Points in \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3

Ryan C. Daileda



Trinity University

Calculus III

In Calculus I and II one studies "smooth" (continuous, differentiable, etc.) functions of a single (real) variable.

In Calculus III we will study (smooth) functions of several (real) variables.

We may regard the inputs/outputs of such functions as points in multidimensional Euclidean space.

We will therefore begin our course with a discussion of the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n .

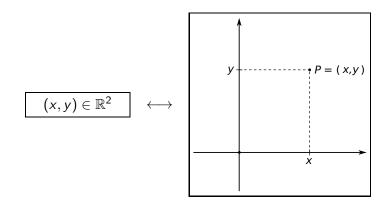
 $\underline{\mathbb{R}}$: One-dimensional (Euclidean) space

- Analytically: the set of all real numbers
- Geometrically: the real line

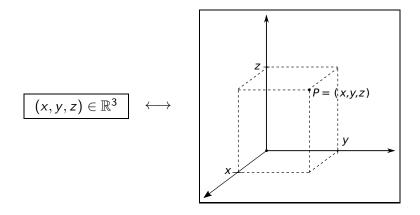
$$x \in \mathbb{R}$$
 \longleftrightarrow 0 x

The numerical value of x gives its position on the line (relative to 0).

- \mathbb{R}^2 : Two-dimensional (Euclidean) space
 - Analytically: {(x, y) | x, y ∈ ℝ}, the set of all ordered pairs of real numbers
 - Geometrically: points in a plane



- \mathbb{R}^3 : Three-dimensional (Euclidean) space
 - Analytically: {(x, y, z) | x, y, z ∈ ℝ}, the set of all ordered triples of real numbers
 - Geometrically: points in space



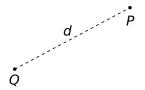
- (Coordinate) Axes: The x, y and z-axes.
- **Origin:** Where the axes intersect, (0,0,0).
- **Coordinate Planes:** Planes formed by pairs of axes. Called the *xy*, *yz* and *xz*-planes.
- Octants: The 8 regions of space cut off by the coordinate planes.

- The arrangement of axes we are using is called *right-handed*.
- Note that the x and y-axes have the same relative orientation (when viewed from "above") as they do in ℝ².
- We will therefore frequently identify \mathbb{R}^2 with the *xy*-plane in \mathbb{R}^3 .
- The octants have a standard numbering that we will almost never use. The first octant is shown in the diagram above.
- Negative coordinates occur in the various other octants, "behind" or "below" the coordinate planes.

 \mathbb{R}^{n} : *n*-dimensional (Euclidean) space

- Analytically: $\{(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) | x_i \in \mathbb{R} \text{ for all } i\}$, the set of all *n*-tuples of real numbers
- Geometrically: difficult to visualize
- When *n* is small, we usually avoid subscripts and just use extra variables, e.g. $(x, y, z, t) \in \mathbb{R}^4$.
- We will primarily be interested in n = 2, 3, but may encounter higher dimensions on occasion.

The geometric concept of distance in Euclidean spaces has a straightforward analytic description.



 $\underline{\mathbb{R}^2}$: If $P = (x_1, y_1)$ and $Q = (x_2, y_2)$ are points in \mathbb{R}^2 , the distance between them is

$$d(P,Q) = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2}.$$

 \mathbb{R}^3 : If $P = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $Q = (x_2, y_2, z_2)$ are points in \mathbb{R}^3 , the distance between them is

$$d(P,Q) = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2}.$$

Remarks.

- These formulae follow easily from the Pythagorean theorem.
- Distance in \mathbb{R} fits this pattern as well. If $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$d(x_1, x_2) = |x_1 - x_2| = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2}.$$

By analogy, the distance from $P = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ to $Q = (y_1, y_2, ..., y_n)$ in \mathbb{R}^n is defined to be

$$d(P,Q) = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2 + \cdots + (x_n - y_n)^2}$$

If $n \ge 4$, then *n*-dimensional distance cannot be visualized.

Nonetheless it obeys the "standard" properties of distance, such as the *triangle inequality*,

$$d(P,Q) \leq d(P,R) + d(R,Q).$$

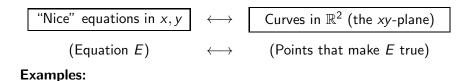
 Distances are not always "simple" numbers and frequently involve radicals.

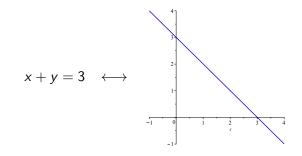
• For example, the distance from P = (1, 2, 3) to Q = (-3, 1, 0) is

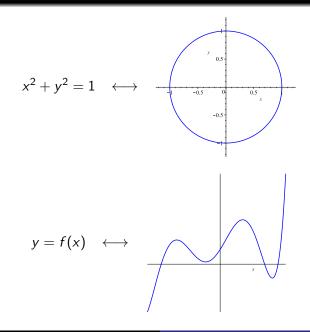
$$d(P,Q) = \sqrt{(1-(-3))^2 + (2-1)^2 + (3-0)^2}$$
$$= \sqrt{16+1+9} = \sqrt{26}.$$

Although a calculator reports that √26 = 5.0990 (to four decimal places), the *exact* distance is the symbolic expression √26. The decimal expression 5.0990 is only an *approximation*.

Roughly speaking we know that:







In the same way we have a three-dimensional correspondence

"Nice" equations in $x, y, z \quad \longleftrightarrow$ Surfaces in \mathbb{R}^3 (xyz-space)

Examples: Consider the following equations in x, y, z and describe their corresponding surfaces in \mathbb{R}^3 .

- $z = 0 \leftrightarrow xy$ -plane
- $y = 0 \leftrightarrow xz$ -plane
- $x = 0 \leftrightarrow yz$ -plane
- $z = -1 \leftrightarrow xy$ -plane shifted "down" one unit

• $x^2 + y^2 = 1 \leftrightarrow$ unit cylinder around *z*-axis

•
$$d(P,(x,y,z)) = r \longleftrightarrow$$
 sphere of radius r , centered
at $P = (a, b, c)$

We can make the last example more explicit using the distance formula:

$$d(P, (x, y, z)) = r \Leftrightarrow \sqrt{(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 + (z - c)^2} = r$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \underbrace{(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 + (z - c)^2}_{\text{sphere, radius } r, \text{ center } (a, b, c)}$$

Example: Find an equation for the sphere centered at P = (1, 2, 3) that passes through Q = (3, 5, -3).

Solution: Because Q is on the sphere, the radius must be

$$r = d(P, Q) = \sqrt{(1-3)^2 + (2-5)^2 + (3-(-3))^2}$$

= $\sqrt{49} = 7$.

Since P is the center, the equation must therefore be

$$(x-1)^2 + (y-2)^2 + (z-3)^2 = 49$$

Example: Determine the surface represented by the equation

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

Solution: We group terms with common variables and complete the squares:

$$(x2 + 4x) + (y2 - 2y) + (z2 + 2z) + 1 = 0$$
$$(x + 2)2 - 4 + (y - 1)2 - 1 + (z + 1)2 - 1 + 1 = 0$$

Now collect all the constants on the RHS:

$$(x+2)^2 + (y-1)^2 + (z+1)^2 = 5.$$

This is an equation for the sphere centered at (-2, 1, -1) with radius $\sqrt{5}$.