# Section 12.1

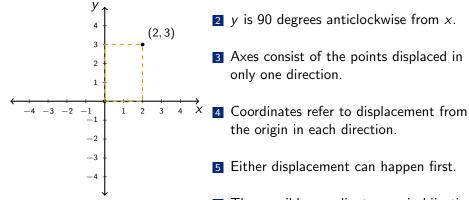
# Three-Dimensional Coordinate Systems

#### Goals:

- Plot points in a three-dimensional coordinate system.
- Use the distance formula.
- Recognize the equation of a sphere and find its radius and center.
- Graph an implicit function with a free variable.

# Key Observations from Two-Dimensional Space

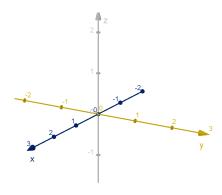
**1** Assign origin and two directions (x, y).



The possible coordinates are in bijection with the points in the plane.

# Directions and Axes in Three-Dimensional Space (Three-Space)

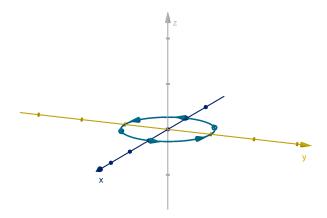
In a three-dimensional Cartesian coordinate system. We can extrapolate from two dimensions.



- Assign origin and two three directions (x, y, z).
- 2 Each axis makes a 90 degree angle with the other two.
- 3 The *z* direction is determined by the right-hand rule.

# The Right-Hand Rule

The right hand rule says that if you make the fingers of your right hand follow the (counterclockwise) unit circle in the *xy*-plane, then your thumb indicates the direction of the positive *z*-axis.



## Drawing a Location in Three-Dimensional Coordinates

The point (2,3,5) is the point displaced from the origin by

- 2 in the x direction
- 3 in the y direction
- 5 in the z direction.

How do we draw a reasonable diagram of where this point lies?

# Negative Coordinate Values

How can we draw a reasonable diagram of (-5, 1, -4)?

## Exercise

Draw diagrams of points with the following coordinates. **1** (6,1,2)

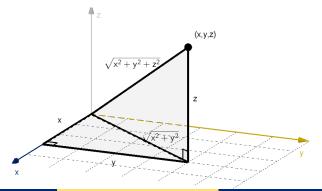
- 2 (-3,0,0)
- 3 (2, -1, 4)
- **4** (0, 3, 5)

# Distance Formula in Three-Space

#### Theorem

The distance from the origin to the point (x, y, z) is given by the Pythagorean Theorem

$$D = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$



## General Formula

#### Theorem

The distance from the point  $(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  to the point  $(x_2, y_2, z_2)$  is given by

$$D = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2}$$

# Graphs in 3 Dimensions

## Definition

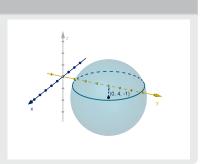
The **graph** of an implicit equation is the set of points whose coordinates satisfy that equation. In other words, the two sides are equal when we plug the coordinates in for x, y and z.

## Example 1

The graph of

$$x^{2} + (y - 4)^{2} + (z + 1)^{2} = 9$$

is the set of points that are distance 3 from the point  $\left(0,4,-1\right)$ 



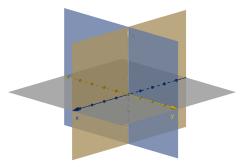
# Example 2

Sketch the graph of the equation y = 3.

## Coordinate Planes

In addition to coordinate axes, 3 dimensional space has 3 coordinate planes.

- **1** The graph of z = 0 is the *xy*-plane.
- **2** The graph of x = 0 is the *yz*-plane.
- **3** The graph of y = 0 is the *xz*-plane.

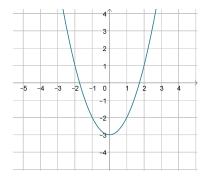


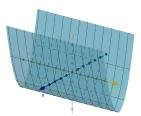
## Example 3 - Free Variable Method

Sketch the graph of the equation  $z = x^2 - 3$ .

# Implicit Equations

Notice that the graph of an implicit equation in the plane is generally one-dimensional (a curve), whereas the graph of an implicit equation in three-space is generally two-dimensional (a surface).





$$y = x^2 - 3$$

$$z = x^2 - 3$$

## Exercise

Sketch the graph of each equation.

1 x = -4

2  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$ 

3 
$$x^2 + 4x + y^2 + z^2 - 2z = 4$$

# Summary Questions

- What is the right hand rule and what does it tell you about a three-dimensional coordinate system?
- In three-space, what is the y-axis? What are the coordinates of a general point on it?
- In three space, what is the xz plane? What are the coordinates of a general point on it? What is its equation?
- How do we use a free variable to sketch a graph?
- How do we recognize the equation of a sphere?

# Section 12.2

Vectors

#### Goals:

- Distinguish vectors from scalars (real numbers) and points.
- Add and subtract vectors, multiply by scalars.
- Express real world vectors in terms of their components.

## What is a Vector?

#### Definition

A **vector** in the plane or in three-space consists of a magnitude (length) and a direction. Two vectors with the same direction are **parallel**. Two vectors with the same magnitude and the same direction are **equal**.

#### Example

Here are four vectors represented by arrows. Two of them are equal.

# Examples of Vectors

Here are some vectors

- 3 miles south
- The force that a magnetic field applies to a charged particle
- The velocity of an airplane

Here are some non-vectors

17

- The mass of an automobile
- 3:15 PM
- Atlanta, GA

# **Endpoint Notation**

The vector  $\mathbf{v}$  from point A to point B can be represented by the notation

 $\overrightarrow{AB}$ .

A is the **initial point** and B is the **terminal point**.

Theorem

 $\overrightarrow{AB} = \overrightarrow{CD}$  if and only if ABDC is a parallelogram (perhaps a squished one).



# Coordinate Notation

We can represent a vector in Cartesian 3-space by the x, y and z components of its displacement. If A = (2, 3, 7) and B = (5, 3, 6) then we can represent

$$\overrightarrow{AB} = \langle 3, 0, -1 \rangle$$

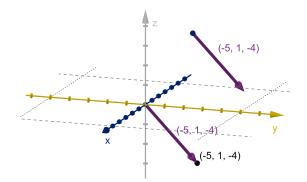
#### Theorem

 $\mathbf{v}=\mathbf{u}$  if and only if their coordinate representations match in each component.

A vector in the Cartesian plane only has two components.

## The Position Vector

Every point in a Cartesian coordinate system has a **position vector**, which gives the displacement of that point from the origin. The components of the vector are simply the coordinates of the point.

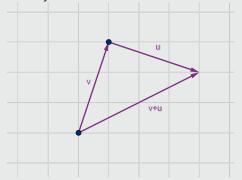


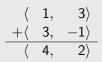
There is only one point (-5, 1, -4) but there are many vectors  $\langle -5, 1, -4 \rangle$ .

# Vector Sums

#### Definition

The sum of two vectors  $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$  is calculated by positioning  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{u}$  head to tail. The sum is the vector from the initial point of one to the terminal point of the other. In coordinate notation, we just add each component numerically.





# Scalar Multiples

#### Definition

Given a number (called a scalar)  $\lambda$  and a vector **v** we can produce the scalar multiple  $\lambda$ **v**, which is the vector in the same direction as **v** but  $\lambda$  times as long.

If  $\lambda$  is negative then  $\lambda \mathbf{v}$  extends in the opposite direction. Either way, we say  $\lambda \mathbf{v}$  is **parallel** to  $\mathbf{v}$ .



In coordinates scalar multiplication is distributed to each component.

$$2.5\left< 6,4 \right> = \left< 15,10 \right>$$

## Example 1

Given diagrams of two vectors **u** and **v**, how would we calculate  $\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ ?

What if we are instead given the coordinates  $\mathbf{u} = \langle a, b \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle c, d \rangle$ ?

## Exercise

Given diagrams of two vectors **u** and **v**, how would we draw  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ ? What it its significance?

# Standard Basis Notation

We can represent any vector in the plane or 3-space as a sum of scalar multiples of the following **standard basis vectors** 

Plane	3-Space
${f i}=\langle 1,0 angle$	$\mathbf{i}=\langle 1,0,0 angle$
$\mathbf{j}=\langle 0,1 angle$	$\mathbf{j}=\langle 0,1,0 angle$
	${f k}=\langle 0,0,1 angle$

The vector (3, 5, -2) can be written as  $3\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$ . You can check yourself that the sum on the right gives the correct vector.

## The Length of a Vector

The **length** or **magnitude** of a vector is calculated using the distance formula and notated  $|\mathbf{v}|$ . If  $\mathbf{v} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j} + c\mathbf{k}$ , then

$$|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}$$

# Example 2

If  $\mathbf{v} = \langle 3, 5, -2 \rangle$  calculate  $|\mathbf{v}|$ 

## Unit Vectors

#### A unit vector is a vector of length 1. Given a vector $\mathbf{v}$ the scalar multiple

 $\frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|}\mathbf{v}$ 

is a unit vector parallel to  $\mathbf{v}$ .

# Angles Between Vectors

Angles are a good way of comparing directions. In general, two vectors will not intersect to form an angle, so we use the following definition:

#### Definition

The angle between two vectors is the angle they make when they are placed so their initial points are the same.

If they make a right angle, we call them **orthogonal**. If they make an angle of 0 or  $\pi$ , they are parallel.

Note that there is no good way to measure clockwise in 3 or more dimensions, so the angle between two vectors is never negative, nor more than  $\pi$ .

# Summary Questions

- How is a vector similar to a point? To a number?
- How is a vector different from a point? From a number?
- How can you tell if two vectors point in the same direction? Opposite directions?
- If u and v are position vectors of the points P and Q, how are u and v related to PQ?

# Section 12.3

The Dot Product

#### Goals:

- Calculate the dot product of two vectors.
- Determine the geometric relationship between two vectors based on their dot product.
- Calculate vector and scalar projections of one vector onto another.

# Definition of the Dot Product

### Definition

The **dot product** of two vectors is a number. For two dimensional vectors  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle$  we define

 $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u} = v_1 u_1 + v_2 u_2$ 

For three dimensional vectors  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$  we define

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u} = v_1 u_1 + v_2 u_2 + v_3 u_3$$

# Example 1

**1** Calculate 
$$\langle 2, 3, -1 \rangle \cdot \langle 4, 1, 5 \rangle$$

2 Calculate 
$$(-2\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{k}) \cdot (\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k})$$

## Questions

- How does the dot product behave algebraically? Why is it called a "product?"
- 2 How does the dot product behave geometrically? Does knowing the dot product of two vectors tell us anything about them?

#### Exercise

Let 
$$\mathbf{u} = \langle 2, 3 \rangle$$
,  $\mathbf{v} = \langle 4, -1 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{w} = \langle -5, 2 \rangle$ .

- **1** Compute  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ .
- **2** Compute  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$ . How does it compare to  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ ?
- **3** How is  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}$  related to  $|\mathbf{u}|$ ?
- Compute 3u and 3v then take their dot product. How is it related to u · v?
- **5** Compute  $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$  then compute  $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$ . How is it related to  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ ?
- 6 Why do you think we call this operation a "dot product" and not a "dot sum?"
- If you wanted to prove that relationships your noticed in 2-5 work for all possible vectors, how would you do that?

## Algebraic Properties of the Dot Product

The following properties hold for any vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  and scalars m and n.

Commutative $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$ Distributive $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ Associative $m\mathbf{u} \cdot n\mathbf{v} = mn(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})$ 

## Dot Products of Parallel Vectors

#### Theorem

If  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are parallel then

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \begin{cases} |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| & \text{if } \mathbf{u} \text{ and } \mathbf{v} \text{ have the same direction} \\ -|\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| & \text{if } \mathbf{u} \text{ and } \mathbf{v} \text{ have opposite directions} \end{cases}$$

## Dot Products of Orthogonal Vectors

#### Theorem

If  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are orthogonal then

 $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0.$ 

## Vector Projections and Scalar Projections

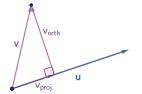
Two vectors need not be parallel or orthogonal, but given vectors  $\boldsymbol{u}$  and  $\boldsymbol{v}$  we can always write  $\boldsymbol{v}=\boldsymbol{v}_{proj}+\boldsymbol{v}_{orth}.$ 

The properties of the dot product tell us that

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = & \mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v}_{\text{proj}} + \mathbf{v}_{\text{orth}}) \\ & = \pm |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}_{\text{proj}}| + 0 \end{split}$$



The number  $\frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{u}|}$  is called the scalar projection of  $\mathbf{v}$  onto  $\mathbf{u}$ .



# The Cosine Formula

#### Theorem

Let **u** and **v** have the same initial point and meet at angle  $\theta$ . The following formula holds in any dimension:

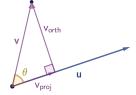
 $\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v}=|\mathbf{u}||\mathbf{v}|\cos\theta$ 

Recall that  $\cos \theta$  is

- **p**ositive when  $\theta < \pi/2$
- negative when  $\theta > \pi/2$

• zero when  $\theta = \pi/2$ .

So the sign of  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$  tells us whether  $\theta$  is acute, obtuse or right.



What is the angle between  $\langle 1, 0, 1 \rangle$  and  $\langle 1, 1, 0 \rangle$ ?

## Application - Work

In physics, we say a force **works** on an object if it moves the object in the direction of the force. Given a force F and a displacement d, the formula for work is:

W = Fs

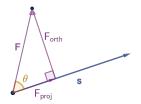


#### Work in More Dimensions

In higher dimensions, displacement and force are vectors.

If the force and the displacement are not in the same direction, then only  ${\bf F}_{\rm proj}$  contributes to work.

$$W = \mathbf{F}_{\mathsf{proj}} \cdot \mathbf{s} = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{s}$$



# Summary Questions

- What algebraic properties does a dot product share with real number multiplication?
- How is the angle between two vectors related to their dot product?
- What is a scalar projection, and how do you compute it?

## Section 12.4

The Cross Product

#### Goals:

- Calculate the determinant of a  $2 \times 2$  or  $3 \times 3$  matrix.
- Calculate the cross product of two vectors.
- Understand the geometric relationship between two vectors and their cross product.

#### Matrices

#### Definition

A matrix is a rectangular array of values (usually numbers). An  $m \times n$  matrix has *m* rows and *n* columns. If a matrix has the same number of rows and columns, it is square.

Examples		
a $2 \times 4$ matrix	a $3 \times 1$ matrix	a square $3 \times 3$ matrix
$\left[\begin{array}{rrrr} 3 & 0 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{array}\right]$	$\left[\begin{array}{c}2\\0\\5\end{array}\right]$	$\left[\begin{array}{rrrrr}1 & 3 & 0\\0 & 2 & 2\\3 & 1 & 1\end{array}\right]$

## The Determinant of a Matrix

A **determinant** is a number that we can compute and associate to a square matrix. If the matrix has a name (like M), we use the notation det M or |M|. We can also write

$$det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} or \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Computing the Determinant

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The determinant of a  $2 \times 2$  matrix is calculated by the formula

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

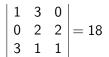
The formulas for larger matrices are derived from those of smaller **minor** matrices.

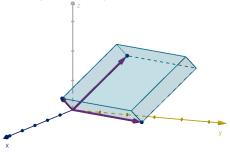
$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{vmatrix} = a \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} - b \begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{vmatrix}$$

# Calculate $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$

# The Geometric Meaning of the Determinant

The absolute value of the determinant of a matrix is the volume of the **parallelepiped** constructed from the row (or column) vectors.





## The Cross Product

#### Definition

The **cross product** is a product of three-dimensional vectors **u** and **v**, whose output is also a three dimensional vector denoted

#### $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}.$

The cross product is defined as follows on the standard basis vectors:

- $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k}$   $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{i}$   $\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j}$
- $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{i} = -\mathbf{k}$   $\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{j} = -\mathbf{i}$   $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{k} = -\mathbf{j}$

 $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{0}$ 

Notice that the cross product of two vectors is a vector, whereas the dot product is a number.

# The Cross Product - Algebraic Definition

In order to finish defining the cross product, we need the following algebraic properties:

**1** The cross product is associative with scalar multiplication:

$$(\mathsf{au}) \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \times (\mathsf{av}) = \mathsf{a}(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v})$$

**2** The cross product distributes across vector sums:

$$(\mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2) \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}_1 \times \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}_2 \times \mathbf{v}$$
$$\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2) = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}_2$$

If  $\mathbf{u} = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + 4\mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$ , compute  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ .

# The Determinant Formula

#### Formula

If 
$$\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$$
 and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3 \rangle$  then

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} u_2 & u_3 \\ v_2 & v_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} - \begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{j} + \begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \\ v_1 & v_2 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}$$

If we're a bit sloppy and allow our matrix to have vectors as entries, we can write more compactly:

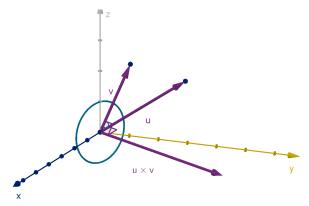
$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

Calculate  $\langle 2, 0, 3 \rangle \times \langle 3, 1, 1 \rangle$ .

# Direction of the Cross Product

The direction of  $\textbf{u}\times \textbf{v}$  is given by the following facts:

- **u**  $\times$  **v** is orthogonal to both **u** and **v**.
- If your right hand traces a circle from **u** through **v**, then your thumb points in the direction of  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ .

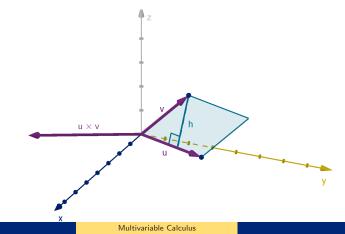


## Magnitude of the Cross Product

**I** If  $\theta$  is the angle between **u** and **v**, the length satisfies the formula

 $|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}| = |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \sin \theta.$ 

**u**  $\times$  **v** is also the area of the parallelogram defined by **u** and **v**.



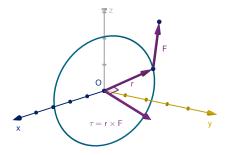
If  $\mathbf{u} = 4\mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is in the *xy*-plane, then what can we say about  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ ?

#### Application - Torque

In physics, **torque** measures the tendency of a rigid body to rotate around a fixed origin. If we apply the force  $\mathbf{F}$  at the position  $\mathbf{r}$  from the origin, the torque is

$$\tau = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}.$$

Viewing torque as a vector is very useful. For example, if more than one force is applied, the torques can be added to compute a total torque on the object.



# Summary Questions

- What do the cross product and dot product have in common? How are they different?
- Would you rather use the minor matrices or the distributive method to compute a cross product? Why?
- Can a cross product be used to compute the angle between two vectors? Would you prefer to use the dot product? Why?

## Section 12.5

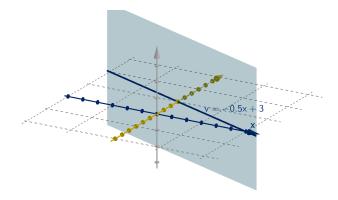
# Equations of Lines and Planes

#### Goals:

- Give equations of lines in both vector and parametric form.
- Give equations of planes in both vector and normal forms.
- Use equations to find intersections of lines and planes.

## Equation of a Line, First Attempt

In two dimensions, lines have equations like y = -0.5x + 3. If we used this equation in three dimensions, z would be a free variable, and we'd get a plane.



# Parametric and Vector Equations

#### Definition

The graph of a vector equation

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}.$$

or a parametric equation

$$x = f(t)$$
  $y = g(t)$   $z = h(t)$ 

is the set of points (f(t), g(t), h(t)) obtained when all possible real numbers t are plugged into the equations.

Generally the graph of a parametric equation is one-dimensional, like a line or a curve.

## Equation of a Line, Vector Version

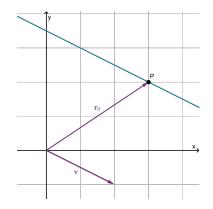
Here is a way to describe a line by vector equation:

#### Equation

If  $\mathbf{r}_0$  is the position vector of an **known point**, and  $\mathbf{v}$  is a **direction vector** parallel to the line, then the line is described by

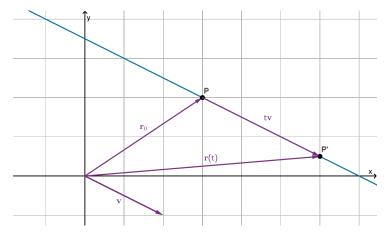
$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{v}$$

where t can be any real number.



## Visualizing the Vector Equation

The endpoints of the vectors  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  trace out the line as t ranges over all real numbers.



#### Exercise

Suppose you want to give the vector equation of a line whose known point is (3, 2) and which also passes through (5, 1).

- **1** Compute a direction vector  $\mathbf{v}$  of this line.
- **2** Write a vector equation for it.
- **3** What is the slope of this line? How is it related to **v**?
- 4 Is the point (-1, 4) on this line? What t does it correspond to?

#### Equation of a Line, Parametric Version

#### Equation

If  $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$  then the vector equation resolves as

$$egin{aligned} \mathsf{r}(t) &= \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 
angle + t \, \langle a, b, c 
angle \ &= \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 
angle + \langle ta, tb, tc 
angle \ &= \langle x_0 + ta, y_0 + tb, z_0 + tc 
angle \, . \end{aligned}$$

This gives the following parametric equations.

$$x = x_0 + ta$$
$$y = y_0 + tb$$
$$z = z_0 + tc$$

## Equation of a Line, Symmetric Equations Version

If we want we can solve for t in the parametric equations,

 $x = x_0 + ta$  $y = y_0 + tb$  $z = z_0 + tc$ 

and get three expressions that all equal t, and hence all equal each other.

Equation

$$\frac{x - x_0}{a} = \frac{y - y_0}{b} = \frac{z - z_0}{c}$$

#### Exercise

- **1** Rewrite the vector equation  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2, 5, 1 \rangle + t \langle 2, -1, -4 \rangle$  as a triple equation.
- 2 Use the triple equation to determine whether this line passes through (7, 3, -9).

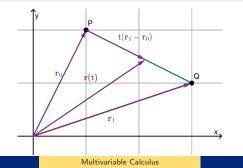
# The Equation of a Line Segment

If we restrict the values of t to a finite interval, we get a segment instead of a line.

#### Formula

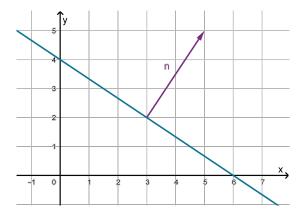
A vector equation of the segment from the endpoint  $\boldsymbol{r}_0$  to the endpoint  $\boldsymbol{r}_1$  is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (1-t)\mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{r}_1 \quad 0 \le t \le 1$$



## Review - Normal Equation of a Line

In algebra, you learned the **normal equation** of a line: e.g. 2x + 3y = 12. Why is it called this?

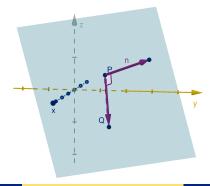


## Normal Vectors to a Plane

#### A normal vector to a plane is orthogonal to every vector in the plane.

#### Theorem

In three-dimensional space, every plane has normal vectors. They are all parallel to each other.



#### Equation of a Plane, Vector Version

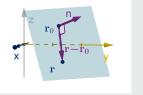
#### Theorem

If  $\mathbf{r}_0 = \langle x_0, y_0, z_0 \rangle$  describes an known point on a plane, and  $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$  is a normal vector. Then the equation of the plane is

$$(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0) \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$$



 $a(x - x_0) + b(y - y_0) + c(z - z_0) = 0$ 



Notice that since  $x_0$ ,  $y_0$  and  $z_0$  are constants, we can distribute and collect them into a single term: d.

$$ax + by + cz - ax_0 - by_0 - cz_0 = 0$$
$$ax + by + cz + d = 0$$

Find the equation of the plane that contains the points (2, 1, 1), (3, 4, -1) and (0, 5, 2).

Find the equation of the plane that contains the point (0, 0, 4) and the line  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2, 0, 2 \rangle + t \langle 3, 1, 0 \rangle$ .

Find the equation of the plane with intercepts (4, 0, 0), (0, 3, 0) and (0, 0, 8).

#### Exercises

Consider the plane that contains (0,0,0), (4,0,3) and (4,5,3)

- **1** Give the equation of this plane.
- 2 Where does this plane intersect the line  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2+3t, 4-t, 3t \rangle$ ?
- **3** Where does this plane intersect the line  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 2 4t, 2 + t, 3 3t \rangle$ ?
- Given any plane and any line, what are the possible numbers of intersection points that they can have? Can you justify your answer with algebra?

# Summary Questions

- Why do we use the vector equation of a line instead of slope-intercept form?
- What two pieces of information do you need to write the vector equation of a line?
- What information do you need in order to write the equation of a plane?
- How do you find the intersection of a plane with a line?
- How are the normal vectors of a plane related to each other?