## 15. Arclength

Definition 15.1. Let $I$ be an open interval. A partition $\mathcal{P}$ of $[a, b] \subset$ $I$ is a sequence of points

$$
a=t_{0}<t_{1}<\cdots<t_{n}=b,
$$

for some $n \geq 1$. The mesh of $\mathcal{P}$ is

$$
m(\mathcal{P})=\max _{i}\left\{\left|t_{i+1}-t_{i}\right| \mid 0 \leq i \leq n-1\right\} .
$$

Definition 15.2. Let $\vec{r}: I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a parametrised differentiable curve, and let $\mathcal{P}$ be a partition. We think of

$$
l(\mathcal{P})=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}\left\|\vec{r}\left(t_{i+1}\right)-r\left(t_{i}\right)\right\|,
$$

as being an approximation to the length of the curve $\vec{r}([a, b])$.
The curve $\vec{r}$ has length $L$ if given any $\epsilon>0$, there is a $\delta>0$ such that for every partition $\mathcal{P}$ whose mesh size is less than $\delta$, we have

$$
\|L-l(\mathcal{P})\|<\epsilon
$$

There are interesting examples of curves that don't have a length.
Start with interval $[0,1]$ in the plane. The length is 1 . Now adjust this curve, by adding in a triangular hump in the middle, so that we get four line segments of length $1 / 3$. This is a curve of length $4 / 3$.

Now add a hump to each of the four line segments of length $1 / 3$. The length of the resulting curve is $(4 / 3)^{2}$. If we keep doing this, then we get more and more complicated curves, whose length at stage $n$ is $(4 / 3)^{n}$. This process converges to a very pointed curve whose length is infinite (in fact this curve is a fractal).

However:
Proposition 15.3. If $\vec{r}: I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a $\mathcal{C}^{1}$-function, then the curve $\vec{r}([a, b])$ has a length

$$
L=\int_{a}^{b}\left\|\vec{r}^{\prime}(t)\right\| \mathrm{d} t
$$

Remark 15.4. The fractal curve above is continuous but it is nowhere differentiable (the curve has too many sharp points).

In general the exact formula for the arclength is only of theoretical interest. However there are some contrived examples where we can calculately the arclength precisely.
Example 15.5. Let

$$
\vec{r}: \mathbb{R} \underset{1}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{R}^{2}
$$

be the parametrised differentiable curve given by

$$
\vec{r}(t)=a \cos t \hat{\imath}+a \sin t \hat{\jmath} .
$$

Then

$$
\vec{r}^{\prime}(t)=-a \sin t \hat{\imath}+a \cos t \hat{\jmath},
$$

and so

$$
\left\|\vec{r}^{\prime}(t)\right\|=a
$$

Hence the length of the curve $\vec{r}([0,2 \pi])$ is

$$
L=\int_{0}^{2 \pi} a \mathrm{~d} t=2 \pi a
$$

which is indeed the circumference of a circle of radius a.
Example 15.6. Let

$$
\vec{r}: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}
$$

be the parametrised differentiable curve given by

$$
\vec{r}(t)=a \cos t \hat{\imath}+a \sin t \hat{\jmath}+b t \hat{k}
$$

Then

$$
\vec{r}^{\prime}(t)=-a \sin t \hat{\imath}+a \cos t \hat{\jmath}+b \hat{k},
$$

and so

$$
\left\|r^{\prime}(t)\right\|=\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}
$$

Hence the length of the curve $\vec{r}([0,2 \pi])$ is

$$
L=\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)^{1 / 2} \mathrm{~d} t=2 \pi\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}
$$

Example 15.7. Let

$$
\vec{r}: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}
$$

be the parametrised differentiable curve given by

$$
\vec{r}(t)=a \cos t \hat{\imath}+b \sin t \hat{\jmath} .
$$

Then

$$
\vec{r}^{\prime}(t)=-a \sin t \hat{\imath}+b \cos t \hat{\jmath},
$$

and so

$$
\left\|\vec{r}^{\prime}(t)\right\|=\left(a^{2} \sin ^{2} t+b^{2} \cos ^{2} t\right)^{1 / 2}
$$

Hence the length of the curve $\vec{r}([0,2 \pi])$ is

$$
L=\int_{0}^{2 \pi}\left(a^{2} \sin ^{2} t+b^{2} \cos ^{2} t\right)^{1 / 2} \mathrm{~d} t
$$

the length of an ellipse, with major and minor axes of length $a$ and $b$.

Definition 15.8. Let $\vec{r}: I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a parametrised differentiable curve, which is of class $\mathcal{C}^{1}$. Suppose that $\vec{r}^{\prime}(t)$ is nowhere zero. Given $a \in I$, define the arclength parameter $s(t)$, by the formula

$$
s(t)=\int_{a}^{t}\left\|\vec{r}^{\prime}(\tau)\right\| \mathrm{d} \tau= \begin{cases}\text { length of } r([a, t]) & \text { if } t \geq a \\ \text { length of }-r([t, a]) & \text { if } t<a .\end{cases}
$$

By the fundamental theorem of calculus

$$
\begin{aligned}
s^{\prime}(t) & =\frac{d}{d t} \int_{a}^{t}\left\|\vec{r}^{\prime}(\tau)\right\| \mathrm{d} \tau \\
& =\left\|\vec{r}^{\prime}(t)\right\|
\end{aligned}
$$

which is the speed at time $t$. Since $s^{\prime}(t)$ is nowhere zero, we can write $t$ as a function of $s$, that is we can write down the inverse function, $t(s)$, which will be $\mathcal{C}^{1}$.

Example 15.9. For the helix,

$$
\vec{r}(t)=a \cos t \hat{\imath}+a \sin t \hat{\jmath}+b \hat{k} t
$$

we have

$$
s(t)=\int_{0}^{t}\left\|\vec{r}^{\prime}(\tau)\right\| \mathrm{d} \tau={\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}}^{1 / 2} t .
$$

Therefore

$$
t(s)=\frac{s}{\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}}
$$

In this case

$$
\vec{r}(s)=a \cos \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}}\right) \hat{\imath}+a \sin \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}}\right) \hat{\jmath}+b \hat{k}\left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}}\right) .
$$

In fact, one can always parametrise a curve by its arclength and in this case the derivative is a unit vector:

Definition 15.10. Let $\vec{r}: I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a parametrised differentiable curve parametrised by the arclength. Then

$$
\vec{T}(s)=\frac{d \vec{r}}{d s}
$$

is the unit tangent vector.
In the case of the helix, we get

$$
\vec{r}(s)=-\frac{a}{\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}} \sin \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}}\right) \hat{\imath}+\frac{a}{\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}} \cos \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}}\right) \hat{\jmath}+\left(\frac{b}{\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}}\right) \hat{k} .
$$

Note that there is an obvious way to get the unit tangent vector. Take the derivative and divide by the speed. In fact

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d \vec{r}(t)}{d t} & =\frac{d \vec{r}(s)}{d s} \frac{d s}{d t} \\
& =\vec{T}(s) \frac{d s}{d t}
\end{aligned}
$$

by the chain rule. So

$$
\vec{T}(s)=\frac{\frac{d \vec{r}^{\prime}(t)}{d t}}{\frac{d s}{d t}},
$$

where the denominator is precisely the speed, so that the unit tangent vector is the unit vector which points in the direction of the velocity.

Example 15.11. Let $\vec{r}(t)=(a \cos t, a \sin t)$ be the standard parametrisation of the circle of radius $a$. Then

$$
s=t a \quad \text { so that } \quad t=\frac{s}{a} \text {. }
$$

So

$$
\vec{r}(s)=\left(a \cos \left(\frac{s}{a}\right), a \sin \left(\frac{s}{a}\right)\right),
$$

and

$$
\vec{T}(s)=\left(-\sin \left(\frac{s}{a}\right), \cos \left(\frac{s}{a}\right)\right)
$$

Definition 15.12. Let $\vec{r}: I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a $\mathcal{C}^{2}$ curve such that $\vec{r}^{\prime}(t) \neq \overrightarrow{0}$ for all $t$.

The curvature $\kappa(s)$ of $\vec{r}(s)$ is the magnitude of the vector

$$
\frac{d \vec{T}(s)}{d s}
$$

and the unit normal vector is the unit vector pointing in the direction of

$$
\vec{N}(s)=\frac{d \vec{T}(s)}{d s}
$$

In the example above,

$$
\frac{d \vec{T}(s)}{d s}=\frac{1}{a}\left(-\cos \left(\frac{s}{a}\right),-\sin \left(\frac{s}{a}\right)\right),
$$

which has length $1 / a$. So the larger the radius, the smaller the curvature (which is what one might expect). The unit normal vector is

$$
\vec{N}(s)=\left(-\cos \left(\frac{s}{a}\right),-\sin \left(\frac{s}{a}\right)\right)=-\vec{r}(s) .
$$

One can try to calculate the curvature using the parameter $t$. By the chain rule,

$$
\frac{d \vec{T}(t)}{d t}=\frac{d \vec{T}(s)}{d s} \frac{d s}{d t}
$$

So

$$
\frac{d \vec{T}(s)}{d s}=\frac{\frac{d \vec{T}(t)}{d t}}{\frac{d s}{d t}}
$$

The denominator is the speed. It follows that

$$
\vec{N}(s) \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{d \vec{T}(t)}{d t}
$$

point in the same direction, so that the unit normal vector is the unit vector associated to

$$
\frac{d \vec{T}(t)}{d t}
$$

On the other hand, the curvature is

$$
\frac{\left\|\frac{d \vec{T}(t)}{d t}\right\|}{\frac{d s}{d t}} .
$$

Note that the normal vector and the unit tangent vector are always orthogonal.

Indeed,

$$
\|\vec{T}(s)\|=1
$$

So

$$
\vec{T}(s) \cdot \vec{T}(s)=1
$$

Differentiate both sides with respect to $s$, to get

$$
\vec{T}^{\prime}(s) \cdot \vec{T}(s)+\vec{T}(s) \cdot \vec{T}^{\prime}(s)=0
$$

It follows that

$$
2 \vec{T}^{\prime}(s) \cdot \vec{T}(s)=0
$$

that is

$$
\vec{T}^{\prime}(s) \cdot \vec{T}(s)=0
$$

As $\vec{N}(s)$ points in the same direction as $\overrightarrow{T^{\prime}}(s)$, it follows that the tangent vector and the normal vector are orthogonal.

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### 18.022 Calculus of Several Variables

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