For example, if $g(x) = x^{10}$, then

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \int \left(x^{10} - \frac{1}{x^{10}} \right) dx = \frac{x^{11}}{22} + \frac{1}{18x^9} (+C).$$

Or try $g(x) = \tan x$. Then the indefinite integral for f(x) can be computed, using some trig identities, as

$$\frac{1}{2} \int (\tan x - \cot x) \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \left(-\ln\left(\frac{1}{2}\sin 2x\right) \right) + C$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2} \ln(\sin 2x) - \frac{1}{2} \ln\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + C.$$

By ignoring the constants, we can choose $f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \ln(\sin 2x)$. However, although $f'(x)^2 + 1$ will not then equal $\left(\frac{1}{2}\left(g(x) + \frac{1}{g(x)}\right)\right)^2$, things still come out nicely:

$$\int \sqrt{(f'(x))^2 + 1} \, dx = \int \sqrt{\cot^2 2x + 1} \, dx = \int \csc 2x \, dx$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2} \ln|\csc 2x + \cot 2x| + C \quad (\text{for } 0 \le x \le \frac{\pi}{2}).$$

We invite the reader to experiment with this algorithm and discover other examples.

References

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Arc Length and Pythagorean Triples

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In this note we give an example of how a computer algebra system can offer surprises even in the context of a standard calculus topic. When introducing the formula for arc length, some natural examples are the curves C_n which are given parametrically by $x = t^n$, $y = t^{n+1}$, $0 \le t \le 1$, (*n* is a positive integer). Many students have difficulty computing even the length of C_1 by hand, so this is a natural place to use a computer algebra system. The length of C_5 , for example, is

$$\frac{3431\sqrt{61}}{20736} + \frac{15625}{124416}\ln 5 - \frac{15625}{124416}\ln(-6 + \sqrt{61}).$$

As *n* increases, the results become increasingly unpleasant until, surprisingly, we find that the length of C_{20} is rational and equals $\frac{36495661067145135829027}{25798674916142804999323}$.

It is easy to see why this is so and to show that infinitely many of the lengths $L(C_n)$ are rational numbers. Using the standard formula $L = \int_a^b \sqrt{(x'(t))^2 + (y'(t))^2} dt$ for arc length, we have

$$L(C_n) = \int_0^1 t^{n-1} \sqrt{n^2 + (n+1)^2 t^2} \, dt.$$

After we make the successive substitutions $u = \frac{n+1}{n}t$ and $v = \sqrt{u^2 + 1}$, the integrand becomes $(v^2 - 1)^{(n-2)/2}v^2$.

We now take *n* to be even, say n = 2k. Then our integrand is just a finite sum of integer multiples of powers of *v*; that is,

$$(v^2 - 1)^{(n-2)/2}v^2 = \sum_{j=1}^k c_{2j}v^{2j}.$$

for some integers c_2, c_4, \ldots, c_{2k} . Integrating and substituting back, we find that

$$L(C_n) = \frac{n^{n+1}}{(n+1)^n} \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{c_{2j}}{2j+1} (u^2 + 1)^{(2j+1)/2} \Big|_0^{n+1}$$

and hence that

$$L(C_n) = \frac{n^{n+1}}{(n+1)^n} \sum_{j=1}^{n/2} \frac{c_{2j}}{2j+1} \left(\left(\frac{\sqrt{(n+1)^2 + n^2}}{n} \right)^{2j+1} - 1 \right).$$

This will be rational if $n^2 + (n + 1)^2$ is a perfect square; that is, if *n* and *n* + 1 are part of a Pythagorean triple. It is well known that there are infinitely many such pairs (see, for example [1, p. 164, Exer. 17]). In particular, if (a, a + 1, c) is a Pythagorean triple, so is (3a + 2c + 1, 3a + 2c + 2, 4a + 3c + 2). Note that the parity of the first term switches, so that by using this result twice we can go from one even case to another. Consequently, not only does C_{20} have a rational length, so does C_{696} , and also infinitely many other curves C_n .

References

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On the Convergence of Some Modified *p*-Series

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The series we consider, which we call (S, p)-series, are obtained from the *p*-series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ by removing all those terms in which the base *n* in the denominator contains a digit in a specified set *S*. For example, if $S = \{1, 2\}$, then our series is

_ 0 _

$$\frac{1}{3^{p}} + \frac{1}{4^{p}} + \dots + \frac{1}{9^{p}} + \frac{1}{30^{p}} + \frac{1}{33^{p}} + \frac{1}{34^{p}} + \dots + \frac{1}{40^{p}} + \frac{1}{43^{p}} + \frac{1}{44^{p}} + \dots$$