

# Analytic Geometry

George Țurcaș

Maths & Comp. Sci., UBB Cluj-Napoca

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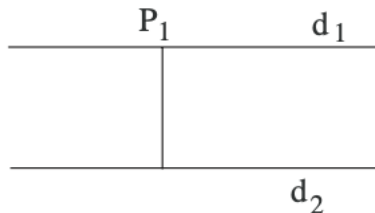
# Recap...

- Last time we discussed “metric” problems in space.

# The distance between two lines

Let  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  be two lines in the 3-space.

- If the lines are identical or concurrent, then  $d(d_1, d_2) = 0$ .
- If the lines are parallel, it is enough to choose an arbitrary point  $P_1 \in d_1$  and  $d(d_1, d_2) = d(P_1, d_2)$ .



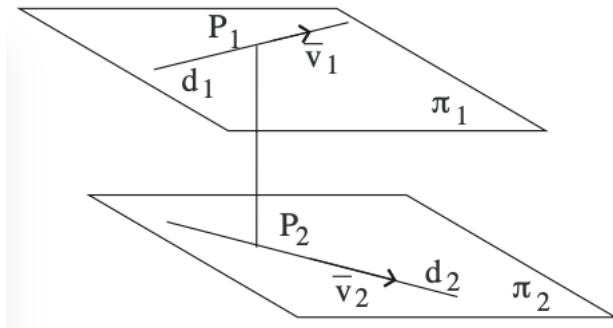
- If  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  are skew, there exists a unique line which is orthogonal on both  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  and intersects both  $d_1$  and  $d_2$ . The length of the segment determined by these intersection points is the distance between the skew lines.

Suppose that

$$d_1 : \begin{cases} x = x_1 + p_1 t \\ y = y_1 + q_1 t \\ z = z_1 + r_1 t \end{cases}, t \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } d_2 : \begin{cases} x = x_2 + p_2 s \\ y = y_2 + q_2 s \\ z = z_2 + r_2 s \end{cases}, s \in \mathbb{R}$$

are, respectively, the parametric equations of the lines of director vectors  $\bar{v}_1(p_1, q_1, r_1) \neq \bar{0}$ , respectively  $\bar{v}_2(p_2, q_2, r_2) \neq \bar{0}$ .

One can determine the equations of two parallel planes  $\pi_1 \parallel \pi_2$ , such that  $d_1 \subset \pi_1$  and  $d_2 \subset \pi_2$ . The normal vector  $\bar{n}$  of these planes has to be orthogonal on both  $\bar{v}_1$  and  $\bar{v}_2$ , hence  $\bar{n} = \bar{v}_1 \times \bar{v}_2$ .



Then  $\bar{n}(A, B, C)$ , with  $A = \begin{vmatrix} q_1 & r_1 \\ q_2 & r_2 \end{vmatrix}$ ,  $B = \begin{vmatrix} r_1 & p_1 \\ r_2 & p_2 \end{vmatrix}$  and  $C = \begin{vmatrix} p_1 & q_1 \\ p_2 & q_2 \end{vmatrix}$ .

The equations of the planes  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  are:

$$\pi_1 : A(x - x_1) + B(y - y_1) + C(z - z_1) = 0$$

$$\pi_2 : A(x - x_2) + B(y - y_2) + C(z - z_2) = 0.$$

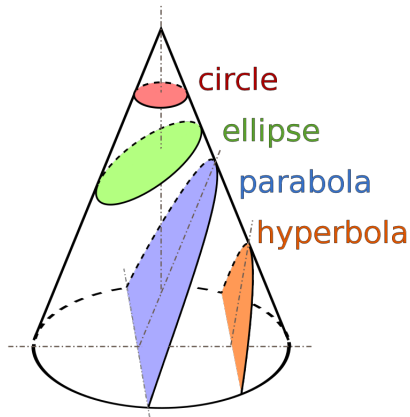
Now, the distance between  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  is the distance between the parallel planes  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$ ;  $d(d_1, d_2) = d(\pi_1, \pi_2)$ , and one has the following theorem.

### Theorem

*The distance between two skew lines  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  is given by*

$$d(d_1, d_2) = \frac{|A(x_1 - x_2) + B(y_1 - y_2) + C(z_1 - z_2)|}{\sqrt{A^2 + B^2 + C^2}}. \quad (1)$$

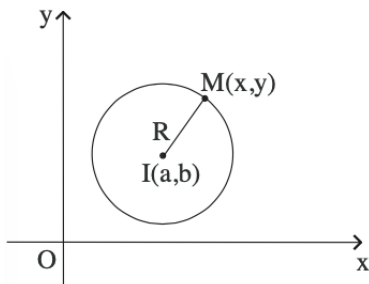
# Conic sections



# The circle

A *circle* is a closed plane curve, defined as the geometric locus of the points at a given distance  $R$  from a point  $I$ . The point  $I$  is the *center* of the circle and the number  $R$  is the *radius* of the circle. We shall denote the circle of center  $I$  and radius  $R$  by  $\mathcal{C}(I, R)$ .

In order to determine the equation of the circle, suppose that  $xOy$  is an associated Cartesian system of coordinates in  $\mathcal{E}_2$ , and  $I(a, b)$ . An arbitrary point  $M(x, y)$  belongs to  $\mathcal{C}(I, R)$  if and only if  $|MI| = R$ .





Hence,  $\sqrt{(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2} = R$ , or

$$(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 = R^2. \quad (2)$$

The equation (2) represents the equation of the circle centered at  $I(a, b)$  and of radius  $R$ .

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*Remark:* In a Cartesian system of coordinates, the equation

$$x^2 + y^2 - 2ax - 2by + c = 0 \quad (3)$$

represents either a circle, or a point, or the empty set.

How do we see this?



# The Circle Determined by Three Points

Given three noncollinear points  $M_1(x_1, y_1)$ ,  $M_2(x_2, y_2)$  and  $M_3(x_3, y_3)$ , there exists a unique circle passing through them.

Suppose that the circle determined by  $M_1(x_1, y_1)$ ,  $M_2(x_2, y_2)$  and  $M_3(x_3, y_3)$  has the general equation

$$x^2 + y^2 - 2ax - 2by + c = 0,$$

with  $a^2 + b^2 - c = 0$ . Since the three points are on the circle, one obtains the system of equations (with variables  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ )

$$\begin{cases} x^2 + y^2 - 2ax - 2by + c = 0 \\ x_1^2 + y_1^2 - 2ax_1 - 2by_1 + c = 0 \\ x_2^2 + y_2^2 - 2ax_2 - 2by_2 + c = 0 \\ x_3^2 + y_3^2 - 2ax_3 - 2by_3 + c = 0 \end{cases},$$

which has to be compatible, so that

$$\begin{vmatrix} x^2 + y^2 & x & y & 1 \\ x_1^2 + y_1^2 & x_1 & y_1 & 1 \\ x_2^2 + y_2^2 & x_2 & y_2 & 1 \\ x_3^2 + y_3^2 & x_3 & y_3 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 0. \quad (4)$$

The equation (4) is the equation of the circle determined by three points. It follows immediately that four points  $M_i(x_i, y_i)$ ,  $i = \overline{1, 4}$ , belong to a circle if and only if

$$\begin{vmatrix} x_1^2 + y_1^2 & x_1 & y_1 & 1 \\ x_2^2 + y_2^2 & x_2 & y_2 & 1 \\ x_3^2 + y_3^2 & x_3 & y_3 & 1 \\ x_4^2 + y_4^2 & x_4 & y_4 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 0. \quad (5)$$

# Intersection of a Circle and a Line

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a circle and  $d$  be a line on  $\mathcal{E}_2$ . One may choose a system of coordinates having the center at the center of the circle, so that the equation of  $\mathcal{C}$  is  $x^2 + y^2 - R^2 = 0$ . Let  $d : y = mx + n$ .

The intersection between  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $d$  is given by the solutions of the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} x^2 + y^2 - R^2 = 0 \\ y = mx + n \end{cases}.$$

By substituting  $y$  in the equation of the circle, one obtains

$$(1 + m^2)x^2 + 2mnx + n^2 - R^2 = 0.$$

The discriminant of this second degree equation is

$$\Delta = 4(R^2 + m^2 R^2 - n^2).$$

- If  $R^2 + m^2 R^2 - n^2 < 0$ , then there are no intersection points between  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $d$ . The line is *exterior* to the circle;



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- If  $R^2 + m^2 R^2 - n^2 = 0$ , then there is a double point (a *tangency* point) between  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $d$ . The line is *tangent* to the circle. The coordinates of the tangency point are  $\left(-\frac{mn}{1+m^2}, \frac{n}{1+m^2}\right)$ ;

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- If  $R^2 + m^2 R^2 - n^2 > 0$ , then there are two intersection points between  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $d$ . The line is *secant* to the circle. If  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are the roots of the above equation, then the intersection points between  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $d$  are  $P_1(x_1, mx_1 + n)$  and  $P_2(x_2, mx_2 + n)$ .

# The tangent of slope $m$ to a given circle

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be the circle of equation  $x^2 + y^2 - R^2 = 0$  and  $m \in \mathbb{R}$  a given real number. There are two lines, having the angular coefficient  $m$ , and which are tangent to  $\mathcal{C}$ .

We saw, in the previous paragraph, that a line  $d : y = mx + n$  is tangent to  $\mathcal{C}$  if and only if  $R^2 + m^2 R^2 - n^2 = 0$ . Then, the equations of the two tangent lines of direction  $m$  are

$$y = mx \pm R\sqrt{1 + m^2}. \quad (6)$$

# The tangent to a circle at a point of the circle

Let  $\mathcal{C} : x^2 + y^2 - r^2 = 0$  be a circle and  $P_0(x_0, y_0)$  be a point on  $\mathcal{C}$ .

The tangent at  $P_0$  to  $\mathcal{C}$  is a line from the bundle of lines  $y - y_0 = m(x - x_0)$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{R}$ , having the vertex  $P$ .

On the other hand, the tangent has to be of the form (6):  
 $y = mx \pm R\sqrt{1 + m^2}$ . Then, the angular coefficient  $m$  must verify

$$\begin{cases} y - y_0 = m(x - x_0) \\ y = mx \pm R\sqrt{1 + m^2} \end{cases} ,$$

hence

$$(y_0 - mx_0)^2 = R^2(1 + m^2).$$

But  $x_0^2 + y_0^2 = R^2$  (since  $P_0 \in \mathcal{C}$ ) and one obtains  $(mx_0 - y_0)^2 = 0$ .

Therefore  $m = -\frac{x_0}{y_0}$  (one may suppose that  $y_0 \neq 0$ ; otherwise, one gets the tangent at the point  $(R, 0)$ , which is of equation  $x = R$ ). Replacing  $m$  in the equation of the bundle, one obtains

$$y - y_0 = -\frac{x_0}{y_0},$$

or

$$x_0x + y_0y - (x_0^2 + y_0^2) = 0.$$

Again,  $x_0^2 + y_0^2 = R^2$ , and the equation of the tangent line to  $\mathcal{C}$  at the point  $P_0 \in \mathcal{C}$  is

$$x_0x + y_0y - R^2 = 0. \tag{7}$$

*Remark:* The equation of the line  $OP_0$  is  $y = \frac{y_0}{x_0}x$ . Then, the product of the angular coefficients of  $OP_0$  and of the tangent at  $P_0$  is  $-1$ , meaning that the tangent at a point to a circle is orthogonal on the radius which corresponds to the point.

# Intersection of Two Circles

Given two circles,

$$C_1 : x^2 + y^2 - 2a_1x - 2b_1y + c_1 = 0$$

and

$$C_2 : x^2 + y^2 - 2a_2x - 2b_2y + c_2 = 0,$$

the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} x^2 + y^2 - 2a_1x - 2b_1y + c_1 = 0 \\ x^2 + y^2 - 2a_2x - 2b_2y + c_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

gives informations about the intersection of the two circles.

The previous system is equivalent to

$$\begin{cases} x^2 + y^2 - 2a_1x - 2b_1y + c_1 = 0 \\ 2(a_2 - a_1)x + 2(b_2 - b_1)y - (c_2 - c_1) = 0 \end{cases}$$

which will give rise to a second degree equation, of discriminant  $\Delta$ .



- If  $\Delta > 0$ , then  $\mathcal{C}_1$  and  $\mathcal{C}_2$  are *secant* (they have two intersection points);
- If  $\Delta = 0$ , then  $\mathcal{C}_1$  and  $\mathcal{C}_2$  are *tangent* (they have one *tangency* point);
- If  $\Delta < 0$ , then  $\mathcal{C}_1$  and  $\mathcal{C}_2$  have no intersection points.

# Plane isometries

A map  $f : \mathcal{E}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_2$  is said to be an *isometry* of the plane  $\mathcal{E}_2$  if  $f$  conserves the distances, i.e.

$$|f(A)f(B)| = |AB|, \quad \forall A, B \in \mathcal{E}_2.$$

(One denotes  $|AB| = d_2(A, B)$ ).

We briefly list a few properties of isometries. These are all proved in Chapter 4 of our textbook.

- 1) The image of a segment through an isometry is a segment.
- 2) The image of a half-line is a half-line;
- 3) The image of a line is a line;
- 4) If  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are three noncollinear points on  $\mathcal{E}_2$ , then so are their images  $f(A)$ ,  $f(B)$  and  $f(C)$ ;
- 5) The image of a triangle  $\triangle ABC$  is triangle  $\triangle f(A)f(B)f(C)$ , such that

$$\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle f(A)f(B)f(C);$$

- 6) The image of an angle  $\widehat{AOB}$  is an angle  $f(A)\widehat{f(O)}f(B)$  having the same measure;
- 7) Two orthogonal lines are transformed into two orthogonal lines;
- 8) Two parallel lines are transformed into two parallel lines.
- 9) Any isometry  $f : \mathcal{E}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_2$  is surjective.

Denote the set of isometries of the plane by  $\text{Iso}(\mathcal{E}_2)$ ;

$$\text{Iso}(\mathcal{E}_2) = \{f : \mathcal{E}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_2, f \text{ isometry}\}.$$

### Theorem

$(\text{Iso}(\mathcal{E}_2), \circ)$  is a group, called the group of isometries of the plane.

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### Theorem

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- A point  $A \in \mathcal{E}_2$  is a *fixed point* for the isometry  $f$  if  $f(A) = A$ ;
- A line  $d \in \mathcal{E}_2$  is said to be *invariant* with respect to  $f$  if  $f(d) = d$  (obviously, a line whose points are all fixed is invariant, while the converse is not necessarily true).

## Examples. Symmetries (reflections)

Let  $d$  be a line in  $\mathcal{E}_2$ . The map  $s_d : \mathcal{E}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_2$ , given by

$s_d(P) = P'$ , where  $P'$  is the symmetrical of  $P$  with respect to the line  $d$ ,

is called *axial symmetry*. The line  $d$  is the *axis* of the symmetry.

Let be given a point  $O$  in the plane. The map  $s_O : \mathcal{E}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_2$ , given by  $s_O(P) = P'$ , where  $P'$  is the symmetrical of  $P$  with respect to the point  $O$ , is called *central symmetry*. The point  $O$  is the *center* of the symmetry.

## Another example. Translations

Let  $\bar{v}$  be a vector in  $V_2$ . The map  $t_{\bar{v}} : \mathcal{E}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_2$ , given by

$$t_{\bar{v}}(M) = M', \quad \text{where } \overline{MM'} = \bar{v},$$

is called *translation* of vector  $\bar{v}$ .



# Rotations

An angle  $\widehat{AOB}$  is said to be *oriented* if the pair of half-lines  $\{[OA, [OB\}$  is ordered. The angle  $\widehat{AOB}$  is *positively oriented* if  $[OA$  gets over  $[OB$  counterclockwisely. Otherwise,  $\widehat{AOB}$  is *negatively oriented*. If the measure of the *nonoriented* angle  $\widehat{AOB}$  is  $\theta$ , then the measure of the oriented angle  $\widehat{AOB}$  is either  $\theta$ , or  $-\theta$ , depending on the orientation of  $\widehat{AOB}$ .

Let  $O \in \mathcal{E}_2$  be a point and  $\theta \in [-2\pi, 2\pi]$  be a number. The map  $r_{O,\theta} : \mathcal{E}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{E}_2$ , given by

$$r_{O,\theta}(M) = M', \quad \text{where} \quad \begin{cases} |OM| = |OM'| \\ m(\widehat{MOM'}) = \theta \end{cases},$$

is called *rotation* of center  $O$  and oriented angle  $\theta$ .

# Analytic form of isometries

## Theorem

Let  $P(x_0, y_0)$  be the center of the central symmetry  $s_P$ . The map  $s_P$  can be expressed as

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \mapsto -I_2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2x_0 \\ 2y_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Proof.

Let  $M(x, y)$  be an arbitrary point on  $\mathcal{E}_2$  and  $M' = s_P(M)$  its symmetrical with respect to  $P$ ,  $M' = (x', y')$ .

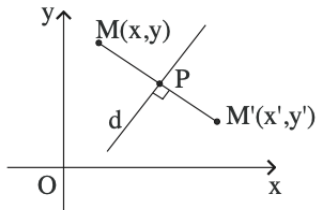
Since  $P$  is the midpoint of the segment  $[MM']$ , then  $x_0 = \frac{x + x'}{2}$  and  $y_0 = \frac{y + y'}{2}$ , and the conclusion follows. □

Let us now see the analytic form of an axial symmetry.

### Theorem

Let  $d : ax + by + c = 0$ ,  $a^2 + b^2 > 0$ , be a line in  $\mathcal{E}_2$ . The axial symmetry  $s_d$  can be expressed as

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \frac{b^2 - a^2}{a^2 + b^2} & -\frac{2ab}{a^2 + b^2} \\ -\frac{2ab}{a^2 + b^2} & \frac{b^2 - a^2}{a^2 + b^2} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{2ac}{a^2 + b^2} \\ -\frac{2bc}{a^2 + b^2} \end{pmatrix}.$$



## Proof.

- One may suppose that  $b \neq 0$ .
- Let  $M(x, y)$  be an arbitrary point and  $M' = s_d(M)$ ,  $M'(x', y')$ .
- The points  $M$  and  $M'$  are symmetric with respect to  $d$  if and only if the line passing through  $M$  and  $M'$  is orthogonal on  $d$  and the midpoint  $P$  of the segment  $[MM']$  belongs to  $d$ .
- The equation of the line determined by  $M$  and  $M'$  is  $\frac{X - x}{x' - x} = \frac{Y - y}{y' - y}$ .  
The orthogonality condition gives  $a(y' - y) = b(x' - x)$ .
- The midpoint of  $[MM']$  is a point of  $d$  if and only if

$$a \left( \frac{x + x'}{2} \right) + b \left( \frac{y + y'}{2} \right) + c = 0.$$



## Continuation of the proof.

Then, the coordinates  $(x', y')$  of  $M'$  are the solution of the system of equation

$$\begin{cases} ax' + by' = -(ax + by + 2c) \\ bx' - ay' = bx - ay \end{cases}$$

and one obtains

$$\begin{cases} x' = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{a^2 + b^2}x - \frac{2ab}{a^2 + b^2}y - \frac{2ac}{a^2 + b^2} \\ y' = -\frac{2ab}{a^2 + b^2}x + \frac{b^2 - a^2}{a^2 + b^2}y - \frac{2bc}{a^2 + b^2} \end{cases}.$$

In vector form, this can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{b^2 - a^2}{a^2 + b^2} & -\frac{2ab}{a^2 + b^2} \\ -\frac{2ab}{a^2 + b^2} & \frac{b^2 - a^2}{a^2 + b^2} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{2ac}{a^2 + b^2} \\ -\frac{2bc}{a^2 + b^2} \end{pmatrix}.$$



## A few remarks

- If the line  $d$  passes through the origin  $O$ , then  $c = 0$  and the coordinates of  $M'$  become

$$\begin{cases} x' = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{a^2 + b^2}x - \frac{2ab}{a^2 + b^2}y \\ y' = -\frac{2ab}{a^2 + b^2}x - \frac{b^2 - a^2}{a^2 + b^2}y \end{cases} . \quad (8)$$

- If the line  $d$  is parallel to  $Ox$ , then  $a = 0$  and the coordinates of  $M'$  become

$$\begin{cases} x' = x \\ y' = -y - \frac{2c}{b} \end{cases} . \quad (9)$$

- If the line  $d$  is parallel to  $Oy$ , then  $b = 0$  and the coordinates of  $M'$  become

$$\begin{cases} x' = -x - \frac{2c}{a} \\ y' = y \end{cases} . \quad (10)$$

# Translations

Let  $\bar{v}(x_0, y_0)$  be a vector. The translation  $t_{\bar{v}}$  of vector  $\bar{v}$  can be expressed as

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix}.$$



## Theorem

*If  $f$  is an arbitrary isometry of  $\mathcal{E}_2$ , then its analytic form is given by*

$$f \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & -\epsilon b \\ b & \epsilon a \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{pmatrix},$$

*where  $a^2 + b^2 = 1$  and  $\epsilon = \pm 1$ .*

The problem set for this week is already posted. Ideally you would think about some of them before the seminar.

Thank you very much for your attention!