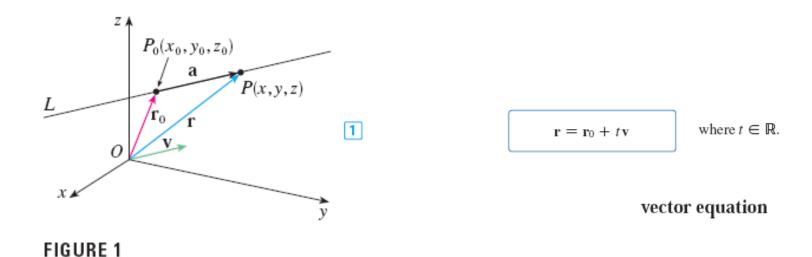
Equations of lines and planes:

A line in the xy-plane is determined when a point on the line and the direction of the line (its slope or angle of inclination) are given. The equation of the line can then be written using the point-slope form.

Likewise, a line L in three-dimensional space is determined when we know a point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ on L and the direction of L. In three dimensions the direction of a line is conveniently described by a vector, so we let \mathbf{v} be a vector parallel to L.



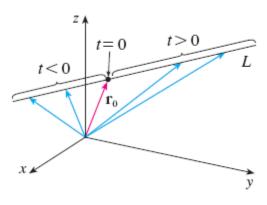


FIGURE 2

parametric equations

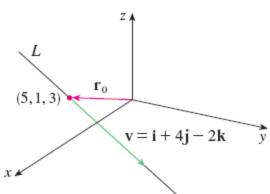
2

$$x = x_0 + at$$
 $y = y_0 + bt$ $z = z_0 + ct$

EXAMPLE 1

(a) Find a vector equation and parametric equations for the line that passes through the point (5, 1, 3) and is parallel to the vector $\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$.

(b) Find two other points on the line.



3

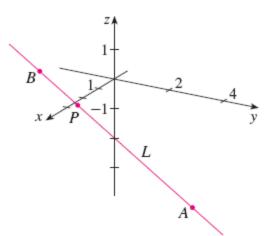
$$\frac{x - x_0}{a} = \frac{y - y_0}{b} = \frac{z - z_0}{c}$$

symmetric equations

Vector equation of a line passing through two points

EXAMPLE 2

- (a) Find parametric equations and symmetric equations of the line that passes through the points A(2, 4, -3) and B(3, -1, 1).
- (b) At what point does this line intersect the xy-plane?

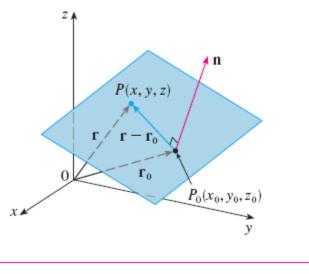


The line segment from \mathbf{r}_0 to \mathbf{r}_1 is given by the vector equation

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

Equation of plane

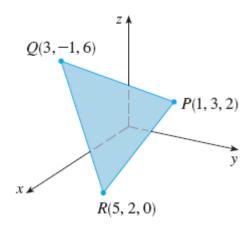
Although a line in space is determined by a point and a direction, a plane in space is more difficult to describe. A single vector parallel to a plane is not enough to convey the "direction" of the plane, but a vector perpendicular to the plane does completely specify its direction. Thus a plane in space is determined by a point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ in the plane and a vector **n** that is orthogonal to the plane. This orthogonal vector **n** is called a **normal** vector.



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

Equation 7 is the scalar equation of the plane through $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ with normal vector $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$.

EXAMPLE 5 Find an equation of the plane that passes through the points P(1, 3, 2), Q(3, -1, 6), and R(5, 2, 0).



Angle between two planes

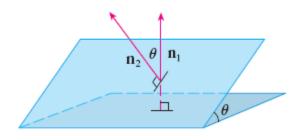
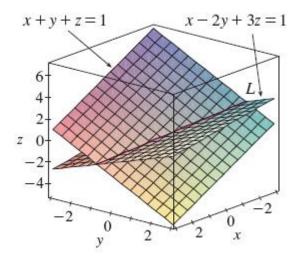


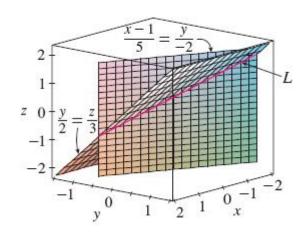
FIGURE 9

Two planes are **parallel** if their normal vectors are parallel. For instance, the planes x + 2y - 3z = 4 and 2x + 4y - 6z = 3 are parallel because their normal vectors are $\mathbf{n}_1 = \langle 1, 2, -3 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{n}_2 = \langle 2, 4, -6 \rangle$ and $\mathbf{n}_2 = 2 \mathbf{n}_1$. If two planes are not parallel, then they intersect in a straight line and the angle between the two planes is defined as the acute angle between their normal vectors (see angle θ in Figure 9).

V EXAMPLE 7

- (a) Find the angle between the planes x + y + z = 1 and x 2y + 3z = 1.
- (b) Find symmetric equations for the line of intersection L of these two planes.





Vector Functions and Space Curves

In general, a function is a rule that assigns to each element in the domain an element in the range. A vector-valued function, or vector function, is simply a function whose domain is a set of real numbers and whose range is a set of vectors. We are most interested in vector functions \mathbf{r} whose values are three-dimensional vectors. This means that for every number t in the domain of \mathbf{r} there is a unique vector in V_3 denoted by $\mathbf{r}(t)$. If f(t), g(t), and h(t) are the components of the vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$, then f, g, and h are real-valued functions called the component functions of \mathbf{r} and we can write

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

Note:

We use the letter t to denote the independent variable because it represents time in most applications of vector functions.

Limit of a Vector Function

The **limit** of a vector function **r** is defined by taking the limits of its component functions as follows.

1 If
$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$$
, then

$$\lim_{t \to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \left\langle \lim_{t \to a} f(t), \lim_{t \to a} g(t), \lim_{t \to a} h(t) \right\rangle$$

provided the limits of the component functions exist.



Show that $\lim_{t\to a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{b}$ if and only if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a number $\delta > 0$ such that

if
$$0 < |t - a| < \delta$$
 then $|\mathbf{r}(t) - \mathbf{b}| < \varepsilon$

Continuity of a Vector Function

A vector function r is continuous at a if

$$\lim_{t\to a}\mathbf{r}(t)=\mathbf{r}(a)$$

In view of Definition 1, we see that \mathbf{r} is continuous at a if and only if its component functions f, g, and h are continuous at a.

Space Curves

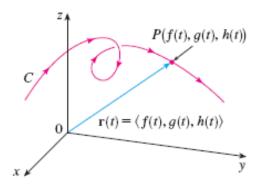


FIGURE 1

C is traced out by the tip of a moving position vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

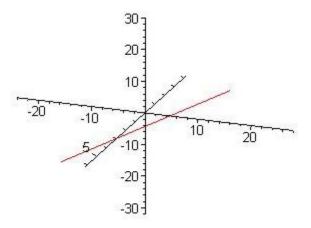
There is a close connection between continuous vector functions and space curves. Suppose that f, g, and h are continuous real-valued functions on an interval I. Then the set C of all points (x, y, z) in space, where

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

and t varies throughout the interval I, is called a space curve. The equations in 2 are called **parametric equations of** C and t is called a **parameter**. We can think of C as being traced out by a moving particle whose position at time t is (f(t), g(t), h(t)). If we now consider the vector function $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$, then $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is the position vector of the point P(f(t), g(t), h(t)) on C. Thus any continuous vector function \mathbf{r} defines a space curve C that is traced out by the tip of the moving vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$, as shown in Figure 1.

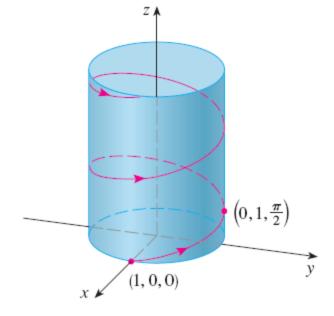
V EXAMPLE 3 Describe the curve defined by the vector function

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle 1 + t, 2 + 5t, -1 + 6t \rangle$$

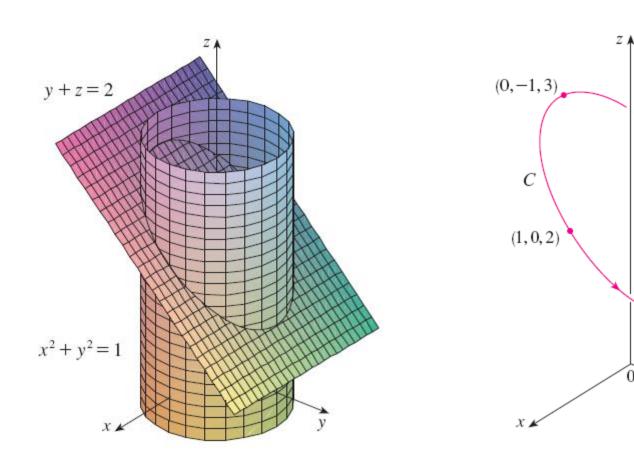


EXAMPLE 4 Sketch the curve whose vector equation is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t \,\mathbf{i} + \sin t \,\mathbf{j} + t \,\mathbf{k}$$



EXAMPLE 6 Find a vector function that represents the curve of intersection of the cylinder $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and the plane y + z = 2.



(-1, 0, 2)

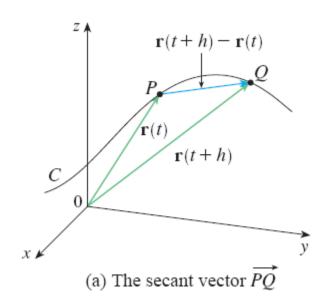
(0, 1, 1)

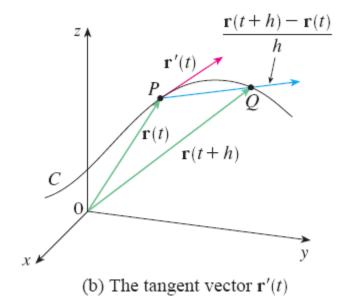
Derivatives

The **derivative** \mathbf{r}' of a vector function \mathbf{r} is defined in much the same way as for real-valued functions:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \mathbf{r}'(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{h}$$

Geometric interpretation of the derivative:





If the

points P and Q have position vectors $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and $\mathbf{r}(t+h)$, then \overrightarrow{PQ} represents the vector $\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t)$, which can therefore be regarded as a secant vector. If h > 0, the scalar multiple $(1/h)(\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t))$ has the same direction as $\mathbf{r}(t+h) - \mathbf{r}(t)$. As $h \to 0$, it appears that this vector approaches a vector that lies on the tangent line. For this reason, the vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ is called the **tangent vector** to the curve defined by \mathbf{r} at the point P, provided that $\mathbf{r}'(t)$ exists and $\mathbf{r}'(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$. The **tangent line** to C at P is defined to be the line through P parallel to the tangent vector $\mathbf{r}'(t)$. We will also have occasion to consider the **unit tangent vector**, which is

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|}$$

Theorem If $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$, where f, g, and h are differentiable functions, then

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle f'(t), g'(t), h'(t) \rangle = f'(t)\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\mathbf{k}$$

3 Theorem Suppose \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are differentiable vector functions, c is a scalar, and f is a real-valued function. Then

1.
$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) + \mathbf{v}'(t)$$

2.
$$\frac{d}{dt}[c\mathbf{u}(t)] = c\mathbf{u}'(t)$$

3.
$$\frac{d}{dt} [f(t)\mathbf{u}(t)] = f'(t)\mathbf{u}(t) + f(t)\mathbf{u}'(t)$$

4.
$$\frac{d}{dt} [\mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}'(t)$$

5.
$$\frac{d}{dt}[\mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t)] = \mathbf{u}'(t) \times \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{u}(t) \times \mathbf{v}'(t)$$

6.
$$\frac{d}{dt} [\mathbf{u}(f(t))] = f'(t) \mathbf{u}'(f(t))$$
 (Chain Rule)

Integrals

The **definite integral** of a continuous vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ can be defined in much the same way as for real-valued functions except that the integral is a vector.

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \left(\int_a^b f(t) dt \right) \mathbf{i} + \left(\int_a^b g(t) dt \right) \mathbf{j} + \left(\int_a^b h(t) dt \right) \mathbf{k}$$

We can extend the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to continuous vector functions as follows:

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{r}(t) dt = \mathbf{R}(t) \Big]_a^b = \mathbf{R}(b) - \mathbf{R}(a)$$

where **R** is an antiderivative of **r**, that is, $\mathbf{R}'(t) = \mathbf{r}(t)$. We use the notation $\int \mathbf{r}(t) dt$ for indefinite integrals (antiderivatives).