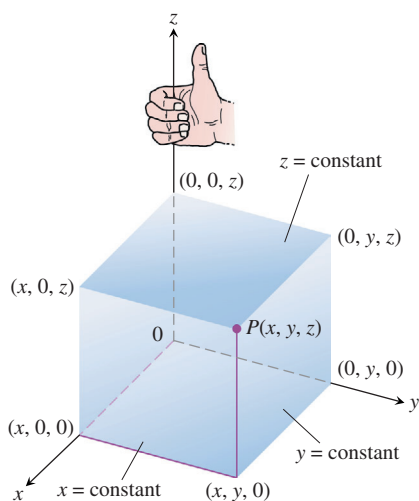


# Chapter 12 VECTORS AND THE GEOMETRY OF SPACE

**OVERVIEW** To apply calculus in many real-world situations and in higher mathematics, we need a mathematical description of three-dimensional space. In this chapter we introduce three-dimensional coordinate systems and vectors. Building on what we already know about coordinates in the  $xy$ -plane, we establish coordinates in space by adding a third axis that measures distance above and below the  $xy$ -plane. Vectors are used to study the analytic geometry of space, where they give simple ways to describe lines, planes, surfaces, and curves in space. We use these geometric ideas in the rest of the book to study motion in space and the calculus of functions of several variables, with their many important applications in science, engineering, economics, and higher mathematics.

## 12.1 Three-Dimensional Coordinate Systems

To locate a point in space, we use three mutually perpendicular coordinate axes, arranged as in Figure 12.1. The axes shown there make a *right-handed* coordinate frame. When you hold your right hand so that the fingers curl from the positive  $x$ -axis toward the positive  $y$ -axis, your thumb points along the positive  $z$ -axis. So when you look down on the  $xy$ -plane from the positive direction of the  $z$ -axis, positive angles in the plane are measured counterclockwise from the positive  $x$ -axis and around the positive  $z$ -axis. (In a *left-handed* coordinate frame, the  $z$ -axis would point downward in Figure 12.1 and angles in the plane would be positive when measured clockwise from the positive  $x$ -axis. This is not the convention we have used for measuring angles in the  $xy$ -plane. Right-handed and left-handed coordinate frames are not equivalent.)



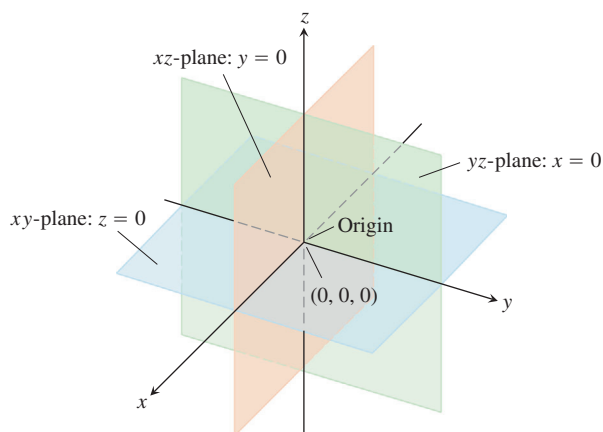
**FIGURE 12.1** The Cartesian coordinate system is right-handed.

The Cartesian coordinates  $(x, y, z)$  of a point  $P$  in space are the numbers at which the planes through  $P$  perpendicular to the axes cut the axes. Cartesian coordinates for space are also called **rectangular coordinates** because the axes that define them meet at right angles. Points on the  $x$ -axis have  $y$ - and  $z$ -coordinates equal to zero. That is, they have coordinates of the form  $(x, 0, 0)$ . Similarly, points on the  $y$ -axis have coordinates of the form  $(0, y, 0)$ , and points on the  $z$ -axis have coordinates of the form  $(0, 0, z)$ .

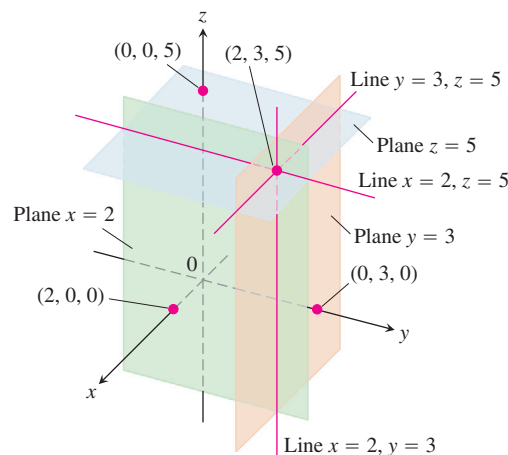
The planes determined by the coordinates axes are the  **$xy$ -plane**, whose standard equation is  $z = 0$ ; the  **$yz$ -plane**, whose standard equation is  $x = 0$ ; and the  **$xz$ -plane**, whose standard equation is  $y = 0$ . They meet at the **origin**  $(0, 0, 0)$  (Figure 12.2). The origin is also identified by simply  $0$  or sometimes the letter  $O$ .

The three **coordinate planes**  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $z = 0$  divide space into eight cells called **octants**. The octant in which the point coordinates are all positive is called the **first octant**; there is no conventional numbering for the other seven octants.

The points in a plane perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis all have the same  $x$ -coordinate, this being the number at which that plane cuts the  $x$ -axis. The  $y$ - and  $z$ -coordinates can be any numbers. Similarly, the points in a plane perpendicular to the  $y$ -axis have a common  $y$ -coordinate and the points in a plane perpendicular to the  $z$ -axis have a common  $z$ -coordinate. To write equations for these planes, we name the common coordinate's value. The plane  $x = 2$  is the plane perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis at  $x = 2$ . The plane  $y = 3$  is the plane perpendicular to the  $y$ -axis at  $y = 3$ . The plane  $z = 5$  is the plane perpendicular to the  $z$ -axis at  $z = 5$ . Figure 12.3 shows the planes  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 3$ , and  $z = 5$ , together with their intersection point  $(2, 3, 5)$ .



**FIGURE 12.2** The planes  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $z = 0$  divide space into eight octants.



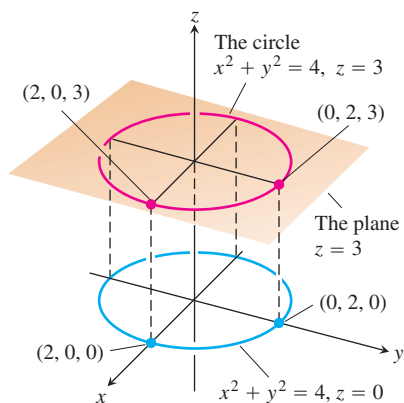
**FIGURE 12.3** The planes  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 3$ , and  $z = 5$  determine three lines through the point  $(2, 3, 5)$ .

The planes  $x = 2$  and  $y = 3$  in Figure 12.3 intersect in a line parallel to the  $z$ -axis. This line is described by the *pair* of equations  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 3$ . A point  $(x, y, z)$  lies on the line if and only if  $x = 2$  and  $y = 3$ . Similarly, the line of intersection of the planes  $y = 3$  and  $z = 5$  is described by the equation pair  $y = 3$ ,  $z = 5$ . This line runs parallel to the  $x$ -axis. The line of intersection of the planes  $x = 2$  and  $z = 5$ , parallel to the  $y$ -axis, is described by the equation pair  $x = 2$ ,  $z = 5$ .

In the following examples, we match coordinate equations and inequalities with the sets of points they define in space.

### EXAMPLE 1 Interpreting Equations and Inequalities Geometrically

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| <b>(a)</b> $z \geq 0$                     | The half-space consisting of the points on and above the $xy$ -plane.  |
| <b>(b)</b> $x = -3$                       | The plane perpendicular to the $x$ -axis at $x = -3$ . This plane lies parallel to the $yz$ -plane and 3 units behind it.                        |
| <b>(c)</b> $z = 0, x \leq 0, y \geq 0$    | The second quadrant of the $xy$ -plane.  |
| <b>(d)</b> $x \geq 0, y \geq 0, z \geq 0$ | The first octant.  |
| <b>(e)</b> $-1 \leq y \leq 1$             | The slab between the planes $y = -1$ and $y = 1$ (planes included).  |
| <b>(f)</b> $y = -2, z = 2$                | The line in which the planes $y = -2$ and $z = 2$ intersect. Alternatively, the line through the point $(0, -2, 2)$ parallel to the $x$ -axis. ■ |



**FIGURE 12.4** The circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  in the plane  $z = 3$  (Example 2).

### EXAMPLE 2 Graphing Equations

What points  $P(x, y, z)$  satisfy the equations

$$x^2 + y^2 = 4 \quad \text{and} \quad z = 3?$$

**Solution** The points lie in the horizontal plane  $z = 3$  and, in this plane, make up the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ . We call this set of points “the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  in the plane  $z = 3$ ” or, more simply, “the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4, z = 3$ ” (Figure 12.4). ■

### Distance and Spheres in Space

The formula for the distance between two points in the  $xy$ -plane extends to points in space.

#### The Distance Between $P_1(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $P_2(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ is

$$|P_1P_2| = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$$

**Proof** We construct a rectangular box with faces parallel to the coordinate planes and the points  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  at opposite corners of the box (Figure 12.5). If  $A(x_2, y_1, z_1)$  and  $B(x_2, y_2, z_1)$  are the vertices of the box indicated in the figure, then the three box edges  $P_1A$ ,  $AB$ , and  $BP_2$  have lengths

$$|P_1A| = |x_2 - x_1|, \quad |AB| = |y_2 - y_1|, \quad |BP_2| = |z_2 - z_1|.$$

Because triangles  $P_1BP_2$  and  $P_1AB$  are both right-angled, two applications of the Pythagorean theorem give

$$|P_1P_2|^2 = |P_1B|^2 + |BP_2|^2 \quad \text{and} \quad |P_1B|^2 = |P_1A|^2 + |AB|^2$$

(see Figure 12.5).

So

$$\begin{aligned} |P_1P_2|^2 &= |P_1B|^2 + |BP_2|^2 \\ &= |P_1A|^2 + |AB|^2 + |BP_2|^2 && \text{Substitute } |P_1B|^2 = |P_1A|^2 + |AB|^2. \\ &= |x_2 - x_1|^2 + |y_2 - y_1|^2 + |z_2 - z_1|^2 \\ &= (x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2 \end{aligned}$$

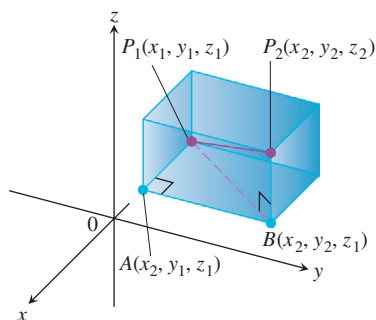
Therefore

$$|P_1P_2| = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2} \quad \blacksquare$$

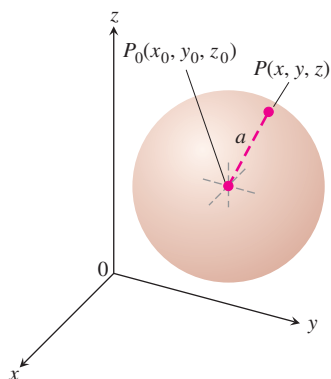
### EXAMPLE 3 Finding the Distance Between Two Points

The distance between  $P_1(2, 1, 5)$  and  $P_2(-2, 3, 0)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} |P_1P_2| &= \sqrt{(-2 - 2)^2 + (3 - 1)^2 + (0 - 5)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{16 + 4 + 25} \\ &= \sqrt{45} \approx 6.708. \end{aligned} \quad \blacksquare$$



**FIGURE 12.5** We find the distance between  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  by applying the Pythagorean theorem to the right triangles  $P_1AB$  and  $P_1BP_2$ .



**FIGURE 12.6** The standard equation of the sphere of radius  $a$  centered at the point  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is

$$(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 + (z - z_0)^2 = a^2.$$

We can use the distance formula to write equations for spheres in space (Figure 12.6). A point  $P(x, y, z)$  lies on the sphere of radius  $a$  centered at  $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  precisely when  $|P_0P| = a$  or

$$(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 + (z - z_0)^2 = a^2.$$

**The Standard Equation for the Sphere of Radius  $a$  and Center  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$**

$$(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 + (z - z_0)^2 = a^2$$

#### EXAMPLE 4 Finding the Center and Radius of a Sphere

Find the center and radius of the sphere

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 3x - 4z + 1 = 0.$$

**Solution** We find the center and radius of a sphere the way we find the center and radius of a circle: Complete the squares on the  $x$ -,  $y$ -, and  $z$ -terms as necessary and write each quadratic as a squared linear expression. Then, from the equation in standard form, read off the center and radius. For the sphere here, we have

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 3x - 4z + 1 = 0$$

$$(x^2 + 3x) + y^2 + (z^2 - 4z) = -1$$

$$\left(x^2 + 3x + \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2\right) + y^2 + \left(z^2 - 4z + \left(\frac{-4}{2}\right)^2\right) = -1 + \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{-4}{2}\right)^2$$

$$\left(x + \frac{3}{2}\right)^2 + y^2 + (z - 2)^2 = -1 + \frac{9}{4} + 4 = \frac{21}{4}.$$

From this standard form, we read that  $x_0 = -3/2$ ,  $y_0 = 0$ ,  $z_0 = 2$ , and  $a = \sqrt{21}/2$ . The center is  $(-3/2, 0, 2)$ . The radius is  $\sqrt{21}/2$ . ■

#### EXAMPLE 5 Interpreting Equations and Inequalities

(a)  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 < 4$

The interior of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ .

(b)  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq 4$

The solid ball bounded by the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ . Alternatively, the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$  together with its interior.

(c)  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 > 4$

The exterior of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ .

(d)  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4, z \leq 0$

The lower hemisphere cut from the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$  by the  $xy$ -plane (the plane  $z = 0$ ). ■

Just as polar coordinates give another way to locate points in the  $xy$ -plane (Section 10.5), alternative coordinate systems, different from the Cartesian coordinate system developed here, exist for three-dimensional space. We examine two of these coordinate systems in Section 15.6.