii) If the equation of the curve remains unchanged when both  $x$  and  $y$  are changed into  $-x$  and  $-y$ , the curve is symmetrical in opposite quadrant.

(কোন বক্ররেখার সমীকরণে  $(x, y)$  এর পরিবর্তে  $(-x, -y)$  বসাইলে সমীকরণের যদি কোন পরিবর্তন না হয় তাহা হইলে বক্ররেখাটি তাহার বিপরীত কোণাভ্রুকে প্রতিসাম্য হইবে।

(iv) If the eq. of the curve remains unchanged when  $x$  and  $y$  are interchanged the curve is symmetrical about the line  $y = x$ . If the point  $(x, y)$  lies on the curve, then  $(y, x)$  also lies on the curve. (কোন সমীকরণে  $x$  এর পরিবর্তে  $y$  এবং  $y$  এর পরিবর্তে  $x$  বসাইলে; সমীকরণের যদি পরিবর্তন না হয়; তাহা হইলে বক্ররেখাটি  $y = x$  সরলরেখার প্রতিসাম্য হইবে।  $(x, y)$  বিন্দু বক্ররেখার থাকিলে,  $(y, x)$  বিন্দুও বক্ররেখার থাকিবে। যেমন  $x^2 + y^2 = 3x \cdot xy$ .)

### 2. Nature of the origin : (মূল বিন্দুর প্রকৃতি) :-

সমীকরণে যদি ক্রম সংখ্যা (constant) না থাকে, তাহা হইলে বক্ররেখাটি মূল বিন্দু দিয়া যাইবে। এইরূপ সমীকরণে মূলবিন্দুতে স্পর্শক বাহির করিতে হইবে (Tangents at the origin) যদি মূল বিন্দুতে দুইটি স্পর্শক, বা অধিক স্পর্শক থাকে তাহা হইলে মূল বিন্দুতে বিশেষ বিন্দুর (singularity) প্রকৃতি জানিতে হইবে এবং স্পর্শকের সম্পর্কে মূল বিন্দুতে বক্ররেখার অবস্থান বাহির করিতে হইবে। Tangents and Normals এবং singularities অধ্যায় দুইটি আলোচনা করিতে হইবে।  $y = x^3 - 3ax^2$ . Tangents at the origin is given by  $y = 0$ . Near the origin, the eq. is roughly  $y = -3ax^2$  which shows that it will be a parabola along negative  $y$ -axis as axis of the parabola.

3. Intersection with the axes : (অক্ষরেখার সহিত বক্ররেখার ছেদন) : সমীকরণে  $x = 0$  এবং  $y = 0$  বসাইয়া অক্ষরেখাকে বক্ররেখা যে সমস্ত বিন্দুতে ছেদ করে তাহাদের নির্ণয় করিতে হইবে। প্রয়োজনে  $y = x$  বা  $y = -x$  সমীকরণে বসাইয়া ইহাদের ছেদ বিন্দুর অবস্থান বাহির করিতে হইবে।

4. Asymptotes : (অসীম তটরেখা) : বক্ররেখার অসীমতটরেখা বাহির করিতে হইবে এবং বক্ররেখা ও অসীমতটরেখার সম্পর্কে জানিতে হইবে।

5. **Regions containing the curves** (বক্ররেখার অধিনস্ত এলাকা সমূহ) : প্রদত্ত সমীকরণকে পৃথকভাবে  $x$  অথবা  $y$  এর জন্য প্রকাশ করিয়া  $x$  এবং  $y$  এর ধনাত্মক ও ঋণাত্মক মানগুলি পর্যালোচনা করিতে হইবে। যদি কোন মানের জন্য রাশিমালাটি কাল্পনিক হয় তাহা হইলে বক্ররেখা ঐ মানের বাহিরে সীমাবদ্ধ হইবে।

ইহার বিশ্লেষণ উদাহরণে দেখান হইলে,  $y^2(a-x) = x^2(a+x)$ .

OR,  $y^2 = x^2 \frac{a+x}{a-x}$  যদি  $x$  ঋণাত্মক এবং  $x < -a$  তখন  $y$  কাল্পনিক হইবে,

অর্থাৎ  $x = -a$  পরে বক্ররেখার কোন অংশ থাকিবে না।

6. **Stationary values** (নিশ্চল মানসমূহ) :— প্রদত্ত সমীকরণের  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  বা

$\frac{dx}{dy}$  নির্ণয় করিয়া (Tangents)  $x$  অক্ষ বা  $y$  অক্ষের বরাবর সমান্তরাল স্পর্শকগুলি নির্ণয় করিতে হইবে। ইহাতে  $y$  এর মান বাড়িতে বা কমিতে থাকিলে তাহা হইতে বক্ররেখার আকার সম্বন্ধে জানিতে সহজ হয়।

7. **Inflexions and other Singularities.**

Find the points of inflexions (নিশ্চল বিন্দু) and other Singularities. If the equation is complicated, then examine only the nature of the curve.

8. **Approximation** (ধারণাযোগ্য) :— সমীকরণে  $x$  এবং  $y$  এর জন্ম খুব ছোট মান বসাইয়া  $x$  এবং  $y$  এর বৃহত্তম মানগুলি বর্জন করা যায় এবং তাহাতে সমীকরণটি মূল বিন্দুর নিকটে কি আকার হয় তাহা অনুমান করা যায়। উদাহরণ স্বরূপে দেখান যায়  $y^2 = x + y^3$ । এই সমীকরণ হইতে  $x=0$  এর জন্ম ক্ষুদ্র মান ধরিলে,  $x^3$  এর মান বাদ দিয়া  $y^2 = x$  মূল বিন্দুর নিকটে প্রদত্ত বক্ররেখা সম্বন্ধে ধারণা করা যায়।

Art. 16. (B) For Polar Curves

1. To Examine the Symmetry (প্রতিসাম্যতা পরীক্ষা)

(a) যদি  $\theta$  এর জন্ম  $-\theta$  সমীকরণ কোন পরিবর্তন না হইলে, বক্ররেখাটি আদিরেখা (Initial line) বরাবর প্রতিসাম্য (Symmetry) হইবে।

যেমন  $r^2 = a^2 \cos^2 \theta$ ,  $r = a \cos \theta$ ,  $a = r(1 + \cos \theta)$

(b) যদি  $r$  এর পরিবর্তে  $-r$  সমীকরণে বসান হয় এবং সমীকরণের কোন পরিবর্তন না হয় তাহা হইলে মেরুর (Pole) এর বরাবর বক্ররেখাটি প্রতিসাম্য হইবে,  $\theta$  এর পরিবর্তে  $\pi + \theta$  বসাইলেও বক্ররেখাটি মেরুর বরাবর প্রতিসাম্য হইবে।

(c) যদি  $r$  এর জন্ম  $-r = 0$  এর জন্ম  $-\theta$  সমীকরণে বসান হয় এবং সমীকরণের কোন পরিবর্তন না হয় তাহা হইলে বক্ররেখাটি মেরুগামী আদিরেখার (Initial line) উপর লম্বের বরাবর প্রতিসাম্য হইবে। (Symmetrical about a line through the pole perpendicular to the initial line).

2. **Regions** (এলাকা) :— বক্ররেখাটি যে সমস্ত এলাকায় (Regions) থাকেনা তাহা নির্ণয় করিতে হইবে।  $\theta$  এর মানের জন্ম  $r^2$  ঋণাত্মক হইলে অথবা  $r$  এর কোন মানের জন্ম কোন এলাকার বাহিরে বক্ররেখা যাইতে পারে না তাহা নির্ণয় করিতে হইবে।

যেমন  $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$  এখানে বক্ররেখা  $\theta = \pi/4$  এবং  $\theta = 3\pi/4$  এর মধ্যে থাকেন, আবার  $\theta = 5\pi/4$  এবং  $\theta = 7\pi/4$  এর মধ্যেও থাকে না।  $r$  এর মান  $a$  হইতে বড় হইতে পারেনা এবং বক্ররেখাটি  $r = a$  এর বাহিরে যাইতে পারে না, ইহা একটি ( $r = a$ ) বৃত্তের মধ্যে থাকিবে।

3. **মূলবিন্দু Origin** :— যদি  $r = 0$ ,  $\theta = a$  এর জন্ম  $\theta = a$  সরল-রেখাটি মূলবিন্দুতে স্পর্শক হইবে।

4. **Asymptotes** (অসীম তটরেখা) :— বক্ররেখার সমীকরণের যদি অসীম তটরেখা থাকে, তাহা নির্ণয় করিতে হইবে।

5. **কোণ  $\phi$  (Angle)** ; স্পর্শক ও রেডিয়াস ভেক্টরের মধ্যে কোণ  $\phi$  নির্ণয় করিতে হইবে।

6. **Variation of  $r$  and  $\theta$**  ( $r$  এবং  $\theta$  এর পরিবর্তন) :—  $r$  এবং  $\theta$  এর মানের জন্ম একটা ছক অঙ্কন করিতে হইবে এই ছক হইতে বক্ররেখাটি অঙ্কন করা যায়।

**মন্তব্য** :— প্রদত্ত সমীকরণ হইতে বক্ররেখা অঙ্কনের জন্ম উল্লেখিত সকল বিষয়গুলির প্রয়োগ প্রয়োজন হয় না। বক্ররেখা অঙ্কনের একটা নিজস্ব পদ্ধতি আনা যায় এবং তিন চারটি নিয়মের প্রয়োগের মাধ্যমে বক্ররেখা অঙ্কন করা যায়। ছাত্রদের বক্ররেখা অঙ্কন সম্বন্ধে ধারণা করার জন্ম করেবটি সমীকরণের বক্ররেখার অঙ্কন দেখান হইল।

## Exercise XVI

Ex. 1. Trace the curve represented by the equation  
 $ay^2 = x^2(a-x)$ .

1. **Symmetry** :— As the equation involves only even powers of  $y$ , so the curve is symmetric about  $x$ -axis,

2. Put  $x=0$  then  $y=0$ , Put  $y=0$  then  $x=0, a$ ; the curve meets the  $x$ -axis at  $(0, 0)$  and  $(a, 0)$ .

3. **Tangent at the origin** :— Equate the highest degree terms of the equation to zero, then  $ay^2 - ax^2 = 0$  or,  $y = \pm x$ .

Tangent at  $(a, 0)$  :— Put  $x = a+x$ ,  $y = 0+y$  in the equation. Then  $ay^2 = (a+x)^2(a-a-x)$  or,  $ay^2 = (x+a)^2(-x)$ , Equate the lowest degree terms to zero. Thus  $-a^2x = 0$  or,  $x = 0$  i.e.  $x = a$  is tangent at  $(a, 0)$ .

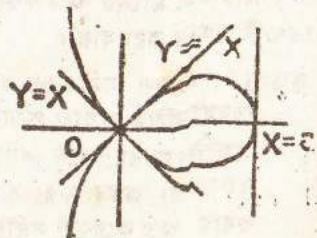
4. **Asymptotes** :— There is no asymptote of the curve.

5. **Singular points** :— The curve has a pair of real & distinct tangents at the origin. Hence the curve has  $n$  nodes at the origin.

6. **Regions** :  $ay^2 = x^2(a-x)$  or,  $y = \pm x\sqrt{\left(\frac{a-x}{a}\right)}$

If  $x < a$ , then  $y$  is real,  $y$  increases with the increasing values of  $x$  first and then gradually decreases and  $y=0$  when  $x=a$ . If  $x > a$ , then  $y$  is imaginary. There lies no branch of the curve beyond  $x=a$ .

For negative values of  $x$  i. e. along the negative side of  $x$ -axis  $y$  increases with the increasing value of  $x$ . The shape of the curve is as shown in the figure 32, with the facts discussed above.



Ex. 2. Trace the curve  $x^2y^2 = (1+y^2)(4-y^2)$  ... (1)

1. **Symmetry** :— The eq (1) involves only even powers of  $x$ . So the curve is symmetric about  $y$ -axis.

2. **Where curve meets the axes** :— Put  $x=0$  in (1)

$(1+y^2)^2(4-y^2) = 0$  or,  $y^2 = \pm 2$ ,  $\pm 1$  i. e. the curve meets the  $y$ -axis at  $(0, 2)$ ,  $(0, -2)$ ,  $(1, -1)$ .

3. **Tangents at these point** :—

Differentiate (1) logarithmically.

$$\frac{2}{x} + \frac{2}{y} \frac{dy}{dx} = \left( \frac{2}{1+y} - \frac{2y}{4-y^2} \right) \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$\text{or, } \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{y(1+y)(4-y^2)}{(y^2+4)x} \text{ or, } \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 = \frac{y^2(1+y)^2(4-y^2)^2}{(y^2+4)^2x^2}$$

$$= \frac{y^2(1+y)^2(4-y^2)^2 y^2}{(y^2+4)^2(1+y)^2(4-y^2)} = \frac{y^4(4-y^2)^2}{(y^2+4)^2}$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = \pm \frac{y^2(4-y^2)}{(y^2+4)} \text{ See fig. 33.}$$

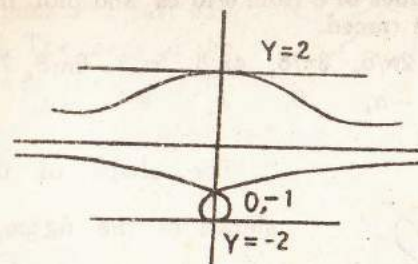


Fig. 33

The conchoid of Nicomedes,

Ex. 3. Trace the curve whose equation is

$$r = a(1 + \cos \theta) \dots \dots (1)$$

1. **Symmetry** : If  $\theta$  is changed to  $-\theta$  in (1), the equation will not change. Hence the curve is symmetrical about the initial line.

2.	$\theta=0$	$\pi/6$	$\pi/4$	$\pi/3$	$\pi/2$	$2\pi/3$	$\pi$
	$r=2a$	$a(1+\sqrt{3}/2)$	$a(1+1/\sqrt{2})$	$3a/2$	$a$	$\frac{1}{2}a$	$0$

As  $\theta$  increases from 0 to  $\pi$   $r$  gradually decreases from  $2a$  to zero.

Since the curve is symmetrical about the initial line, so we get the same type of curve when  $\theta$  varies from  $\pi$  to  $2\pi$ .

The shape of curve is shown in the fig 34. The name of the curve is **Cardioid**.

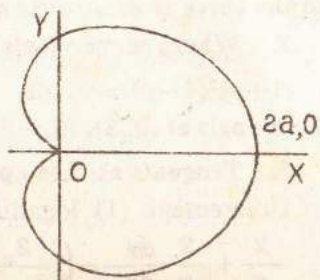


Fig. 34

**Note:**  $r = a(1 - \cos \theta)$  Proceed as in Ex. 3. The shape of the curve will be the reverse of the figure shown in fig. 34.

**Ex. 3.** (a) Trace the curve  $r = a(1 + \sin \theta)$  which is also a cardioid.

**Ex. 4.** Trace the curve  $r = a \cos 4\theta$ .

Let us take values of  $\theta$  from 0 to  $2\pi$  and plot these points. The curve will be traced.

$\theta=0:$	$\pi/8$	$2\pi/8$	$3\pi/8$	$4\pi/8$	$5\pi/8$	$6\pi/8$	$7\pi/8$	$8\pi/8$	.....
$r=a:$	$0$	$-a$	$0$	$a$	$0$	$-a$	$0$	$a$	

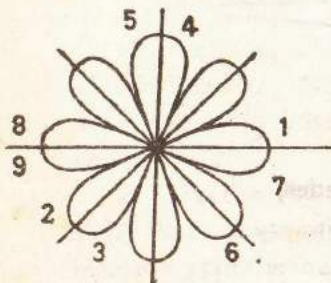


Fig. 35.

The shape of the curve is shown in the figure. There will be eight loops. i. e. twice as much loops if the  $\theta$  is even multiple.

**Notes:**—If  $r = a \cos 3\theta$  or,  $r = a \sin 3\theta$  there will be only three loops.

If  $r = a \cos n\theta$  or,  $r = a \sin n\theta$ , the number of loops will be  $2n$  if  $n$  is even and number of loops will be only  $n$  if  $n$  is odd.

These curves are generally called **Rose petals**

**Ex. 5.** Trace the curve  $r^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$

(The curve is called **lemniscate of Bernoulli**)

**Symmetry:**—The curve is symmetric about the initial line as by putting  $\theta = -\theta$  the equation will not change.

The curve is also symmetric about the line perpendicular to the line and passing through the pole as by changing  $r = -r$  and  $\theta = -\theta$  the curve will not change.

2. Form table of values of  $\theta$ .

$\theta=0,$	$\pi/6$	$\pi/4$	$3\pi/4$	$5\pi/4$	$\pi$	.....
$r=a$	$a/\sqrt{2}$	$0$	imaginary $0$	$a/\sqrt{2}$	$a$	.....

Now plot these points. The portion of the curve above the initial line for  $\theta=0, \theta=\pi$  will be obtained. As the curve is symmetric the remaining part will be easily traced. The shape of the curve is shown in the figure 36.

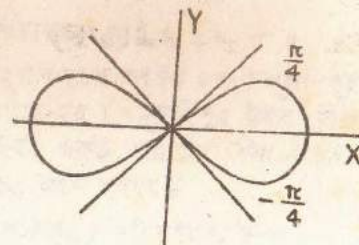


Fig. 36

The cartesian eq. of the above curve is  $a^2 y^2 = x^2 (a^2 - x^2)$

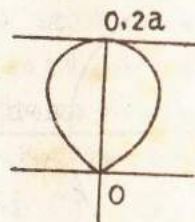


Fig. 37.

**Ex. 6.**  $a^2 x^2 = y^3 (2a - y)$

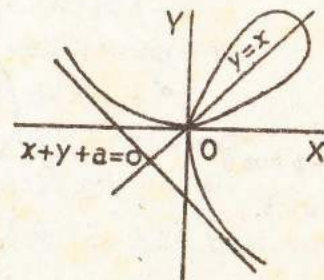


Fig. 38

**Ex. 7.**  $x^3 + y^3 = 3axy$

Ex. 8.  $x^6 + y^6 = a^6 x^2 y^2$

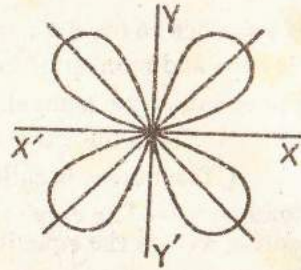


Fig. 39

Ex. 9.  $x^5 + y^5 = 5a^2 x^2 y$

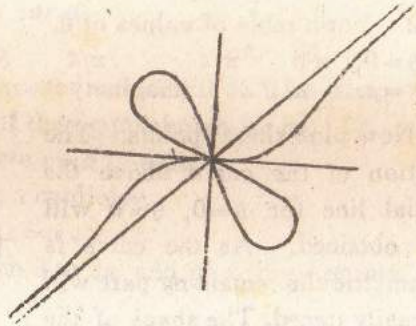


Fig. 40

Ex. 10.  $x^2 y^2 = (a+y)^2 (a^2 - y^2)$

Ex. as in Ex. 2.

Ex. 11.

$r = a + b \cos \theta$   
when  $a < b$ ,

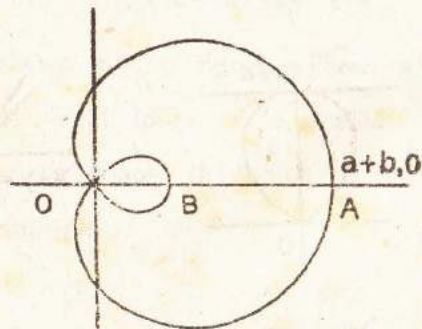


Fig. 41

Ex. 12.  $r = a \cos 2\theta$ .

Fig. as in Ex. 8.

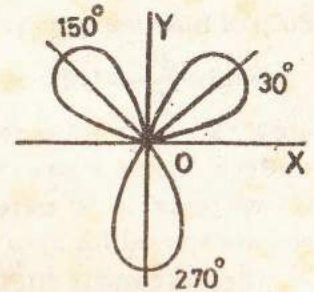


Fig. 42

Ex. 14. Trace the curve  $y = x^3 - 3ax^2$

( $y = x^3 - 3ax^2$  এর দ্বারা নির্দেশিত বক্ররেখাটি অঙ্কন কর।)

(i) প্রতিসাম্যতা :—এই সমীকরণে প্রতিসাম্যতা নাই।

(ii) বক্ররেখাটি মূলবিন্দু দিয়া যায়। মূলবিন্দুতে স্পর্শক  $y = 0$  মূলবিন্দুর খুবই নিকটে সমীকরণটি  $y = -3ax^2$  এর দ্বারা হয়। মূলবিন্দুর উত্তর দিকে স্পর্শকের নীচে বক্ররেখাটি থাকিবে কারণ ইহা একটি পরাবৃত্ত (Parabola) বৃত্তের বাহ্যিক অক্ষরেখা  $y = -3ax^2$  এর নীচের অংশ হইবে।

(iii) বক্ররেখাটি  $x$ -অক্ষকে ছেদ করিলে,  $y = 0$  হইলে, তখন  $x^3 - 3ax^2 = 0$  বা,  $x^2(x - 3a) = 0$  বা,  $x = 0, 3a$  অর্থাৎ বক্ররেখাটি  $(0, 0)$  ও  $(3a, 0)$  দিয়া যাইবে।

(iv) বক্ররেখাটির কোন অসীমতটরেখা নাই।

(v) প্রত্যেক  $x$  এর মানের জন্য  $y$  এর মান পাওয়া যায়।

$y \rightarrow \infty$  যদি  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , এবং  $y \rightarrow -\infty$  যদি  $x \rightarrow -\infty$

সমীকরণকে  $y = x^2(x - 3a)$  ভাবে লিখিলে দেখা যায় যে

$x < 3a$  হইলে  $y$  ঋণাত্মক এবং  $x > 3a$  হইলে,  $y$  ধনাত্মক।

(vi)  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 3x(x - 2a) = 0$  হইলে;  $x = 0, 2a$ । সুতরাং  $x = 0$  হইলে

$y = 0$  হয়;  $x = 2a$  হইলে  $y = -4a^2$  অর্থাৎ  $(0, 0)$  এবং  $(2a, -4a^2)$  বিন্দুতে স্পর্শক  $x$ -অক্ষের সহিত সমান্তরাল হইবে।

(vii)  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 6(x-a)$  বাহা  $x=a$  হইলে শূণ্য হয় এবং এই বিন্দুতে

Point of Inflexion হইবে।

(viii)  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} > 0$  যদি  $x > a$  এবং  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} < 0$  যদি  $x < a$  অর্থাৎ  $x$  এর

মান  $a$  হইতে বেশী হইলে স্পর্শক ধনাত্মক কোণ... অর্থাৎ বক্ররেখাটি বাড়িতে থাকিবে। আবার  $x$  এর মান  $a$  হইতে ছোট হইলে, স্পর্শকটি ঋণাত্মক কোণ ( $x$ -অক্ষের সহিত) অর্থাৎ বক্ররেখাটি নীচে নামিবে। The curve is concave upward for  $x > a$  and convex upward for  $x < a$ .

বক্ররেখাটির আকার পার্শ্বের চিত্রে দেখান হইল।

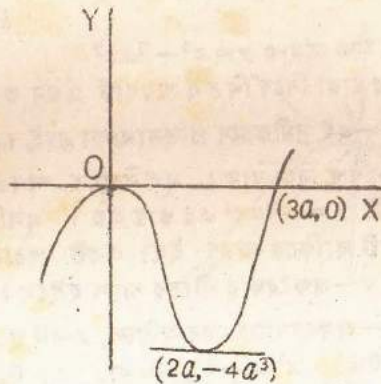


Fig. 43

Ex. 15.  $y(1-x^2) = x^3$  সমীকরণের দ্বারা প্রকাশিত বক্ররেখার চিত্র অঙ্কন কর।

(i) বক্ররেখাটি  $y$ -অক্ষের বরাবর প্রতিসাম্য, কারণ  $x$  এর শক্তি যুগ্ম।

(ii) বক্ররেখাটি মূল বিন্দু দিয়া যায়, ইহাকে  $x^2y + x^2 - y = 0$  লিখিলে,  $y = 0$  মূলবিন্দুতে স্পর্শক হয়।

মূল বিন্দুর নিকটে  $x, y$  এর ক্ষুদ্রমানের জগ্ম  $x^2y$  পদ বাদ দিলে,  $x^2 - y = 0$  বা,  $y = x^2$  বাহা একটি পরাবৃত্ত (Parabola) বুঝায়। ইহার বক্রতা  $y$  অক্ষের উপরের দিকে হইবে। অতএব বক্ররেখাটি মূলবিন্দুতে স্পর্শকের উপরের দিকে থাকিবে।

(iii) বক্ররেখাটি মূলবিন্দু ব্যতীত অত্র কোন বিন্দুতে  $x$  এবং  $y$  অক্ষেরাধিকে ছেদ করিবেনা।

(iv)  $x = \pm 1$  এবং  $y = 1$  ইহাদের অসীমতটরেখা।

(v) সমীকরণকে  $x^2 = \frac{y}{1+y}$  লিখিলে দেখা যায় যে  $y$  এর মান 0 এবং 1 এর মধ্যে থাকেনা। অসীমতটরেখা  $y = -1$  নীচের দিক হইতে অগ্রসর হইবে।  $y$  ধনাত্মক হইবে যদি  $x$  এর মান 1 হইতে ছোট হয় এবং ঋণাত্মক হইবে যদি  $x$  এর মান 1 হইতে বড় হয়।

সুতরাং  $x = 1$  অসীমতটরেখা উপর হইতে বাম দিকে আসিয়া নীচে ডানদিকে বক্ররেখার অসীমতটরেখা হইবে।

আবার অসীমতটরেখা  $x = -1$  এর জগ্ম উপর হইতে ডানদিকে আসিয়া নীচে বক্ররেখাকে বাম দিকে রাখিবে। চিত্রে ইহা দেখান হইল।

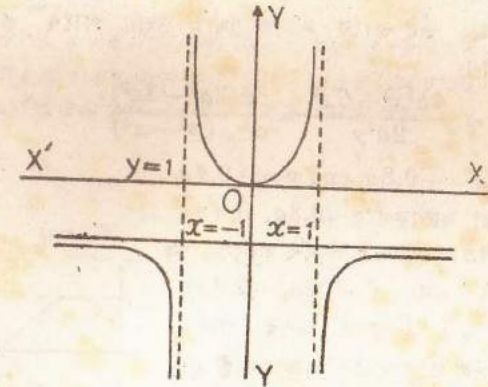


Fig. 44

Ex. 16.  $a^2x^4 - x^6 = a^4y^2$  দ্বারা প্রকাশিত বক্ররেখাটি অঙ্কন কর।

(i) বক্ররেখাটি উভয় অক্ষের বরাবর প্রতিসাম্য যেহেতু  $x$  এবং  $y$  এর প্রত্যেকের শক্তি যুগ্ম।

(ii) ইহা মূলবিন্দু দিয়া যায় এবং মূলবিন্দুতে স্পর্শক  $y^2 = 0$  মূলবিন্দুকে দ্বি-বিন্দু (Double-point) বলা হইবে এবং এই বিন্দুকে cusp বলা হইবে। মূলবিন্দুর দুই নিকটে  $x$  এবং  $y$  ক্ষুদ্র মানের জগ্ম সমীকরণটি  $a^2y^2 = a^2x^4$  or,  $x^2 = \pm ay$ .

$x^2 = ay$  এবং  $x^2 = -ay$  ধরিলে মূল বিন্দুর নিকটে  $y$  অক্ষেরাধিকে অক্ষ ধরিত্তা দুইটি (Parabola) পরাবৃত্ত পাওয়া যায়। পরাবৃত্ত দুইটি পরস্পরকে মূলবিন্দুতে স্পর্শ করিবে।

(iii) বক্ররেখাটি  $x$ -অক্ষেরথাকে  $(0, 0)$  এবং  $(\pm a, 0)$  বিন্দুতে ছেদ করিবে। ইহা  $y$ -অক্ষেরথাকে শূন্য মূল বিন্দুতে ছেদ করিবে।

(iv) বক্ররেখাটির অসীমতটরেখা নাই।

(v) সমীকরণটিকে লিখা য়ায  $a^4 y^2 = x^4(a^2 - x^2)$ ;  $x > a$  ( $x$ -এর মান  $a$  হইতে

(vi) সমীকরণটিকে লিখা য়ায  $a^4 y^2 = x^4(a^2 - x^2)$ ,  $x > a$  ( $x$ -এর মান  $a$  হইতে বড় হইতে পারবেনা)  $x = a$ ,  $x = -a$  এর বাহিরে বক্ররেখার কোন অংশ থাকিবেনা কারণ  $y = \pm \frac{x^2}{a^2} \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$ ,  $x$ -এর মান  $a$ -হইতে বড় হইলে  $y$ -কাল্পনিক হইবে।  $x$ -এর মান  $0$  হইতে বাড়িতে থাকিলে  $y$ -এর মান বাড়িতে থাকে এবং বাড়িয়া আবার কমিতে থাকিবে এবং  $x = -a$  হইলে  $y$ -এর মান শূন্য হইবে। এই ভাবে  $y$  অক্ষেরথার উভয় পাশে একককম বক্ররেখা পাওয়া যাইবে।

$$(vi) \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{4a^2x^2 - 6x^6}{2a^4y} = \frac{x(2a^2 - 3x^2)}{a^2 \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = 0 \text{ হইলে,}$$

$$x = \pm \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}a = \pm 0.8a \text{ and } y = \pm 0.4a$$

ইহাদের দ্বারা বক্ররেখার  $(0.8a, 0.4a)$ ,  $(-0.8a, 0.4a)$  তে একটি স্পর্শক বক্ররেখাকে স্পর্শ করিবে এবং  $(-0.8a, -0.4a)$ ,  $(0.8a, -0.4a)$  বিন্দুতে অপর স্পর্শক বক্ররেখাকে স্পর্শ করিবে এবং বক্ররেখাটি এই দুই স্পর্শক এবং  $x = a$ ,  $x = -a$  এর ভিতরে থাকিবে। উল্লিখিত বিষয় হইতে বক্ররেখাটি অঙ্কন করা যায়।

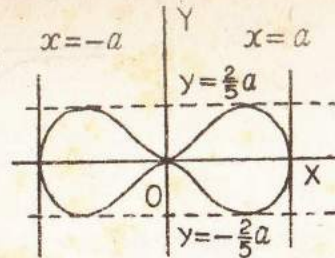


Fig. 45.

Ex. 17.  $x^2y^2 = x^2 + 1$  এর সমীকরণে বক্ররেখা অঙ্কন কর।

(i)  $x$  এবং  $y$  এর শক্তি যুগ্ম. সুতরাং বক্ররেখাটি উভয় অক্ষেরথার বরাবর প্রতিসাম্য।

(ii) ইহা মূল বিন্দু দিয়া যায় না।

(iii) ইহা অক্ষেরথাকে ছেদ করে না।

(iv)  $x^2y^2 = x^2 + 1$  বা,  $x^2(y^2 - 1) = 1$  লিখিলে, ইহার অসীম-তটরেখাগুলি  $y^2 - 1 = 0$   $y = 1$  বা,  $y = -1$  হইবে, অপর অসীমতটরেখা,  $x = 0$  হইবে। এইগুলি চিত্রে অঙ্কন করিতে হইবে।

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

$$\text{or, } y^2 = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2}$$

$$\text{or, } y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}{x^2} \dots \dots (1)$$

$$\text{আবার } x^2(y^2 - 1) = 1 \dots \dots (2)$$

এখানে  $y$ -এর মান  $1$  হইতে ছোট হইবে কারণ  $y$ -এর মান  $+1$  অথবা  $-1$  হইতে বড় হইবে  $x$ -এর মান কাল্পনিক হইবে।

অর্থাৎ  $y = 1$ ,  $y = -1$  এই দুইরেখার মধ্যে বক্ররেখা থাকিবে না।

সমীকরণ (1) হইতে,  $x$  এর মান শূন্য হইতে  $\infty$  হইলে  $y$  এর মান  $\pm \infty$  হইতে  $y = \pm 1$  হইবে, আবার  $x$  এর মান  $-\infty$  হইতে শূন্য হইলে  $y$  এর মান  $\pm 1$  হইবে।

Ex. 18  $x^2y^2 = x^2 - 1$  এর বক্ররেখাটি অঙ্কন কর।

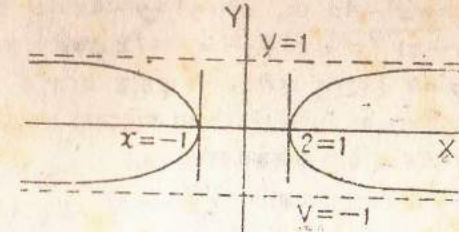


Fig. 47.

Ex. 19.  $x^4 + y^4 = 4a^2xy$  সমীকরণের বক্ররেখার চিত্র অঙ্কন কর।

(i)  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 0$  দিলে সমীকরণটি সিদ্ধ হয়। সুতরাং বক্ররেখাটি মূলবিন্দু দিয়া যাইবে।

(ii)  $x$  এবং  $y$  কে পরিবর্তন করিলে সমীকরণের পরিবর্তন হয় না। অতএব  $y = x$  সরলরেখায় ইহা প্রতিসাম্য।

(iii) মূলবিন্দুতে স্পর্শগুলি,  $xy = 0$  বা,  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 0$  অর্থাৎ অক্ষেরথার দুইটি মূলবিন্দুতে বক্ররেখার স্পর্শক। বেহেতু মূলবিন্দুতে দুইটি পৃথক স্পর্শক পাওয়া যায়, অতএব মূলবিন্দুটি বক্ররেখার জগ্গ একটি গ্রন্থি (Node) হইবে।

(iv) ইহার অসীমতটরেখা নাই।

(v) বক্ররেখাটি  $y = x$  সরলরেখায় ছেদ করে অতএব  $x^4 + y^4 = 4a^2xy$  বা,  $2y^4 = 4a^2y^2$  বা,  $y^2 = 2a^2$  বা,  $y = \pm \sqrt{2}a$ ;  $y = x$  রেখাকে  $(\pm \sqrt{2}a, \pm \sqrt{2}a)$  and  $(0, 0)$  বিন্দুতে ছেদ করিবে।



(vi)  $x$  এবং  $y$  এর ধনাত্মক ও ঋণাত্মক উভয় মানের জন্য সমীকরণের মান পরিবর্তন হয় না।

সুতরাং বক্ররেখাটি  $x$  ও  $y$  এর কোর্ডিনেটে থাকিবে।

উল্লিখিত বিষয়গুলি পর্যালোচনা করিয়া চিত্রটি পাশ্চাত্তপ হইবে।

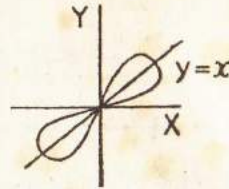


Fig. 48.

Ex. 20.  $y(y^2-1)=x(x^2-4)$  সমীকরণের চিত্র অঙ্কন কর।

(i)  $x=0, y=0$  সমীকরণটিকে সিদ্ধ করে। ইহা মূলবিন্দুর বরাবরে প্রাতিসাম্য।

(ii) ইহা মূল বিন্দু দিয়া যায় এবং মূল বিন্দুতে স্পর্শক  $[y^3-y=x^3-4x]$  হইবে  $-y=-4x$  বা,  $y=4x$ ।

(iii)  $y=0$  হইলে  $x(x^2-4)=0$  বা,  $x=0, \pm 2$

$x=0$  হইলে  $y(y^2-1)=0$  বা,  $y=0, \pm 1$

ইহা  $(0, 0), (2, 0), (-2, 0)$  বিন্দুতে অক্ষরেখা এবং বিন্দুতে  $(0, 0), (0, 1), (0, -1)$  বিন্দুতে  $y$ -অক্ষরেখাকে ছেদ করে।

(iv)  $y^3-y=x^3-4x$  or,  $x^3-y^3+y-4x=0$  ইহার অসীমতটরেখার মধ্যে  $(y-x)(x^2+xy+y^2)=y-4x$  একটি প্রকৃত অসীমতটরেখা  $y-x=0$  বা  $y=x$  যেহেতু সমীকরণটি তৃতীয় মাত্রার (3rd degree) সেইহেতু ইহা বক্ররেখাকে দ্বিতীয়বার ছেদ করিবেনা। মূলবিন্দুতে বক্ররেখা অসীমতটরেখাকে ছেদ করিয়া অতিক্রম করিবে।

(v)  $\frac{dy}{dx}(3y^2-1)=3x^2-4$  or,  $\frac{dy}{dx}=\frac{3x^2-4}{3y^2-1}$ ;  $\frac{dy}{dx}=0$  ধরিলে,

$$x = \pm 2/\sqrt{3} = \pm 1.16.$$

ইহাতে  $x=1.16, x=-1.16$  এর জন্য দুইটি স্পর্শক যাহা  $x$  অক্ষরেখার সহিত সমান্তরাল হইবে।

উল্লিখিত বিষয়গুলি বিবেচনা করিলে বক্ররেখাটির রূপ চিত্রে দেওয়া হইল।

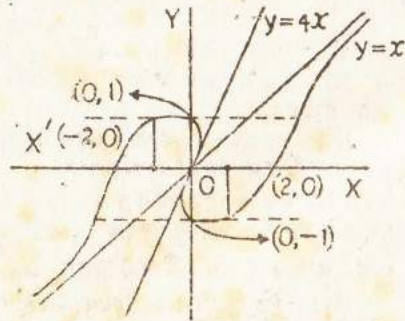


Fig. 49

Ex. 21.  $x=a(\theta+\sin\theta), y=a(1-\cos\theta)$

These equations are known as the equations of a Cycloid.

**Cycloid:**—When a circle rolls in a plane along a given straight line, the locus traced out by any point on the circumference of the rolling circle is called a cycloid.

Let  $P$  be a point on the circle which is called the generating circle. The path of the point  $P$  which rolls without sliding on a straight line is called a cycloid. The point  $P$  is originally at  $O$ . Let  $O$  be the origin and  $OMX$ , the axis of  $x$ .

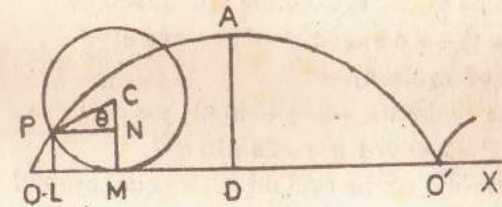


Fig. 50

Let  $a$  be the radius of circle the centre of the circle  $C$ .  $\angle PCN = \theta$  and the the co-ordinates of  $P$  be  $(x, y)$

Therefore,  $OM = \text{arc } PM = a\theta$

$$x = OL = OM - LM = OM - PN = a\theta - a \sin \theta$$

$$y = PL = CM - CN = a - a \cos \theta = a(1 - \cos \theta)$$

Thus the parametric equations of the cycloid are

$$x = a(\theta - \sin \theta) \text{ and } y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$$

The point  $A$  is the highest point on the curve from the base  $OMX$ . The point  $A$  is called the vertex

For the vertex,  $y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$ ,  $\cos \theta$  should be minimum, i.e.,  $\cos \theta = -1$  or,  $\theta = \pi$ .

$$\therefore AD = y = a(1 + 1) = 2a$$

Co-ordinates of vertex  $(a\pi, 2a)$

For  $O$  and  $O'$ ,  $y=0$  or,  $a(1 - \cos \theta) = 0$ , or,  $\theta = 0$  or,  $\pi$ ,

If we consider the vertex  $A(a\pi, 2a)$  as the origin and the tangent at  $A$  as the  $x$ -axis, the shape of the cycloid is shown below.

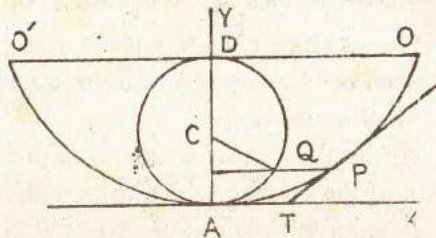


Fig. 51

The equations of the cycloid are now given by

$$x = a(\theta + \sin \theta) \text{ and } y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$$

Properties of cycloid,

(i) For the cycloid  $x = a(\theta + \sin \theta)$ ,  $y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$

$$\text{Arc AP} = 2 \text{ chord AQ} = 2a \sin \theta/2.$$

(ii) The evolute of the cycloid is an equal cycloid.

(iii) For cycloid  $x = a(\theta - \sin \theta)$ ,  $y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$

radius of curvature = twice the length of the normal.

22.  $y^3(2a-x) = x^3$  or,  $r = \frac{2a \sin^2 \theta}{\cos \theta}$  is Cissoid of Diocles, Fig. 45

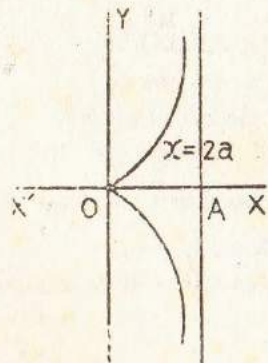


Fig. 52

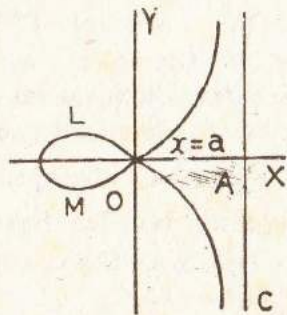


Fig. 53

23.  $y^2(a-x) = x^2(a+x)$   
Strophoid fig

$$r = ae^{\theta \cot \alpha} \text{ or, } r = ae^{m\theta}$$

Logarithmic Spiral or, Equiangular spiral properties :-

(i)  $\phi = \alpha$ ; the angle between any tangent at any point and the radius vector of that point is constant.

(ii) The pedal, inverse, polar reciprocal and evolute of this curve are all equiangular spirals.

(iii) The radius of curvature makes a right angle at the pole.

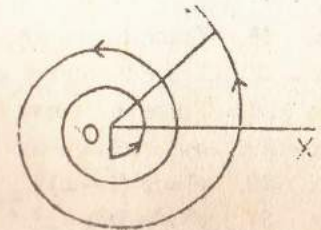


Fig 54

24.  $r = a\theta$ : Spiral of Archimedes,

one of the main property of "Archimede's" spiral is that its polar subnormal is constant, fig. 18,

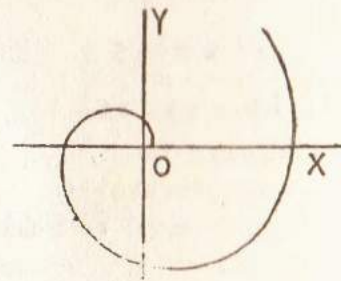


Fig. 55

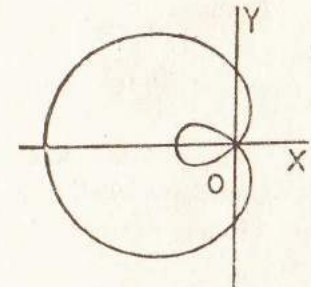


Fig 56

19. Limacon  $r = a - b \cos \theta$ ;  $a > b$ 

25. Probability curve

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

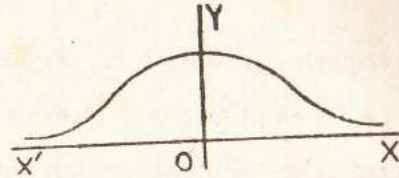


Fig. 57

- Ex. 26. Trace the curve  $x^4 - y^4 = x^2y + x^2 - y^2$   
 Ex. 27. Trace the curve  $ay^2 = x^2y + x^3$   
 Ex. 28. Trace the curve  $r = a(2 \cos \theta + \cos 3\theta)$   
 Ex. 29.  $ay^2 = x^2(x - a)$   
 Ex. 30.  $y^2 = x(1 - x)^3$   
 Ex. 31.  $y^2(x^2 + a^2) = a^2x^2$   
 Ex. 32.  $y^2(x^2 - a^2) = a^2x^2$   
 Ex. 33.  $x^2(x^2 - 4a^2) = y^2(x^2 - a^2)$   
 Ex. 34.  $r = 2a \sin \theta$   
 Ex. 35.  $r = a \cos 4\theta$   
 Ex. 36.  $r = \cos 2\theta = a$

C. U. (S) 1989

1. (a) Define limit, continuity and differentiability of a function. Evaluate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2}$ .

(b) Consider the function  $g(x) = \begin{cases} x; & 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ 3 - x; & \frac{1}{2} < x \leq 3. \end{cases}$

- (i) Find the domain and range of  $g(x)$ .  
 (ii) Determine whether  $g(x)$  is continuous at  $x = \frac{1}{2}$ .

2. (a) Using definition, find the differential coefficient of  $\log \cos x$ .

(b) Find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  where—

(i)  $y = (\sin x)^{\log x} \cot \{e^x(a + bx)\}$ ;

(ii)  $x = a(\theta + \sin \theta)$ ,  $y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$ .

3. (a) If  $y = \sin(p \sin^{-1} x)$ . Prove that

$$(1 - x^2)y_{n+2} = (2n + 1)xy_{n+1} + (n^2 - p^2)y_n$$

(b) Expand  $\cos^{-1} x$  into an infinite series of ascending powers of  $x$ .

4. (a) State and prove Lagrange's Mean-Value theorem.

(b) If  $p = x \cos \alpha + y \sin \alpha$  touches the curve

$$\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^{n/n-1} + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^{n/n-1} = 1,$$

prove that  $p^n = (a \cos \alpha)^n + (b \sin \alpha)^n$ .

১। (ক) একটি ফাংশনের সীমা, ছেদহীনতা এবং অন্তরীকরণ যোগাতার সংজ্ঞা দাও।  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2}$  এর মান নির্ণয় কর।

(খ) মনে কর,  $g(x) = \begin{cases} x; & 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ 3 - x; & \frac{1}{2} < x \leq 3 \end{cases}$  একটি ফাংশন।

(i)  $g(x)$  ডোমেইন এবং রেঞ্জ নির্ণয় কর।

(ii)  $x = \frac{1}{2}$  বিন্দুতে  $g(x)$  ছেদহীন কিনা পরীক্ষা কর।

২। (ক) সংজ্ঞা ব্যবহার করিয়া  $\log \cos x$  এর অন্তরক সহগ নির্ণয় কর।

(খ)  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  বাহির কর, যেখানে—

(i)  $y = (\sin x)^{\log x} \cot \{e^x(a + bx)\}$ ;

(ii)  $x = a(\theta + \sin \theta)$ ,  $y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$ .

(গ) (ক)  $y = \sin(p \sin^{-1} x)$  হইলে, প্রমাণ কর যে,

$$(1 - x^2)y_{n+2} = (2n + 1)xy_{n+1} + (n^2 - p^2)y_n$$

(খ)  $\cos^{-1} x$  কে  $x$  এর ক্রমবর্ধমান সূচকের অসীম ধারায় প্রকাশ কর।

৩। (ক) ল্যাগরেইঞ্জের গড়মান উপপাত্ত বর্ণনা ও প্রমাণ কর।

(খ)  $p = x \cos \alpha + y \sin \alpha$  যদি  $\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^{n/n-1} + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^{n/n-1} = 1$

বক্ররেখাকে স্পর্শক করে, প্রমাণ কর যে,  $p^n = (a \cos \alpha)^n + (b \sin \alpha)^n$ .