

**SPECIALIST MATHEMATICS
 SCAT 1: HYPERBOLIC FUNCTIONS
 PROBLEM 2: VECTORS**

CONTENTS	PAGES
Question 1 Sketch graphs of cosh and sinh	1
Question 2 Comparison of hyperbolic and trigonometric identities	8
Question 3 Inverse hyperbolic functions	11
Question 4 Vectors and their relations to hyperbolic functions	14
Question 5 Interpretation of the variable t	16
Question 6 Alternate proof for $t = 2B$	20
Conclusion	29
Acknowledgements/Appendix	30

QUESTION 1- SKETCH GRAPHS OF COSH AND SINH X.

SKETCH GRAPH OF COSH X:

let $y = \cosh x$

$$\cosh x = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$$

$$\therefore y = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$$

X, Y INTERCEPTS

x-intercept at $y = 0$

$$\therefore 0 = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$$

$0 = e^x + e^{-x}$ but $e^x > 0$ and $e^{-x} > 0$, \therefore **no x-intercept.**

y-intercept at $x = 0$

$$y = \frac{1}{2}(e^0 + e^0)$$

$$= 1.$$

\therefore **y-intercept at point (0,1).**

ASYMPTOTES

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (e^x + e^{-x}) = \infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} (e^x + e^{-x}) = \infty$$

no horizontal asymptotes. As y is defined for all real x , there are **no vertical asymptotes.**

TURNING POINTS

occur when $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x})$$

$$0 = \frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x})$$

$$= e^x - e^{-x}$$

$$\therefore e^x = e^{-x}$$

$$\therefore -x = x$$

$$-2x = 0$$

$$\therefore x = 0$$

when $x > 0$, eg. $x = 1$

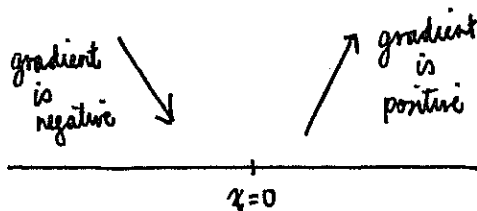
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2}(e^1 - e^{-1}) = 1.18$$

this is positive, \therefore gradient positive.

when $x < 0$, eg. $x = -1$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2}(e^{-1} - e^1) = -1.18$$

this is negative, \therefore gradient negative.



\therefore using First Derivative Test, local minimum occurs when $x = 0$.

$$x = 0,$$

$$\therefore y = \frac{1}{2}(e^0 + e^0) = 1$$

\therefore graph turns at **(0,1)**

CONCAVITY/POINTS OF INFLECTION

determined by second derivative of function. Inflection points occur when $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$

$$\therefore \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$$

$$\text{and } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$$

$$\therefore 0 = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$$

$\therefore 0 = e^x + e^{-x}$ but impossible, \therefore **no inflection points.**

Concavity- determined by value of $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$.

When $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} > 0$, graph is concave upwards.

When $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} < 0$, graph is concave downwards.

when $x < 0$, eg. $x = -1$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{2}(e^{-1} + e^1) = 1.54$$

when $x > 0$, eg. $x = 1$
 $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{2}(e^1 + e^{-1}) = 1.54$

as both values are positive, and no other turning or inflection points exist, **graph is always concave upwards.**

The sketch graph is shown in fig2.0a.

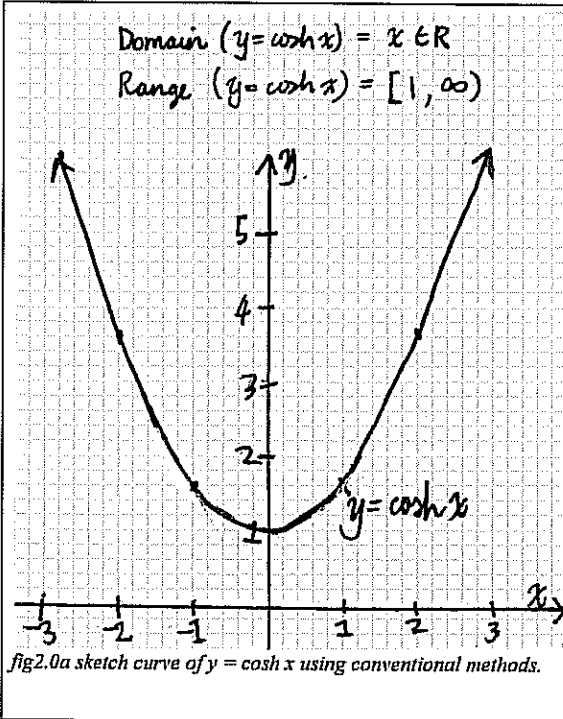


fig2.0a sketch curve of $y = \cosh x$ using conventional methods.

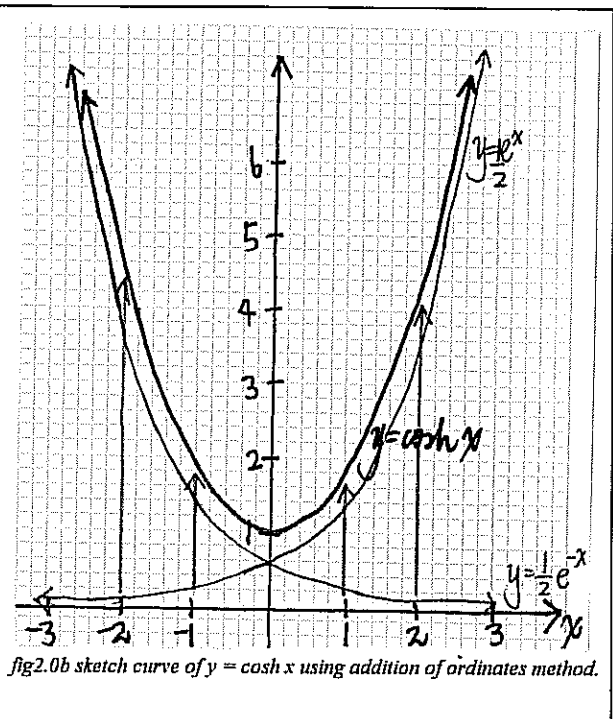


fig2.0b sketch curve of $y = \cosh x$ using addition of ordinates method.

The graph can be verified by the 'addition of ordinates' method of curve sketching using components of the cosh graph, $\frac{1}{2} e^x$ and $\frac{1}{2} e^{-x}$ (fig2.0b). Although there didn't seem to be any horizontal asymptotes, $y = \cosh x$ actually approaches graphs of $y = \frac{1}{2} e^x$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, and $y = \frac{1}{2} e^{-x}$ as $x \rightarrow -\infty$.

This occurs because as $x \rightarrow \infty$, $y = \frac{1}{2} e^{-x} \rightarrow 0$. Values of $y = \frac{1}{2} e^{-x}$ decrease, so $y = \cosh x$ approaches $y = \frac{1}{2} e^x$:

$$\cosh x = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$$

\therefore as $e^{-x} \rightarrow 0$,

$$\cosh x = \frac{1}{2} e^x + 0 = \frac{1}{2} e^x$$

This reasoning can be applied to the values of x as $y = \cosh x \rightarrow -\infty$.

$y = \cosh x$ is an "even" function (where $f(x) = f(-x)$) as:

$$\cosh(-x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$$

$$\therefore \cosh x = \cosh(-x)$$

\therefore it is symmetrical about the y -axis.

SKETCH GRAPH OF SINH X:

let $y = \sinh x$

$$\sinh x = \frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x})$$

$$\therefore y = \frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x})$$

X, Y INTERCEPTS

x -intercept at $y = 0$

$$\therefore 0 = \frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x})$$

$$0 = e^x - e^{-x}$$

$$\therefore e^x = e^{-x}$$

$$\therefore x = -x$$

$$2x = 0$$

$$\therefore x = 0$$

y -intercept at $x = 0$

$$y = \frac{1}{2}(e^0 - e^0)$$

$$= 0.$$

$\therefore x$ and y -intercepts occur at point $(0,0)$.

ASYMPTOTES

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (e^x - e^{-x}) = \infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} (e^x - e^{-x}) = -\infty$$

no horizontal asymptotes. As y is defined for all real x , there are **no vertical asymptotes.**

TURNING POINTS

occur when $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$$

$$0 = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$$

$= e^x + e^{-x}$ but impossible, \therefore **no turning points.**

CONCAVITY/POINTS OF INFLECTION

Inflection points occur when $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{2} (e^x - e^{-x})$$

$$\text{and } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$$

$$\therefore 0 = \frac{1}{2} (e^x - e^{-x})$$

$$\therefore 0 = e^x - e^{-x}$$

$$e^x = e^{-x}$$

$$\therefore x = -x$$

$$2x = 0$$

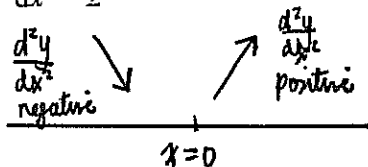
$$\therefore x = 0$$

When $x > 0$, eg. $x = 1$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{2} (e^1 - e^{-1}) = 1.18$$

When $x < 0$, eg. $x = -1$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{2} (e^{-1} - e^1) = -1.18$$



\therefore when $x = 0$,

$$y = \frac{1}{2} (e^0 - e^0) = 0$$

\therefore inflection point occurs at (0,0).

Graph is concave downwards when x is negative and concave upwards when x is positive. The sketch graph is shown in fig2.1a.

This graph can be verified by the 'addition of ordinates' method of curve sketching using components of the sinh graph, $\frac{1}{2} e^x$ and $-\frac{1}{2} e^{-x}$ (fig2.1b). Although there didn't seem to be any horizontal asymptotes, $y = \sinh x$ approaches the graphs of $y = \frac{1}{2} e^x$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, and $y = -\frac{1}{2} e^{-x}$ as $x \rightarrow -\infty$ for reasons similar to those noted on page 4.

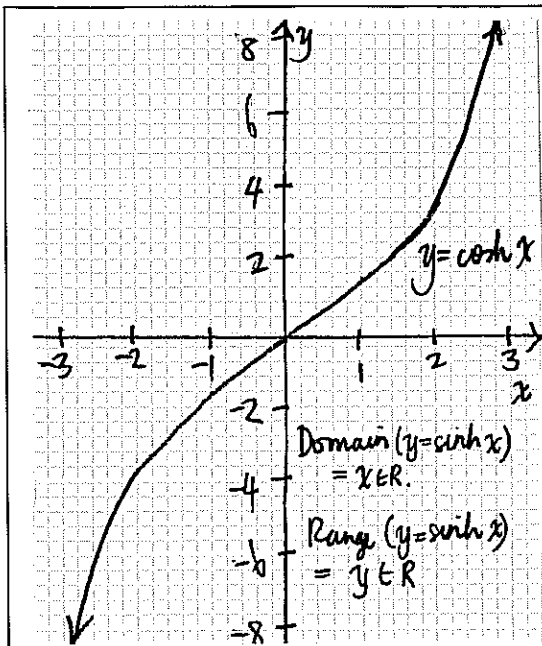


fig2.1a sketch curve of $y = \sinh x$ using conventional methods.

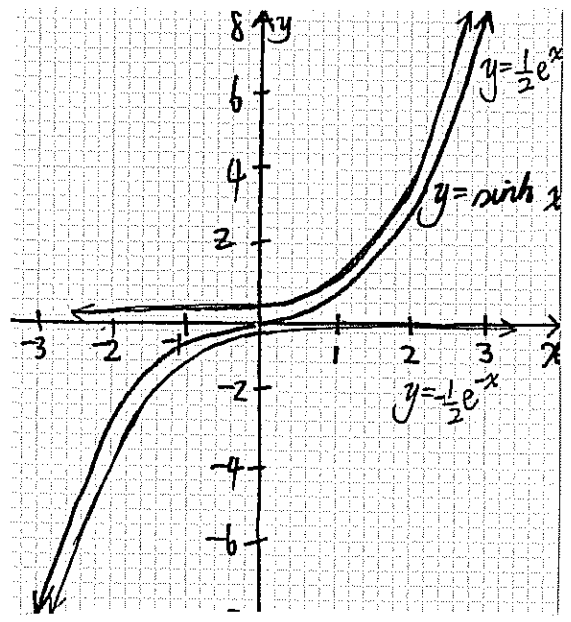


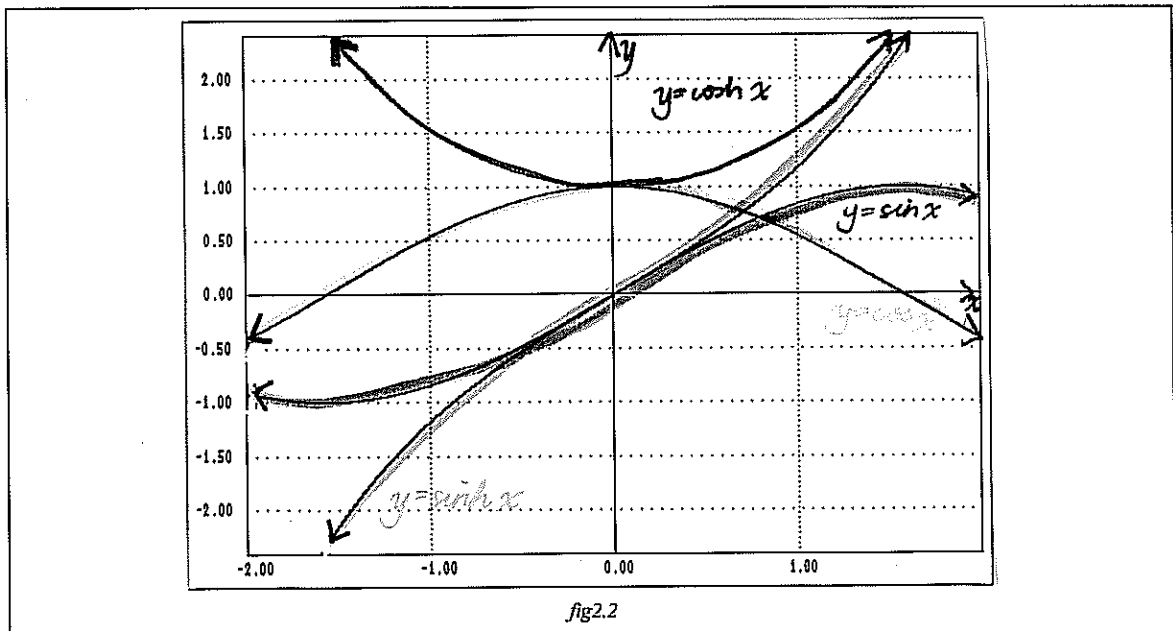
fig2.1b sketch curve of $y = \sinh x$ using addition of ordinates method.

$y = \sinh x$ is an "odd" function (where $f(-x) = -f(x)$) as:

$$\sinh(-x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{-x} - e^x) = -\frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x})$$

$$\therefore \sinh(-x) = -\sinh(x)$$

\therefore it is symmetrical across the origin.



Graphs of $y = \sinh x$ and $y = \cosh x$ have been graphed on the same axis $y = \sin x$ and $y = \cos x$ (fig2.2). Within the domain of $-\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$, $y = \sinh x$ is the negative of $y = \sin x$ and $y = \cosh x$ is the inverse of $y = \cos x$. There appears to be a possible relationship between the hyperbolic and circular function graphs but that is not investigated here.

QUESTION 2. COMPARISON OF HYPERBOLIC IDENTITIES WITH SIMILAR TRIGONOMETRIC IDENTITIES.

a) Prove $\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{LHS} &= \cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} (e^x + e^{-x})^2 - \frac{1}{4} (e^x - e^{-x})^2 \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} [(e^{2x} + 2 + e^{-2x}) - (e^{2x} - 2 + e^{-2x})] \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} (e^{2x} + 2 + e^{-2x} - e^{2x} + 2 - e^{-2x}) \\
 &= \frac{4}{4} \\
 &= 1
 \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \text{LHS} = \text{RHS}$

b) Prove $\cosh(2x) = 1 + 2 \sinh^2 x$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{RHS } 1 + 2 \sinh^2 x &= 1 + 2 \left[\frac{1}{2} (e^{2x} - 2 + e^{-2x}) \right] \\
 &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} e^{2x} - 1 + \frac{1}{2} e^{-2x} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (e^{2x} + e^{-2x}) \\
 &= \cosh(2x)
 \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \text{RHS} = \text{LHS}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{c) Show } (\cosh x + \sinh x)^n &= \cosh nx + \sinh nx \\
 \text{RHS} &= \cosh nx + \sinh nx \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (e^{nx} + e^{-nx}) + \frac{1}{2} (e^{nx} - e^{-nx}) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} [e^{nx} + e^{-nx} + e^{nx} - e^{-nx}] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (2e^{nx}) \\
 &= (e^x)^n
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{LHS} &= (\cosh x + \sinh x)^n \\
 &= \left[\frac{1}{2} (e^x + e^{-x}) + \frac{1}{2} (e^x - e^{-x}) \right]^n \\
 &= \left[\frac{1}{2} (e^x + e^{-x} + e^x - e^{-x}) \right]^n \\
 &= \left[\frac{1}{2} (2e^x) \right]^n
 \end{aligned}$$

1 See appendix 1

$$= (e^x)^n$$

$$\therefore \text{RHS} = \text{LHS}$$

d) Show that $\frac{d}{dx}(\cosh x) = \sinh x$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS } \frac{d}{dx}(\cosh x) &= \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \right) \\ &= \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \\ &= \sinh x \\ \therefore \text{LHS} &= \text{RHS} \end{aligned}$$

These hyperbolic identities are compared to similar trigonometric identities in table 3.1

Hyperbolic identity	Similar trigonometric identity
1) $\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$	$\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$
2) $\cosh(2x) = 1 + 2 \sinh^2 x$	$\cos(2x) = 1 - 2 \sin^2 x$
3) $(\cosh x + \sinh x)^n = \cosh nx + \sinh nx$	DeMoivre's theorem which states: $(r \operatorname{cis} x)^n$ or $(r \cos x + r i \sin x)^n$ where $i = \sqrt{-1}$ $= r^n \cos nx + r^n i \sin nx$
4) $\frac{d}{dx}(\cosh x) = \sinh x$	$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x$

table 3.1- hyperbolic and trigonometric identities.

There appears to be similar identities within the circular and hyperbolic functions, however, $-\left[(\sinh x)^2\right]$ corresponds to $(\sin x)^2$ whilst $\cosh x$ corresponds to $\cos x$.

\therefore three other hyperbolic functions would be:

i) $\cosh(x+y) = \cosh x \cosh y + \sinh x \sinh y$

(by substituting $-\sinh x$ for $\sin x$ in the trigonometric identity $\cos(x+y) = \cos x \cos y - \sin x \sin y$)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RHS } \cosh x \cosh y + \sinh x \sinh y &= \frac{1}{2} (e^x + e^{-x}) \times \frac{1}{2} (e^y + e^{-y}) + \frac{1}{2} (e^x - e^{-x}) \times \frac{1}{2} (e^y - e^{-y}) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} (e^{x+y} + e^{x-y} + e^{y-x} + e^{-x-y}) + \frac{1}{4} (e^{x+y} - e^{x-y} - e^{y-x} + e^{-x-y}) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} (2e^{x+y} + 2e^{-x-y}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (e^{x+y} + e^{-(x+y)}) \\ &= \cosh(x+y) \\ &= \text{LHS} \end{aligned}$$

ii) $\frac{d}{dx}(\sinh x) = \cosh x$

(from the trigonometric identity $\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{LHS } \frac{d(\sinh x)}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{2} (e^x - e^{-x}) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (e^x + e^{-x}) \\
 &= \cosh x \\
 &= \text{RHS}
 \end{aligned}$$

iii) $\sinh(x-y) = \sinh y \cosh x - \cosh y \sinh x$
 (from the trigonometric identity $\sin(x-y) = \sin x \cos y - \cos x \sin y$)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{RHS } \cosh x \sinh y - \cosh y \sinh x &= \frac{1}{2} (e^y - e^{-y}) \times \frac{1}{2} (e^x + e^{-x}) - \frac{1}{2} (e^x - e^{-x}) \times \frac{1}{2} (e^y + e^{-y}) \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} (e^{y+x} + e^{y-x} - e^{x-y} - e^{-x-y}) - \frac{1}{4} (e^{x+y} - e^{y-x} + e^{x-y} - e^{-y-x}) \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} (2e^{x-y} - 2e^{y-x}) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (e^{x-y} - e^{-(x-y)}) \\
 &= \sinh(x-y) \\
 &= \text{LHS}
 \end{aligned}$$

QUESTION 3- INVERSE HYPERBOLIC FUNCTIONS

$$a) 4 \sinh x = 3$$

$$\therefore 4 \left[\frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x}) \right] = 3$$

multiply both sides by e^x ,

$$\therefore 2e^x(e^x - e^{-x}) = 3e^x$$

$$2e^{2x} - 2 = 3e^x$$

$$\therefore 2e^{2x} - 3e^x - 2 = 0$$

let $e^x = A$

$$\therefore 2e^{2x} - 3e^x - 2 = 2A^2 - 3A - 2$$

$$\therefore 2A^2 - 3A - 2 = 0$$

Using the general quadratic solution:

$$A = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{(b^2 - 4ac)}}{2a} \quad \text{where } a = 2, b = -3 \text{ and } c = -2$$

$$\text{then } A = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{[9 - 4(2)(-2)]}}{4}$$

$$= \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{25}}{4}$$

$$e^x = \frac{3 \pm 5}{4}$$

$$\therefore x = \log_e \left(\frac{3 \pm 5}{4} \right)$$

but $\frac{3 \pm 5}{4} > 0$ because the logarithm can only be taken of a positive number

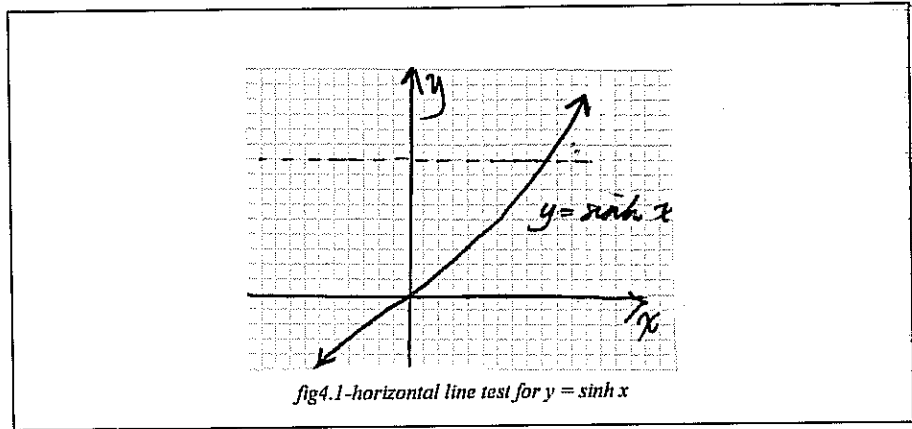
$$\begin{aligned} \therefore x &= \log_e \frac{3 + 5}{4} \\ &= \log_e 2 \end{aligned}$$

b) Sinh has an inverse function over domain of real numbers as it's a one-to-one function. Cosh doesn't because it is many-to-one so its inverse is a one-to-many function. This is demonstrated using the horizontal line test (given y -value must have only one x -value). The graph of $y = \sinh x$ (fig4.1 on the next page) passes this test, whilst the graph of $y = \cosh x$ (fig4.2) fails.

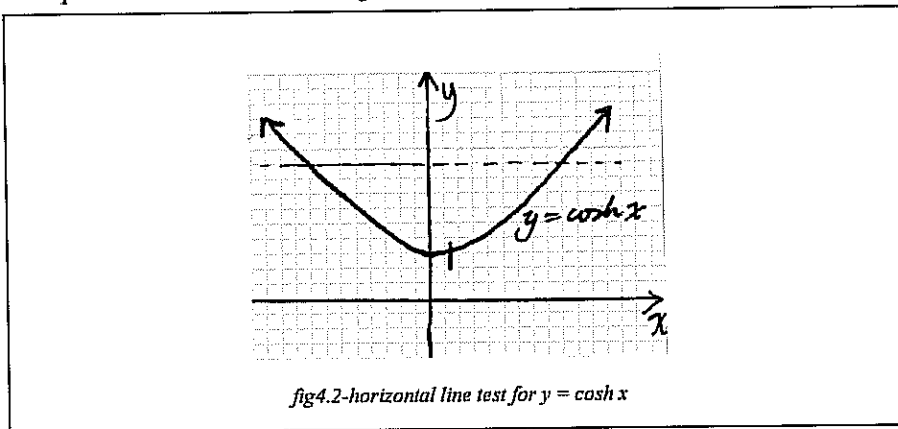
For $y = \cosh x$ to have inverse function, domain of $y = \cosh x$ must be restricted to $[0, \infty)$.

c) Let \sinh^{-1} be inverse of the \sinh function. The domain of a function is the range of its inverse, and range of a function is the domain of its inverse, the domain and range of $y = \sinh^{-1} x$ are:

$$\text{Domain } (y = \sinh^{-1} x) = (-\infty, \infty); \text{ Range } (y = \sinh^{-1} x) = (-\infty, \infty)$$



Components of $\sinh x$ are exponential functions whose inverse functions are logarithms, therefore



$\sinh^{-1} x$ can be expressed as a logarithm:

$$\text{let } \sinh^{-1} x = y$$

$$\therefore x = \sinh y$$

$$\therefore x = \frac{1}{2} (e^y - e^{-y})$$

multiply both sides by e^y ,

$$\therefore xe^y = \frac{1}{2} e^y (e^y - e^{-y})$$

$$2xe^y = e^{2y} - 1$$

$$\therefore 0 = e^{2y} - 2xe^y - 1$$

$$\text{let } e^y = A$$

$$\therefore 0 = e^{2y} - 2xe^y - 1$$

$$\text{becomes } 0 = A^2 - 2xA - 1$$

using the general quadratic solution,

$$A = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{(b^2 - 4ac)}}{2a} \text{ where } a = 1, b = -2x \text{ and } c = -1$$

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \frac{2x \pm \sqrt{[4x^2 - 4(1)(-1)]}}{2} \\ &= \frac{2x \pm \sqrt{(4x^2 + 4)}}{2} \end{aligned}$$

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

$$= \frac{2x \pm 2\sqrt{x^2+1}}{2}$$

$$= x \pm \sqrt{x^2+1}$$

but since $A = e^y$,

$$e^y = x \pm \sqrt{x^2+1}$$

$$\therefore y = \log_e(x \pm \sqrt{x^2+1})$$

but $x \pm \sqrt{x^2+1} > 0$, because only positive logarithms can be taken,

$$\therefore \sinh^{-1} x = \log_e(x + \sqrt{x^2+1}) \text{ where } x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ ----(1)}$$

Check Question 3a:

$$4 \sinh x = 3$$

$$\sinh x = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$x = \sinh^{-1} \frac{3}{4}$$

substitute this into ----(1)

$$\sinh^{-1} \frac{3}{4} = \log_e \left(\frac{3}{4} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 + 1} \right)$$

$$= \log_e \left(\frac{3}{4} + \sqrt{\frac{9}{16} + 1} \right)$$

$$= \log_e \left(\frac{3}{4} + \sqrt{\frac{9+16}{16}} \right)$$

$$= \log_e \left(\frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{4}\sqrt{25} \right)$$

$$= \log_e 2$$

QUESTION 4- VECTORS AND THEIR RELATIONS TO HYPERBOLIC FUNCTIONS.

Verify that if the point P has position vector $\mathbf{r} = \cos \theta \mathbf{i} + \sin \theta \mathbf{j}$, where θ is any real number, then it is on the unit circle.

Assuming:

- θ is not defined as an angle
- P has position vector $\mathbf{r} = \cos \theta \mathbf{i} + \sin \theta \mathbf{j}$
- \mathbf{i} is unit vector in x direction
- \mathbf{j} is unit vector in y direction

\therefore parametric equations are:

$$x = \cos \theta$$

$$y = \sin \theta$$

$$\text{but } \sin \theta = \pm \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 \theta}$$

$$\therefore y = \pm \sqrt{1 - x^2}$$

$$\therefore y^2 + x^2 = 1$$

This is the equation for a unit circle, hence P is on the unit circle (fig5.1).

By definition, in a unit circle, as $\cos \theta$ is x coordinate and $\sin \theta$ is y coordinate, any point on the unit circle can be represented by $\cos \theta \mathbf{i} + \sin \theta \mathbf{j}$.

The cartesian equation of the locus of a point Q, with position vector $\mathbf{r} = \cosh t \mathbf{i} + \sinh t \mathbf{j}$, where $t \in \mathbb{R}$ can be found:

Assuming:

- \mathbf{i} is unit vector in x direction
- \mathbf{j} is unit vector in y direction

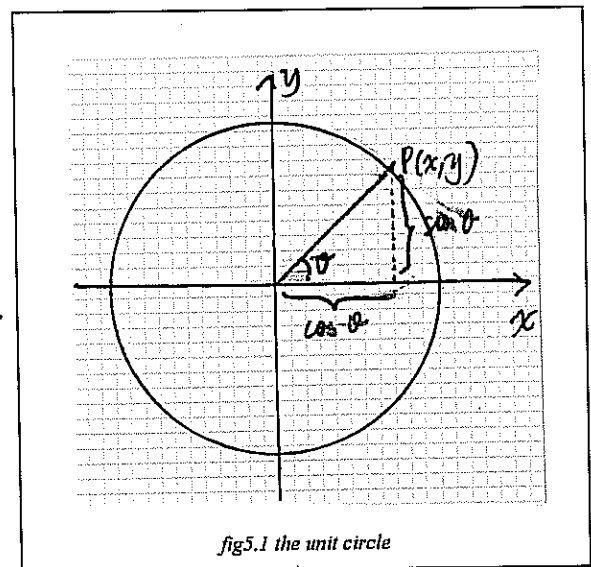
parametric equations:

$$x = \cosh t = \frac{1}{2} (e^t + e^{-t})$$

$$y = \sinh t = \frac{1}{2} (e^t - e^{-t})$$

$$\text{so } \begin{aligned} x^2 &= \cosh^2 t \\ y^2 &= \sinh^2 t \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore x^2 - y^2 = \cosh^2 t - \sinh^2 t = 1$$



∴ the equation of locus is

$$x^2 - y^2 = 1$$

QUESTION 5- INTERPRETATION OF THE VARIABLE T

a) Area of a circle is:

$$\pi r^2$$

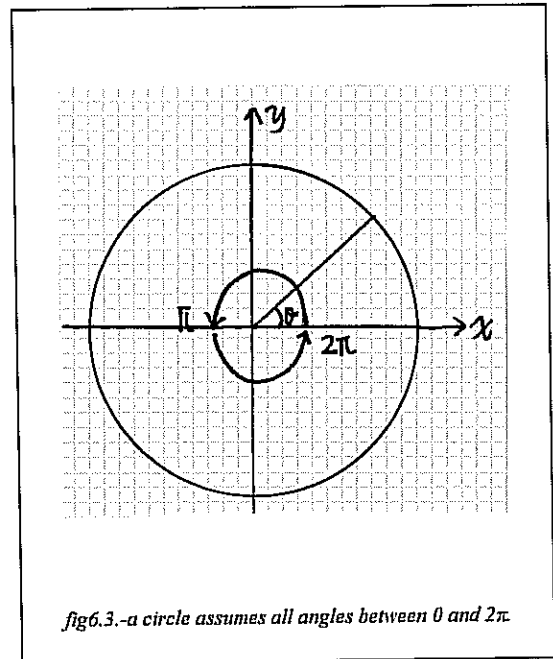
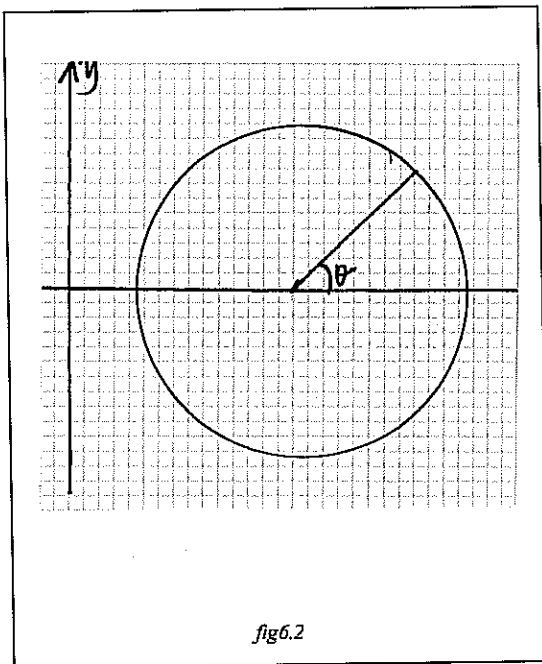
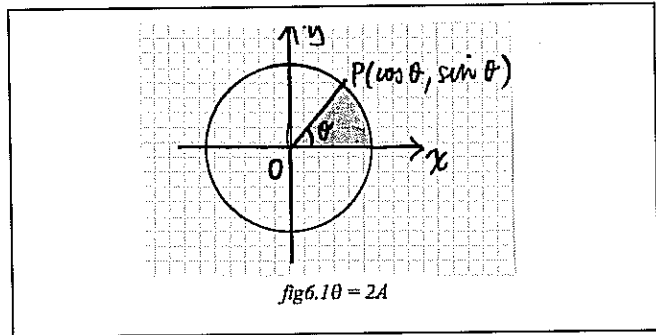
\therefore area of the region A (fig6.1) is:

$$\frac{\pi r^2 \theta}{2\pi}$$

$$= \frac{r^2 \theta}{2}$$

$$\therefore \theta = \frac{2A}{r^2} \quad \text{but } r = 1$$

$$\therefore \theta = 2A$$



b i) The variable t in $\mathbf{r} = \cosh t \mathbf{i} + \sinh t \mathbf{j}$ cannot be similarly interpreted as an angle because:
 • in a), angle θ (taken from centre of circle to perimeter and bounded by the x-axis-fig6.2) is defined as $0 < \theta < 2\pi$ ie. it is periodic. This is possible for a circle because it is a continuous function which assumes the full range of angles (fig6.3).

ie. $\mathbf{r}(\theta) = \mathbf{r}(\theta + 2\pi)$ ----(1)

This periodicity can be demonstrated by proving ---- (1).

LHS $\mathbf{r}(\theta) = \cos\theta \mathbf{i} + \sin\theta \mathbf{j}$

RHS $\mathbf{r}(\theta + 2\pi) = \cos(\theta + 2\pi) \mathbf{i} + \sin(\theta + 2\pi) \mathbf{j}$

but $\cos\theta = \cos(\theta + 2\pi)$ and $\sin\theta = \sin(\theta + 2\pi)$, \therefore LHS = RHS

• the angle t in the hyperbola is taken from its focus to the curve and bounded by the x-axis (fig6.4). If t was an angle, it would be restricted and not assume the full range.

It is also non-periodic as shown below using same proof for the periodicity of the angles in the circle:

assume $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(t + 2\pi)$

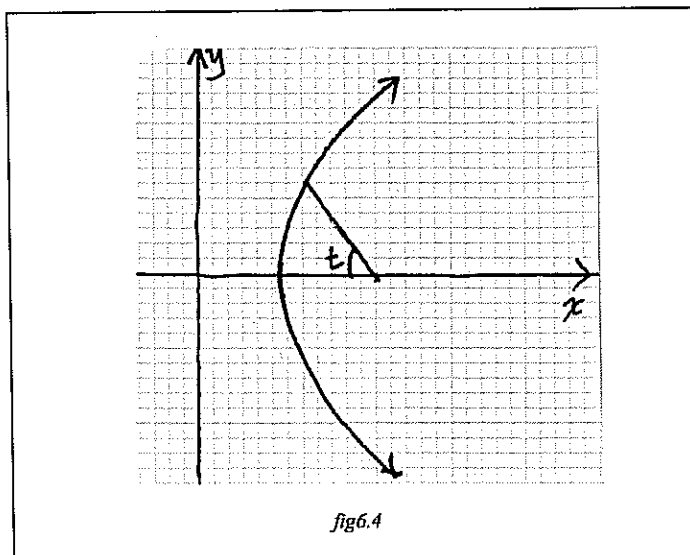
LHS $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cosh t \mathbf{i} + \sinh t \mathbf{j}$

RHS $\cosh(t + 2\pi) \mathbf{i} + \sinh(t + 2\pi) \mathbf{j}$

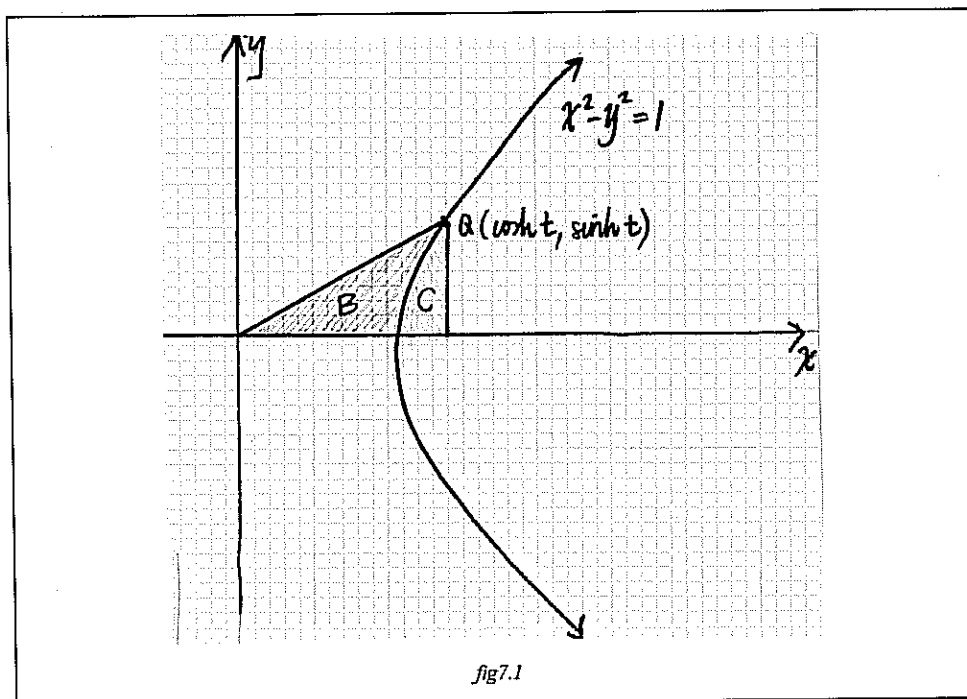
but $\cosh(t + 2\pi) = (e^{t+2\pi} + e^{-(t+2\pi)}) \dots (2)$

and $\cosh t = (e^t + e^{-t}) \dots (3)$

Equation (2) \neq (3), hence t is not periodic, so cannot be an angle.



ii) Show that $t = 2B$, $B \geq 0$ because it's the magnitude of the shaded area. Hence, $t \geq 0$.



From fig 7.1, Area B = Area (C + B) - Area C

Area C

$$x^2 - y^2 = 1$$

$$\therefore y = \pm\sqrt{(x^2 - 1)}$$

but C is bounded by the curve, the x-axis and $x = \cosh t$, hence $y = \sqrt{(x^2 - 1)}$ should be used.

When $y = 0$,

$$x^2 - 0 = 1$$

$$\therefore x = \pm 1$$

by inspection, $x = 1$.

hence, limits of integration are $x = 1$ & $x = \cosh t$.

$$\therefore C = \int_1^{\cosh t} \sqrt{(x^2 - 1)} dx$$

$$\text{let } x = \cosh u \quad \frac{du}{dx} = \sinh u$$

by change of variable rule:

$$\int f(x) dx = \int f(u) \frac{dx}{du} du$$

$$\text{so } C = \int_1^{\cosh t} \sqrt{(\cosh^2 u - 1)} \frac{dx}{du} du$$

becomes:

$$C = \int_0^t \sqrt{(\cosh^2 u - 1)} \sinh u du$$

from the hyperbolic identity, $\cosh^2 u - 1 = \sinh^2 u$

$$\therefore C = \int_0^t \sqrt{(\sinh^2 u)} \sinh u du$$

$$= \int_0^t \sinh u \sinh u du$$

$$= \int_0^t \sinh^2 u du$$

$$\cosh 2u = 1 + 2 \sinh^2 u \quad \therefore \sinh^2 u = \frac{1}{2}(\cosh 2u - 1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t \cosh^2 u - 1 du$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \sinh 2u - u \right]_0^t$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \sinh 2t - t \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \sinh 2t - \frac{1}{2} t$$

Area (B+C)

$$= (\cosh t)(\sinh t) \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{4} (e^{2t} - e^{-2t}) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{8} (e^{2t} - e^{-2t})$$

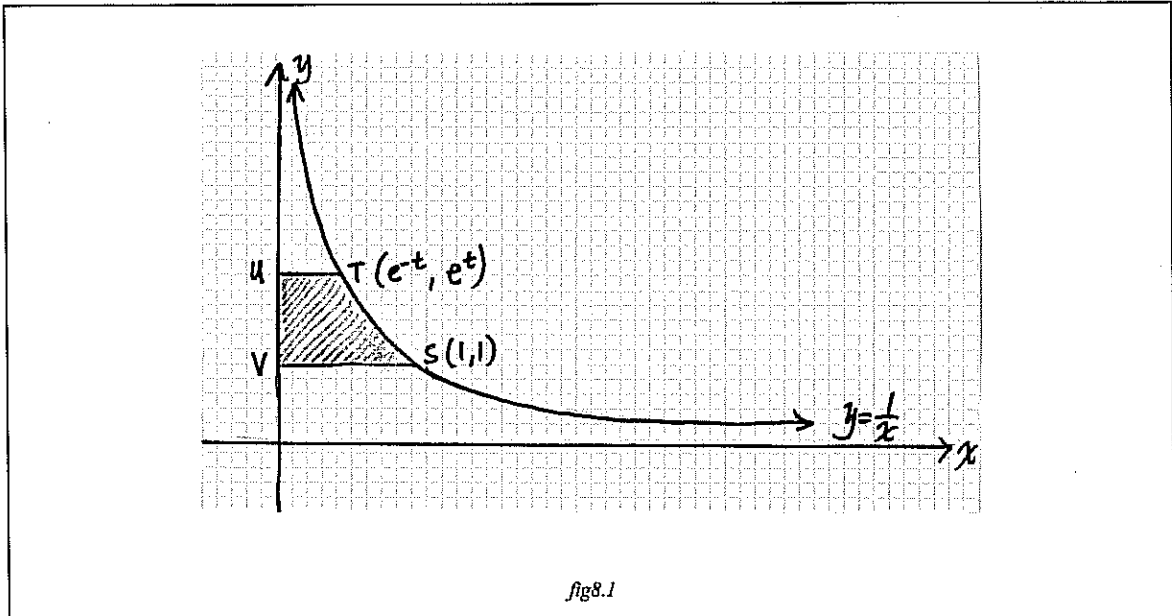
$$= \frac{1}{4} \sinh 2t$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area B} &= \text{Area (B+C)} - \text{Area C} \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \sinh 2t - \left(\frac{1}{4} \sinh 2t - \frac{1}{2}t \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}t \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore t = 2B$$

QUESTION 6- ALTERNATE PROOF FOR T = 2B.

a) Show that shaded region USTV in fig8.1 has area t.



let the shaded region $USTV = A$, bounded by the curve $y = \frac{1}{x}$, $y = e^t$, $y = 1$ and y -axis

then $A = \int_1^{e^t} x \, dy$ because A is between a curve and the y -axis, but $y = \frac{1}{x} \therefore x = \frac{1}{y}$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore A &= \int_1^{e^t} \frac{1}{y} \, dy \\ &= [\log_e y]_1^{e^t} \\ &= \log_e e^t - \log_e 1 \\ &= t \end{aligned}$$

b)

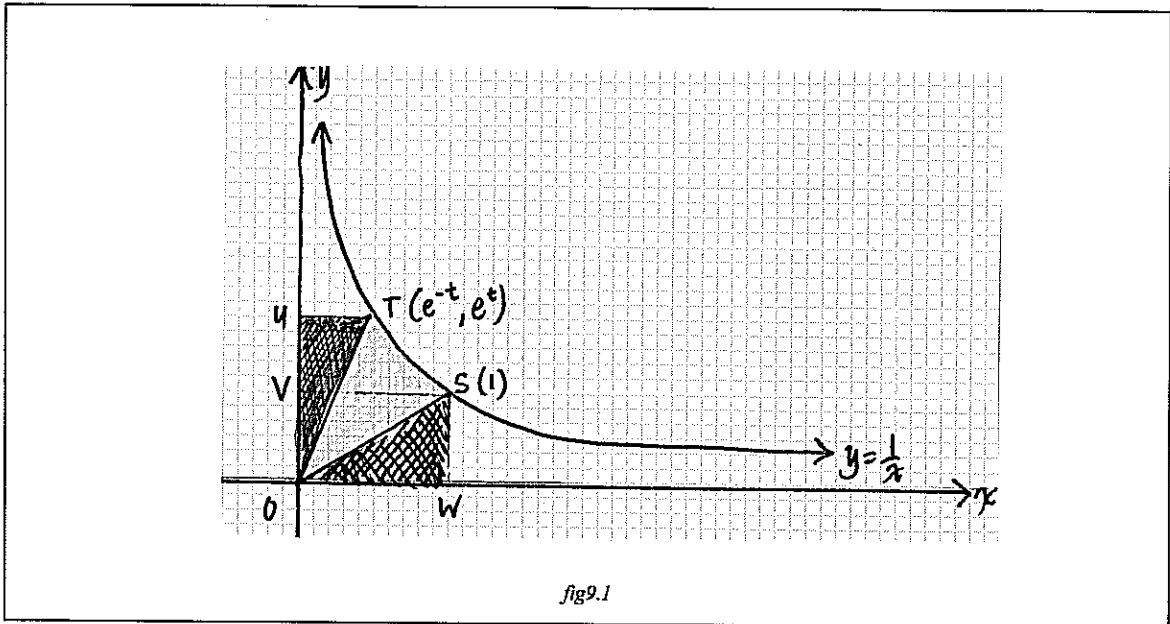


fig9.1

Show that green-shaded region OST (fig9.1) has area t .

Let green-shaded region OST = A

red-shaded region OUT = B
 $= \frac{1}{2} \times e^t \times e^{-t}$
 $= \frac{1}{2}$

blue-shaded region OSW = C
 $= \frac{1}{2} \times 1 \times 1$
 $= \frac{1}{2}$

area UVST = D
 $= t$ (from Question 6a)

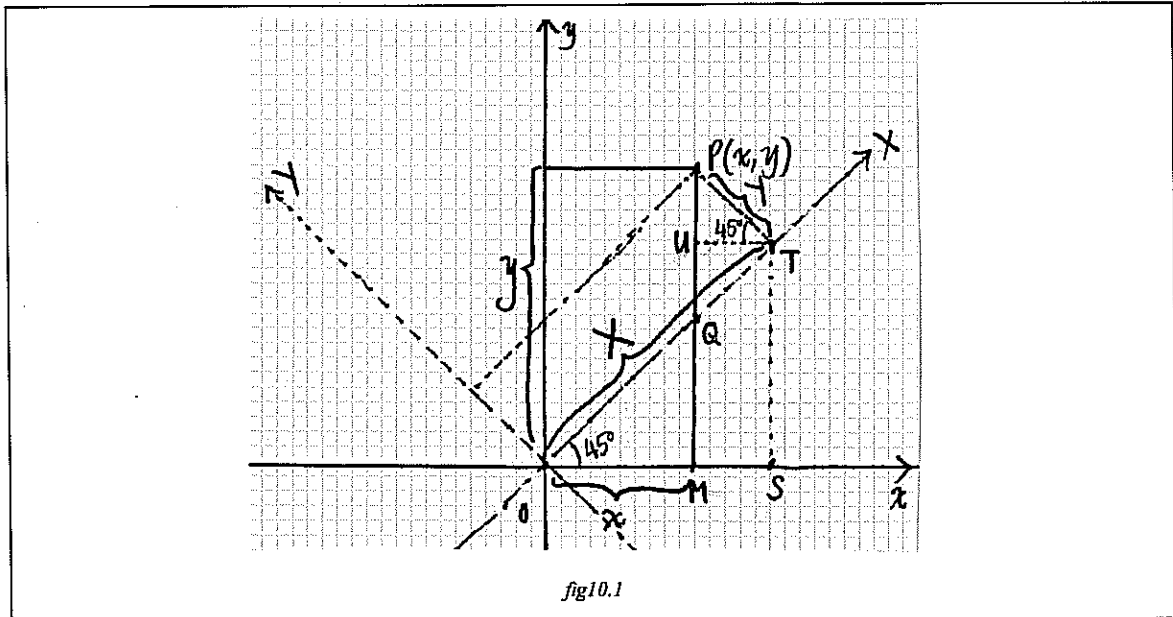
area VSWO = E
 $= 1 \times 1$
 $= 1$

Area A = area (D+E) - area (B+C)
 $= (t + 1) - \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\right)$

$$= t + 1 - 1$$

$$= t$$

c)



New X and Y axes inclined at 45° to the original x-y axes introduced (fig10.1). Show that point P (x, y) relative to the original axes becomes (X, Y) relative to the new axes where:

$$X = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x + y)$$

$$Y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x - y)$$

This problem was dealt with in two parts. Part 1 approached from the x-axis point-of-view. Part 2 approached from y-axis point-of-view. The results were incorporated.

PART 1- from fig10.1,

$$x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} OQ \text{ -----(1)}$$

$$\text{and } OQ = OT - QT$$

$$\text{but } OT = X$$

$$\therefore OQ = X - QT \text{ -----(2)}$$

$$\text{However, } \frac{UT}{QT} = \cos 45^\circ \text{ (by similar triangles)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\therefore QT = \sqrt{2} UT \text{ -----(3)}$$

$$\text{but, } \frac{UT}{PT} = \cos 45^\circ \text{ (by similar triangles)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\text{and } PT = Y$$

$$\therefore \frac{UT}{Y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\therefore UT = \frac{Y}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Substitute above into -----(3)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{hence, } QT &= \sqrt{2} \frac{Y}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= Y \end{aligned}$$

Substitute above into -----(2)

$$\text{giving, } OQ = X - Y$$

Substitute above into -----(1)

$$\therefore x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (X - Y) \text{ ----(4)}$$

make X subject,

$$\therefore \frac{X}{\sqrt{2}} = x + \frac{Y}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\therefore X = \sqrt{2} x + Y \text{ ----(5)}$$

making Y subject,

$$\therefore \frac{Y}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{X}{\sqrt{2}} - x$$

$$\therefore Y = X - \sqrt{2} x \text{ -----(6)}$$

PART 2- from fig10.1,

$$y = NP = NU + UP$$

$$\text{but } UP = \frac{Y}{\sqrt{2}} \text{ (by similar triangles)}$$

$$\text{and } NU = ST = \frac{X}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\therefore y = \frac{X}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{Y}{\sqrt{2}} \text{ -----(7)}$$

Substitute (5) into (7)

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore y &= \frac{Y}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\sqrt{2}x + Y) \\ &= \frac{2Y}{\sqrt{2}} + x \\ &= \sqrt{2}Y + x\end{aligned}$$

making Y subject,

$$\therefore Y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(y - x) \text{ ----(8)}$$

Substituting (6) into (7)

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore y &= \frac{X}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(X - \sqrt{2}x) \\ &= \frac{2X}{\sqrt{2}} - x \\ &= \sqrt{2}X - x\end{aligned}$$

making X subject,

$$\therefore X = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(y + x) \text{ ----(9)}$$

equations are identical those given.

d i) From Question 6c, use equations (4) and (8).

Equation (4):

$$x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(X - Y)$$

and equation (8):

$$y = \frac{X}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{Y}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Substitute above 2 equations into $y = \frac{1}{x}$

$$\therefore \frac{X}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{Y}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(X - Y)}$$

$$\therefore \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(X + Y)\right] \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(X - Y)\right] = 1$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{2}(X^2 - Y^2) = 1$$

$$\therefore X^2 - Y^2 = 2 \text{ (equation of hyperbola relative to X-Y axes).}$$

ii) Using equations (8) and (9) from Question 6c:

$$Y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(y - x)$$

$$X = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(y + x)$$

S-coordinate on x - y axes is (1,1). On X-Y axes:

$$X = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1 + 1) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2}$$

$$Y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1 - 1) = 0$$

\therefore S-coordinate on X-Y axes is $(\sqrt{2}, 0)$.

T-coordinate on x - y axes is (e^t, e^t) . On X-Y axes:

$$X = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(e^t + e^t)$$

multiply by $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2}}$ (rationalize denominator)

$$\therefore X = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}}(e^t + e^t) = \sqrt{2} \cosh t$$

$$Y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(e^t - e^t) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}}(e^t - e^t) = \sqrt{2} \sinh t$$

\therefore T-coordinate on XY axes is $(\sqrt{2} \cosh t, \sqrt{2} \sinh t)$. See fig11.1

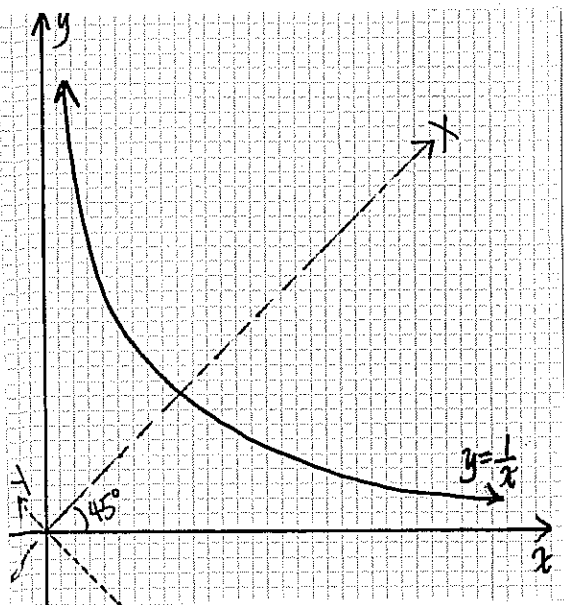


fig11.1a graph of $y = 1/x$ on the original x - y axes.

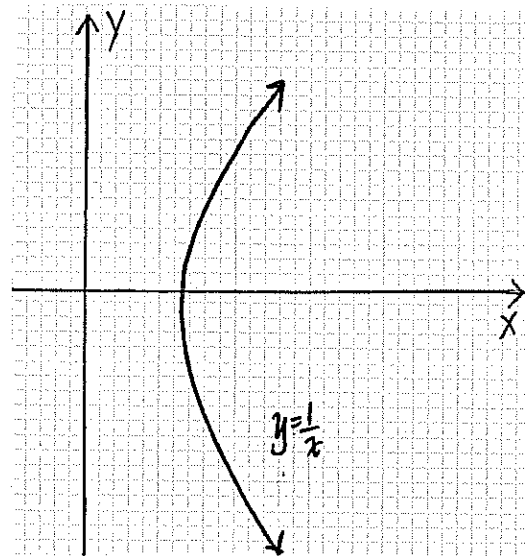


fig11.1b graph of $y = 1/x$ on the new X - Y axes.

Fig11.1b shows this graph resembling that of $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ in Question 5b.

Comparing graphs of $X^2 - Y^2 = 2$ and $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ on same set of axes (fig11.2) shows $X^2 - Y^2 = 2$ to be a dilated version of $x^2 - y^2 = 1$.

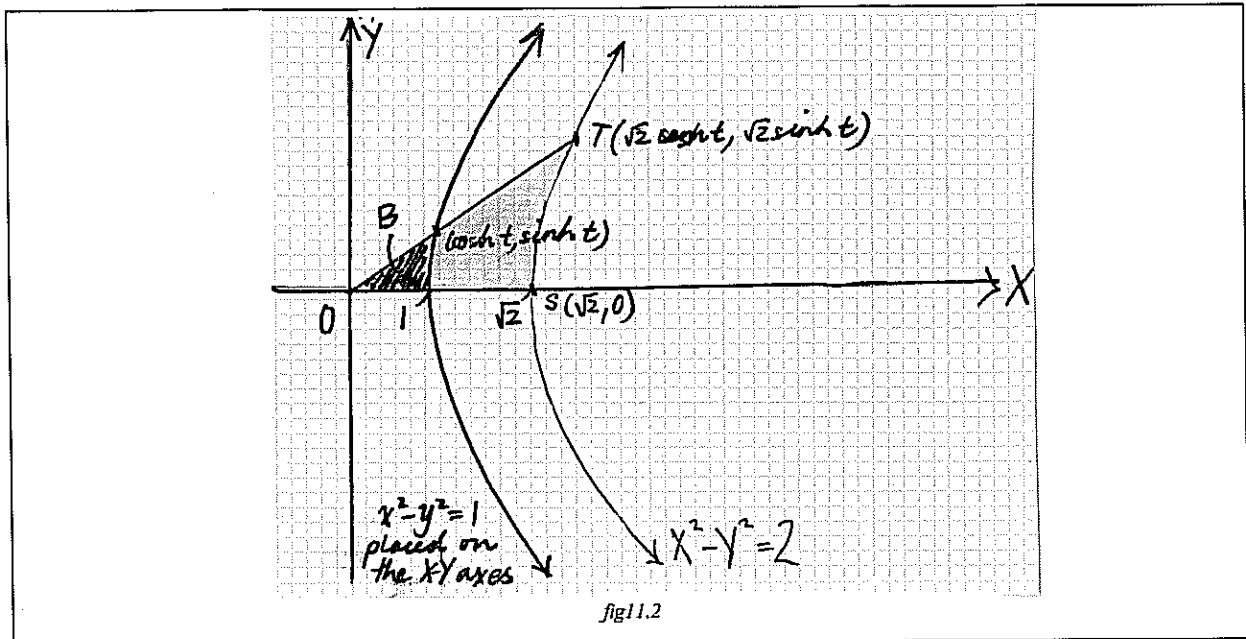
Upon further inspection, this is true. The relative x and y coordinates on $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ have been multiplied by a factor of $\sqrt{2}$ to obtain corresponding coordinates on $X^2 - Y^2 = 2$.

eg. The x -intercept $(1,0)$ on $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ curve, when dilated by a factor of $\sqrt{2}$, gives coordinate $(\sqrt{2},0)$, corresponding to x -intercept on $X^2 - Y^2 = 2$ curve.

Hence, the $X^2 - Y^2 = 2$ graph is the $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ graph dilated by a factor of $\sqrt{2}$.

As dilations multiply lengths of segments by the magnitude of a factor k , the area enclosed by the segment will subsequently increase by the magnitude of that factor squared ie. area will increase by factor of k^2 .

This reasoning is applied to evaluate the green-shaded area OST in $X^2 - Y^2 = 2$ curve (fig11.2). OST corresponds to the blue-shaded area with magnitude B in the graph of $x^2 - y^2 = 1$. Because $X^2 - Y^2 = 2$ is a dilation of $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ by a factor of $\sqrt{2}$,



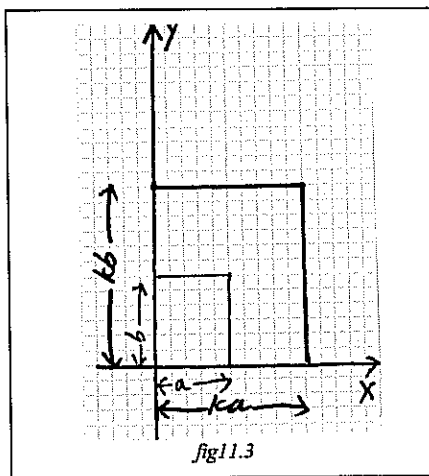
Area OST = B × (√2)²

∴ Area OST = 2B

in Question 6b, area OST = t

∴ t = 2B

Dilation factor of √2 is directly related to the function X² - Y² = 2. Consider rectangle in fig11.3, placed on an X-Y axes where length a = X and length b = Y



The dilation factor *k* is applied, ∴ magnitude of distance *x* from the origin (0,0) increases by *k*.
∴ dilation factor affects distance *x* from origin.

This is true for circular and hyperbolic functions:

- Circular functions- dilation factor affects radius of the circle (the distance on the curve furthest away from the origin; also the x-intercept). Take circle with equation:
 $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ ---- (1)

x-intercept occurs when y = 0 ie.at point (1,0)

When dilated by a factor of 2, x value becomes:

1 × 2 = 2

y value:
 $0 \times 2 = 0$

Hence, the new x-intercept after dilation occurs at (2,0)- fig11.4. This is also the radius, which means the radius has doubled.

Substituting (2,0) into -----(1): $2^2 + 0^2 = 4$

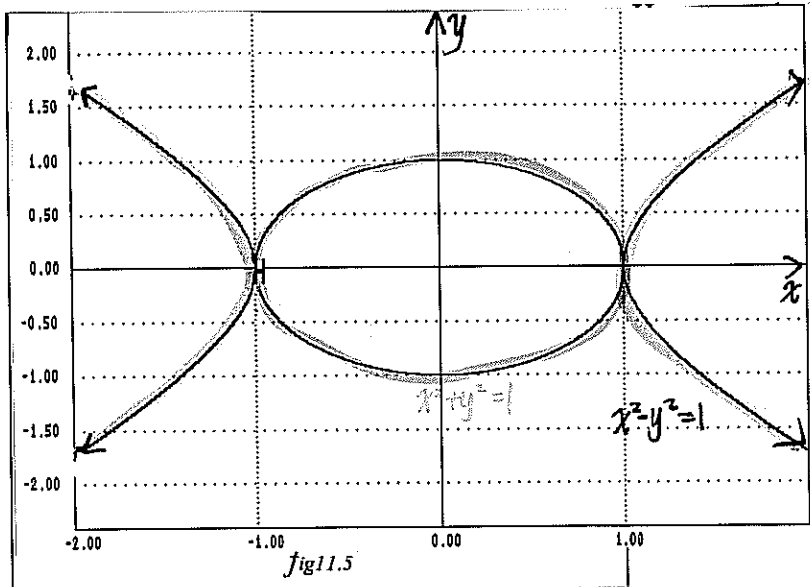
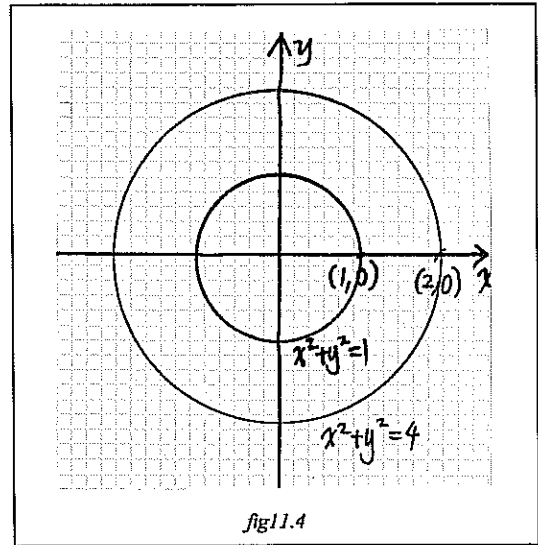
∴ circular equation after dilation is:
 $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

which can be expressed as $x^2 + y^2 = c$

In this form, c is the square of the dilation factor.

This same reasoning can be applied to the hyperbolic function:

$x^2 - y^2 = 1$ -----(2) ,can be expressed in the form
 $x^2 - y^2 = c$.



difference is:

the x is the point on equation (1) from the origin, in equation (2), distance x is the distance from the vertex to the origin (fig11.5).

$X^2 - Y^2 = 2$ is the dilation of equation (1) by a factor of $\sqrt{2}$.

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- my friends for their support and understanding, for not getting impatient with me and my 'stress attacks'
- Geraldine for helping me cut words.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1- Working out $\sinh^2 x$

$$\begin{aligned}\sinh^2 x &= \left[\frac{1}{2} (e^x - e^{-x}) \right]^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{4} (e^{2x} - 2 + e^{-2x})\end{aligned}$$

Appendix 2- Dilation

Proof that when lengths of segments are multiplied by the magnitude of a factor k , the area enclosed by the segment will subsequently increase by the magnitude of that factor squared ie. the area will increase by a factor of k^2 .

This can be illustrated by using the rectangle with side length a and width b (fig11.3).

The area of this rectangle (A) is:

$$\begin{aligned}A &= \text{length} \times \text{width} \\ &= ab\end{aligned}$$

When a and b are multiplied by a factor k ie. dilated, the new length becomes ka and the new width becomes kb .

However, the new area (A_1) is:

$$\begin{aligned}A_1 &= \text{length} \times \text{width} \\ &= ka \times kb \\ &= k^2 ab\end{aligned}$$

Hence, the area has increased by a factor of k^2 .