

**Lecture 5: 12.1 Coordinate systems.** A point  $P$  in the plane can be identified with an ordered pair of real numbers  $(a, b)$ , called coordinates, as follows. We pick an origin  $O$  and from it draw two perpendicular directed lines, called coordinate axes. One line is horizontal with positive direction to the right, called the  $x$ -axis, and the other line is vertical with positive direction going up, called the  $y$ -axis. We reach the point  $P(a, b)$  by going  $a$  units from the origin in the  $x$  direction and  $b$  units in the  $y$  direction. The coordinate system so obtained is called rectangular or Cartesian coordinates. (There are other coordinate systems e.g. polar coordinates.) We remark that it was essential to decide that the  $x$ -axis was directed to the right and the  $y$ -axis was directed up. This is called positive orientation. If we change the direction of the  $y$ -axis so it points down then the sign of the  $y$ -coordinate change. The positive orientation of the  $x-y$  plane is determined by that if we turn a quarter of a turn counter clockwise from the positive  $x$ -axis we reach the positive  $y$ -axis.

A point  $P$  in space can be represented by an ordered triple  $(a, b, c)$  of real numbers as follows. We pick an origin  $O$  and from it draw three perpendicular directed lines, called coordinate axes. We think of two of the directions, the  $x$ -axis and the  $y$ -axis as lying in the horizontal plane and the  $z$ -axis as being directed vertically upward. Furthermore, seen from the side of the positive  $z$ -direction, we ask that the  $x$ -axis and  $y$ -axis form a positive orientation of the horizontal plane. This is called a positively oriented coordinate system. It is also given by the right-hand-rule; If you curl your fingers of the right hand around the  $z$ -axis in the direction of a 90 degree counter clockwise turn from the positive  $x$ -axis to the positive  $y$ -axis the your thumb should point in the positive  $z$ -axis. Imagine a room with the origin in the opposite corner of where you are standing. The floor is formed by the  $x$ -axis and  $y$ -axis, the wall to the left is formed by the  $x$ -axis and  $z$ -axis and the wall to the right is formed by the  $y$ -axis and  $z$ -axis. The point  $P(a, b, c)$  is reached by going  $a$  units from the origin in the  $x$  direction,  $b$  units in the  $y$  direction and then  $c$  units in the  $z$  direction. It is called the rectangular coordinate system, since it determine a rectangular box with edges of length  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ .

**Ex.** Note that one equation  $y = 5$  in two dimensions determine a line, whereas in three dimensions it determines a plane.

**Distance formula** In two dimensions the distance between a point  $P_1(x_1, y_1)$  and a point  $P_2(x_2, y_2)$  is given by the Pythagorean Theorem:

$$(12.1.1) \quad |P_1 P_2| = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

In three dimensions the distance between points  $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  and  $P_2(x_2, y_2, z_2)$  is

$$(12.1.2) \quad |P_1 P_2| = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$$

For the proof we note that we are looking for the length  $d$  of the diagonal of a rectangular box with edges of length  $a = |x_2 - x_1|$ ,  $b = |y_2 - y_1|$  and  $c = |z_2 - z_1|$ . The length of the diagonal in the two dimensional rectangle with sides  $a$  and  $c$  is by the Pythagorean theorem  $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ . The diagonal of the box is then also the diagonal of a two dimensional rectangle with one side of length  $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$  and the other side of length  $c$  so by the Pythagorean theorem  $d = \sqrt{(\sqrt{a^2 + b^2})^2 + c^2} = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}$ .

**Ex.** Find the eq. for a sphere with radius  $r$  and center at  $C(h, k, l)$ .

**Sol.** By definition, the sphere is the set of points  $P(x, y, z)$  at distance  $r$  from  $C(h, k, l)$ ,  $|CP| = r$  or  $|CP|^2 = r^2$ . By (12.1.2) this is given by

$$(12.1.3) \quad (x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 + (z - l)^2 = r^2.$$

**12.2: Vectors.** Imagine a particle moving along a path or yourself driving on a car on a road. At each point the velocity  $\mathbf{v}$  has both a **magnitude** (the speed that is measured by the car's meter) and a **direction** in which it is going (that you need a compass to measure). Such a quantity is called a **vector**. It is represented by a directed line segment or arrow. In a sense two vectors are the same if they have the same magnitude and direction even if they start from different points.

**Def.** A two dimensional **vector**  $\mathbf{a}$  is an ordered pair of real numbers  $\langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$  called components. A three dimensional **vector**  $\mathbf{a}$  is an ordered triple of real numbers  $\langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$  called components. A representative of the vector  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$  is a directed line segment from a point  $A(x, y)$  to a point  $B(x + a_1, y + a_2)$ . A particular representative is the position vector of the point  $P(a_1, a_2)$  which is the directed line segment from the origin  $O$  to  $P$ .

**Length** The length or magnitude of a 2-dim. vector  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$  is  $|\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2}$ . The length of a 3-dim. vector  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$  is

$$(12.2.1) \quad |\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2}.$$

**Vector addition** The vector addition of two 2-dim. vectors  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2 \rangle$  is  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \langle a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2 \rangle$ . The vector addition of two 3-dim. vectors  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$  is

$$(12.2.2) \quad \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \langle a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, a_3 + b_3 \rangle.$$

Vector addition can also be represented **geometrically**, as apposed to the above algebraic definition, by either the triangle law or the parallelogram law. The triangle law is as follows. Let the vector  $\mathbf{a}$  start at the origin and let the vector  $\mathbf{b}$  start from where  $\mathbf{a}$  ends. The vector so formed from the origin to the end of  $\mathbf{b}$  is the vector addition  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ . The parallelogram law is as follows. Let the vectors  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  start from the origin and form the parallelogram with sides given by  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ . The diagonal of the parallelogram is  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$ .

**Ex. Vector addition of forces** If we have two forces  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathbf{F}'$  acting on a particle in different directions then the resulting force on the particle is the vector sum of the two forces  $\mathbf{F} + \mathbf{F}'$ . In particular the magnitude of the resulting force is strictly less than the sum of the magnitudes of the two forces:  $|\mathbf{F} + \mathbf{F}'| \leq |\mathbf{F}| + |\mathbf{F}'|$ .

**Scalar multiplication** Let  $c$  be a scalar, i.e. just a real number as apposed to a vector. If  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2 \rangle$  is a 2-dim. vector then the scalar multiplication of  $\mathbf{a}$  by  $c$  is given by  $c\mathbf{a} = \langle ca_1, ca_2 \rangle$ . If  $\mathbf{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$  is a 3-dim. vector then the scalar multiplication of  $\mathbf{a}$  by  $c$  is given by

$$(12.2.3) \quad c\mathbf{a} = \langle ca_1, ca_2, ca_3 \rangle.$$

Scalar multiplication  $c\mathbf{a}$  can also be represented geometrically. Simply go in the direction of the vector  $\mathbf{a}$  a distance  $c|\mathbf{a}|$ .